Academic Staff Perceptions of the Management of Decision-Making Processes in the Education Faculties of King Saud University and the University of Leeds: A Comparative Analysis

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The candidate confirms that the work has been submitted on his own and that appropriate credit has been given wherever reference has been made to the work of others.

Abstract

Decision-making in higher educational institutions is critical for achieving the universal goals of these institutions, particularly in terms of teaching and research related decisions. Decision-making affects the strategic plans and goals of universities in relation to designing modules, choosing teaching methods and participating in research grant applications, and more.

Surveying literature indicates that few empirical studies have been conducted on the level of participation of academic staff in the various types of decision-making, which compares the participation of two universities from two different cultures. For this reason, this study aims at bridging the gap in knowledge in this area of research by studying the participation of academic staff in teaching, research, financial issues and administrative decision-making in the Faculty of Education at King Saud University and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. A triangulation approach is used which combines quantitative and qualitative research methods, documentary analysis and observations. 96 questionnaires were analysed from two universities and 18 in-depth interviews were conducted. The analysis focuses on similarities and differences between the actual and desired levels of participation in decision-making by the academic staff at both the aforementioned universities, with particular focus on cultural traces.

This study finds that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to actively participate in teaching, research, financial issues and administration related decision-making. Conversely, the academic staff of King Saud University desire to be more involved in all areas of decision-making.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The issue of participation in decision-making has become a significant topic since the management of higher education has been discussed. With the introduction of management issues and techniques into the higher education industry, the discussion of decision-making has emerged. There has been a considerable amount of literature produced on the issue of academics and decision-making participation, yet not much of this addresses the issue in the Arab world, or brings the discussion to a cultural comparative level. This study focuses on the issue of academics' participation in decision-making at two different higher education institutions in two different countries. The aim of this study is to investigate issues regarding academics' participation in decision-making in two different cultures. There is an urgent need for more research in this area combining different cultures.

The introduction chapter begins with general introductory discussions as set out below, and then presents the significance of the research in the area of decision-making. It then sheds light on the issue and significance of comparatively similar research. Following this, it sets out the purpose of the research. The research objectives and questions are also discussed. The chapter ends with a summary and an outline of the study in order to provide the reader with an idea of the structure of the study and its contents.

The role that decision-making has in the management of universities cannot be understated. Major decisions, strategic plans, and faculty and student welfare require constant deliberation and policy-making where decisions are usually called for. University policies and regulations emphasise the participation of academic staff in the decision-making process in their faculty or department. Such emphasis acts in accordance with the Joint ILO/UNESCO Recommendations, concerned with the teaching personnel, which identify the participation of different types of academic decisions made by higher educational institutions. In addition, decision-making in higher educational institutions is considered as one of the main issues that should be taken into account when the relationship between self-governance and academic

decision-making, and collective bargaining structures and processes are addressed (Vere, 2007).

Unfortunately, theories on how strongly academic staff desire to participate in institutional decision-making are not readily found in the context of higher education. Therefore, it would be helpful to take the Human Relations Movement (HRM) theory of the 1930s-1940s and adapt it to the higher education context. HRM theorists such as Argyris, McGregor, Herzberg, Likert, and Ouchi introduced participatory decision-making (PDM), which leads to more effective organisation and higher staff morale. For example, Frederick Herzberg (1987) assures that intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, and responsibility are what actually motivate workers, and not extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions, and job security. Similarly, Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation indicated that people require self-actualisation. Furthermore, "the Japanese style of management views collective decision-making and egalitarianism as vital ingredients in everyday operations". Similarly to managers of the business world, educational institutions are required to follow participative approaches that allow employees from different positions to participate in decision-making and take ownership of institutional decision-making (Wortheim, 2002).

On the other hand, some theorists disagree with the same. Opponents to participatory decision-making models, such as Victor Vroom (1973), Tannebaum and Schmidt (1957), Hersey and Blanchard (1972), and Fiedler (1967) suggest a conditional style of management. According to these models, subordinate participation could be used in some situations. They imply that factors, such as employee maturity, skill level, willingness to be involved, leader personality, and the type of problem should be taken into account by managers while using PDM techniques (Wortheim 2002).

Academic staff participation is not always realised. For example, some institutions and faculties are limited to making decisions on areas that are concerned with actual teaching and instruction, and not with the governance (Askling, 2000). Academic staff have tried to seek representation on decision-making structures, regarding such issues as faculty tenure and promotion, curriculum development, faculty benefits and compensation (Lapworth, 2004). It has also been found that there is a gap between the desired and actual involvement of academic faculties in the decision-making processes of their departments (Emery & Brien, 1984). Giving academic staff the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process

has bridged the gap between administrators and academic staff in the way that decision-making is carried out (Winter 2009).

Garvin and Roberto (2001) have identified two models of decision-making, the advocacy approach and the inquiry approach. They suggested that the inquiry approach is more effective as it allows more collaboration, and the final decision reached is the one which the whole group can be considered to have contributed towards. This argument seems useful; nonetheless, it is argued against the point that authors (Garvin & Roberto, 2001) have not addressed the issue of decision-making empirically. My study has bridged this gap by investigating a range of models of participation in decision-making empirically using real world data from two higher educational institutions. In addition, it compares perceptions of the decision-making process of the Education faculties of King Saud University and Leeds University. Although both universities are institutions of higher education and have had a long history of academic contribution and excellence, these universities are different in the sense that they cater to different students, have different faculty training and different organisational cultures.

The goal of the present study is to determine differences and similarities in the process of decision-making of two different universities, one in the United Kingdom and other in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The comparison is expected to bring to light cultural differences, practices and perceptions that few studies have attempted to explore. The interest in studying and comparing the decision-making process in these two universities had been borne from the growing awareness that dynamics in decision-making processes are influenced by a number of factors such as culture, member roles, group affiliation, communication patterns and even leadership styles.

The importance of my research is derived from the fact that there are not many comparative studies in this field. To my knowledge, this study will be the first research that compares academic staff participation in institutional decision-making between two universities that belong to different political, cultural, economic, and social environments; one in the United Kingdom and other in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The significance of decision making research and my study are further highlighted in the following section after discussing my personal interest in this topic. Later, the chapter sheds light on the importance and significance of comparative research, as this is a comparative study. The purposes of the

study are then presented and discussed. The chapter later presents the research objectives and concludes with the research questions.

My interest in this topic stems from two main sources. The first is personal. I am a young researcher from King Saud University in Saudi Arabia. I believe that the issue of decision-making in higher education is a very important issue, as it reflects on organisational effectiveness and efficiency. In my experience I have found that there are major differences between the Saudi and British contexts, and I therefore wanted to learn and reflect on both. Without doubt, the British culture has more experience in managing higher education, and this would definitely provide progressive ideas and suggestions to my home university. Being a member of academic staff at the Faculty of Education at King Saud University and also a current PhD student at the School of Education at the University of Leeds has made it possible for me to carry out my research at these two institutions. The second source of interest in this particular topic is professional. During my experience of working as a teacher at the King Saud University, I noticed some points related to decision-making and involvement of academic staff. I believe that such issues could be improved and developed, and this led me to explore this particular issue. Being a teacher at King Saud University might bring up some concerns regarding researcher bias; nonetheless I paid much attention not to fall into this kind of bias; more discussion on this issue is presented in the section of ethics in Chapter Three, Methodology.

1.2 The Significance of Decision-Making Research

The significance of research in decision-making in higher education stems from several points. First of all, the role of higher education has come under close scrutiny over the years as governments have taken much interest in the way that universities are being managed and in the ways that their funding has been allocated (Fleming, 1997). Universities had long held the tradition of being removed from the encumbrances of government regulations as they had been granted autonomy in their management and administration (Kogan, 2000). However, this is currently changing in the sense that universities are being threatened by new corporate and management structures (Eckel, 2000). Higher education institutions did not worry about building and cultivating a marketing image in the past. Their courses and graduates had done that for them. Now, in order to increase admissions and attract the best students, universities

must resort to corporate strategies, such as offering incentives, offering non-traditional courses and investing in advertisements (Kezar & Eckel, 2004).

Secondly, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and other countries in the Gulf region, the expansion of higher education has also reflected the shift from traditional government funded universities to being founded and financed by private institutions, quasi-private agencies and other organisations (Mazawi & Sultana, 2009). In response to the changing global market and repositioning of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the international environment, the Kingdom has implemented a fast-track plan in building and opening new universities that will train and attract foreign specialists and students in the field of science and technology. Since the development of Western organisations and institutions, most universities' structure and management have also become managerial (Krieger, 2007).

Thirdly, shifts between decision-making models and governance have brought about significance in researching this area. Changes in the governing policies of higher education across the globe have led to two common types of governance: collegial and managerial governance. Collegiality traces its history in the medieval era of universities in Europe. Collegiality refers to the set of practices and policies in which academic staff participate in the decision-making process concerning the operations of the university (Vere, 2007). Collegiality results from mutual respect and honesty among the academic staff of the university. At the same time, collegiality stems from the belief that decision-making in universities should come from the academics that are in the best position to know what academic programs and policies should be implemented at the university (Bush, 1997). UNESCO (2004) recommends that collegiality should be the norm in the university in terms of institutional autonomy. UNESCO states that collegial decision-making should be the norm in universities and colleges; decisions on administration and determination of policies of higher education curricula, research, extension work and allocation of resources should be given to academic faculties and departments to develop and improve academic excellence. However, over the past decade or so, there has been a shift towards managerial governance in higher education institutions (Shattock, 2002).

In the late 1990's, corporate governance was applied to educational settings, especially in higher education, in countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States (Vesna, 2002). The managerial form of governance involved the use of

rational business models of decision-making, which were then applied to the organisational set-up of universities. With the managerial model, emphasis on strategic management and leadership roles was increased, while collective decision-making decreased. In this model, the decision-making process takes a hierarchical form where a small group of individuals at the top make decisions on issues related to the management and improvement of the university whether it is on funding, course offerings or research projects (Van Tilburg, 2002). The managerial model has been viewed by its proponents as more efficient and effective than the old collegial bodies.

On the other hand, decision-making in some higher education institutions has remained participatory and collaborative, especially, when there is a faculty union, as in most American universities (Levin, 2006). With the presence of a faculty union, management is dictated by law to engage in a bargaining agreement with the union, especially on matters such as faculty benefits, salaries, and tenure. Still, there are institutions that have resisted the managerial model and have enhanced the collegial model to better fit challenges of the present competitive environment in higher education (Tilley, 1998). Decision-making is still the responsibility of the concerned academic faculties and departments where a number of committees and governing bodies become administrators of the department and school, such as faculty senates, committee chairs and deans (Tapper & Palfreyman, 1998).

Decision-making in universities and colleges has now taken a more bureaucratic structure and has become even more managerial than ever before (Kezar & Eckel, 2004). With increased pressure to expand accountability issues and maintain competitive advantages in terms of student admission rates, universities and colleges are now becoming more corporate than they are educational institutions (*ibid*). This has also led to a decrease in the participation of academic staff in the decision-making process (Norman, Ambrose & Huston, 2006). In their place, external players such as the board of directors, inspectors and accreditation bodies have become more involved in the development of programs and policies regarding the functions and management of universities.

However, there has been an observed difference in the management of small colleges from larger universities. For one, smaller colleges are instilled with a sense of community, which gives an almost a familial atmosphere to the college's culture, and decision-making has been found to be more participatory (McNay, 2002). Moreover, there has been a clamour for the

return to the shared-governance model of the past from the modern corporate governance of the present. It has been argued that although universities and colleges now exist in a corporate environment, it is the academic faculties who can only exploit resources that universities and colleges depend on. Thus, going back to shared governance where academic faculties are involved in the decision-making process becomes imperative (Lapworth, 2004).

In the past, academic faculties had enjoyed supreme academic authority in the sense that academic staff controlled all decisions that pertained to the running of the institution from available courses offered, grading systems, admission and selection of students and honours programmes (Kezar, 2005). This set-up persisted for a long time until the government scrutinised more and insisted that universities should be opened and regulated by external bodies. This has led to the decline of the authority of academic staff in governance and decision-making, in their departments and universities (Levin, 2006).

Finally, the argument presented above of a shift in governance and decision making styles in educational institutions raises the issue of the importance of researching this area in order to identify the current styles of the two institutions in these two different countries. It is instantly noticed that all literature and research in this area is focused on Western civilisations. There is very little evidence or literature on decision making and governance styles in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Arab or the Islamic worlds. This issue offers this study a major source of originality.

1.3 The Significance of Comparative Study

The comparative aspect of this study is a major source of originality and significance. The choice to present a comparative study was influenced by several issues. A comparative study is a systematic way to highlight motives and features of parameters of the given cases (Hantrais, 2009). This approach was used due to the difficulty of analysing and understanding this state-of-the-art topic of interest in relation to each case individually (Charles 1987). Therefore, it can be seen as more beneficial to consider an existing alternative and existing case to develop a better and broader understanding of the topic of interest. A comparative study also provides further scientific materials from the boundaries of two cases for identifying the key issues to be considered as parameters of interest for the target audiences. These issues may include cultural and social differences in reference to the studied cases (i.e.,

the demographic variables), standard practices and regulations, quality assurance and audits, leader-follower relationships, planning and decision-making processes within the two environments, to name but a few (Brislin 1986).

This study addresses the fact that finding similarities and differences in the decision-making process of the two universities is a challenge because it might unnecessarily influence the direction of the comparisons that were carried out in this study. In order to avoid such biases, this study uses an exhaustive data gathering method that covers a wide variety of data sources from interviews, questionnaires, direct observation and document research, therefore, eliminating the tendency to focus on the trivial.

From a professional standpoint, this study is expected to bring about some instrumental benefit as results might provide an aid in which to identify what form or style of the decision-making process could bring about better results, which could then help with the formation of a decision-making model in order to increase cooperation and collaboration. In other words, results might be of benefit to those in charge at these universities in the development of their governance and decision making styles, as one institution could learn from the other.

Having pointed out these issues, the comparative study can then help to produce a systematic topology and classification of the topic of interest. This can also help in the development of framework(s) for a better understanding of processes within each of the given environments, and even according to the stakeholders of each case. International comparisons make researchers aware of possible cultural bias. Hantrais (2009) said that comparative research relies on concepts of equivalence or correspondence, which enrich the field of study, such as in the case of cultural equivalence, wherein, the phenomena are observed or judged in the same way in different cultures.

Surveying the literature showed that there has not been any study that has investigated two different cultures, such as those addressed in this study. The majority of studies have tackled the issue of decision-making in higher educational institutions from theoretical perspectives, which basically translated the Western theories into Arabic (i.e., Alkabisi 1975, Adwri 1979, and Fadhelallah 1983). Translating Western theories into Arabic does not allow researchers to look for originality in their studies. Nevertheless, Berger (1956) suggested that researchers need to compare cultures. Berger (1956) states:

> When we try to compare bureaucratic and professional predisposition in the East and the West, we find that there may be differences of attitudes and behaviour in spite of the similarity in structure. As other realms, similarity in structure and form, often the result of culture diffusion, does not mean similarity of institutional or behaviour patterns.

It can be concluded from Berger's statement that researchers have to look at the local culture of every nation or country. This is a very important aspect due to differences in the contextual factors. For this reason, this study investigates both British and Saudi cultures. About thirty years ago, Alawy (1980) addressed the issue of comparing Arabic and Western cultures in relation to higher education institutions. The author recommended conducting a comparative study on Arabic and Western universities. Alawy (1980) suggested that the bureaucratic system within Arabic universities is a barrier for the involvement of academic staff in decision-making. These findings might be very relevant to the study; nonetheless, they are outdated.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to gain a deeper understanding of, and insight into, the complexity of the decision-making process in the education faculties of both the University of Leeds and King Saud University, and how this is perceived by the academic staff of both departments. In doing so, the intention is to identify specific factors that influence and shape the decision-making of education faculties, how decisions are reached, and the cultural differences that are present in this process.

The results of this study are expected to reflect on literature and theory. This study is also expected to help in establishing a decision-making model that can be used in higher education and, which can be used as a basis for further studies and theory building. Moreover, higher education governance and decision-making in the context of Saudi Arabia has not been studied, and therefore this study would provide a basis to higher-education institutions in the Kingdom for further organisational development. This study also intends to reflect on practice. Sharing and comparing results of both institutions might help them in developing their practices relating to decision making.

1.5 Research Objectives

The present study aims to compare and understand how academic members of staff perceive the management of decision-making processes in the education faculties of King Saud University and the University of Leeds. Specifically, this study is underpinned by three objectives. Firstly, it aims to gain an in-depth understanding of decision-making policy and practice in the Education Faculty of King Saud University and the School of Education, University of Leeds. Secondly, it assesses the influence of culture and values regarding academic staff decision-making in the two case study departments through comparative research. Finally, it assesses implications of the empirical research findings for changes to organisational practice that will: (a) enhance staff job satisfaction through appropriate involvement in institution-wide and department decision-making; (b) lead to more effective decision-making policies and practices.

1.6 Research Questions

The research objectives presented above are underpinned by the following research questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the Education Faculty, King Saud University, and the School of Education, University of Leeds, in the policy and practice of academic staff decision making?
2. To what extent are members of academic staff of varying ranks and levels of responsibility involved in the decision making process in their departments at the two institutions?
3. To what extent do the perceptions of staff on their actual level of participation in decision making match their desired level of involvement in making decisions, and how might this be explained in terms of differences in the status and responsibility of respondents?
4. From a comparative perspective, to what extent can similarities and/or differences between the two institutions be explained in terms of contrast on organisational culture?
5. What are the Faculty / departmental change leadership and management implications for optimising staff involvement and quality of decision-making processes?

The first research question explores the underlying decision-making policies and practices based on an analysis of policy documents and the observation of departmental meetings. Answers to the remaining research questions are based on a survey of all academic staff in the two departments. A follow-up in-depth analysis involves a sample of in-depth semi-structured staff interviews with staff ranging from those with the most senior to those with the most junior position of responsibility. A comparative analysis is based on insights drawn from similarities and differences in organisational values and culture with implications for the leadership and management of change.

1.7 Outline and Summary of the Study

This introductory chapter has presented key issues relating to the significance of the study. The first section presented the significance of research in the decision-making of the faculty at different educational institutions. This has also reflected on the significance of this study. As the study is comparative in nature, comparing two organisations from two different contexts, it has been imperative to discuss issues relating to comparative research and its significance. The second section discussed the purpose of the research and the research objectives. The final part of the chapter presented the research questions. These questions are elaborated and discussed further in the third chapter on methodology.

Overall, the thesis is presented in eight chapters. This first chapter was introductory, shedding general light on the issue of investigating and attracting the readers' interest in this topic; it also set the research significance, purpose, objectives and questions. The second chapter reviews literature relating to decision making in general, as well as decision making in the context of higher education in general. This chapter is also aimed at establishing a conceptual framework for the research investigation. Chapter Three discusses issues relating to methodology and research design. This is followed by three chapters presenting findings. The first of these, Chapter Four presents preliminary and exploratory findings from documentary analysis and observations. Chapter Five presents the quantitative findings from the questionnaires. This chapter is extensive with statistical analysis and tables. Chapter Six presents the findings emerging from in-depth interviews with members of the faculty. The implications of the research findings are discussed in Chapter Seven. Finally, the study closes with a conclusion in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and a Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review the theory and empirical studies related to the decision-making processes in higher educational institutions, and to establish a conceptual framework for the study. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part starts by defining decision-making. It also provides some explanation about the basic related issues, for example, the types of organisational decisions. An overview of some essential concepts of general institutional decision-making is presented. It is significant to establish a clear and shared understanding of these basic concepts as they are used repeatedly in this study. Towards the end of the first part, the focus is on the literature regarding decision-making in higher education, highlighting what has been covered in earlier research. It also identifies strengths and limitations of this research. While reviewing the literature, three thematic areas of decision-making in higher education are highlighted: staff participation in decision-making, group decision-making, and the changing landscape of higher education. The second part of the chapter provides a suggested conceptual framework for investigation. The conceptual framework provides definitions and description of various attributes that have been discussed in the research. This comprises of attributes relating to organisational operational issues, such as decision making, change management, authority, bureaucracy, and more.

2.2 Decision-Making

This section discusses issues of decision-making in the general sense, not referring to the context of the study of higher education. The reason for this is justified by the fact that higher education institutions are organisations, and management and leadership theories designed for general business relate to those in higher education. This is a generic issue in the sense that higher educational institutions could be viewed as business organisations, and theories developed in general business could contribute and relate to educational institutions. Added to this is the fact that literature on organisational behaviour and decision-making in general business is more extensive, whereas, it is rather limited in the context of higher education (Thorne & Cuthbert, 1996).

2.2.1 Defining Decision-Making

Before embarking on the decision-making process, it is essential to establish a useful definition for the term. Reviewing the literature, a number of useful definitions have been found. Reason (1990), for example, defines it as the action of selecting from a list of options. This definition seems too narrow as it limits decision-making to an action rather than a process. Buchanan and Huczynski (2004, 754) define it as the process of making choices from several options. Although this definition describes decision-making as a process, it is still simplistic. Anwar *et al.* (2008) follow the same key ideas in their definition, that decision-making is the outcome of mental processes (cognitive processes) leading to the selection of a course of action among several alternatives.

According to Anwar *et al.* (2008), every time an individual undertakes the process of decision-making, the result is a final choice in the form of an action or an opinion. In the same manner, a choice can be optimal or sub-optimal. Decision-making and the psychological processes involved can be optimal or improvable. This means that the aim of the decision-making process is to reach what is perceived to be the best available option. It is noticeable how all these definitions stress the aspect of rationality in decision-making. The role of emotional factors, such as anxiety, stress, or fear, is heavily ignored. Robbins (2005, 44) highlights that it is too naive to assume that choices are not influenced by feelings. In this regard, decisions are not only made in work-related situations, people make many decisions in their daily lives, and since this study aims at investigating work-related, group, and organisational decision-making, a better definition should be reached.

Bratton *et al.* (2010, 409) suggest a definition that focuses on work-related decision-making. This idea is also based on the work of Mintzberg (1979), March (1997), and Millar *et al.* (1999). It says that decision-making is the conscious process of making choices among several alternatives with the intention of moving towards a desired course of action. This definition highlights three issues. Firstly, decision-making requires a choice of alternative options. Secondly, decision-making is a process that requires thinking; it is the evaluation between the available options and reaching the best one. Finally, it requires action, and that, in turn, requires commitment of resources. Schermerhorn *et al.* (1998, 243) define decision-making in a more practical manner highlighting five areas: recognising and defining a

problem or opportunity; identifying and analysing alternatives choosing a preferred course of action; implementing the preferred option; and finally evaluating results and taking corrective action as needed. This definition seems to exceed limits of decision-making to suggest evaluation and correction.

When talking about decision-making in organisations, much reference (e.g. Mintzberg, 1989, Robbins, 2005) has been made to top management. Nonetheless, Buchanan and Huczynski (2004, 753, 754) mention that decisions are made at all levels of the organisation, among managers and non-managers. Reviewing literature on decision-making, it has been noticed that there is a distinction between individual decision-making and group decision-making. I highlight that this study is not concerned with the former as it investigates decision-making in organisations. It focuses on non-managers involvement in decision-making. Hence, based on definitions as mentioned above, I define decision-making as the process through which members of an organisation choose from several alternatives aiming at moving towards desired solutions. It is a process that reflects on group dynamics within an organisation and effectiveness (Martin 1998, 202). Related to the definition of decision-making are the two "stages or steps of decision-making" and "types of organisational decisions". These two aspects are important and relevant to the main aim of this chapter to establish a shared understanding of the main related issues.

2.2.3 Stages and Steps of Organisational Decision-Making Processes

Several stages and steps in the decision-making process are highlighted in the literature. These stages and steps are applicable to both individuals and organisations with some differences. Understanding these stages and steps is advised to improve the efficiency of the decision-making process. The importance of making the most appropriate decisions in a relatively short time is stressed by Martin (1998, 202) to reflect and impact on the organisation's effectiveness. The relevance of this section to this study stems from the fact that the study also investigates stages, strategies and techniques in decision-making at two educational institutions. Added to this, the steps and stages are integrated within the definition of decision-making. Hence, it is critical to shed light on the literature of the stages and steps of the decision-making process.

Beach and Connolly (2005) highlight four steps for decision-making. For them, the process starts with understanding the situation and the problem. A similar step has been mentioned by

Robbins (2005, 85) Martin (1998), Bratton *et al.* (2010, 410). It is interesting to note that the reference in these four works is focused on a problem and this shows that they are possibly suggesting a negative meaning. In other words, this could show that these categorisations are embedded in the problem-solving steps and techniques. Buchanan and Huczynski (2004, 753, 756), Schermerhorn *et al.* (1998, 243) are positive about this step and mention the first step to be recognising an opportunity.

The second step mentioned by Beach and Connolly (2005) is to describe all possible alternatives and courses of action. Bratton *et al.* (2010) say that in order to describe them , relevant information should be gathered in order to understand all the possible alternatives. This information will also help in creating the criteria for evaluation. Then a person or an organisation can evaluate advantages and disadvantages for every possible course of action against objectives and preferences of the self or the organisation. After evaluating, the optimal alternative is chosen. Martin (1998) and Bratton *et al.* (2010) suggest an extra stage including follow-up and evaluating the decision. It is noticeable how these models describe the decision-making process rationally. However, it is questionable whether or not this happens in real situations, and perhaps this requires some empirical investigations.

2.2.4 Types of Organisational Decisions

There are many different categorisations for types of organisational decisions, for example, those offered by Martin (1998), Schermerhorn *et al.* (1998), Beach and Connolly (2005). The three most common typologies categorising organisational decisions are according to objective, structure, and timescale. The reason I mention the types of organisational decisions is because the study investigated various levels of involvement and engagement in different types of decisions.

According to Objectives

Reflecting on objectives of decisions, they can be of three kinds: strategic, tactical and operational. Strategic decisions define and shape, in broad terms, the purpose and direction of the organisation. For example, the micro and macro-economic environments in which the organisation operates are normally reflected and analysed to be strategic in nature requiring strategic decisions. Top management is usually in charge of these decisions, and they tend not

to be delegated or decentralised (Martin, 1998). These decisions are analysed and made on an individual basis by leaders. They are non-repetitive, and in most cases they are irreversible.

Tactical decisions are known as 'administrative' decisions. They usually relate to the management of resources of the organisation, resolution of important problems and the best or optimal allocation of factors of production in the organisation. In some cases, these decisions are decentralised, although in other organisations, these decisions are centralised and made by management. They constitute the middle step between operational and strategic decisions.

Operational decisions are made by members of an organisation on a routine basis. All levels of responsibility in the organisation take this type of decision on a daily basis. This type of decision includes different repetitive decisions with immediate effect. The result is expected within certain parameters with a high degree of certainty, or is known beforehand.

According to Structure

Decisions are also categorised depending on the method used by the decision maker or the organisation to reach the decision. A decision could sometimes be a result of a procedure mapped out in advance. In this case, it would be a programmable decision. On the other hand, a decision could respond to an exceptional event or situation. In such a case, it would be a non-programmable decision. Within non-programmable decisions, a distinction can be made between structured decisions (those decisions in which parameters influencing the decision are to some extent identified) and low structure decisions (in which parameters are multiple or difficult to quantify, and of a high degree of complexity).

According to Time

Categorising decisions according to time differentiates them in terms of the duration or time horizon of their effects (intended or unintended). According to this parameter, decisions can be classified into three groups: long term, medium term, and short term decisions. Long term decisions usually orientate the whole activity of the organisation for a period of five or more years. These types of decisions are considerably difficult for an organisation to make as they have a certain impact on the overall objectives. The long-term decisions are also critical as

they are irreversible. Medium term decisions affect companies for a period ranging from one to five years. These types of decisions are reversible. However, costs involved in reversing these types of decisions are significantly higher than those involved in reversing a short-term decision. Short-term decisions are taken more frequently than the other types, and their effects are short-term. These decisions are for the most part characterised by being reversible with relative ease if the decision taken is found to be suboptimal.

2.3 Decision-Making in the Higher Education Context

Although the issue of decision-making has been discussed extensively in literature for general business, there has been little in the context of higher education. It has been noticed that there is also some literature on the issue of decision-making in the area of organisational behaviour in educational administration, for example, Honingh and Oort, (2009), Owen and Valsky (2006) and Hanson (2003). However, much of the discussion is about organisational behaviour and decision-making in the context of pre-university education (Tierney, 2008). The work of Harris, *et al.* (1997) seems to exceed to post-secondary education. Nonetheless, it talks about the issue of decision-making in colleges rather than universities.

Work on decision-making in higher education has been tackled by various authors, for example, Floyd, 1986, Easton & Van Laar, 1995, Liberatore & Nydick, 1997, Zona, 2005, Singleton, 2006, Brown, 2007, Williams *et al.*, 2007, Anwar *et al.*, 2008, Jiao, 2009, and Mehta *et al.*, 2010. In this section, I reflect on literature and its relevance to the proposed research. In order to achieve this, discussion is presented through three themes: the changing landscape of higher education management and leadership, staff participation, and group decision-making. I highlight that these themes are concluded from the papers mentioned above. The pieces of literature reviewed are the most influential, as well as being the major contributors, to this particular area of decision-making in the last few years. The themes concluded from the literature are also underpinned by the research questions in terms of decision-making practices, policies, academic staff involvement in making decisions, and organisational culture. I highlight the point that pieces of relevant literature in this context are discussed thematically and not author by author. In the final part of this section, I draw attention to limitations of the existing literature on the topic for my intended research, and therefore, a composite conceptual model is suggested in the following part of this chapter.

2.3.1 The Changing Landscape of Higher Education Management and Leadership

There have been many major changes in the higher education context all over the world, over the last few decades (Fleming, 1997), which have affected decision-making. Jones (1985), for example, agrees and highlights that such changes result from global economic changes, where there is an increased demand for world-class qualified and trained labour. He argues that governments in the UK have seen economic threats and the way they wanted to shift and transform the higher education system to be able to compete with other nations. Cuthbert (1996, 171) emphasises that the most powerful force for change in higher education management and leadership is the drive for efficiency. It is questionable how 'bringing more efficiency' affected decision-making within higher education. Levin (2006) believes that such a desire for more efficiency has brought the managerial system to educational institutions. Shattock (2002) also highlights the shift from the collegial model of leading higher educational institutions to a managerial model. Collegial management suggests that teaching staff should play a participatory role in the management of schools or educational departments (Sergiovanni, 1991). According to this approach, the teaching staff should become an integral part of leadership within educational institutions and share their visions.

Another change was mostly associated with the shift towards the market and customer-oriented policies (Eckel, 2000), and the use of bureaucratic and externally-imposed forms of control, especially over fund-related issues. Zona (2005) adds that the changing landscape in higher education institutions is a result of the increase in financial pressures and competition between professionals in the industry. According to Zona (2005), this phenomenon has contributed to the shift of power to be held dominantly by administrators of higher educational institutions. Conducting research in three universities in the USA through primary data, interviews, and documentary analysis, Zona finds that the shift of power to this group, administrative members of staff has happened at the expense of a decrease in power of the academic community in these institutions. Similar findings have been reported by Williams *et al.* (2007) in a study conducted also in the USA. Anwar *et al.* (2008) in a study conducted in 19 universities in Pakistan found that the shift of power was unsatisfactory for academics as it revealed a drive towards centralisation. The figure of the Chief Investment Officer at American universities is a key indicator of the importance acquired by financial considerations in higher educational organisations, as highlighted in Zona's research.

Zona (2005) discusses how the introduction of a chief investment officer (CIO) affects the decision-making process in higher educational institutions, where much authority and power is vested in the CIO. There is significance in the author draws attention to the change in the context of higher education and the shift of power through the introduction of new administrative positions. The role of the CIO and its impact on institutional decision-making has not been previously analysed. The creation of more accountable figures (especially financial) in academic institutions is a clear catalyst and indicator for change. The introduction of a CIO within an institution also influences the organisational politics and group dynamics, and this relates to the topic of decision-making. Academic staff understood the shift of power, however, a 'political decision-making' strategy has been described to be useful in such a situation. Zona describes the influence and communication strategies of the CIO in moderating, or manipulating, group dynamics. An institution's tradition, customs, 'corporate' culture and practices also reflect on the way decisions are made.

The study by Zona (2005) discussed analyses in only three institutions in the USA. In this regard, although the sample is rather small to generalise, it might be so in the American context. Moreover, Zona seems to exaggerate the role of the CIO as a key driver of change and influence on decisions, while it is assumed that a CIO, and departments associated with this figure, tend to modify certain practices of decision-making. Zona's study seems limited in the sense that does not consider other factors that contribute to the evolution of decision-making processes in academia. Financial pressure or increased competition between higher education institutions would be a relevant factor to analyse; however, it was ignored.

2.3.2 Participation in Decision-Making

There is usually a perceived gap between ideals and practical realities when it comes to the professional world. Academics perceive the existence of this gap, which in Floyd's (1986) opinion creates job dissatisfaction and even frustration. One of the common examples of the gap between ideals and practical realities relates to the decision-making process within an organisation. Floyd (1986) reports a lack of satisfaction among academics in the participation process. It is inferred from this that academic members of staff wish to be more involved in decision-making. However, it is assumed that academic members of staff are less motivated to participate in decision-making within their institutions because intensified financial pressure, accountability and competition act as de-motivators for academic staff to

participate. Moreover, unrewarded participation, and precedence of other demands work against extensive academic participation. "As institutions governance is becoming less participatory, fewer individuals care about or are involved in academic governance" (Jones, 1997). All these issues raise concerns about institutional effectiveness, morale, and the quality of decision-making.

In a research conducted in three higher education institutions in the USA, Singleton (2002) considered decision-making in higher education institutions mainly as a response to external requirements. Reference is made to the Sarbanes-Oxley Act conducted in the USA. Singleton reports that this Act undermines academic autonomy and perceived satisfaction from participation in decision-making. In this regard, it is not only institutions that are undermining academics involvement in decision-making, but also organisations and governments, which impose national policies to restrict administrative roles and the involvement of academics.

Ideally, the rationale for faculty participation in institutional decision-making rests on two sets of reasons. The first set relates to employees' participation in any organisation, which is enclosed in the generic organisation theory, and the second set relates to the faculty role in higher education embedded in higher education literature. In various types of organisations, participation in institutional decision-making is connected with employee satisfaction and the quality of work life. These two factors are increasingly considered to be valued outcomes in their own right (Floyd, 1986 and Minor, 2004).

In reality, however, academics sometimes lack the expertise to make particular decisions, especially those related to finance. To overcome this challenge, Floyd (1986) suggests the creation of committees in which they will become more active members and decision-makers. However, Floyd’s opinions are not well supported by empirical research findings, she just refers briefly to the literature. In addition, her work is out-dated, which means that what she suggests might not correspond well with the recent changes within the higher education landscape.

Bloomer (1991) argues that machinery centralisation is ineffective in planning, organising and directing organisations. In supporting of these empirical studies, Griffen (1994, 31) states that:

> A school head that wants to succeed must avoid falling victim to the sheep syndrome in which teachers are seen as a faceless herd to be led, directed and instructed without any creativity and knowledge to contribute to the success of the school.

There have been a few studies conducted on actual and desired participation in decision-making in different parts of the world. Some of them found significant differences and others did not. For instance, Karue, (1980), Maritim (1988) and Muraya (1981), found significant differences between actual and desired participation in decision-making. Mualuko, *et al.* (2009) demonstrated no significant differences between actual and desired participation relating to various areas such as instructive, distribution of classes, teaching and administration. The results of Mualuko, *et al.* (2009) study were not supported by Mehta, *et al.* (2010) who found significant differences between the actual and desired participation decisions (administrative) studied on teachers' participation in decision-making in Indian higher education institutions. The study also found that desired participation in technical decisions was higher than the actual participation. In general, the study pointed out that differences between the actual and desired participation in decision-making were significant.

Another study on faculty participation was conducted by Sukirrno and Siengthai (2010). In their study, in Indonesia, they found that more than half of the lecturers who participated in the study were involved in planning and building the budget of the department, determining teaching schedules, establishing curriculum, hiring new teachers, setting policy on class size, selecting the content of modules and topics to be taught and selecting teaching techniques.

Vught, *et al.* (2009) suggest that higher educational institutions are diverse; this diversity depends on several factors such as objectives of the organisation, strategic values and participation of staff in decision-making. According to Abu Baker (1997), the participation of academics in decision-making results in achieving a good quality of education. Moreover, Reyes and Shin (1992) found that the participation of academic staff in decision-making has led to more commitment and retention in higher educational institutions.

Harry (2005) argues that academic staff should participate in designing the modules that they teach without significant interference from the head of the department. The author attributed significant participation of academic staff in decision-making depending on the communication styles between the staff and the dean of faculties.

Jiang and Wei (2009) conducted a study of participation in decision-making in two universities, one in the United States and the other in China. The study found that the final say on decisions in the Chinese universities are impinged by the Vice Chancellor and their deputies while, in the American university, the decisions are taken by participation. The study also found that both universities (in the US and China) perceived that faculties do not have governance over their budgets, and they seek more involvement. This could relate to the discussion by Hofstede (2010) that in countries with a small or medium power distance (Canada, United Sates and United Kingdom), subordinates are more likely to participate in decision-making than countries with high power distance (Saudi Arabia, India, China, etc.).

Collins *et al.* (1989) found that school teachers' participation in administrative activities enhanced their experience and reduced frustration and boredom, and the teachers have become more committed and efficient. In general, administrators and top level management do not encourage their subordinates to participate in decision-making (Tonga 1997). For example, participation in administrative decisions is important in helping the head of the department in discussing and resolving problems (Kathryn *et al.* 1993).

In relation to financial decisions, the structure of the organisation and financial processes are usually addressed to achieve centralised management (Braithwaite 1993). Sanyal (1995) argues that there are many problems that hinder the decentralisation decisions and participation of academic staff in relevant academic decisions. These problems include centralised bureaucracy, the department's non-governance, and the disruption of participation as well as an unwillingness to participate in such decisions. Hoy and Miskel (1982) suggest that higher educational institutions require leaders who can give more space to their subordinates to express their views related to academic issues.

Rowan's (1995) study found that teachers in colleges actually have substantial engagement in decisions related to teaching (introduction of new educational programme or purchasing teaching equipment), but they desire to directly participate in such decisions. Furthermore, Harry (2005) argues that academic staff should take decisions related to designing modules rather than these decisions being made by the head of the department. It is worth noting that academic members of staff in universities play a critical role in the successfulness of these universities, and achieving goals of higher educational institutions. At the same time, they (teachers, researchers and administrators) play an important role in producing good quality

graduating students. Therefore, the participation of academic staff in decision-making reflects the image of universities (Dessler, 2003). According to Luthans (2005), the actual amount of participation in decision-making has two ranges. One range does not allow participation and managers do not involve subordinates in thinking of new ideas. Another range allows the participation of subordinates in decision making.

In a more recent piece of work, Muindi (2011) conducted a study on the participation of academics in decision-making in the School of Business at the University of Nairobi. The study found that academics are satisfied with their participation in decision-making and work with minimal interference from the Dean of Faculty of the Business School. The study also reported that decision-making is participatory for all issues addressed by the School (teaching, research, administrative and finance).

It is worth noting that only one study (PhD thesis) in the Saudi context was found relating to decision making in higher education, which is Sonbul (1996), entitled "Participation of Staff Members in the Decision-making Process in UM Al-Qura University". This study reveals three main results. Firstly, the entire study sample stressed that staff members do take part in the academic decisions in their departments including subjects they teach, and setting objectives and teaching materials. That applies to Saudi and non-Saudi members. Secondly, 41 per cent of faculty members took part in the decision-making process in financial and student affairs, personnel matters, capital improvements, and public and alumni relations. However, the interviewed faculty members indicated that faculty should have a strong, active, and somewhat controlling influence in decisions, particularly in areas of academic affairs and the educational programme. They tend to give research and other professional activities precedence over active decision-making in their system of priorities. The most significant finding on how faculty members participate is that the departmental staff meeting was generally considered to be the only instrument of participation that was useful (Sonbul, 1996).

Another piece of recent work is presented by Halligan *et al.* (2010), which suggests that research culture is embedded in university departments (i.e., education departments) and are highly personal work environments that are characterised by role conflict especially when academic staff balance between teaching and research activities, alongside external pressures of accountability. In general, universities in the UK have created a research culture that

comes abreast with teaching culture. This situation does not exist in the Saudi universities in general. Although some individuals are initiating creating a research culture, it needs to be developed at a departmental level.

2.3.3 Group Decision-Making in Higher Education

One of the important issues when talking about decision-making process within an organisation is the way decisions are researched and made by groups. This issue is of great importance to this research as it aims to investigate group decision-making rather than individual ones.

In a study conducted in Spain, Liberatore and Nydick (1997) researched the actual processes of group decision-making in higher education institutions using the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), which was developed by Thomas Saaty (1991). The AHP is a technique used for decision-making when individuals or groups are faced with complex situations. This tool does not intend to offer a universally optimal solution or best decision; rather it attempts to provide a solution that is the best fit for the interests of the group or individual making the decision. The AHP uses three levels: goals, criteria, and alternatives. Identifying these three levels facilitates reaching decisions.

Liberatore and Nydick (1999) provide many examples of situations where the AHP is applied in higher education all over the world. Authors use two case studies to explain the application of AHP in higher education decision-making. The first example contemplates the evaluation of academic research. From this point of view, authors indicate how AHP can be used in strategic decision-making in these types of institutions and exemplify the point with another case study. This is the first study which specifically describes the use of AHP in higher education institutions in great detail. This study can provide effective practical strategies to make group decisions. However, there is some criticism against Liberatore and Nydick's research. Their suggestion for a decision-making strategy is not realistic and applicable in many decision-making situations. In other words, do groups really make decisions using these models at all, or are decisions researched in a less rational and more arbitrary manner? Zona (2005), for example, finds that within academic institutions, there is a mix of factors influencing decision-making processes, and the mono-rational decision-making model is more evident in higher educational institutions. This defines the AHP model of group

decision-making. Therefore, there is a need for research to investigate how decisions are reached in reality, not how they are supposed to be reached in an idealistic way.

2.4 Reflecting on Decision-Making Literature for the Line of this Study

The first thing that can be said about the literature is that much of it is focused on decision-making in higher education in the United States, so it is obviously limited geographically to a single country. Other literature is evident from the UK and Europe, and again this shows a limitation to Western contexts. The studies of Sonbul (1996), Anwar *et al.* (2008), Williams *et al.* (2007), Jiang and Wei (2009) and Mehta *et al.* (2010), which have been considered in the literature review, are more relevant to my study in the sense that they extend beyond decision-making in the American and Western higher education contexts.

The study by Anwar *et al.* (2008) brings up a context, Pakistan, similar to the one in Saudi Arabia, as both are Muslim countries. They focus on decision-making in 19 universities concluding that decision-making in the Pakistani universities is unsatisfactory because of a lack of effective management techniques. This provides international evidence of some concerns raised in American research, for example, Floyd (1986) and Zona (2005). The other study that extends findings from Western culture is by Williams, *et al.* (2007) which provides international evidence on a much wider scale. It presents a discussion of higher education governance in 17 countries across a number of continents, contrasting contexts and national cultures. For this reason, it is a very significant study in this particular area of research. In addition, it demonstrates how higher education governance has evolved over time from 1992 to 2007. Although Sonbul's study reveals important findings, it remains limited to one Saudi university, Um AlQura; besides, it does not take cultural dimension into account. The study of Jiang and Wei (2009) is also significant to my study in the sense that it brings findings from a non-Western university and compares decision-making at two universities from two different contexts.

Considering the existing literature on the topic of decision-making, it is noticeable that comprehensive studies on this issue are needed. There is a need for more studies on the prevalence of different types of practical decision-making methods in different geographies

and cultures. This suggests a need for future research in this area. This line of research should be approached by first defining a number of theoretical models of decision-making.

2.5 General Models of Decision-Making

Prior to launching the explanation of the conceptual framework of the study, it is imperative to define the term 'participation' in decision-making. Heller, *et al.* (1998: 34) state:

> Participation is the totality of forms, i.e., direct (personal) or indirect (through representatives or institutions) and of intensities; i.e., ranging from minimal to comprehensive, by which individuals, groups, collectives secure their interests or contribute to the choice process through self-determined choices among possible actions during the decision process.

This definition reveals several variations in levels of participation, including factors affecting participation in decision-making such as cultural and environmental factors.

Participation in decision-making takes various forms between, and even within, cultures. Western/European cultures are different from the Japanese and Arab cultures. In Japan, for example, participation in decision-making is consultative whereas, managers consult their subordinates on aspects related to performance and individual problems (Hiroki & Joan, 1992). In contrast, in Germany, managers act according to a series of federal laws that mandate employee's participation in decision-making. In other words, participation depends upon collective representation rather than individual representation. In countries such as the UK, the US, Australia, and Canada, participation in decision-making differs from Germany or Japan, because it depends upon the internal policy of companies and organisations (Steers *et al.*, 2010). In other words, there are no specific models of participation. For instance, some companies tend to support employees' participation while other companies do not like to do so. There is no legal or cultural basis to which companies or organisations can be committed (Steers *et al.*, 2010).

The second problem is the loose definition of participation or employees' involvement. How the concept is conceptualised and operationalised, and the hierarchy of the organisation needs to be defined. Interaction between cultures and the loose definition of participation creates significant challenges for managers to address and balance between these areas. Managers either trust their cultures or motivate their subordinates to effectively participate in decision-

making. These challenges can be addressed by discussing different models of decision-making. The next paragraphs present three types of model including centralised decision-making, consultative decision-making and collaborative decision. In centralised decisions, managers solve problems or make decisions without any participation from subordinates. In other words, managers are authoritarian and unilateral. According to consultative decisions, managers consult their subordinates about a particular problem or decision, but still they decide unilaterally. In contrast to centralised and consultative models, collaborative or participative models, managers work very closely and interactively with subordinates and reach collective decisions or resolutions to any problem.

Modern styles of management and decision-making are represented in staff participation (participative approach), consultative, task-oriented and teamwork. Bell (1992) suggests that leadership styles may also include a leader's ability to listen and respond to the needs of their subordinates. There are several authors who prefer participatory styles over others (Dwiredi, 1988; Bachlor, 1980; Armstrong, 1984; Dufty, 1981) due to the fact that this style allows academic members of staff (subordinates) to improve the quality of decisions and effectiveness, which consequently leads to achieving the goals of organisation.

Avolio and Bass (1995) also argue that leadership can take different styles, including directive versus participative leadership, autocratic versus democratic leadership and task versus relation oriented leadership.

2.6 Conceptual Framework of the Study

This section presents and discusses the conceptual framework of the study. Highlighted from the beginning is that this framework is going to be tested in this study. Testing this conceptual framework means that it is not a final product but rather a model that is going to be developed and improved through the study in a progressive manner throughout the following research stages and chapters. This conceptual framework is there for the purpose of establishing theoretical and analytical framework for investigation.

This section presents the conceptual framework of the study, which is based on the framework developed by Steers, *et al.* (2010). However, the model has been divided into two parts: one is the culture that is characterised by high and low influence of culture on the

power distance. Both conceptual frameworks address the problem of decision-making from the employees' perspective. Since this study focuses on two different cultures, it therefore discusses the difference between two types of power distances as mentioned in the following paragraphs.

The conceptual framework is based on two dimensions mentioned by Steers *et al.* (2010), which focus on employees' involvement and participation in decision-making from the cross-cultural perspective. These dimensions include culture one and culture two (see figure 2.1 below). Decision-making within organisations may take different forms (participative, consultative and authoritative), which are either affected by local or national culture (beliefs and values) or organisational culture. The model suggests what could be perceived as two extreme cultures regarding power distance. Culture one, which enjoys high power distance, suggests the following: (a) leaders' decision-making style is top-down, (b) marginalisation in participation of decision-making and equity, (c) decisions are autocratic and centralised, and (d) leaders are consultative or authoritative. Culture two, which enjoys low power distance, suggests the other extreme in the following: (a) leaders' decision-making style is bottom-up, (b) no marginalisation in participation of decision-making and equity, (c) decisions are democratic and decentralised, and (d) leaders are participative. All of these exist within two forms of culture, organisational and national.

The role of culture in the context of participation in decision-making is acknowledged by many scholars, for example, Heller *et al.*, 1988, Hayes & Kleiner, 1989, Ali, 1993, Andrisessen 1996, Bass 1996, and Kostova, 1996. None of these seem adequate to Hofstede (2001) who criticises the lack of a sufficient number of studies on the role of culture in participation, in decision-making and explaining variations between organisations from different cultures.

The concept of power distance has firstly been suggested by Hofstede (1980), which focuses on power hierarchy and inequality in organisations. According to Hofstede (1980), there are two explanations for the impact of power distance on participation in decision-making. Firstly, in the high power distance culture, the decision-making process is mostly vested in the hands of top management officers who try to avoid the delegation of their tasks to subordinates (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000). According to a higher power distance, there is no equality between leaders and subordinates and therefore, lower ranking employees have to

accept and trust all decisions made by the top management (Miles, 1975). On the other hand, there are low power distance cultures; all employees, regardless of their position in organisations, are potentially able to participate in decision-making. Therefore, the leaders and top management in organisations depend upon their subordinates in decision-making, and value their views. Secondly, in higher power distance cultures, top management and leaders enjoy decision-making and see subordinates' participation in decision-making as an infringement of their rights. In low power distance cultures, however, all employees have the right to participate in decision-making processes.

Figure 2.1 was adapted from the ideas of Steers, *et al.* (2010) about participation in decision-making. The figure indicates that there are two different cultural environments which create and enforce conflicting cultural derivers of decision-making. These drivers are affected by prevailing cultural beliefs and values held by leaders and subordinates. The cultural drivers consist of values and beliefs, which determine who can be involved in the process of decision making and how to address problems in organisations. Additionally, these drivers also include standards used by employees and subordinates to assess the competence of their managers in making decisions and solving problems. In other words, the managerial skills held by leaders to enable them to make decisions. On the basis of the interaction between these factors, culture-based decision-making strategies are developed. Accordingly, strategies and decisions may be centralised, consultative or participative (collaborative). According to centralised decisions, managers/leaders are responsible for making decisions or solving problems, which they do unilaterally but after having brief discussions with their subordinates, who may provide little input. This style of decision-making may be called authoritative but not necessarily autocratic. The second type of decision-making is consultative, where leaders significantly seek substantial input from subordinates and work with them on a team, but the final say is in hands of leaders. The third type is participative (collaborative) decisions, where leaders work and interact with subordinates and come up with collective decisions (Steers *et al.,* 2010).

The topmost part of the conceptual framework focuses on the local cultural values and beliefs (environment) that reinforce culture to affect the participation of decision-making. This conceptual framework takes into account the cultural drivers that affect the process of decision-making in organisations (values, beliefs and social norms). According to this view, employees have no ownership over decisions related to their work in the organisation. As

shown in figure 2.1 below, employees are marginalised, which leads to inequity in the participation process. Decisions are centralised and autocratic since leaders are either consultative or authoritative. Therefore, power is not distributed between leaders and employees (power distance). It can be said that the local culture, to a large extent, hinders the participation of staff in decision-making.

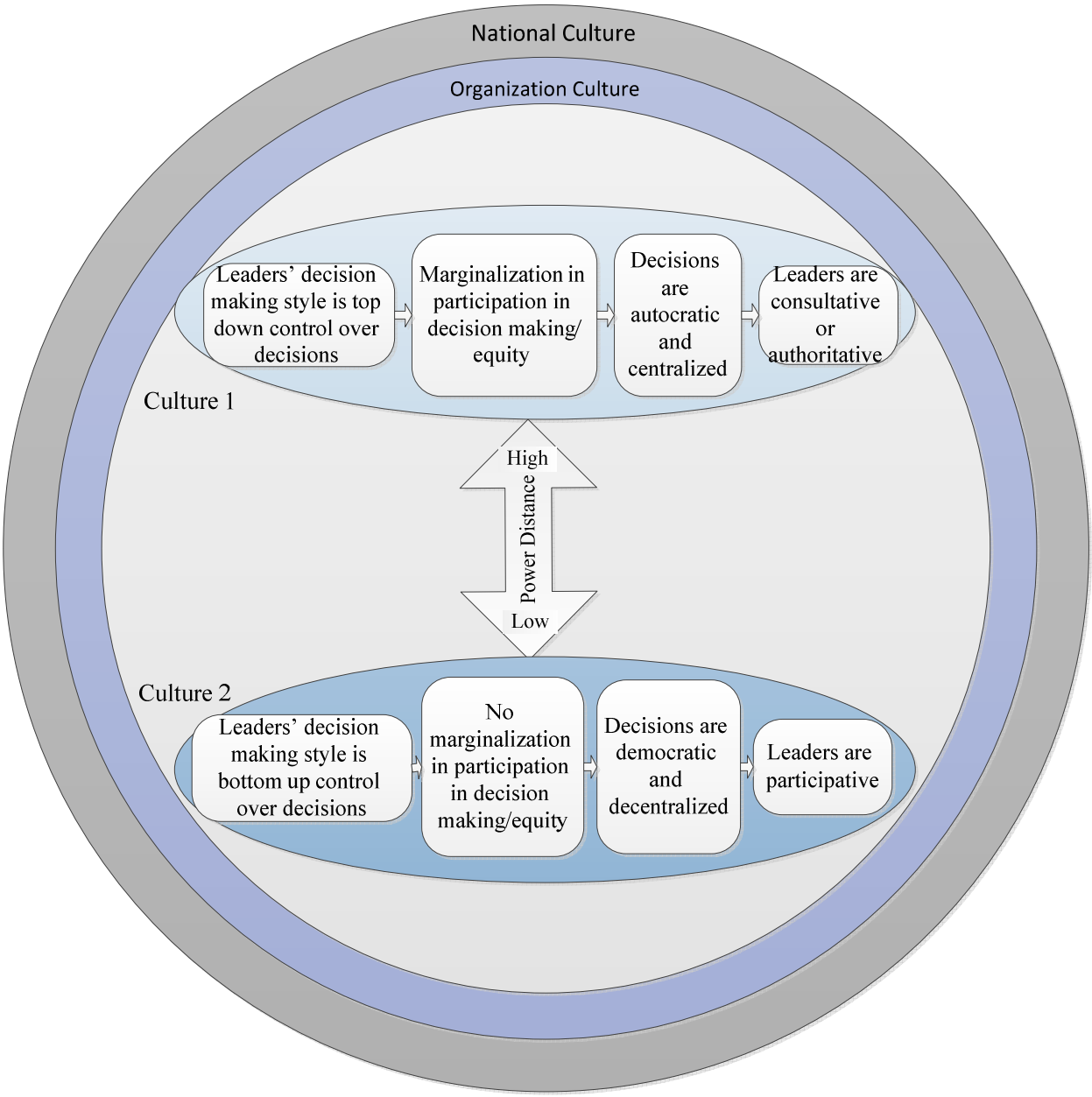


Figure 2.1: Cultural Influences on Participation in Decision-Making Adopted from (Steers et al., 2010).

The bottom part of the conceptual framework, Culture 2, is totally different from Culture 1. According to this framework, leaders delegate several tasks to their subordinates and allow them to participate in decision-making. In contrast to Culture 1 at the top of the conceptual framework, Culture 2 does not depend upon the local culture (values and beliefs); rather, it depends upon the culture developed by organisations. Employees according to this framework are not marginalised for participation in decision-making. Thus, decisions are decentralised, and leaders are characterised as participative. Therefore, the local culture does not affect participation in decision-making because organisations have created their own cultures.

In order to add more focus to the conceptual framework, attention needs to be paid to some major attributes of organisational and operational issues. Adding these issues to the theoretical framework will provide a lens when looking at data. This will help at a later stage in order to organise data analysis and presentation. Attributes discussed in this section are those of change management, leadership, authority, and bureaucracy. It is also important to mention that these attributes are deeply related to decision-making and culture.

2.6.1 Attributes of the Organisation's Operational Issues

One of the main attributes discussed whenever talking about decision-making is change management. The issue of change management becomes more important whenever talking about effective and strategic management. In the constant and ever changing work environment focusing on change management seems inevitable. This might be more relevant in the context of higher education, which has witnessed a considerable amount of change and development in the last few decades (Berggren & Soderlund, 2011).

In today's scenario, managers face bewildering challenges due to constantly changing environmental conditions. Cameron and Green (2012) stated that there are several paradoxes that managers have to face externally, as well as the internal environment of a company. In order to successfully manage the change, managers are required to develop an ability to handle such paradoxes. Authors have explained that successful change management results in the development and delivery of clear outcomes, assembling efforts, power and authority, as well as enabling the organisational members and cultural paradigms for adaption. Cameron

and Green have also proposed that the decision making approach followed by wise executives is tailored in such a way that goes well with the situation being faced.

Reflecting change management on decision making is evident as organisations change their decision-making dynamics and systems in order to match contextual developments. One of the changes most affecting decision-making is technology. Technology is on a rapid and constant state of development, if not booming. The introduction of new technologies is reported to aid in developing better decisions (Fattore-Bruno, 2009). An example here is the statistical decision supporting software packages. Another issue relating to change management is cultural change, whether organisational or national. One of the main influences is the growing effect of globalisation. In this regard, some nations or global organisations are likely to reflect on changing cultures in other less developed organisations or nations. One final consideration related to change management is how an organisation receives and deals with change in that some organisations welcome change while others resist it, and this could relate to different contextual factors. Furthermore, in the research, the relationship between change management and organisational decision making will be explained in relation to various factors and variables that play an important part in the functioning of an organisation.

Another attribute related to decision-making is leadership. Similar to change management, the issue of leadership has received a considerable amount of attention whether by scholars or by organisations. The research provides a substantial amount of evidence on the positive impact of paying attention to issues of leadership on organisations. Different styles of leadership have been suggested to be most effective on the basis of study of literature and primary research (Brislin 1986, Sergiovanni, 1991, Avolio *et al*., 1999 and Van Tilburg, 2002). Literature on leadership styles has highlighted different styles, for example, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, democratic and participatory leadership, autocratic or bureaucratic leadership, charismatic leadership, task-oriented leadership, people-oriented leadership and servant leadership. In the higher educational context, some particular styles might be more effective than others, for example, the collegial model (Avolio *et al*., 1999). What matters to this particular study is not which style is the most effective but the impact of different styles on the decision-making process. In this regard, it should be emphasised that the ones that matter most are those that

demonstrate the level of authority in respect to inclusion in, or exclusion from, the decision-making process.

The final attribute discussed in this section relates to authority. When discussing issues of authority, the first question that arises is - who has the authority (or the higher authority) in an organisation, and what role does it play in affecting the decision making process? While some organisations enjoy a democratic environment where most, if not all, members participate in decisions, other organisations enjoy more bureaucracy, if not an autocratic environment, leaving decisions to be made either by a panel (usually the board members) or even one person (usually the chairperson). Reflecting this on higher education, there is usually the university/faculty council and the university president/dean who make decisions for the whole university. When thinking of a higher education institution as a small community, it is interesting to imagine what kind of democratic, bureaucratic or autocratic community it is. All of these issues have a huge impact on the issue of this investigation regarding decision-making.

Bureaucracy plays an important role in affecting organisational decision making, by exercising its control over various communication channels, diplomatic behaviour of leaders and authoritative decision making. While making decisions, especially for initiating a change in the organisation, there are several voices that arise in an organisation for opposing the change, or favouring the change. Several forces in an organisation are responsible for a decision to be taken. As has been expressed by Lapsley, Palott and Levy (2002), the traditional style of bureaucratic management involves a lack of responsiveness for organisational working. In contrast, due to various changes that have taken place in managerial and organisational scenarios, a new style of management has emerged shedding the old characteristics. The new style of bureaucracy characterises the devolvement of management responsibilities, leaving behind a set of internal values that were driven by the professional interests of the local authorities, rather than that of citizens and other stakeholders.

I would like to conclude the section presenting the conceptual framework highlighting again the point that this framework is present to help build an analytical framework for the study. There has been a need of several criticisms against such models. For example, one of the

criticisms is the point that such models tend to simplify human behaviour and ever categorise it into extremes and dichotomies.

2.7 Influences of Culture in the Decision-Making Process

In order to identify how culture can influence the choice of a decision-making model and the perception of effectiveness and fairness of the decision-making model chosen, it is important to briefly analyse the main cultural differences between Saudi Arabia and the United Kingdom. This is important and relevant to the study, bearing in mind the comparative nature of this particular investigation. A comparison of cultures cannot ignore the seminal and very influential work of Hofstede (1980) on culture. Hofstede has provided researchers and scholars with highly valuable thoughts and insights about the cross-cultural relationship around the world.

Nevertheless, although this work has been widely used by practitioners and researchers, it has been criticised by a number of writers. For example, Nasif *et al.* (1991, 82) raise the problem of the definition of culture, which is considered open to interpretation. The problem with the definition is embedded in its translation of questionnaires answered by different participants at various locations. There is also a problem in the translation of questions from English to other languages of the world (Henry 1990, 32). Jones (2007) identifies eight points of criticism against Hofstede's work: (1) relevance of the survey for not being an appropriate instrument for accurately determining and measuring cultural disparity, (2) cultural homogeneity where the author assumes the domestic population to be a homogenous whole, (3) national divisions, where nations are not the proper units of analysis as cultures are not necessarily bounded by borders, (4) political influences where Hofestede ignored some countries in his surveys, (5) one company approach where one company from each surveyed country would not be representative enough, (6) out-dated due to the study being too old for modern values, (7) a few dimensions (four or five) are not enough to represent or even summarise a culture, and (8) statistical integrity where some concerns have been made questioning the integrity of Hofestede's statistical analysis. All these critical points against Hofestede seem to be reasonable and well justified, and this needs to be taken into consideration when reflecting on my study. However, despite such criticism, Jones (2007) concluded that the broad thrust of Hofstede's cultural distinctions still have some validity. Therefore, the study takes a reflective and measured response to the

work of Hofstede and takes into account more recent theoretical frameworks, including the work of Steers *et al.* (2010), which is particularly illuminative in its approach.

2.7.1 Saudi Culture Context

Saudi Arabia is a Muslim Arab country. As in all Muslim countries, the Islamic jurisprudence "Sharia" is regarded as the source of laws in Islam. "Sharia" means "path" in Arabic, it guides all aspects of Muslim life including daily routines, familial and religious obligations, and financial dealings. It is derived primarily from the Quran and the Sunna, sayings, practices, and teachings of the Prophet Mohammed. In Muslim countries, Islam is the official religion listed in the constitution. Saudi Arabia employs one of the strictest interpretations of "Sharia".

Although in Saudi Arabia, the government officially advocates strict adherence to Islamic principles, some practices are in conflict with Islamic teachings. It is not necessary for an Islamic state to implement Islamic teachings, but they follow Islam in some aspects, such as marriage. Moussalli (2003) highlights that Islamic countries have misinterpreted the Qur'anic verses that serve their favour and interests: For example, "Shura" principle states that people should participate in making decisions and running the State and peoples affairs. However, Islamic countries do not, in reality, follow Islamic rules in running their affairs. Moussalli (2003) states:

> A doctrine that was manipulated by political and religious elites to secure their economic, social and political interests at the expense of other segments of society (Moussalli, 2003).

In fact, both political and economic environments facilitate a tendency of "non-decision-making", whereby superordinate-situated managers control the behaviour of subordinates through manipulation and control of the environment in which the latter must operate. As a result, the governing bodies become more and more separated from the mass public whom they might seek to represent, and instead of sensitising people's needs and aspirations, public bodies find themselves working with the same usual actors, mostly elites who have developed close self-interest relationships with officials. Unfortunately, the lack of authorised associations, and the weakness of the civil society, has added to this situation in Saudi Arabia (Ali, 2010).

Hofstede (2010) believes that cultural analysis provides similar findings. He finds that Arab countries are likely to present and accept hierarchies within the social structure, which limits the upward social mobility. Arabs are very respectful of rules, laws and traditions. Furthermore, people in these cultures present a high tolerance for inequalities of wealth and power. These characteristics combined to create societies in which leaders have a high degree of unquestioned power.

Un-democratic universities could be seen in "contrived collegiality", in which, faculty administrators control the schedule and conversation of staff meetings, offer little discretion to individuality, or withhold critical information. Within the Saudi context, faculty administrators follow contrived collegiality, which refers to the faculty members who possess leadership positions alongside their academic role. The motive for such practices according to Hargreaves (2007) is that people in leadership positions often resist open exchange, do not welcome change and most of the time want things done their way because they may either be proud and defensive or simply insecure, and fear losing their power or status (Spitzberg, 1984).

Culture has an important impact on power distance. According to Bhuian (1998), Saudi Arabia's power distance ranking was 80, which indicates a high level of inequality of power within organisations. This rank means that leaders separate themselves from the group. This high power distance of Saudi Arabia has an impact on decision-making within organisations. According Cameron and Quinn (2006), managers in Arab countries, generally, make their decisions on an autocratic basis, and subordinates are more likely to be silent observers. When Hofestede (2000) compares the power distance between Saudi Arabia and Western countries, he finds that inequality is acceptable in Saudi Arabia. The author also finds that rigid systems and vertical authority structure, respect for authority, fear of the boss and individuals in power are privileged as well as individualism in decision-making. Power distance dimension refers to national cultural expectations and acceptance that the power is distributed unequally in society (Hofstede 1980, and Swenk, 1999).

There are several major cultural differences between the Arab and Western cultures (Mohammed *et al.*, 2008). For instance, Arabs are largely affected by national culture and use it in their daily lives at home, in the office and in the street (Mohammed *et al.*, 2008).

Although the national and organisational cultures are different, Hofstede (2005) argues that they are both interrelated and affect one another. The national culture also affects peoples' behaviour. As mentioned earlier, the Arab culture is different from the British. For instance, Hofstede (2005) explains that organisations within individualistic cultures have a tendency to assume that leaders act on the basis of their own interests, and match them with the organisation's interests. In general, consultation has a major role in the Arab organisations' decision-making (Siddiqi, 1997). Studies in the Arab world found that the consultation decision-making process is the main approach used by managers in different types of organisations (Siddiqi, 1997, Abdalla, and Al Homoud, 2001 and Mohammed *et al.*, 2008). These studies suggest that Arab executives find that the purpose of consultation is to fulfil the individualities of parties involved, rather than to improve the quality of decisions.

2.7.2 The United Kingdom Context

On the other hand, the UK performs very differently. The politics of Great Britain and Northern Ireland take the form of constitutional monarchy. Unlike the Monarchy in Saudi Arabia, the Queen of the UK is the Head of State; and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom is the Head of the Government. The UK government exercises executive power. The government and two Houses of Parliament (the House of Commons and the House of Lords), exercise legislative power. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature, the highest national court being the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom. The UK adopts a multi-party-system, and parliaments and assemblies are devolved through general elections. As one of the Western liberal democracies, the UK liberal traditions embody a combination of liberal preoccupation with individuals' rights, or "frontiers Freedom", and accountability in mind (Held, 1995). Before analysing the chief components in the origin and the development of the Western Liberal Democracy, it is essential to examine some of its essential sources.

Western political traditions can be traced to older civilisations in the East. For example, the political ideals of Athens, equality among citizens, liberty, respect for law and justice, or the so-called "city-state", are taken as integral to Western political thinking. Moreover, the Roman republic introduced the concept of "active citizenship" in which, citizenship meant participation in public affairs and a citizen, according to Aristotle, was someone who

participated in “giving judgment and holding office”. Pocock has construed that the idea of active citizen, or "*homo politics"*, was generated from the concept of *homo credens* of the Christian faith: "the citizen whose active judgment is essential is displaced by the true believer" (Held, 1995).

Justifying the sovereign power of the state while, at the same time, justifying the limits of that power became the heart of modern liberal theory. The attempt to balance the state's monopoly of coercive power in order to provide a secure basis on which family life, religion, trade and commerce can prosper, liberal political theorists, were aware that they had accepted a force that could frequently deprive citizens of political and social freedom. The work of Bodin, Hobbes, Lock and Rousseau sets out the scope of the early formulation of the concept of political sovereignty and the idea of the modern state. But it was not until then that the new model of democracy was fully articulated. The Liberal Democrat's theory of "representative democracy" introduced the formula to overcome the problem of balancing coercive power and liberty. Representative democracy asserts that recognising the political equality of all mature individuals would ensure both secure social environment in which people would be free to pursue their private activities and interests, and a state, which is accountable to an electorate (Held, 1995).

However, it was the "representative government" of James Madison that overcame excesses of the State's coercive power. The central concern of Madison's argument is not the rightful place of the active citizen in the life of the political community but, instead, individuals should legitimately pursue their interests as a means for the enhancement of these interests. He conceived of the representative state as the chief mechanism to aggregate individuals' interests and to protect their rights. Drawing on the same lines, Bentham introduced the idea of "minimal state", which states that the "democratic government is required to protect citizens from the despotic use of political power whether it be a monarch, the aristocracy or the group". According to Bentham, the "minimal state" should have a strictly limited scope of power and a strong commitment to certain types of intervention: for instance, intervention to regulate the behaviour of disobedience and to reshape social relations and institutions, other than that the state becomes a referee while individuals pursue in civic society according to the law (Neal & Simon, 1997).

The liberal democracy in the contemporary form takes on a cluster of rules and institutions permitting the broadest participation of the majority of citizens in the selection of representatives who alone can make political decisions, i.e., decisions affecting the whole community. This cluster includes elected government and free and fair elections in which every vote has equal weight, a stronger role in forming government is a safeguard for religion, speech, press, assembly, and due process, is free from adverse governmental monopolies, economic regulations and restrictions, and provides the opportunity of freer choices in politics, economics, and society (Neal & Simon, 1997).

From a socio-political perspective as compared to individuals in Saudi Arabia, Hofestede (2010) claims that individuals in the UK are less prone to tolerating large inequalities and strong hierarchies. This might be evident in politics where people in the UK can usually question higher authorities, for example, the Prime Minister; while in Saudi Arabia, such higher authorities usually cannot be questioned. Hofstede (2010) shows British people scoring very high on individualism. This could mean that the British society does not tend to value much belonging to a larger group (be it family, class, etc.). In my personal observation, this claim is justified, keeping in mind the stronger family relationships in Saudi Arabia, for example, people often get married and still live with their parents, while it is the norm for a British person to leave their home and family when going to university, and after they graduate. Based on this, Hofestede (2010) has claimed that loyalty is likely to play a less important role in the society and interpersonal relations in the UK. This claim, however, is questionable as the society is not only limited to the family concept, but extends to a larger community. Added to this, is the criticism presented by Jones (2007) about cultural homogeneity, where Hofestede assumes the domestic population to be a homogenous whole. Hofestede (2010) adds that the UK culture is quite neutral in gender power, and roles assigned to both men and women, compared to the extreme cases in Saudi Arabia, and this assumption could be accepted. Regarding uncertainty, this is a typical characteristic of an innovative society that is ready to embrace change and assume the risk. The UK scores very low on long-term orientation. This could suggest that members of this society tend to focus more on the present and immediate future than mid and long term horizons. This is also associated with the point that this society does not value traditions as much as other societies belonging to a long term group and loyalty. All these points have significant implications on the decision-making process within organisations. There is a larger space for individualism and personal initiative (Hofstede, 2010). Finally, although some of the points regarding

cultural differences between the Saudi and British societies reflecting ideas highlighted by Hofestede have been reviewed, there is much still to be discovered in this research. The point that ideas presented by Hofestede have been subjected to criticism has also been highlighted, and therefore, all of these ideas are present to merely provide some initial insight into the British and Saudi cultures.

In short, the underpinning philosophy that influences the governance of institutions in the UK context is completely different from that in Saudi Arabia. Apparently, this philosophy has reflected itself in educational institutions. While the professoriate participating in key governing structures, such as the curriculum, the hiring of new faculty members and issues of instruction and evaluation is powerful in the UK, the academic staff's involvement in institutional decision-making remains limited in Saudi Arabia (Ali, 2010).

However, during the study in the UK, it has always been noticed that there is an increasing influence of the West, and the university culture of the West, upon the Saudi students, who study in the UK. For example, in Western universities Saudi students are offered the chance to learn about "civil societies", either by joining university clubs, and civil society or civic minded groups. Such engagement enriches their knowledge and enables them to gain positive experiences. It is true that there is no civil society in Saudi Arabia now, but there is no doubt that it would be there in the future. Building a civil society, where independence is the right of all members of society, is a natural development of any society, which seeks to progress.

Moreover, studying in the West has also strengthened the value of work amongst Saudi students. Normally, students in Saudi Arabia do not have to work because most of them are supported either by their families or by the Government. However, universities in the West often provide on-campus employment opportunities to foreign students. Such experiences change their traditional perspective about studying and working, at the same time.

Another important example involves voting and participating in the general elections. In the Saudi political system, there are no general elections held, and the Saudi people do not practice voting. Western universities have introduced the concept of non-voter elections to Saudi students that provides them a significant experience, which they lack in their home country. Even though Saudi students do not have the right to vote in the UK, they can always join a candidate's campaign whose ideas are acceptable to them which helps to promote a

promising candidate. Finally, studying in the West has had a great impact on changing many Saudi traditional perspectives, pertaining women's role and rights, freedom, transparency, equality, justice, democracy, fighting corruption, etc. Cultural influences are still very strong and visible in the Arab context, and this has led to a unique integration of Western systems and Middle Eastern cultures, which make the present study more interesting, and helps in exploring the present study.

2.8 Summary

Before embarking on the empirical research of decision-making in academic institutions in Saudi Arabia and the United Kingdom, I provided a number of theoretical elements that were incorporated in this analysis. This chapter provided a review of relevant literature, as well as a conceptual framework. I have organised the chapter into two major parts. The first part, mainly the literature review, started by discussing various issues on decision-making. This included defining decision-making, identifying steps in the decision-making process and types of decisions. Because this study is interested in higher education, the decision-making in this particular context is given some attention. In discussing decision-making in higher education, I have presented three key areas; the changing landscape of higher education management and leadership, staff participation in decision-making, and group decision-making in higher education. I highlighted that three themes were concluded reviewing the related literature. In the final section, I have shown the way previous research has reflected on my research.

In the second part of the chapter, the conceptual framework was constructed. This framework showed that there are two cultures. The first culture focuses on the national culture that affects the participation of people in decision-making. The second culture follows the organisational culture, which affects employees' participation in decision-making. This section has concluded that there is a power distance in the first culture, while there is no power distance in the second one. The following chapter presents and discusses issues related to research design and methodology.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses methodological issues regarding the empirical investigation. This chapter is extensive, containing a large volume of detailed information and discussion. This is so due to the extensive details and research phases carried out in this study. It has been taken into consideration that a further description of research details is crucial in reflecting its trustworthiness and impact. The chapter starts with presenting the research objectives and questions that have already been discussed in Chapter One; nonetheless, this chapter provides further detailed discussion on these questions. After that, the research design, strategy and approach are discussed. The study employs a case study strategy in a comparative manner. This is followed by a mixed method approach. Following this, the chapter discusses the issues related to sampling and data collection. It has been mentioned here that the case study uses four sources of data, documentary analysis, observations, questionnaires and interviews. The chapter also discusses some practical issues. Data analysis is discussed later, where qualitative and quantitative data analyses have been discussed separately. Towards the final part of the chapter, the issues of trustworthiness and ethics have been discussed.

3.2 Research Objectives and Questions

This study aimed to understand and compare how the academic members of staff perceive the management of the decision-making process of the Education Faculty of King Saud University and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. Specifically, this study has been underpinned by three objectives. Firstly, it aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of decision-making policies and practices in the Education Faculty of King Saud University and the School of Education, University of Leeds. Secondly, it assessed the influence of culture and values in its approach to academic staff decision-making in the two case study departments through comparative research. Finally, it assessed the implications of the empirical research findings that should be implemented in the organisations to: (a) enhance

staff job satisfaction through appropriate involvement in the institutional and departmental decision-making, and (b) lead to more effective decision-making policies and practices.
These three research objectives were underpinned by the following research questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the Education Faculty, King Saud University, and the School of Education, University of Leeds, in the policy and practice of academic staff decision-making?

   This research question focused on tackling the differences and similarities between the two higher educational institutions. To answer this question, all four research methods were used.

2. To what extent are the academic staff members of varying ranks and levels of responsibility involved in the decision-making process in their departments at the two institutions?

   This question was answered using the survey research method that addressed the differences between various ranks and positions in the two universities.

3. To what extent do the perceptions of staff of their actual level of involvement/ participation in decision-making match their desired level of involvement in making decisions, and how might this be explained in terms of differences in the status and responsibility of respondents?

   To answer this question, a quantitative method was used, and it was imperative to use in-depth interviews to discuss the issue of staff perceptions, which cannot be quantified.

4. From a comparative perspective, to what extent can similarities and/or differences between the two institutions be explained in terms of contrasts on organisational culture?

Empirically, this question centred on the relationship between organisational culture and participation in decision-making in two organisations. Therefore, this question focused on similarities and differences, which are reflected in organisational culture.

5. What are the Faculty/departmental change leadership and management implications for optimising staff involvement and the quality of the decision-making process?

   This question addressed the issue of leadership in both universities with a particular focus on cultural issues. In order to answer this question, a number of in-depth interviews were conducted.

3.3 Research Design, Strategy and Approach

The research design explains the overall framework for the collection of data in the research context. In order to accomplish different research objectives, proper designing of different research methods and processes are essential. Therefore, in this research work, an exploratory research design was used. The research design utilised a case study strategy, where two case studies were investigated: the School of Education at the University of Leeds and the Faculty of Education at King Saud University. The research was carried out in four sequential phases (See figure 3.1). A different data collection tool for each of these phases was used: for phase one, documentary analysis; for phase two, observations; for phase three, surveys; and for phase four, interviews. These phases ran parallel in the two case study institutions. The use of an exploratory research design involved various methods of data collection and provided a wide base to the subject being studied. This design enabled the exploration of different aspects of a real life situation. For studying various aspects related to real life conditions of the two educational institutions, an exploratory design was an appropriate choice because it offers boundless opportunities to carry out in-depth research and to study the subject from a broad and comprehensive viewpoint.

After the data from each research phase were analysed and summarised, the research moved on to the next phase. This shows that this study used a progressive sequential strategy, wherein each research phase fed and led to the following phase. Phases one and two were exploratory in nature, and provided a basis to develop the research tool in phase three, a survey. The final research phase conducted in-depth interviews in order to provide further

explanations to the patterns identified in phase three. More discussion on the design is presented later in this section.

In this section, issues related to research design, paradigm, strategy and approach have been discussed. The discussion has been organised into four subheadings. The first is "international comparative research", as this research compared two organisations from different cultures or countries. The second is "comparative case study design", in which details of the design were presented and discussed. The third is "research paradigm" as the study used different approaches and cultures to research. The final subheading is "advantages and disadvantages of case study design", in order to identify points of strength and weakness or limitations for the case study design.

3.3.1 International Comparative Research

This research which was comparative in nature was an international comparative research, as it compared two case studies from different contexts and cultures, the UK and Saudi Arabia. The key issue here was to raise awareness in relation to similarities and differences between the two cultures and consider the implications for decision-making. Hantrais (2009, 2) defines comparative research as the science that "describes studies of societies, countries, cultures, systems institutions, social structures and change over time and space, when they are carried out with the intention of using the same research tool to compare systematically the manifestation of phenomena in more than one temporal or spatial socio-cultural setting". Hantrais (2009) stated that comparative research can be conducted with institutions, and this is a particular area of research. One other point from the definition is the use of the same tool and systematic comparison, which was conducted with attention to assure good research practice and replication. However, some challenges might have presented themselves from this comparative nature. For example, even if the exact same procedure of conducting interviews was followed, it could have come up with a different quality of data. This comes from the fact that the English and Saudi cultures are different; for example, the Saudi culture is more conservative.

Conducting research on a comparative basis is believed to provide richer findings. Wilson (2010) has highlighted that international comparative social research makes a comparison between countries or localities, with the potential to facilitate educational transfer and policy

borrowing. In addition, Hantrais (2009, 11) mentions five advantages for international comparative research in relation to policy: informing policy; identifying common policy objectives; evaluating the solution proposed to deal with common problems; drawing lessons about best practices; and assessing the transferability of policies between societies. The research intended to make use of these advantages as all of them related to the research aims. Hence, this research expected to provide findings that will help in developing policies for decision-making.

Although there are advantages of a cross-national comparative study, there are some disadvantages and challenges. Hantrais (2009, 10) has highlighted that international comparative studies are costly and time-consuming. This was reflected in the costs and time required to conduct this research. However, most of the time while conducting this study, I lived in the UK, and arranged a visit to Saudi Arabia to collect data during my annual holidays so that I could save on cost and time. Another challenge for international comparative research has been highlighted by May (2001, 212), who warns against the idea as it is problematic for a researcher to make generalisations about different cultures. In order to understand a culture, it is necessary to know the rules that are employed in that culture. For this reason, the cultural norms of each country were studied. Understanding the British culture was difficult to me, being a foreigner.

Wilson (2010) highlights a challenge for international comparative research regarding ontology and epistemology. The ontological challenge relates to the cultural understanding and perception of concepts and their conceptual equivalence. For example, people from different cultures have a different understanding of democracy. For this, I ensured that clear and shared definitions were provided in the thesis, and also the meanings of related concepts were investigated in the different cultures. The concept of participation and the components of decision-making processes were thoroughly examined in both the Saudi Arabia and the UK cultures, and the perceptual differences were also identified. In this process it was especially important to ensure equivalence of meaning in the translation of such key concepts between cultures to ensure the validity of the interpretation of data and the conclusions reached, for example, through the functional, rather than literal, translation of documents, interview and questionnaire data. The epistemological challenge relates to the difference of understanding of theoretical and methodological traditions (Wilson, 2010). That is to say, the way each research approach, qualitative and quantitative, has been perceived in each country

and with different researchers. Investigator triangulation, however, was not a problem for this particular research as I was the only researcher involved in conducting this study. This has led the discussion to the following issue of the research paradigm.

3.3.2 Research Paradigm and Philosophy

In this subsection, the research philosophy and paradigm have been discussed. There are two main research paradigms in social sciences: qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative approach is interpretative and naturalistic allowing space for the researcher's interpretations of the issue under study. On the other hand, the quantitative approach is positivistic and scientific, where the researcher's interpretations are not relevant, and the focus is on research tools and statistical analysis.

Related to the issue of paradigm are discussions on ontology and epistemology, which deal with reality and knowledge. It is significant to understand that each of the research paradigms have different ontological and epistemological perspectives. Jorgen (quoted in Weber, 2005) highlights that the ontological perspective for the qualitative interpretative approach believes that there cannot be a separation between the researcher and reality. Therefore, it can be said that the researcher is a part of the researched world, and they cannot be separated from it. On the other hand, for the quantitative positivistic approach, there needs to be a separation between the researcher and reality. Regarding epistemology, Jorgen (*ibid*) highlights that the qualitative and interpretative approach believes that knowledge of the world is intentionally constituted with a person's lived experiences; while, for the quantitative positivistic approach, the objective reality exists beyond the human mind. This argument reflected on my research philosophy while conducting the research. It is mentioned that this research used a case study strategy, which devised both qualitative and quantitative approaches that reflected different facets of the research. My research was more directed towards the interpretative naturalistic approach, since it investigated complex human and social issues, which needed to be deeply scrutinised. The researcher cannot be separated from reality up to 100 per cent. I have also been a lecturer at one case study in this research.

It could be noticed that each of these stances has its own strengths and weaknesses, powers of researcher's interpretations, and tools and statistical analysis. It is highlighted that a researcher needs to identify their research approach and stance right from the beginning (Pole

& Lampard, 2002). Identifying a research approach has been highlighted to be important as it influences the audience to such research. However, this argument is problematic in a sense that it sets dichotomy between two approaches and ignores the mixed method approach. In my research, both approaches were used and welcomed. This was done in order to make use of the strengths of each paradigm in terms of presenting statistically analysed findings and bringing about the researcher's interpretations, as the research has studied the issue of human and social dimension, and also since it is arguable to statistically analyse human behaviour and thinking. The discussion in the "mixing methods approach" section later in the chapter relates to this and takes the discussion further.

3.3.3 Comparative Case Study Design

In order to answer the research questions, a comparative case study design was selected, employing a mixed methods approach, including the use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection across four research stages, in order to investigate the academic staffs perceptions of the management of decision-making processes in the Education Faculty of King Saud University and the School of Education of the University of Leeds. The case study design was used in this study as it was the best method to answer the research questions and observe the nature of investigation and research questions. Yin (1994, 11, 12) mentions that the case study strategy is suitable to investigate institutions and understand decisions made there. Although case studies rely predominantly on qualitative data, the inclusion of a survey of staff attitudes of their participation in decisions generated important quantitative data and facilitated methodological triangulation.

The research was divided into four sequential research phases, and each of these phases deployed a different data collection tool: (1) documentary analysis, (2) observations, (3) surveys, and (4) interviews. These phases ran parallel at two case study institutions. Thus, in phase one, the related documents from both institutions were collected and analysed and only after doing so at both institutions was the second phase deployed. The same applied to all of the following phases also. This shows that this study has used a progressive sequential strategy where each research phase fed and led to the following phase. Phases one and two were exploratory in nature, and provided a basis to develop the research tool in phase three, which involved surveys. The final research phase involved in-depth interviews in order to provide further explanation for the patterns found in the phase three.

The first phase was of documentary analysis. The results of the documentary analysis helped in feeding the second research phase, which involved observing meetings in both departments. The third phase was of surveys, which helped in providing the required findings about the two cases. In this regard, the study focused on these particular cases rather than on making generalisations about decision-making in higher education. Punch (2005, 146) said that the intention of the case study is to understand the case in its own complexity and context, rather than making generalisations. Although the survey results were comprehensive, in some instances they were not sufficient to answer all the research questions, particularly leadership and culture. For this reason, it was essential to conduct in-depth interviews with different positions in the Faculty of Education at King Saud University and the School of Education at the University of Leeds., which represented the fourth stage.

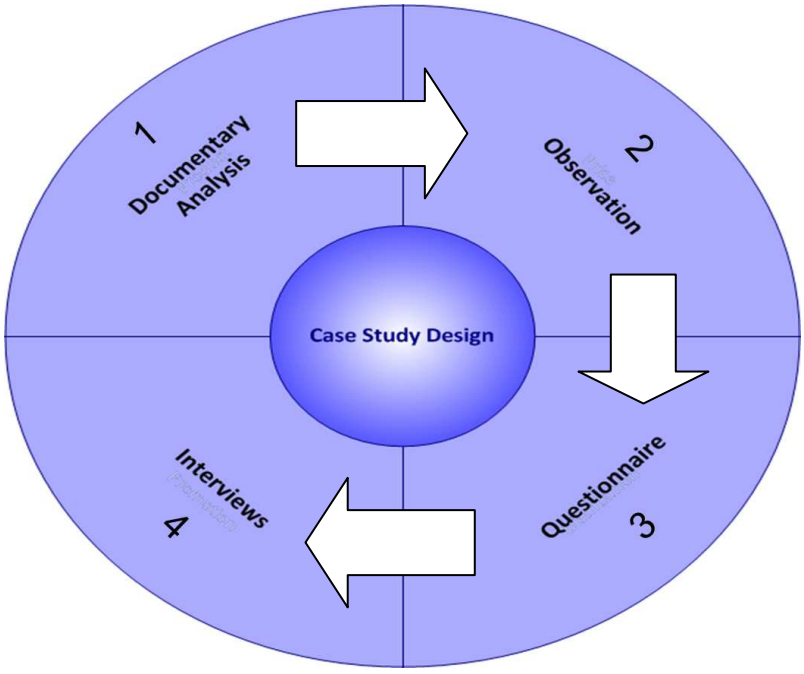


Figure 3.1: Research Design

3.3.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Case Study

Although the case study has many advantages, there remain some disadvantages of this method. McNeill (1990, 88), for example, draws attention to limited representation of findings made from the case study. He states that "the essence of the technique is that each subject studied, whether it is an individual, a group, an event, or an institution, is treated as a

unit on its own". Since my sample population was the whole academic staff of both departments at the two universities, 141 at King Saud University and 49 at the University of Leeds, this disadvantage was not applicable to my case study.

In another example, John Garger argued that by using the case study method, the researcher would not have the same control over certain variables and events as he would in a lab experiment. Therefore, the researcher should only apply their findings to similar cases. He explains, "What the case study gains in internal validity, it loses in external validity" (Garger, 2010). This disadvantage did not apply to this research either because the findings have been applied to similar cases. Selecting participants from each case study made use of a similar procedure for each case study to ensure validity.

Similarly, Yin, (2003) suggests three sorts of arguments that weaken the use of the case study approach. Firstly, the case study method often lacks rigour. In this regard, Yin, (2003) notes that:

> Too many times, the case study investigator has been sloppy, and has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions.

Secondly, the case study method cannot generalise the results of a larger population because it uses a small number of participants. Thirdly, the case study method is difficult to conduct and produce a massive amount of information.

As one of the objectives of my research was to assesses the influence of culture and values in approach to academic staff decision-making, Marshall and Rossman (2006, 55) say that the case study strategy is the best design for investigating and focusing on cultures in groups and organisations. They add that one of the main advantages of the case study design is that it allows the use of multiple methods of data collection within each case, making it easier to cross check and validate findings. With multiple sources of data, a more in-depth understanding of each case study can be reached (McNeill, 1990). Each case study in this research consisted of documentary analysis, survey, observations, and interviews (figure 3.1). Conducting these four methods followed four stages. In the first stage, documents, which provided initial ideas about policy in these two institutions, were investigated.

As mentioned above, the weakness of the case study approach is its ability to generalise the results of a larger population. In relation to this aspect, however, naturalistic generalisation has been referred to by Stake & Trumbull (1982), who define naturalistic generalisation as a process, where readers can have some insight giving them the opportunity to reflect on the details and description of the case studies. Since the readers are able to recognise similarities in case study details and find their description resound with their own experience, they can understand and realise that these case studies have sufficient information and description to generalise their findings. In order to ensure the generalisation of this study result, details of the way this study has been conducted has been described, including defining the target group, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques and findings. Therefore, the readers of this script can recognise results that are based on reliable and valid methods.

3.4 Mixed Method Approach

This research used a mixed methodology approach, which was composed of both qualitative and quantitative types of research. Pole and Lampard (2002, 30) describe this approach as an open-minded approach because it acknowledges the potential value of different sorts of data. Effective research is about pragmatism. Mixed methodology is both exploratory and descriptive in nature and was used to identify issues regarding the academic staff from King Saud University and the University of Leeds. The mixed approach was applied in this study because it was the best way to answer the specific problems of the research. The mixed methodology research approach is not restricted to the use of only numeric data. In order to investigate and understand a certain phenomenon more effectively, both numeric and narrative data was collected and analysed. Pure statistics show only one part of the story and it is suggested that taking narratives into account can fill gaps left unanswered in the classical research approach, namely quantitative or positivistic. Some researchers argue against this mixed approach, since it is difficult to correlate two approaches. However, it is not impossible, and indeed it is best to use such a mixed approach when having the intention of investigation in mind. Qualitative and quantitative research prove to be the collection of the most precise data given that numbers only tell one part of a usually more complex equation, and words tell the other (Pole & Lampard, 2002).

Qualitative research deals with the more complex individual preferences that are unique to every case sampled, and depend on the nature of every person sampled. It is interpretative

and naturalistic looking for illumination. This type of research allows for the specific answers of every sample to be included that cannot otherwise be considered. Due to the nature of qualitative research, its main application is in the field of social sciences, where the environment is not necessarily controlled. Its benefits are given that allow people to provide their own narratives and answer by giving an account of their own personal experiences regarding a topic, and how they are affected by a certain choice or factor. Quantifying a narrative is found to be a hard task to achieve given the diverse range of information provided by a narrative; this disadvantage is redeemed, however, by the rich value and quality of information provided for by narrative research (Patton, 2002).

Quantitative research is of equal importance and is the standard research methodology in natural sciences. It is positivistic and interested in quantitative measurement and statistical evidence. Quantitative research is conducted in a controlled environment and must be collected in an objective manner. The research provides the basis for statistical analysis of data collected due to the precise numeric nature of such controlled research. Generally, a set of choices are presented to be selected among a determined population or group. Benefits of such research include easy analysis and relatively accurate proportionality of conclusions (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

The mixed methodology approach utilises both quantitative and qualitative research. This allows the integration of unique perspectives with the standardised research provided in a quantitative analysis. Unquantifiable data is collected and used through qualitative analysis that otherwise would be lost in a quantitative analysis. As implied earlier, this provides the basis for the widest range of precise and accurate information, giving a tremendous boost and advantage to a study aiming to fully understand the certain phenomenon in question (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

In the case of this particular study, mixed methodology was the most appropriate research approach because it was able to collect both the qualitative and quantitative data needed in order to study the academic staff perceptions of the management of decision-making processes. This approach enabled me to gain more than one understanding of the phenomenon to triangulate data from one approach with the other (Gomm, 2008, 363). The quantitative type of research was used in order to quantify into categories the answers of respondents in the survey questionnaire, and also to obtain results from this kind of data

through a statistical approach. On the other hand, the qualitative type of research was useful in assessing the non-quantifiable answers of participants in the study, in terms of their experiences and opinions regarding the subject matter (Bergman, 2010, 173). Furthermore, the use of related references and primary documents was also considered in this study as a qualitative type of research. Taking account of the above factors, it was concluded that the use of a mixed methodology was indeed the most appropriate for this research as it addressed all aspects of data collection, and helped in the proper analysis of data for this study.

3.5 Sampling

There were different levels of sampling in this research. The first regarded the choice of institutions. Two higher education institutions from two different contexts, the UK and Saudi Arabia were chosen as countries in which to conduct this study. The reason for selecting these two faculties was supported by the fact that they were suitable for this comparative research as each was from a different culture. The reason behind choosing the University of Leeds was that I studied there while this research was conducted. The reason behind choosing King Saud University was that I have previously worked there, and still had many connections. Worth noting is that my choices were fed by the purposive sampling technique, and this was justified by the ease of access to these institutions. This research involved a 'purposive sampling' technique. According to Patton (2002, 233 & 234), there are several different strategies for purposive sampling and the logic of each strategy serves one purpose. In selecting samples, the study utilised the approach suggested by Patton (2002) who emphasises that purposive sampling maximises the variation that aims at capturing and describing the central themes that cut across a great deal of variation. There is more discussion in this context in the following section.

The second level of sampling regarded individual participants. The participants were selected from each case study and a similar procedure for each case study was used to ensure authenticity and validity. In addition, selecting participants for each method differed. In the survey, the sample population was the whole academic staff of both departments at the two universities (141 at King Saud University, and 49 at the University of Leeds). The survey targeted all the academic staff at these universities. A list of 49 targeted members of staff at the School of Education at the University of Leeds was prepared, on the basis of the information displayed over the website of the University, and a list of 141 members of staff at

King Saud University, based on the administrative report. Targeting the whole sample population was essential at this stage. A consent form was distributed among staff members to identify the exact sample of participants.

For interviews, as their function was to explain the emerging point from the survey and observations, 18 members of the academic staff with different backgrounds, age, gender and work experience from two universities were interviewed. This ensured maximum variations, where all the important common patterns were identified (Creswell, 2007, 127). 18 members of academic staff, who provided basic explanations for data from the survey, were chosen. If more cases were required to be explained further, the research design would have been flexible to add more participants (Silverman, 2000, 108). Recruiting participants used a snow-ball sampling strategy, where the members of staff referred to others who fitted the selection criteria mentioned above.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The data collection methods used in each case study in this research included several methods, namely document analysis, observation of departmental meetings, survey and interview. The methods used for this study were important for me to investigate and collect the required data for the research. This data was essential for answering the specified research questions. In this section, the proposed ways of conducting each data collection method, the following four stages were discussed.

3.6.1 Document Analysis

The investigation of case studies started with researching and analysing the documents to get some initial ideas about the organisation before conducting surveys or interviewing participants. The documents provided me with an opportunity to obtain information about organisations (Pole & Lampard, 2002, 155). They also provided an opportunity to understand the issues related to policy. Scott (1990, 84) says that organisational documents are the integral elements of policy and administration. They are important to understand the case studies. May (2001, 175) also says that including documents is “a means of enhancing understanding in case studies with the ability to situate contemporary account within a historical context. This could also allow comparisons to be made between the observer’s

interpretations of the event and those recorded in documents". This means that documents provide a basis for data comparison within case studies and across case studies.

In sampling and selecting documents to be analysed, the most relevant documents related to academic staff perception and participation in decision-making were selected. The two most relevant documents were meeting minutes and policy documents regarding staff participation. The meeting minutes could reveal the role of academic staff members in reaching and influencing decisions in the faculty meeting. The faculty monthly meeting minutes were consulted, going back one academic year. It was intended to address the Dean of each educational School to gain permission to access the Faculty minutes; however this was not possible in all cases due to confidentiality procedures. These were the documents with 'closed access', which were available only to a limited number of insiders (Scott, 1990, 14). This issue could have laid a negative influence on the representation of data coming from documents.

Practical Issues

The Head of the School of Education at the University of Leeds was asked to provide all meeting minutes for the year 2009. This authority sent three sets of meeting minutes, emphasising that these meetings were confidential. Thus, all minutes were destroyed once the data analysis was finished. In the case of King Saud University, I visited Saudi Arabia in December, 2010 during the Christmas break. The purpose of this visit was to obtain relevant documents from the Education Faculty, including meetings and minutes, along with attending a number of meetings. The coordination of this was mainly with the Dean of the Education Faculty, who asked for a formal letter from the University of Leeds to confirm this research. It is worth mentioning that my supervisor provided this letter while he was off work on his Christmas holiday.

3.6.2 Observations

Observation is a tool that has been used to collect exploratory data about each case study and the way that decisions were made. It consisted of non-participant observation, under which the academic staff meetings were observed. Kumar (1999, 106) defines non-participatory observation as that in which the researcher or observer does not get involved in the activities of a group and remains passive. Meetings were watched and listened to in order to obtain the data. Observation proved to be quite a complex research method as it required assuming a

number of roles and adopted several techniques, including making use of all senses in order to gather data. Observational involvement in a study must remain detached from prejudice in order to successfully gather important data relevant to observational research itself.

Unstructured observation, which Glazier (1985) says is a qualitative research method, takes into consideration the narrative unfolding before the observer. This was accomplished by note-taking, which was the primary research method in the observation methodology. There was no formal quantitative framework used, instead valuable details of activities undertaken by people in their natural environments were recorded and assessed. The suggestions provided by Williams (1984) were used for observing educational institutions' meetings, and creating a basic checklist. This was developed after the data from documents were analysed. Because the nature of the role of an observer is limited to recording events, direct interference in the process unfolding before the observer should be avoided. Thus, restrictions were made primarily on interference in the group, rather than on the group's procedure.

In this study, the style of observation control and analysis of faculty members was followed by their ability to cooperate among each other in accomplishing tasks as well as the ability to produce and provide ideas, discussions and resolutions of meaningful references to the existence of practices. The extent of the capacity of academics at both departments of education at King Saud University and the University of Leeds were observed in order to hear their debate during the decision-making process, and views among themselves. There was a set of considerations that were taken in account during observation. For example, meetings were attended to take notes without giving any comment during the observation. This was followed by information collection and analysis of data in order to be ready to write the report and results.

Permission was initially sought from the Head of School. Although the Head of School was unable to give blanket permission, he was sympathetic to the request and suggested contacting the Director of Learning and Teaching, to see if permission could be granted to observe a number of meetings of the School or Faculty LTC, along with meetings of various strategic groups, which fed into the LTC, including the Undergraduate Group, the ITT group and the PGT group. Further, a letter was sent to the director of Teaching and Learning requesting approval to gain access to meetings. This resulted in receiving a letter granting permission to observe these meetings.

Practical Issues

The objectives of my study entailed attending a number of meetings, which required a long process of coordination with the Head of the School of Education at the University of Leeds, as well as the Department of Education at KSU.

I attended three meetings at the School of Education at the University of Leeds that were held between 2nd February, 2010 and 3rd May, 2011. The director of meetings would send an email a week prior to the meeting taking place, informing me of the time and venue, so that I may attend. The chair of meetings allocated me a place, which enabled me to take notes comfortably. In relation to KSU, permission was obtained from the Head of the Faculty. I travelled to Saudi Arabia in April 2010 to attend relevant meetings at the Faculty of Education and distributed questionnaires. Prior to the distribution of questionnaires, permission was obtained from the Dean of the Faculty of Education, who sent me the times and dates of meetings. I attended one meeting in the Department of Education and one meeting in the Faculty, and was permitted to take notes of the meetings.

3.6.3 The Survey

The third research phase was the survey. The use of the survey method in this research was needed in order to collect quantitative data in a real world setting. A non-controlled environment is referred to as a real-world setting, wherein, the phenomena occur outside laboratories with experiments are not feasible or ethically defensible. Due to this, the survey method was used in order to give a necessary scientific context and provide authenticity to the data collected from the study. Conducting data collection by the means of a survey method was more convenient compared to other measurement procedures, because it did not require much work or intensive human intervention. Similarly, the organisation and analysis of data was more efficient through the survey method because it enabled the use of a statistical software programme in which the data were encoded, although the use of manual computation could have been used if necessary. In addition, quantifying categories within a survey also allowed the correct assessment of the relationship between or among variables (Oppenheim, 1966, 223). Questionnaires are usually used in the survey method, which means participants can be asked various questions in a less time consuming manner.

Pilot Study

In order to construct the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted in April, 2010. In this pilot study, seven members of academic staff were interviewed in the Faculty of Education at King Saud University. The interviews aimed at obtaining initial information about the decision-making process in the Faculty and kinds of decisions taken. This led to identifying a range of possible ideas and responses to each question, which were later used to create items for the questionnaire. The pilot study also helped in gaining a better understanding of the frame of the reference, relevant to the wording of the questions (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001, 87). Piloting was important to ensure that the interview questions were as straightforward as possible, which enabled answers and responses to be specific, focused and concentrated towards the research questions (Davies, 2007, 105). As a result, the pilot questions gave me the information that was needed. Another aim of the pilot study was to identify problems and benefits associated with the design not only of the questionnaire but the whole research, as it sought methodological feedback (Janesick, 1998, 42). The pilot study also helped me to gain more experience in interview skills (Roulston *et al.*, 2003).

The interview was not a formal procedure, more an information-gathering exercise in the field. Seven members of the academic staff were selected purposively, of different ages, with various background experiences and in different positions, in order to provide more varied data from the study and cover a large range of issues. Individual interviews were conducted in the offices of the staff members, and lasted approximately 45 to 60 minutes.

The following findings were made by analysing the data generated from the pilot interviews. There were four kinds of decisions that were mentioned by the participants. These were teaching related decisions, research related decisions, financial related decisions, and administrative related decisions. Within each of these areas of decisions, were several examples or categories. This would reflect in the questionnaire design in the sense that the questionnaire was divided into three major parts, with several examples in each. Besides, it was found that the level of involvement of each member of staff ranged from high participation to low participation. For that reason, although the initial ideas were to use semantic deferential, the data from the pilot study suggested the use of a Likert scale, in which there were four options (no participation, low participation, high participation, and always participation). There is more discussion on Likert scales in the following section of the questionnaire design sub-section.

The teaching related decisions were those of choosing subjects, methods of teaching, and curriculum development. Teaching related decisions were once most frequently highlighted by participants, and this has come naturally as their main function in the Faculty is teaching. Participants reported a higher level of participation in classroom related decisions. In the case of administrative and financial decisions, participation was lower than teaching related decisions. Participants mentioned that they did not pay much attention to administrative and financial decisions, as this was the responsibility of the administrative members of staff.

Questionnaire Design and Administration

The questionnaire was made up of several sets of questions, supported by the data from the pilot study, which contained different aspects of the subject matter being studied. The different sections of the questionnaire were tailored to the objectives and research problems of the study, namely studying academic staff members' perceptions of the management of decision-making processes in the Education Faculty of King Saud University and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. Furthermore, the questionnaire was divided into three parts, each covering a different area. Appendix A provides a sample of the first draft of the proposed questionnaire. Questions were mostly structured; questionnaires included some open-ended questions allowing participants to freely add their own views. As a result, the experiences, opinions, and perspectives of respondents were collected systematically (Davies, 1998).

In addition to the theme in general, the dimensions of the current study were identified and phases fitting each dimension of the questions related to the study theme were formulated. Two sets of questions were designed, as referred to above, to fit the environment of the study sample. In the closed questions, a Likert scale was used as drawn from the pilot study. The reason behind choosing this scale was that it fitted the nature of the investigation about perceptions of participants. Besides, this scale has been described as the best design to be followed by participants, as it is among the most commonly used surveying system. This means that participants would be more comfortable completing the questionnaire using the Likert scale. Due to this, participants were free to choose one option among a different number of options reflecting their views. Using the following scale was the most adequate method for this research: the respondent would circle a number from 1 to 4, according to their perspective in which, 1 means no participation, 2 means low participation, 3 means high

participation, and 4 mean always participation. Each of the items will provide two areas for answering (A and B). Area (A) asked participants to rate the actual state of decision-making, and area (B) asked about the desired level of participation (Davies, 1998).

The administration of the questionnaire was conducted by mail. Members of staff were approached initially by email, outlining the purpose of research and seeking informed consent for participation in the research. Assurances of confidentiality and the right to withdraw from the research project at any time were included in this initial correspondence.

After this, copies of the questionnaire were left in the academic staff members' pigeonholes. A letter was attached to the questionnaire briefing them about the research and its objectives, and asking them to take part in the survey. They were also requested to return the completed questionnaires to the pigeonhole within two weeks, meaning that the staff member who read the cover letter has filled and returned the questionnaire, and agreed to participate in the survey on the basis of informed consent. It was expected that the questionnaire would take around 25 minutes to complete.

In terms of the questionnaire targeting King Saud University staff members, I planned to go to Saudi Arabia to conduct the questionnaire. The questionnaires were sent to 141 members of the Education Faculty, via their emails, and a box was situated in a suitable place in the Faculty department, by the arrangement with the Faculty's administration, for staff members to return their completed questionnaire to. However, it was taken into consideration that not all the targeted sample would return their questionnaires, which could undermine the validity of the findings, as it would then be impossible to know how the remaining participants would have responded. Therefore, the chances of gaining sufficient responses were maximised by sending a covering letter to explain the importance of the survey, and ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of respondents. They were also given a reasonable time frame to complete the questionnaire, and reminders were sent out to ask anyone who had not returned their questionnaire by the desired date, to please do so at their earliest convenience.

Practical Issues

The School of Education at the University of Leeds

Copies of the questionnaire were sent to all academic staff at the School of Education via email. The academic members of staff were given two weeks to complete the questionnaire and return them to their pigeonholes. However, the staff response was weak, and only five questionnaires were received after 10 days. In order to receive more questionnaires, a reminder was sent to staff that had not completed their questionnaires. Unfortunately, only 14 questionnaires were received in total, even after the reminder. It was necessary to visit staff in their offices and ask them once again to complete the questionnaire. In total, 25 questionnaires were received out of the 49 that were distributed to all academic staff. It can be said that the number of completed questionnaires was reasonable and equivalent to about 50 per cent of the staff.

Faculty of Education at King Saud University

In the first stage, all academic staff emails were obtained from the Faculty of Education, KSU. A personal email was then sent to the 141 members of academic staff, asking them to complete the questionnaire within two weeks. The same problem occurred again since only 12 completed questionnaires were received. They were reminded via email, which resulted in a total of 32 completed questionnaires. It was necessary to visit staff in their offices and distribute the questionnaires in person, which increased the number of completed questionnaires to 71.

It is worth mentioning here that the female members of academic staff were sent the questionnaires by the Head of School Faculty Office, and once they completed the questionnaire, they returned them to the same office. This was due to the fact that males are not allowed to enter the females' departments, due to cultural factors and restrictions.

3.6.4 Interviews

The final stage was interviews. The use of interviews with academic members of staff was also one of the measurement procedures for this study. The interview enabled questions to be read out to respondents in a face-to-face setting, providing better communication (May, 2001, 121). As respondents answered the questions, it was possible to immediately record answers by jotting down notes and through the use of a voice recorder. This in turn, provided an

opportunity to engage with participants in further explanations of particular issues (McNeill & Chapman, 2005, 25). One of the most essential aspects of an interview is its flexibility. The flexibility of using personal interviews is shown by the ability of a researcher or an interviewer to observe the respondent and to set the whole context of the interview, making it easier to interrupt if needed. An example of this is that if a participant mentions an interesting related issue, further investigation can be conducted instantly. For this reason, a semi-structured style of the interview was used. In addition, questions can also be repeated and explained, especially in instances where respondents do not understand the given question. Follow-up questions were also asked to give more information, specifically in cases where a respondent had given incomplete or irrelevant answers. Furthermore, personal interviews provided a greater response rate in the sense that they increased the possibility for a respondent to give required information (Robson, 2002). In this research, a semi-structured interview was used as one of the measurement procedures. A specific interview outline and objectives were developed once data from the questionnaire were analysed. In the interview, the research aims and questions were kept in mind. The venue of the interview was arranged with staff members, most preferably in their offices. The interview was expected to last for 40 to 60 minutes. The focus during the interview was maintained on gathering rich and in-depth explanatory data, to be analysed with the questionnaire data, to explore some of the patterns emerging from the questionnaire data in detail. A specific interview outline and objectives were developed once the data from the questionnaire was analysed. This applied to both universities, and the verbal consent was recorded for interviews.

Practical Issues

An interview schedule was designed on the basis of quantitative results. The following two paragraphs indicate practical issues regarding the data collection procedure at both King Saud University and University of Leeds.

School of Education: University of Leeds

Academic staff was told about the in-depth interviews at the stage of completing the questionnaire. They were asked whether they wished to take part in the in-depth interviews, and indeed, 14 of them agreed to the interview. As discussed with my supervisor, we agreed to conduct nine interviews (three professors, three lecturers and three researchers). Emails were sent out to remind them about the in-depth interviews. They were very responsive and

very prepared for the interviews. The interviews were conducted in their offices, taking between 40 to 60 minutes per interview.

School of Education: King Saud University

The same strategy was used at the University of Leeds, where nine interviews (three professors, three senior lecturers and three lecturers) were conducted. However, the number of academic staff was double that of the School of Education at the University of Leeds, and only 12 of them agreed to take part in the in-depth interviews. Conducting interviews took between 35 and 50 minutes. Only male members of staff were interviewed in this research due to the Saudi culture, which does not allow a male to interview a female. This might show a reflection upon the quality of the findings of the research.

3.7 Approaches to Data Analysis

The data analysis followed different styles, according to sources from which it was collected. The most important distinction to make was that the research generated qualitative and quantitative data, and different a data analysis method was needed for each approach. Findings from interviews, observations, and documents followed a qualitative system of analysis. Data was coded following the three stages discussed by Burns (2000, 435). The first was to develop a list of coding categories (themes); the second was coding data and thirdly, data coded to each category was collected together. In the pilot study, data were analysed manually without the aid of any computer software. Recordings were listened to several times and as a result, a summary of each interview was written, and common issues were identified, which were later grouped into categories of themes and sub-themes. One important issue relating to the analysis was the way in which the findings from each source would be related and linked to each other in order to present each case study and make the final report.

The approach to analyse the given data was by going through questions together to identify potential problems. The questionnaire was amended and developed to make sure that the questions were unambiguous, appropriate and acceptable to respondents. When analysing the responses to open-ended questions, all responses to a question were examined, categories for answers were devised, and then, data were coded in the same way as a closed response question. Alternatively, interesting responses can be quoted directly in the final report. The choice depends on the nature of the question and the range of the given answers. The following sections present analysis approaches used in both quantitative and qualitative data.

3.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences has been used (SPSS version 17) for data entry and data analysis, which was obtained from the University of Leeds. In the first instance, two databases were constructed: one for the University of Leeds and the other for the King Saud University, but were later combined for the purpose of data analysis. The data analysis was divided into two stages: descriptive analysis and inferential analysis:

Descriptive Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis included describing samples of the study from the University of Leeds and King Saud University in terms of background characteristics, such as age, gender, years of experience, level of educational attainment, and years of experience in current role, administration position and formal job title. These variables were presented using different types of graphs, such as Pie, Histogram and Bar Columns.

In terms of decision-making, items for teaching, administration, financial, and research, frequency analysis was used, which summarised the percentage of areas of participation in decision-making, such as no participation, low participation, high participation and always participation. The mean and standard deviation was added to each item, which helped in making comparisons between the actual and desired participation, as well as the difference between King Saud University and the University of Leeds.

Inferential Data Analysis

Inferential data analysis was used to examine the statistical difference between actual and desired decision-making at both King Saud University and the University of Leeds. To achieve this purpose, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. ANOVA entails the examination of background assumptions which should be met, including normality of the distribution, continuity of the dependent variable and homogeneity of variance. Results of ANOVA showed that all these assumptions were met, and on this basis the analysis was performed. The multiple regression method was also used to explore the relationships between different types of decisions (teaching, research, financial and administrative) and participants' background characteristics (age, position and title). It was also necessary to use multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between the dependent variables (represented in the composite variables of teaching actual and desired, research actual and desired, financial actual and desired, as well as administrative actual and desired) and independent variables represented in the university (University of Leeds and King Saud

University), such as years of experience, position in the School/Faculty of Education, and age.

3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis was conducted in three stages: transcription of data, categorising and coding (themes and sub-themes), and comparative approach.

Transcription of Data

All in-depth interviews were transcribed and prepared for data analysis.

Reduction of Data: Themes and sub-themes

In order to classify themes and sub-themes, the transcriptions of data were read several times. Furthermore, the purpose of thematic analysis was to reduce the bulk of data and extract only relevant data to the study objectives. The focus was on the main questions that probe in the interview schedule.

Constant Comparative Approach

As this study aims to compare academic staff engagement in the decision-making process between the School of Education at the University of Leeds and King Saud University, a constant comparative approach was used. The essence of constant comparative approach focuses on comparing a piece of qualitative data to other pieces of data. For instance, it compares the interviews with each other, one main theme with other themes in the data, and one participant to another (Dye *et al.*, 2000). In order to point out differences between the two universities, the comparison was made on bases of teaching, administrative, research and finance related decisions on an individual and collective level, which provided the opportunity to pick up a number of pieces from both groups.

3.8 Trustworthiness of the Research

Bryman (2001, 29) points out that the most prominent criteria for evaluating and assessing social research are reliability and validity. Discussing research reliability and validity is an important issue because this is a sign of the way that it will be perceived and evaluated. In this research, some strategies have been followed to empower its reliability and validity.

Reliability measures the extent to which data collected is accurate and real. It is concerned with the question of whether questions are repeatable and consistent (Punch, 2005, 95). Consistency, whether over time or internal, is ensured through the mixed method strategy and the use of different sources of data in each case study. It is such that each source of data works on complementing the other to gain a better picture of the case study. It is apparent that data gathered from surveys was not sufficient to answer the research questions. Therefore, this method of data collection was complemented by others. The triangulation strategy helped in cross-checking findings from different sources about the same issues. The data gathered was triangulated well with evidence from other sources, such as staff interviews and policy documents. Using mixed methods helped me with complementing and triangulating results from all the research methods used in this study. In order to examine the validity of the quantitative data generated through the survey questionnaire, it was triangulated with qualitative results produced by in-depth interviewing (Charles, 1987).

The use of multiple methods to examine the same dimension of a research problem requires triangulation between or across methods. According to Jick, (1979), the use of a range of research methods to examine the same issue of a research problem requires triangulation between or across methods. Jick regards triangulation as “a vehicle for cross validation when two or more distinct methods are found to be congruent, and comparable data is yielded”.

Facilitation was achieved as findings emerged from each method that helped in designing and developing the method for the following stage. Findings from the survey (stage three) helped in creating the interview questions (stage four). The nature of the data collection instruments helped in empowering research reliability. In the case that data from interviews were affected by some bias, the data from the questionnaire balanced out the discrepancies. Pole and Lampard (2002, 207) mentioned that it is almost impossible to repeat the qualitative studies. In this study, quantitative research remedied this problem.

Validity, on the other hand, measures the extent to which the research really measures what it says it is. Validity was ensured on three levels, measurement, internal, external, and ecological. Validity, which applies to quantitative data (Bryman, 2001, 30) can be ensured through the design of the survey. This particular procedure, which is mentioned in the survey section, was followed to ensure that the survey measured what it aimed to. Internal validity, which revealed causality, was empowered through the research design. Bergman (2010, 173)

says that when methods are mixed systematically, they help in validating the research instruments and scales. This also provides a subset of complementary results, which can enrich the overall findings. External validity, which shows to what extent findings can be generalised, could be problematic because the research has been conducted across only two case studies. However, findings from the case studies can generalise about the case studies themselves. This was done as the research used multiple sources of data from each case in addition to the survey. Ecological validity in particular is an important issue for this research with its comparative nature in mind. The study was conducted in two completely different habitats, investigating people's actions and attitudes in their natural settings (Bryman, 2001, 31).

3.9 Research Ethics

It was ensured that the research followed the main ethical guidelines provided by the School of Education at the University of Leeds. The guidelines that shaped this research were the ethical guidelines of the University of Leeds (2010), and the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004). Thus, these ethical guidelines were literally followed. At the same time, the approval of the Research Ethics Committee was given, which allowed conducting the field work in the UK and Saudi Arabia. The research recruited participants voluntarily with informed consent. Interviews, questionnaires and observations, were conducted only after participants understood and agreed to participate without any pressure. However, participants had the right to withdraw at any stage if they changed their minds.

The research did not use any form of deception to recruit participants. The questionnaire included a cover page explaining the aim of the survey, nature of participation and the way findings would be reported. All participants were assured that they could withdraw from the research at any point, for any or no reason. I highlighted the fact that this research does not include any vulnerable groups, such as children or patients, as the research was conducted in universities. I did not offer any incentives to recruit participants. Finally, I made that participants' privacy and identity was protected. For this reason, aliases were used to make sure that none of the participants could be identified. This issue was given great importance as it might have had a negative impact on the participants if they said something that was not approved by their managers. The identities of the universities, Leeds and King Saud were revealed as the study aimed to examine these two particular universities.

3.10 Summary

Research methodology is an important aspect for a study. Therefore, this chapter discusses this issue in detail. The chapter discusses various aspects and issues related to the methodology of research, which ensures conducting a good piece of research. The chapter starts by explaining the research design, which includes the case study. The case study is the best research strategy for the nature of this investigation. The chapter discusses the comparative nature of this study, comparing two faculties from two different countries' universities. The research approach was also presented as being mixed method, which may create some challenges in the research. Nonetheless, it was the best approach having the nature of study in mind. Mixing methods in this study is believed to add value to this research. The inclusion of four methods of a different nature in one research is one of the major strengths of this research. The issue of sampling was also discussed. Different sampling strategies have been mentioned for each research method. The chapter then moves on to the discussion of data collection methods. This section includes four subsections: documents, observations, survey and interviews. The pilot study has been discussed, which was conducted in Saudi Arabia. Also in this chapter, the methods of data analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, as well as the issue of trustworthiness, have been discussed. The chapter concludes by discussing strategies to ensure several ethical guidelines. The following chapter presents the findings from exploratory phases one and two, which used documentary analysis and observation data collection tools.

Chapter Four

Exploratory Research Findings: Documentary Analysis and Observations

4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the data on the basis of documents and observations analysed through the exploratory research stage. It presents findings from these two sources of data in two different sections. This means that the chapter is divided into two main sections; the first includes presenting findings from the documentary analysis, and the second includes presenting findings from observations. Documentary analysis and observation were primarily suggested helping the research to establish an argument about decisions made during staff meetings. The chapter presents and discusses findings in a thematic approach as these phases (phase one and two) follow a qualitative approach, and themes presented in this chapter highlight the main ideas emerging from each of the case studies. I observed that the findings of these two phases are tentative and are not final, bearing in mind that they are exploratory.

4.2 Exploratory Findings from Documentary Analysis

The documents analysed in the study are the meeting minutes held in the Education departments at both the University of Leeds and King Saud University. I analysed the meeting minutes conducted at the School of Education on 22nd September 2009, 4th March 2010 and 11th May 2010. Therefore, these meetings were numbered as 1, 2 and 3. I also analysed the meeting minutes held in the Faculty of Education, King Saud University on 25th January 2010, and 27th August 2010 as well as a departmental meeting held on 23rd September 2010, and these meetings were given the numbers 4, 5 and 6 respectively.

Three sets of meeting minutes at each university were analysed. This stage aims to gain first and initial impressions about the role of teaching and academic staff members in making decisions for faculties. Findings from the documentary analysis will help in developing the

research instruments for the forthcoming stages, mainly the observation and interview stages. In this sense, this stage helps in facilitation (Mogalakwe, 2006).

Findings from documentary analysis are presented in a thematic comparative structure. This structure suggests that the data are discussed from each of the sources in a different subsection. The first subsection is allocated to present and discuss findings from the meeting minutes from the School of Education at the University of Leeds. The second subsection is allocated to present and discuss findings from the meeting minutes from the Faculty of Education at the King Saud University. The last subsection presents a quick comparison between the findings from the two universities, regarding findings from documents.

4.2.1 The School of Education at the University of Leeds

There are eight thematic issues found in the meeting minutes from the School of Education at the University of Leeds.

- The first issue analyses and presents findings on the overall structure of the documents themselves. This is a salient point to get a general feeling and idea about documents and of course, most importantly, the organisation itself.
- The second issue is to present the role and input of the Senior Management Team into documents, policy and decision-making. This issue shows the relationship between the school, its teaching staff members and the Senior Management Team. It also shows the influence of members of the Senior Management Team members on decisions and policies in the School.
- The third issue analyses and talks about the discussion section. This issue is of pivotal importance, as it shows the time allocated for discussion in meetings conducted, which shows that decisions made are not final and are subject to be change as per the discussion.
- The fourth theme looks at the research.
- The fifth theme relates to learning and teaching. It was felt that the role of the teaching staff in these two issues, research and teaching, is more obvious and even more dominant as they are more clearly related to the teaching members of staff.

- The sixth theme looks at the development, followed by the seventh issue of resource administration.
- The final issue contains several subcategories, which were moderately discussed in documents, and combining them into one would save space.

I highlighted all these issues because they are of relevance to decision-making as within each of these themes different decision-making dynamics are evident. An issue discussed is of pivotal concern to this study.

Overall Structure and Organisation of the Documents

The initial thoughts about the meeting minutes when analysed was that they were well structured, well written and well presented. They have a clear and systematic structure, which is consistent throughout all minutes presented by the School. This could indicate that the meeting itself is also well managed. It is also understood that the format and structure of minutes were prepared well in advance to the meeting itself. The minutes are categorised under several headings, which are the University and School, Staff Team Meeting and the Agenda. The documents start by setting the time and place of the meeting. It is noticed that each of the meetings were arranged in a different place, showing that there is not a fixed meeting room for the School. This is significant in the sense that the School does not assign a room for meetings, and this could show cost efficiency as such as rooms would be used for teaching purposes. The documents are all highlighted in a very distinct manner with the following:

> In a change to previous practice to allow more time for discussion of key agenda items, colleagues should note that all minutes received in the meeting will be treated as accurate unless advance notice is given to the Head of School to the contrary. Similarly, matters arising on minutes will not be considered in the meeting unless they have been brought to the Head of the School's attention before the meeting. Thank you. (Documents 1, 2 & 3)

The quote shows that emphasis is placed on the idea that the meeting is well organised, managed, and conducted. This conclusion is reached as such notification makes it clear to attendees that any matters arising for discussion at the meeting should be identified in advance, and brought to the attention of the Head of School and are not permitted to be raised at the meeting without prior agreement from the Head. The aim of starting the document with this quote is to ensure that the meeting has a clear structure with a pre-agreed agenda, which specifies the agreed agenda items for discussion. This ensures the smooth running and time

effectiveness of the meeting and will prevent any unnecessary time being wasted on ad-hoc discussions, which have not been scheduled. In some respects, focusing on specific matters appears to be time efficient, but this also raises concerns, as it could create some bureaucracy and cause delay in addressing important or serious issues that have not been brought to attention in advance.

The Role of the Senior Management Team

The role of the Senior Management Team (SMT) is strongly evident in documents. For example, there is a whole section in the "Contents Page" on the "Senior Management Team", and this section indicates their approval on issues raised in the earlier meeting minutes. In this regard, it is shared and split into two categories, namely the SMT and the Staff. The SMT's influence or presence in the meeting is aimed to bring the School's attention to issues relating to the University. In other words, the University aims to communicate its new decisions and policies in the School. This sounds important as it shows that the School does not function on its own and is not an isolated organisation, but functions on the basis of the University. This brings the idea of centralisation and decentralisation, and it would appear that the University of Leeds perhaps matches both styles of management and decision-making. This is evident in documents as it shows that the SMT mainly bring to the meeting issues relating to university policy and strategy. For example, in meeting minutes (1), the SMT brings into discussion issues relating to new strategies for the budget and spending allocations. One remark regarding the SMT relates to their influence in making decisions in meetings.

Discussion at Staff Meetings at the University of Leeds

All meeting minutes analysed included a separate section on "Discussion". Giving discussion a separate section shows emphasis on the importance of integrating discussion into the meeting itself. This shows that the School of Education at the University of Leeds understands the importance of discussing issues with School members. It is not only a matter of conveying or implying decisions to the people in meetings, but involving them with issues relating to the management policy. Nonetheless, when reviewing the issues raised in the "Discussion" section in documents, it was found that issues are mainly brought up by the SMT or the meeting Chairperson.

Focusing on the content of issues under “Discussion”, it was found that all three documents, in the main content, discussed the same issue, namely the Integrated Planning Exercise (IPE), and this raised curiosity about its importance. The naming of this exercise gives the feeling that the University and the School aim to integrate staff members into the planning process. This also shows the importance that the University places on the role of staff team members in shaping the policy. Among issues discussed under the Integrated Planning Exercise there are also other programmes and initiatives. For example, in Document 3 (Page 2), there are discussions on the Economies Exercise (EE). This exercise implies that, “Schools and Faculties set out their strategic and financial plans for the next five years”. This quote is quite interesting as it shows the level of power and freedom passed over from the University to Schools and Faculties. The document goes on to set three guidelines for this exercise: “(1) addressing the remaining deficit from the previous review / integrated planning exercise (IPE), (2) giving the REF entry early immediate attention, and (3) putting forward further options for the change involvement investment”. These three points, actually, show important points related to empowerment and responsibility.

Focus on Research Issues

The three sets of meeting minutes allocate only a small amount of time to deal with issues related to the research. This minimal allocation did, in fact, raise curiosity about the reasons for this, which will be addressed in the later research phase. The reason is that there have been separate meetings specifically focusing on the research, chaired by the Director of Research (DoR). A question arose here about the role and background of this person. Are they considered and looked at as a teaching staff member or an administrative staff member? This actually depends on perception. I believe this is an important issue as it will reflect on the way they will be treated and looked at by the teaching staff. This could lead to a discussion about the struggle or clash of power and authority, so therefore this issue also requires further investigation. By far, what is transparent in the documents so far is that the DoR is like a mediator between senior management and academics? This is understood by the way that the DoR brings issues and reports from the senior management and forwards them to the academic staff. They also try to understand workload pressure of academic staff members.

Focus on Learning and Teaching Issues

Comparing the time allocation on the agenda for the issue of "Research" on the one hand, and "Learning and Teaching" on the other, revealed that the "Learning and Teaching" item was allocated a longer amount of time. This was not the case, however, in Meeting Minutes (1). In these minutes, there was only one item presented, which related to the recent "Learning and Teaching Health Check". The Chair thanked attendees for their work and effort in making this initiative a success. Although the Director of Learning and Teaching should have spoken in this section, it was the Chairperson who was recorded as doing so in the Minutes, and this raises some question about the reason why. Was it that the Chairperson had taken over the role of the Director of Learning and Teaching (showing dominance from the Chairperson), or had the latter been absent from the meeting?

In the other two sets of documents (2 & 3), the role of the Director of Learning and Teaching was evident, and they started by presenting a report on Learning and Teaching. Similar investigations about the way that the DoR was looked at, the role and image of the Director of Learning and Teaching should be investigated. However, from the meeting Minutes it was noticed that the Director of Learning and Teaching sought advice from colleagues. It was also clear that the Director of Learning and Teaching was more involved with the academic staff. The reason behind this is that the Head of the School is still regarded as a member of the academic teaching staff. Finally, most issues presented in this section were in respect of the daily practices of teaching such as, marking, external examiners, teaching room conditions and teaching aids.

Issues of School Development

Issues regarding development and new initiatives were also not given much space in documents, and consequently, this could imply that less attention is given to these issues. Issues on development and new initiatives presented by the Director of Development and Knowledge Transfer were similar to presentations given by the other two directors, which was in the form of a report. It is interesting to note how the School allocates several staff members to administrative positions.

Regarding contents and issues discussed within this theme, the most dominant related to new projects or investments running in the School. An example was in relation to seeking financial support for School development opportunities and projects within the School. The Director of Development and Knowledge Transfer showed disappointment about the rejection of gaining this financial support from the Faculty.

Issues Relating to Resources and Administration

Resources and administration were not allocated much space in the meeting minutes and only took up a few lines. However, this was not the case in the meeting minutes (1) as more substantial space was allocated. The most dominant issue presented under this section was about prospective applicants and the numbers of students already applied. There is no doubt that the number of applicants is a key issue to all academic staff as this will affect their workload and also their job security. One issue presented under this section was finance. Another issue discussed was refurbishing the student common room (document 3). In this section, the School shows that it used feedback from other Schools and departments at the University to put together an efficient and effective design. This point is interesting as it shows that the School uses other Schools and departments as a source of advice to research better decisions; so academics' input into this was present in influencing financial or expenditure issues. The final issue discussed was about the new changes for the School's website (document 1). The document stated that "the University's corporate website was changing and a prototype had been circulated recently asking for the feedback due by the end of June". In this quote, feedback is sought, yet the document does not show details of the person from whom this feedback is sought. Is it from students? Is it from academic staff members, or from the meeting attendees? A final remark about the section of Resources and Administration is that, similarly to the previous areas and themes, there is a Director for Resources and Administration issues.

Equality and Diversity and Other Businesses

It was very important that all three sets of meeting minutes did not present or discuss any idea under the section of "Equality and Diversity". This raises several questions and concerns. The first is that from this I would assume that the School has excellent Equality and Diversity policies, as no issues were presented. My other assumption is that issues of Equality and Diversity are not treated adequately. In this case, academic staff might not have felt confident

enough to raise any issues for fear that this may affect them negatively or possibly endanger their career within the University.

Only one issue was presented in the "Any Other Business" section. This was to report that a colleague had successfully recovered from an operation (document 3). The document says "The School wished him well and had sent him flowers…". This is interesting and relevant as it shows that acknowledgement is given to absent colleagues, which I thought was good for the School to feel for a colleague in such a way. It is questionable whether this is a matter of sentimentality or a good human resource management.

4.2.2 The Faculty of Education at KSU

Six themes were identified when analysing documents from this institution. The data had led me to organise findings in this particular structure in order to make findings that matched the criteria of the data itself. This would also give the findings more strength in claiming validity facilitating a grounded approach in an inductive process (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). It might be more convenient to structure themes in a similar style (heading) to that in the earlier section, on the School of Education at the University of Leeds, because this would compare the two organisations in a more direct and straight forward manner. However, this would ruin the validity of findings and consequently affect the quality of the research itself.

This section presents and discusses the first issue of findings, which is the "Overall Structure and Organisation of Documents". After that, there is a presentation and arrangement of issues in a systematic approach, starting from the most important to the least important. The way issues were decided was more important than others and was based on the frequency and space allocation for these issues in the meeting minutes themselves. The first of these issues is "Higher Studies"; then there is the issue of "Consultancy", followed by "Promotion". The fourth issue is "Study Leave and Scholarships", and finally "General Issues".

Overall Structure and Organisation of the Documents

Each of three meeting minutes was presented in a different style and format. Document Four, for example, presented a list of the issues to be discussed in the meeting in a very brief

manner. It does not give any information about the location of the meeting or the main reason for the meeting, or have a meeting title. Document Five was slightly more detailed because it presented a more detailed table of contents. It also presents a table with names of people attending the same including their academic titles, roles, and some notes. Document Six was the most interesting in terms of the way it was presented. It was more advanced and developed compared to the previous two documents. It was noted that this document was produced by specialised computer software called “Majales” (meaning in English meetings). On the front page, there is a logo for the software advertising, which is software designed for facilitating meetings management. The influence of this software is greatly noticed when compared with meeting minutes (6) and the earlier two meeting minutes. This implies that the Faculty is developing the way it manages and documents its meetings. It was finally concluded from every document as the development was clearly noticed.

From the discussion above and especially from the fact that each set of meeting minutes was different from the other, it is hard to find a collective way of presenting the structure of documents. Nonetheless, the common issues related to the structure in the three sets of meeting minutes were identified, and then focus was laid on discussing the meeting minutes (6) as a sample document. The meeting minutes are not really well presented; they are confusing and lacking a systematic structure. Pages were not numbered, and issues were not coded and this made it very confusing and difficult to understand the structure of documents. Some parts of documents were more structured than others. The poor structure of documents gave me the impression that the meeting itself was not well managed. It was understood that the Faculty lacked experience in producing meeting minutes.

Document Six is divided into several headings. The document sets the time of the meeting, but it does not set the place. The contents page is presented in the style of a table, which has five columns and fifty rows. Each row specifies one issue in the meeting. It is understood that the table is the meeting agenda with several issues to be covered and dealt with. The first column sets the order number of issues, but it gives no indication of the reasons for sorting the issues in this order. It might be that the issues are ordered in this way in terms of their importance, or simply because of the order in which they were suggested. The second line names the issue to be dealt with, and all these issues refer to a particular department in the

Faculty, which states 'regarding'. An example of this is issue number (19), which says "Department of Islamic Culture/regarding offering Mona an extension". The third column explores the number of attached documents for each issue. The fourth specifies the time suggested or allocated to deal with issues. A specific time allocation for each issue gives the impression that the meeting is well organised as time management is a very important issue in any meeting. Nonetheless, all cells in this column specify ten minutes for all issues. It is surprising to see that these meeting minutes have fifty issues to be dealt with which, when multiplied by ten minutes per issue, would mean that the meeting would last for over eight hours. This does not look feasible and means that the durations set are not real. The last column is titled 'categorisation', which puts issues of discussion in terms of groups or categories. These categories are "Higher Studies – Study Leave – Promotion – Scholarships – General Issue Consultancy". These issues are listed separately and are not grouped.

Issues Relating to Higher Studies

The most central issue in all meeting minutes is about "Higher Studies", dealing with postgraduate student affairs. In Document Six, 30 issues out of 50 deal with this issue. For example, issue number five in Document Five, "Department of Special Education/regarding creating an examining panel to discuss Hamed's thesis". The documents place a lot of importance on postgraduate student affairs, and questions about the reasons behind bringing these issues to the meeting have been raised. It might be that the Faculty lack specialised committees to discuss student affairs. In the example mentioned above, we find that the meeting had to decide who goes to the panel for examining that student. However, I had earlier assumed that establishing an examiners panel would be the job of the student's personal supervisor, although it is understood from the documents that the supervisor does not have the authority to establish such a panel. The idea here relates to the important issue of power and authority offered to the academic staff, and this shows that the academic staff might have a narrow space of authority.

Issues Relating to Consultancies

The issue of consultancies involved the Faculty seeking consultancy from external sources or providing consultancy to external agencies. An example of this is issue number (32) in Document Six, regarding hiring external examiners to join the examining panel for a

postgraduate student in the Faculty. An issue on seeking external consultancy is where the Faculty seeks to employ extra academic staff members. This could either be on a full or part time basis contract, depending on the Faculty's need.

Documents show that the role of academics influences decisions of the consultancy activities. It is felt that there is a trend of involving the participation of academics in such decisions. Documents also show that the process goes through the following: Firstly, the students' supervisor presents a written request to the Director of the Department; the request then is presented and discussed in the meeting and a decision is made. Noticeably, all requests presented in meetings were agreed on. The example here suggests two contrasting concepts. The first is that the Faculty empowers the supervisor to recommend and decide whether the Faculty needs to use an external source to examine the student. The second concept that has been established is that the Faculty does not trust the supervisor to make a genuine good decision. A way to support this assumption is by asking the following question: "Why do such requests have to be presented and discussed in the meeting in the first place?"

Focus on Promotions

It discusses issues regarding academic/scholar promotion. Issue (15) can be quoted on promotions from Document Six, saying "The Department of Islamic Culture / Regarding Promoting His Highness Dr. Naser to the Level of Professor". There are two important issues to be noticed in this example. The first is the way that the academic member was addressed. The meeting minutes address this academic member of staff with the word "Highness". This initially gives the thought that the Faculty addresses all its academics with the term, "Highness"; however, after reviewing three sets of meeting minutes, it was found that not all of the academic staff are addressed in this way. This is only in the case with academic staff members who hold a Ph.D. The second issue that arises from the quote above is the procedure of promotion. The academic member presents a promotion request to the Director of the Department, which then goes to the meeting to be discussed, and then a decision is made. When an academic member of staff makes a request, they write a report of the reasons that make them feel that that staff member is eligible for this promotion. In the meeting, these reasons are reviewed with the other members of the meeting, and the decision is made. The

important issue here is that the other colleagues (academic members of staff) then make the decision about promoting their academic peers.

Matters Relating to Study, Leave, and Scholarships

These issues were grouped in such a way that shed light on the relationship they had with each other, because when a member of academic staff receives a scholarship to study, they are automatically offered study leave. It was noticed that this group of issues took much space on documents, and this shows the importance of this group of issues for meetings.

I provide a detailed example of one case found in the documents. In Document Four, a member of academic staff requested study leave, and this request was rejected. Let's review the steps of this request. First, a member of academic staff wrote the request to the Director of Department. The Director made some notes on the request, and said "I believe that he (referring to the request presenter) is eligible for the study leave he requests; nonetheless, I am concerned if he is offered the leave, the Department will run short of staff". The request, with a note from the Director of Department, is then reviewed and discussed in the meeting. It was very interesting to note that in the meeting, one of the attendees volunteered to provide cover during the absence of the member of academic staff who had requested study leave. This is an important issue, which shows the dynamics of decision-making at the Faculty of Education, KSU. This is an important example because it shows the 'power conflict' between academics and administrators. This has been covered in previous literature, see, for example Campbell and Slaughter (1999). The example mentioned above shows that the Director of Department did not want to offer study leave for the mentioned reason. It is very important to note how the academic members of staff unified themselves to support their academic colleague. There might be some informal or hidden coalition or alliance between different members of staff at the Faculty. This could potentially be very important and interesting in adding evidence to debates on the power relations between managers and academics (Winter 2009).

General Issues

Not many issues were discussed under this theme. It has been expected that the Faculty had to face many other issues related to research, teaching and learning but this is not appropriate evidence to prove this fact. This gave me the impression that these issues were not supposed to be discussed in this meeting, and therefore the question remains as to what issues do need to be discussed in the meeting. Under the "General Issues" group, issues related to book publishing and reviewing job description documents, which were highly critical. The process for these two issues followed the same procedure of writing a request to the Director of Department, and then presenting it to the meeting for discussion. This ensures that all issues discussed in the meeting follow the same protocol.

4.2.3 Comparative Analysis of the Documents from the Two Institutions

As the findings were not very systematic in their structure and content themes, they need attention. The themes that emerged from both institutions are not similar. Specifically, the reason that different themes emerged is because of the way the data were analysed and presented; themes are led by the data themselves in a grounded and inductive approach, not the researcher agenda or a priori. Reviewing the findings from the two organisations, comparisons are brought about in three groups, which are agenda and content, decisions made in meeting minutes and academic staff involvement.

Agenda and Meeting Content

Reviewing the meeting minutes in both the University of Leeds and King Saud University indicated that agendas are significantly different in terms of items addressed for discussion in meetings. For instance, meetings held at the School of Education in the University of Leeds focus on staff recruitment, student administration issues, student representatives in the School, career centre documentation, the annual national student survey, personal tutoring, enhancement of teaching and students' success, designing curriculum modules, etc. I believe the most important point is that meeting minutes at School of Education University of Leeds deal with financial issues related to the policy. Such issues were not evident at all at the other institution. The meeting agendas at KSU mainly concentrate on staff members' suggestions, which may arise on an ad hoc basis. In this sense, the meeting is where the Faculty approves or rejects such requests and suggestions. Teaching issues, modules, and other issues, are not

discussed in these meetings at all, rather they are discussed in the staff departmental meetings. However, the variations in meeting agendas between the two universities would lead to variations of the aim and function of meetings and subsequently on decision-making. It is worth noting that there is no standard agenda for meetings at KSU, rather it depends upon suggestions and requests from the staff members. It might be concluded that the Faculty of Education at KSU follows a bureaucratic system, which focuses on the centralisation of the decision-making process. For example, supervisors are not given the role of making decisions concerning their students. This leads to the discussion of the following issue of decisions made.

Decisions Made and Levels of Power

In both institutions, meetings begin by reviewing the implementation of suggestions and decisions taken in the previous meeting. The major difference though is that the School of Education at the University of Leeds follows up the implementation of decisions taken in previous meetings, whilst with the other institution, decisions are postponed for further discussion, and final decisions are made at a higher level by the Director of Faculty or the Vice Chancellor. This shows different levels, or variation in the levels, of authority delegated or power handed to the academic members of staff. This issue relates to the differences in hierarchy, power distance and internal decentralisation (see discussion chapter).

At the Faculty of Education at KSU, it was found from meeting minutes that academic staff members correspond with the Directors of Faculty or Department in relation to their personal (academic) matters such as, publishing a book or a promotion. For instance, a female staff member (PhD holder) wrote a book on children's education, and wrote to the Director of Faculty to ask to include her book in the reading list for students of a particular specialty. The Director of Faculty then advised her to discuss this matter in the staff meeting. This matter reveals that the Director of Faculty could make a decision on publishing the book on his own and without consulting staff members. It can be concluded that the Director of Faculty, or even the Director of Department, is the major decision maker. This could be the case because the Faculty would sponsor publishing the book. On the other hand, this was not evident at the other institution, and this supports the idea that academic staff members here are more

powerful decision makers, or it could relate to the teaching approach, which adopts the principles of 'research-led' teaching (see Chapter Six, Qualitative Findings).

From an organisational behavioural point of view, Tedesco (1997) categorises decisions made into three areas: 'real meetings with minutes', 'paper meetings with minutes' or 'action by written consent'. In the 'real meetings with minutes', Tedesco explains the scenario where faculty members get together in person and discuss and vote on items addressed in meetings. During or after the meeting, written minutes are prepared to show the date, time, place and purpose of the meeting and decisions approved by members. This is the example of meetings applicable to the School of Education at the University of Leeds. Staff members tried their best to make meetings as productive as possible. Staff members or subordinates' voices are mostly heard during meetings since each member can express their opinion and views. In order to do so, these members should be given the opportunity to participate in the discussion of different issues and suggest their views about certain matters. This is evident where meeting minutes quote what 'colleagues' are suggesting. The reference of 'colleagues' here was made to the attending academic staff members. This was not evident at all in the meeting minutes from the other institution.

Academic Staff Involvement

Different levels of academic staff involvement in the decision-making processes were found through the analysis of meeting minutes. The variation of involvement was found in different areas and issues. That is to say, issues were of more importance and concern to academic staff than others, and these particular issues were of different concern in the two institutions. On the first hand, documentary analysis reveals that decisions pertaining to staff recruitment are made in the regular staff meetings by the Faculty. These decisions depend on one factor: the need for a new member of staff in the department. It is necessary to mention that this need is suggested initially by the academic staff members themselves, as having extra staff might lessen their work duties or workload, which might explain their strong involvement in such issues. Similarly, at Leeds, members of academic staff discuss the same issues, yet in every case, this is instantly met with budgetary issues and financial constraints. Academic staff members were also strongly involved in decisions related to teaching and learning.

Documents showed stronger involvement with these issues at Leeds. This judgement is based on the allocation of these issues in documents.

The results of documentary analysis demonstrate that meetings in both institutions discuss administrative issues in staff meetings, with different levels of involvement. Administration issues are different between the two institutions. For instance, academic integrity at Leeds focuses on students' commitment to fill in the form of academic integrity, which has become a part of the University of Leeds regulations. Students will lose marks if they do not complete the form, and academic staff members also show a strong involvement in this. On the other hand, there is no such form at KSU because administrative issues focus on the work of secretaries, students' scholarships, promotion, etc.

4.3 Exploratory Findings from Meeting Observations

This second major part of the chapter presents the findings from the observations of staff meetings held at both institutions. Still, this part of research is a preliminary stage with an introductory and exploratory aim and purpose. Observations are aimed at supporting preliminary findings from the documentary analysis. In this regard, observation analysis is a complementary method to the documentary analysis. It is also important to remind readership that observations were non-participatory and unstructured, and their qualitative analysis was not focused on the content of meetings, but on issues relating to decision-making and its dynamics. A basic checklist was used in the observations. The first part of this section presents a detailed description of the meetings observed. Later, the chapter presents findings in a thematic comparative structure. This structure suggests that the data will be discussed from different sources in a separate section. The first section is allocated to present and discuss findings from observations conducted at the School of Education, University of Leeds. The second section is assigned to present and discuss findings from observations from the Faculty of Education at KSU. The last part of this section presents an assessment of findings from the two institutions. The themes found and discussed in the observations are as follows:

1. Context of meetings
2. Social interaction and power politics

3. Participation, inclusion and exclusion
4. Reaching and making decisions

It is significant to highlight that, similar to the documentary analysis, themes discussed in this section are reached through inductive methods as they are grounded in the data themselves. These four themes emerged from a synthesis of the data observed from five meetings.

The first key theme analyses and presents the findings on methods used when conducting the meeting. This is a significant theme to start with in order to acquire general ideas about meetings and of course, most importantly, the organisation itself. The next key theme discusses social interaction between members of staff attending meetings. This key theme shows the relationship between the meeting attendees and relates to power politics as it is assumed that certain social interactions or alliances might affect decisions made. The third key theme is participation in the meeting, which is considered a key theme as it shows the extent to which members of the meetings are committed and involved in the institution. The final theme looks at making decisions. It was noticed that all other key themes relate to this one, or in other words, they ultimately lead to this key theme. I decided to discuss this key theme at the end because I wanted to conclude findings with the most important theme. Also, it was found from the data that all the other key themes affect the methods of decision-making.

4.3.1 Reporting Meetings Observed

In this section, I provide a detailed discussion on findings on each of the five meetings observed. Each meeting is presented in the following subheadings.

Meeting One

Source: University of Leeds, School of Education

Type of Meeting: School Learning and Teaching Committee Meeting (SLTC)

Purpose and Objectives: The meeting was held on a periodic basis aimed at discussing issues relating to learning and teaching at the School.

Location and Duration: The meeting was held in one of the classrooms at the School. It was held on 17th of February, 2011 and lasted for 85 minutes.

Attendees and Chair: There were only seven members of staff at the meeting. The meeting was chaired by the Head of the Committee. In attendance were the Head of School, the undergraduate student representative, the postgraduate student representative, an administrative member of staff, and the remainder of the attendees were academic members of the staff, and members of the School Learning and Teaching Committee.

Issues Discussed: The following issues were discussed in the meeting, in the presented order.

1. Confirming issues arising from the previous meeting
2. PGCE and BA (Hons)'In Principle Approval'
3. Critical Studies Marking
4. The future of degree classification at the University of Leeds
5. School of Education Code of Practice for Assessment 2010/11
6. Action plan to respond to feedback of students experience
7. New Programme and attendant module proposals
8. BA (Hons) Childhood Studies Programme

The meeting started on time, with the Chair welcoming attendees and introducing them to each other. Obviously, the members of academic staff already knew each other, but as there were student representatives, they may not have known all of the attendees. These representatives did not appear as comfortable in the meeting as the other attendees. During the meeting, the Chair asked the administrative member of staff, who was taking the minutes of the meeting, to write the report of the meeting and provide feedback on the minutes of the previous meeting. The Chair provided some comments and showed concerns about third party confirmation, referring to cases of bereavement only. After this amendment, the Minutes of the previous meeting were approved. The Chair then said, "OK, then let's move on to issues we have for this meeting", looking at the administrative member of staff. At this point, the Chair presented the first issue, which was on PGCE Primary. He advised that the Committee should conduct a full revision, which would be reported in the next meeting. He did not clarify how this revision was going to be conducted or by whom. Perhaps, the other members knew how this task would be dealt with. This issue was dealt with quickly, and the Chair then asked to move on to the next issue. Obviously, issues to be dealt with were not presented in an ad hoc manner as the order of presenting issues followed the meeting schedule (the agenda). The Chair looked at the meeting schedule and moved on to the following point, which was the issue of critical study marking. At this stage, the discussion moved to the Head of School who said that one of the absent meeting members was leading

on this issue and its progress. This example showed that members of the committee were given responsibilities of following up on issues.

The next issue on the schedule was “the future of degree classification”. Again the Chair took the lead on this issue, advising on further consideration in the LTC meeting. This instant showed that the meeting delegated some tasks to other committees of the School. The way issues were presented was systematic and organised as the meeting schedule guided the process. One issue that consumed much time of the meeting was “School of Education Code of Practice for Assessment 2010/11”; the source of argument of this issue was on the details of the Code. Members of the meeting expressed their opinions on the particular issue. The meeting then moved on to discuss the “action plan in response to feedback of the student experience”. The Chair started this issue by thanking the student representatives for their thorough response to the action plan. Relating to this issue, participation from the student representatives was included, as earlier to this point none was made. Student representative input was minimal as they only expressed their appreciation to the plan. Obviously, these representatives had earlier delivered some reports relating to this issue to the meeting. This action could show how a meeting relates to documents, and this justified the importance of starting my research with documents. The following issue on discussion was “new programme and attendant module proposals”. With this issue, the committee members took on more of a role on leading discussions. Five programmes were discussed, and all were approved quickly. The reason behind this was that members of the committee had been in-charge or followed up on these proposals. All proposals were approved collectively. I wondered about the judgement criteria that each attendee had used to make such decisions. The last issue discussed was the BA (Honours) Childhood Studies Programme. One of the attendees had prepared some documents and handbooks for the programme, however this issue was not concluded and was postponed to the following meeting. It was felt that this issue needed more work and further investigation in order to make final decisions.

Meeting Two

Source: University of Leeds, School of Education

Type of Meeting: Student-Staff Forum

Purpose and Objectives: The meeting was held on a periodic basis aiming at discussing issues of concern to students and staff members.

Location and Duration: The meeting was held in one of the classrooms of the School. It was held on 26th of November 2010, and lasted for 65 minutes.

Attendees and Chair: There were only thirteen members of staff in the meeting. The meeting was chaired by the Head of the School. In attendance were the Head of Learning and Teaching, the Head of UG, the Student Support Officer, the Faculty Team Librarian for Education, PGR Research Tutor, PG School Representative, PG Representative, PGT Representative, UG School Representative, UG Year 1 Representative, UG Year 3 representative, Head of Health and Safety Services. Three people (academic members of staff) were absent for unknown reasons, yet apologies were given by the Student Support Officer.

Issues Discussed: The following issues were discussed in the meeting in the presented order.

1. Health and Safety Issues
2. Minutes from Previous Meeting
3. Matters Arising from Minutes
4. Equal Opportunities
5. Library Matters
6. School Action Plan
7. Items Raised by Students

The meeting started on time with the Chair welcoming the attendees and introducing the attendees to each other. This activity took seven minutes as there were thirteen attendees of the meeting who were students. Obviously, members of the academic staff had known each other, but as there were student representatives present, they might not all have known each other previously. I felt that the students seemed more comfortable in this meeting as opposed to the previous meeting by the way they appeared and talked in the meeting. The Student Support Officer mentioned that some of the attendees (three) could not join the meeting. The Chair later asked to move to issues of the meeting schedule and asked for permission to start with Item 5, “Health and Safety Issues”. He justified this as the Head of Health and Safety could not attend the whole meeting and had to attend to other duties. This issue began with the Head of Health and Safety talking about H&S issues, and new procedures and exercises that were going to be run. This part of the meeting was more like a presentation of a report as the Head of H&S did not take any comments nor give any opportunity for other attendees to

participate. They also reported some concerns that had been passed in earlier meetings related to issues of Health and Safety in one of the buildings. Through what was said, it was felt that the University took students' opinions seriously, and actions were taken accordingly. The students required more formal feedback on this.

As the Head of Health and Safety finished, he left the room and discussion then focused on the following points of the meeting schedule. The next point related to matters arising from the Minutes. At this stage, the Chair informed the meeting on some points related to emailing policies. He also moved to talk about library issues, where he passed the lead to the Faculty Team Librarian, who explained that there had been some problems with the cataloguing system, which was resolved. The meeting schedule had areas of interest sections, with one whole section being dedicated to library issues. This section ran the discussion while the Chair remained less active. In fact, this procedure occurred with different sections as particular attendees headed these areas of interest, for example, Health and Safety. Library issues raised by students were discussed, including the high demand for books and the possibility of purchasing more copies of certain books. Also issues of expenditure were raised along with the need to cut down on library expenditure due to financial difficulties of the University. The next issue on the meeting schedule was 'equal opportunities', however no issues were raised. The Chair then checked if any member of the meeting any further issues to be discussed; attendees looked at each other and confirmed. The following issue was "school action plan", led by the Director of Learning and Teaching (DLT). It was noticed that the Chair was the facilitator to the meeting, where he passed discussion from one person to the other, especially when moving from one section to the other. When discussing the school action plan, the DLT started explaining that the plan had been circulated to students earlier, and she was expecting the feedback. Not much feedback was offered by students who needed encouragement to talk. The student officer took the role of encouraging them. Students' points were centred on practical placement. At this stage, the PGR Research Tutor explained that the courses at the School, especially the postgraduate courses, were research-focused. Issues of assessment were also discussed. The final section of the meeting comprised of issues raised by students, and only the postgraduate research student representative raised issues here. He raised the issue of teaching placement again, and he appeared very persistent on this issue. The meeting concluded with the Chair asking if anyone had any issues about the meeting, and no one mentioned anything. One concluding remark about this meeting is

that it appeared to be designed to address issues of concern to students, unlike the name of the meeting which gives the impression that issues discussed would be of mutual interest to staff as well as students.

Meeting Three

Source: University of Leeds, School of Education

Type of Meeting: UGSG Meeting (Undergraduate Strategy Group)

Purpose and Objectives: The meeting was held on a periodic basis aimed at discussing issues of concern of Undergraduate issues at the School.

Location and Duration: The meeting was held in one of the classrooms at the School. It was held on 26th of January 2011, and lasted for 61 minutes.

Attendees and Chair: There were only six members of staff in attendance. The meeting was chaired by a member of academic staff. In attendance were four members of academic staff and the Student Officer. Apologies were presented by the Chair for one administrative member of the School and one academic member of staff.

Issues Discussed: The following issues were discussed in the meeting in the presented order.

1. Minutes from Previous Meeting
2. Recruitment and Admission
3. Administrative Issues
4. Personal Tutoring
5. Staff Updates
6. Dissertations
7. Graduate Student Destination and Employability

This meeting was well-organised and well-managed; perhaps this was a result of the small number of attendees, and not having students in attendance there. Members of the meeting already knew each other, as there was no time assigned to introduce attendees to each other. The Chair was keen on starting quickly with issues of the meeting scheduled. She held the Minutes of the previous meeting with two corrections related to personal tutoring. I wondered about the way these corrections or amendments were made. Perhaps, the meeting presents its meeting minutes to another committee for approval. Presenting amendments was very quick as the Chair asked to move to the following issue of the schedule “recruitment and admissions”. The Chair highlighted that the person in charge of this issue was not present in

the meeting and that there were no updates regarding this issue. A short conversation was held regarding recruitment, and the possibility of an increase in student fees. Attendees expressed their feelings towards the increase and the impact that it would have on student recruitment. The Chair asked to move on to the next issue, “administrative issues”, asking one of the attendees to provide updates. The person talked about issues relating to the documentation of some modules, and that they needed more time to be reviewed. Another member reported on updates relating to a new experiment of an online submission system. The person reported that the new system was running smoothly, and there were no problems. Issues were raised in an informative style at this meeting, where each person had updates to report and bring to the attention of the committee. When the person finished, there were no comments or questions, and the discussion moved on to issues like “personal tutoring”. The Chair reported on the Leeds for Life presentation she had attended, mentioning that this needed to be passed on to students through personal tutoring. Again, members of the meeting listened without discussion.

The next issue was on ’Staff Updates’. The Chair highlighted a point relating to the appointment of a successor for one of the teaching members of staff for one module. Discussion arose at this point. One of the attendees suggested someone, highlighting their related experience in the field. Other members approved, yet one member stated that there were also other members of the academic staff who could make more of a contribution to the same module. This caused a little confusion on what to decide. Three names were suggested, but the committee could not make a decision. The Chair said that she would approach these particular suggestions to ask if they had any interest in the role. Another issue was raised related to ’Staff Updates’, regarding the advertisement for senior lecturers/lecturers, and that one person would be asked to make some corrections. The following issue on the schedule was ’Dissertations’. One of the meeting committees was led this issue, which raised concerns related to ethics. One of the attendees mentioned that help could be taken from the Legal Advisor of the University. The person who provided this advice was thanked for the information. The final issue of the meeting schedule was ’Graduate Student Destinations and Employability. The Chair said that she would like better views on student destinations and employability. One person suggested a Facebook page where students could network. The majority of attendees liked this idea. One person suggested hosting an Open Day. One

member of the meeting then mentioned that there is a need for a more systematic method, however gave no suggestion as to what that could be.

Meeting Four

Source: King Saud University, Faculty of Education

Type of Meeting: Faculty Staff Meeting

Purpose and Objectives: The meeting was held on a periodic basis, aiming at discussing issues of concern to members of academic staff in the Faculty.

Location and Duration: The meeting was held in one of the teaching lecture theatres at the Faculty premise. It was held on 16th of December 2010, and lasted for 132 minutes. A parallel video-conferencing room on the Faculty campus was allocated to females.

Attendees and Chair: There were 32 male attendees in the lecture theatre and about 24 females in the parallel room. The meeting was chaired by the Dean who sat at the front of the lecture theatre. He was accompanied by his assistant, and Heads of Departments.

Issues Discussed: The following issues were discussed in the meeting in the following order.

1. Minutes from Previous Meeting
2. Issues Related to Policy and Practice
3. Issues Related to Staff Requests
4. Issues Related to Student Requests

The meeting was well-prepared and well-managed. The meeting room was prepared prior to the session, including the provision of drinking water in front of the table. There was an overhead projector showing a screen behind the panel with the name and date of the meeting. Attendees started entering the room in groups. Most of them were talking amongst themselves. Some of them even stood at the door of the room (still chatting) as the session was late to start as the panel and Dean were not yet present. As the Dean arrived (10 minutes late), attendees who were at the entrance shook hands with him and with his assistant. The Dean took his place, and the meeting started with the assistant welcoming everyone and asking the Dean to start the session. Three of the attendees arrived later. The Dean welcomed everyone and thanked them for joining the meeting. The assistant then presented the meeting schedule where he pointed out the four topics. Details of these issues were shared between the Dean and his assistant. The topics were presented in an informative manner. The first issue on the meeting schedule was ‘Minutes from the Previous Meeting’, and the Dean’s Assistant mentioned and confirmed some issues that had been raised there.

The Dean explained to the attendees the new issues relating to teaching practices. From the title of this topic, I expected him to talk about issues relating to the Faculty's overall policy and strategy. Nonetheless, he talked about issues related to teaching, mentioning new roles for the teaching staff, for example, the new policies relating to the use of multimedia in class. Another issue that he informed the meeting about was maternity leave. When the Dean talked about an issue, there was no discussion with attendees at the front. He occasionally had minimal discussion with the people on his table (his assistant and the Heads of Departments). It could be felt that those attendees who did not participate in discussion at the meeting, asked the Heads of Departments to do so on their behalf. They had discussed an issue with the Head of the Department prior to the meeting, and asked him to raise the issue at the meeting. The next issue related to staff requests. Presumably, in this section, members of academic staff presented some requests from the Faculty and required approval. For example, one member of academic staff wanted the Faculty to sponsor a book to be published. Another member of the academic staff had requested to be transferred to another university. These staff members were present at the meeting, and received the Faculty's responses to their requests. When receiving responses, there was no discussion regardless of the response. There were different kinds of requests, such as promotion, maternity leave, transfers, and scholarships and grants. The final topic to be discussed in the meeting was students' requests. Issues raised here were only regarding postgraduate students. For example, some students asked for extensions, others requested changing their supervisors. One important issue relating to this meeting was that it was more of an informative meeting, where members of academic staff were gathered to be informed about Faculty decisions.

Meeting Five

Source: King Saud University, Faculty of Education

Type of Meeting: Department Meeting

Purpose and Objectives: The meeting was held on a periodic basis aiming at discussing issues of concern to members of academic staff, as well as students of the Department.

Location and Duration: The meeting was held in one of the teaching classrooms in the Department. It was held on 27th of December 2010, and lasted for 94 minutes. A parallel video-conference room on the Faculty campus was allocated to females.

Attendees and Chair: There were ten male attendees at the meeting room and eight females at the parallel room. The meeting was chaired by the Head of Department who sat at the front of the room on a separate table, which is usually used for teachers meetings. He was accompanied by his secretary.

Issues Discussed: The following issues were discussed in the meeting in the presented order.

1. Issues Related to Teaching and Learning
2. Issues Related to the Staff
3. Issues Related to the Student

The meeting was less formal than the Faculty Staff meeting; not much preparation had been made for it. The room was provided with a video conferencing system to make it possible for female attendees to observe the meeting in the other room. Prior to the start of the meeting, attendees casually chatted along with the Head of the Department. The meeting started 10 minutes late as a few attendees were late to arrive. One of the attendees arrived late, after the meeting had started, and apologised later as he had just finished his teaching session. The Chair started the session welcoming attendees to the meeting and thanking them. He mentioned at the beginning of the meeting that he intended to make it as short as possible, as he did not want to make anyone late. I could see attendees smile at this, as they were obviously pleased that this meeting would not run on too long. The Chair started making reference to the Faculty meeting and the new roles to be considered. Some discussions were held at this point. For example, he mentioned the new regulations about the extra teaching hours. Some attendees asked for further explanation on this issue. The Chair mentioned that one of the attendees said that this new regulation might not be fair for some Faculty members. The Chair said that they needed to adhere to this new regulation as it followed the University new policies. Participants were free to make comments or present ideas or discussions during the meeting.

The following issue related to teaching and learning. The Chair started discussing one of the ideas that had been raised earlier by one of the academic members of staff in the department relating to room allocation. He mentioned that there were some problems related to the timetable, where some lectures were scheduled in the same classrooms. He said that this issue was dealt with by the person in charge. The Chair said he had followed up on that issue himself in order not to let it happen again. While many issues discussed in this section related

to the department, others related to the Faculty. For issues relating to the Faculty, the Chair mentioned that he would follow up on them in the following Faculty Council meeting. One attendee mentioned that he wanted to bring together two groups of students in one group the following week, and the Chair agreed to this. Several other technical issues were also raised, which were dealt with instantly. Nonetheless, it appeared that attendees sought permission from the Chair, who seemed cooperative, understanding and helpful. The following topic on the meeting schedule involved issues relating to staff. Here, attendees raised issues and requests. These requests had to be raised here in the departmental meeting first, before later being presented to the Faculty Staff Meeting. Several requests were presented and discussed, with the Chair promising to raise them at the following Faculty Staff meeting. One attendee, for example, asked for extra pay from academic members of staff who joined student activities, which were organised for the Faculty. Another member requested that his teaching hours be reduced, as he had been asked to help in a research project for the Faculty. The last section of the meeting was to address issues relating to students. Issues raised here also related only to postgraduate students. One attendee, for example, mentioned that one of his students was about to finish his MA dissertation and wanted to have a panel to evaluate his work. Another member said that one of his students had his proposal ready and wanted confirmation. Several other similar issues were raised and the Chair took notes, confirming that that he would deal with them.

4.3.2 Thematic Analysis: School of Education, University of Leeds

The three meetings described above observed at Leeds were discussed in a thematic style in this sub-section. I purposively aimed at this selection of meetings as I felt that they would provide a wide variety of information, as well as produce a rich source of high quality data to compare and analyse. Another reason was convenience, as these meetings were held around the time of data collection for this stage. In this section, I discussed these key themes based on the data and findings from Leeds which emerged from the data itself in a grounded approach.

Context of the Meetings

In this section, I put the context of the three meetings in a collective manner aiming at reaching a common assumption about the context of meetings held at Leeds. Similarly to the

findings from the documents analysed, findings from observations showed that meetings were well organised and structured. All meetings observed were punctual and started promptly at the exact time specified. None of the attendees were late, which clearly demonstrated their commitment to the meeting. It could also be said that this showed that British culture respects and adheres to timing allocated for meetings, and respects punctuality. Some attendees had casual conversations between themselves with moderate humour, which demonstrated a very relaxed atmosphere in the meeting. I noticed that there were some attendees choosing to sit next to each other in different meetings. This theme has some implications on the key theme "power politics", which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Meetings started with a welcome, presented by the Chairperson who then reviewed the key points, issues and actions arising from the previous meeting. Each of the attendees had a set of meeting papers with them. These papers were documents which related to agenda items or topics and issues due to be discussed in the meeting. In most cases, all the relevant documents were issued to attendees prior to meetings. In some meetings, however, additional documentation was also handed out during the meeting. The meeting commenced with an introduction by the Chairperson who addressed each agenda item in the same order as listed on the agenda. The meeting concluded with the Chairperson asking the group if anyone had anything to add or to question.

Social Interaction and Power Politics

The role of social interaction and its relation to power politics was clear in meetings. The first thing I noticed was the levels of social interaction between the different groups of attendees. The way in which the different colleagues addressed each other in the meeting was different and dependent upon the social relationship between the parties concerned, and the administrative level or academic status of the attendee. The level of collegial and social relationship was seen most clearly between members of academic staff. The first instance was the location in which the attendee was located. I noticed that staff members seemed to sit next to their peers of the same level of authority and status within the School. Social interaction between academic staff was also clear by the short conversations they had during meetings. I was curious to know what was being spoken about as this would be relevant to my research.

In observing how the members of academic staff interacted with each other, I got the impression that they sympathised with each other and were very supportive of each other's views. This was apparent by the tone of voice used, and also by the way they looked at their colleagues when they spoke. This observation also relates to the issue of power politics, as it is evident that they were supporting and sympathising their fellow teachers.

Social interaction was also an issue when the academic members of staff interacted with other groups in the meeting (administrative members of staff and students). The way they interacted with students in the Student-Staff Forum Meeting was very interesting. It was also noticed that they acted as a mediator between students and the School administration. For example, during the meeting, one of the Research Postgraduate Student Representatives mentioned that their fellow students wanted to be involved in teaching at the School. The Postgraduate tutor responded to the student representative and advised that the School would discuss this suggestion further, outside of the meeting, and report back with their decision at a later date. The academic members of staff tried to demonstrate their understanding and support for their students. This observation also relates to power politics. It was apparent that the academic members of staff felt they were in alliance with students against the School administration in such a way that they appeared to be defending and supporting students and actively campaigning for their rights. I may be slightly premature in making such a final judgement of this issue at this early stage of my analysis; however, this would be a very interesting finding if proved to be true. It is also important to mention that students are a part of the power roles in the School. The School understands the importance of their power to the organisation, and this is why student representatives attend many of the School meetings. Interacting with people of administrative roles was felt to be more formal and less sympathetic.

Another issue, which related to issues of social interaction and power politics, was group support. The most important example here was that for the most part, whenever the Chairperson suggested an idea in the meeting, the vast majority of attendees agreed instantly. This was most clear to notice in the meeting that was chaired by the Head of School, which was the Student-Staff Forum Meeting. In all meetings I attended, there was not one instance whereby an attendee disagreed with the Chairperson.

Participation, Inclusion and Exclusion

It was noticed in meetings that all attendees participated in the meeting, which shows an active involvement by all attendees. It was also noticed that their views were somehow very similar, and this could show that they share similar organisational goals or beliefs. Participation was displayed in two ways. The first was discussion where the meeting attendees discussed several issues in the meeting. Discussions took place between the whole group and also within smaller groups around the table (two colleagues in most cases). In the School Learning and Teaching Committee Meeting there were seven instances of an attendee conversing and discussing with their colleague.

The second form of participation was presenting ideas and possible solutions for emerging problems. For example, the Chairperson mentioned a problem faced by the School and an attendee suggested a solution. This brought the discussion onto issues of inclusion and exclusion. It was noticed that not all ideas, suggestions or views were taken in the same way. For example, in the Student-Staff Forum Meeting, there were some discussions about the School financial issues. The Chairperson said that the School should be keen on reducing expenses and asked for any suggestions that may help to address this issue. Several suggestions were offered by the attendees and presented to the Chairperson. In some instances, the Chair showed admiration for a suggestion if he felt that this was a worthy option, and sometimes he did not. However, I could not understand on what basis he evaluated ideas and suggestions. On some other occasions, the Chairperson did not show admiration, but that suggestion was then supported and reinforced by another attendee of the meeting. In this instance, the Chairperson showed some interest.

Reaching and Making Decisions

The way decisions were made at meetings was shared, as attendees participated in all decisions. The meetings showed that there was some style of voting system used. The voting system was not explicitly conducted. The following example shows what happens here. In the Student–Staff Meeting, the Chairperson presented issues on reducing expenses, and decisions needed to be made. He presented the case saying that the University required strategies and practices where all Schools should reduce their expenses. He asked attendees “Do you think there are any possible strategies and practices where we can save money?”

Several suggestions were offered. Some suggestions were instantly opposed by some meeting members, and the Chairperson disregarded such suggestions. Other suggestions were welcomed by attendees or at least not opposed. The Chairperson then said “this is a good idea” and then he asks “what do you think?” Attendees shared their thoughts and opinions on that particular suggestion, and when the Chairperson saw there was agreement, or no opposition for a suggestion, a decision was then made. This process for decision-making was followed for many decisions in these meetings.

Another important issue related to decision-making was decision advisers. It was found that sometimes members of administrative staff were invited to meetings, and the Chairperson sometimes looked to them for support and advice on particular decisions. For example, in the STLC Meeting, the Chairperson asked the Postgraduate Student Recruitment Officer about the number of applicants in a particular programme, as decisions regarding that particular programme needed to be made. This instance showed the way the School used data from this source to support their decisions.

4.3.3 Thematic Analysis: Faculty of Education, King Saud University

I was planning to attend meetings of a similar nature to those attended at the earlier organisations, but it was found that each organisation had their own structure of organisational meetings. This is due to the organisational structure of the institution, and I believe this has major ramifications on the findings of this research as such structures affect methods of decision-making. This subsection discusses four thematic areas, which are identical to those at the other institution. The data I collected, which led me to organise findings in this particular structure in order to make the findings correlate between the two organisations, facilitated the process of making the comparison between the two organisations more convenient and straightforward.

Context of Meetings

The data from the meeting observations does not really confirm the data from the documentary analysis in the previous chapter about the weak or unsystematic organisation of meetings. This is so as meetings observed were well organised. I understood from this that

the Faculty does not pay as much attention to documenting meetings in minutes. Although, meetings were assigned to start at a particular time, none of the meetings I observed started at that time, and were late by an average of 10 minutes. Not starting on time could relate to the Saudi culture, which I believe does not pay much attention to adhering to time or punctuality. With regards to the Faculty Staff Meeting, I could feel the extent of the intensive work required for the meeting. For example, the meeting was held at a time when no lectures were taking place, in order to make it possible for all members of academic staff to attend. Meetings took place in the theatre in the Faculty. The meeting room used, a small auditorium, was large enough to accommodate the large number of attendees. Attendees entered in groups of three or four and some were engaged in conversation as they entered. They were not assigned to any particular seats, and picked their own seats as they entered the room, and appeared to sit with those members with whom they had conversations. I provide more discussion on this in the later section on social interaction and power politics.

The meeting attendees were male only. I found this interesting as I wondered why females were excluded from the meeting, relating observation to the theme of "participation, inclusion and exclusion". With some curiosity, I found that females attended these meetings by means of a video conferencing system. There was a camera videoing the "panel" only. Females shared the meeting, but were situated in a different room, relating to the Saudi culture, which does not support gender integration in higher education. Since female staff participate in meetings through a video conferencing system, their participation in the conversation and discussion is likely to be less effective, and thus lead to less participation in the decision-making process. Attendees were both administrative and teaching members of staff; however, what was evident was that the administrative members of staff were also academics. There was only one member of staff in attendance who held clerical administrative duties. This person was the Dean's Personal Assistant, who carried out basic administration duties for the meeting, and also assisted the Dean whilst in the meeting. Departmental Meetings appeared to be simpler, as there were a smaller number of attendees (only 18).

In the Faculty Staff Meeting, the Dean and Heads of Departments were sitting on one table at the front of the auditorium. Speakers used microphones to support their voice to ensure they could be heard by all attendees in the large room. Documents were given to attendees prior to

the meeting. The meeting started with a welcoming word presented by the Chairperson. Then his assistant reviewed the key points and issues from the earlier meeting. The discussion started by the Dean's assistant addressing issues from the agenda. The meetings lasted for an average of two hours.

Social Interaction and Power Politics

The role of social interaction and its relation to power politics were not dominant in meetings. The role of social interaction was a little clearer and was presented more than power politics. There were some instances that could explain these ideas. Firstly, most attendees entered the meeting room in groups of three or four. These people were all chatting in groups. In the Faculty Staff Meeting there were not much eye contact between attendees as they faced one side of the room towards the Chairperson and his Heads of Departments. The small groups of attendees sat next to each other and did not have side conversations with each other during meetings. Attendees only talked when they were asked to by the meeting Chairperson or his assistant. I believe this relates to the Saudi Arab culture, which pays much attention to having one speaker in a meeting. If there was more than one person speaking, it would be considered as showing disrespect, and obviously none of the attendees would want to be considered as being disrespectful whilst in the meeting. This leads the discussion forward to the issue of power politics. This was not the case in the Departmental Meeting. There were many discussions and interruptions between the members, perhaps this was supported by the way they were sitting at the table, facing each other. There was space for discussion as there were a smaller number of attendees in the room.

Power politics were not that clear to notice in the meeting room among academics and the Faculty administration. There is a struggle between the two groups, and this was felt in the strong dominance conveyed by the Faculty administration over their academic members of staff. Perhaps an example from meeting the two could explain this point. One of the academic members of staff proposed a grant for a study and the Chairperson says the following: "Regarding the study proposal presented by Dr. X and after reviewing by specialised committees, the Faculty has decided to reject it… reasons regarding this decision will be sent Dr. X in the course of the next week". The member of staff who presented this proposal was present in the meeting. He received the Faculty's decision without saying a word or

disagreeing or refuting the decision in the meeting. This example showed the strong dominance of the Faculty's administration over its academic staff. Most of the time in meetings was spent on the Chairperson or his assistant passing decisions made by him or specialised committees. This related to a following theme regarding decision-making, and it also related to power politics as it showed the supreme power and authority enjoyed by the Dean of Faculty.

Participation, Inclusion and Exclusion

Staff participation by academic members of staff was presented in meetings. Participation was distinct in the way their input in the meeting was significant, as the main point of the meeting was to discuss their proposals and requests. The majority of the meeting time was spent on discussing and informing decisions about academic members of staff requests and proposals. In this way, academic members of staff participated in the meeting's input, yet not during the meeting, with verbal discussions. Discussion was minimal in the meeting and mainly restricted to people sitting on the 'panel' table; that is the Dean, his assistant and Heads of Departments. In some instances, the other members of academic staff participated in discussions. For example, in Meeting Four, the Dean's assistant asked one of the academic staff members about the reasons behind his request for publication sponsorship. The Dean's assistant stated that the reasons provided were not clear enough, and he asked for more clarification. The academic member of staff explained in further detail, and the Dean answered that the decision would be made later, and the academic member of staff would be informed about the decision made by a specialised committee in the following meeting. Through attending the Departmental meeting, I knew that such follow up took place there. Examples of similar participation were very few, only ten times in three meetings observed. Another remark on participation was that female attendees attended via a video conferencing system. Their participation was very minimal, and it appeared that in every case, they agreed on any discussion or decision and did not oppose or object anything. This showed that their participation was particularly passive.

The discussion about participation leads to inclusion and exclusion. Through observing meetings, I understood that the Faculty Staff meetings were not the place to include or exclude academic staff members. The Faculty had a system of specialised committees, which

constituted the place for inclusion and exclusion. These committees are places where academic members of staff have more space for the discussion. Nonetheless, it is important to explain that these specialised committees are nothing more than departmental committees. I decided to attend one of these departmental meetings. There was more discussion and participation for academic members of staff; however, they did not participate in issues relating to Faculty policies or strategies. I learnt that issues of policy and strategy were restricted to the Dean and his high ranking administrative members of the staff. In this regard, academic members of staff views concerning organisational policy and strategy were excluded, and this perhaps explains the low involvement of academic members of staff in meetings. Not all of them really listened to what was being said in meetings. I say this because I saw a few attendees reading irrelevant materials, e.g. novels.

Reaching and Making Decisions

During meetings, I observed that decisions were not made at the Faculty Staff meetings themselves. Decisions are usually discussed in departments and then discussed for approval in Faculty meetings. It is worth mentioning that some decisions may be rejected or postponed due to the lack of authority at faculty level, and so refereed to the Vice Chancellor and his deputy, particularly for financial issues. The departmental meeting I attended had ten male participants and eight female participants who were connected via a video conferencing system. Academic members of staff participated in this meeting in the discussion and in decision-making. However, all issues they discussed related to student affairs and teaching and learning issues. The meeting did not discuss any issues related to a policy or strategy. The Departmental meeting was more intense with discussions and participation from all attendees. Whenever a member presents an issue, most of the time this relates to a student the member was teaching or supervising and it seemed that he received much support from his colleagues, and the decision was generally going to be positive. The issue here relates to power politics as members of academic staff support each other for particular decisions. Going back to the Faculty meeting, one important strategy used was postponing. Whenever the Dean could not make a decision, he said that this issue would be reviewed by specialist committees for advice and consultancy, or would be referred to the University Council. The Dean mentioned in four instances that he needed to resort and consult the Faculty regulations to be sure about what decision to make, and this meant that the decision would have to be postponed, most probably until the next meeting.

4.3.4 A Comparative Analysis of the Two Institutions

In the comparison, I follow the same thematic areas discussed earlier, and in this regard, there are three thematic areas discussed in this subsection, which are social interaction and power politics, participation, inclusion and exclusion and reaching and making decisions.

Social Interaction and Power Politics

Several differences and similarities were found relating to this theme. Firstly, levels of social interactions between academic members of staff at KSU were found to be stronger. This was evident, particularly before the meeting commenced, and as attendees were entering the room. Nonetheless, these personal social interactions were absent *during* the Faculty Staff meetings; although they were present at the other organisation. Social interaction was more present at the Departmental Meetings. This relates to the nature and style of how meetings were conducted. Whenever a large group of staff members attended a meeting, such as the Faculty Staff Meeting, there was not much space for social interaction. The difference was the result that the British culture seemed more comfortable for meeting attendees. Moreover, attendees at the University of Leeds meetings seemed to show certain sympathy to each other. Such feelings were not felt as strongly at the KSU institution.

Relating to the issue of social interaction was the shape of the meeting rooms and the way attendees were seated. At Leeds, participants were seated at one single table and this facilitated better social interaction. At KSU, participants were seated in a lecture theatre style meeting room, which hindered interaction among academic members of staff. Such a seating style might have helped to create an atmosphere of two differentiated parties (those at the front of the room facing those opposite). Nonetheless, this was not the case in departmental meetings. It was found that attendees at both institutions sat in groups as per their preference. This might have helped in creating alliances and poles of power for the attending members of academic staff. The final issue in this section is the role of the Chairperson. It was found that these people at both organisations enjoyed power and authority over others. However, also noticed was that the role of the Chairperson (e.g. the Dean) at KSU, who enjoyed much more power than the Chairperson (e.g. the Dean) at Leeds. This might be caused by the Saudi

culture, which offers much power and authority to those members of staff in senior administrative positions. This relates to the idea of difference in the culture and high power distance discussed by Hofstede (2010), where the collegial or democratic model is less evident at KSU.

Participation, Inclusion and Exclusion

There were many differences regarding participation, inclusion and exclusion between the two organisations. The first was that students never attend such meetings at KSU whereas at Leeds, the Student-Staff Forum meetings allow student attendance and participation. This issue reveals the difference in the way each of the organisations sees its students. The School of Education at Leeds believes that such a group of stakeholders are a key group of people that contribute to the success of the organisation. Although, students do not participate in staff meetings at KSU, their complaints and issues are brought to meetings, but this is done by the academic members of staff.

The second important issue relating to participation is that almost every attendee participated in discussions held at Leeds. At KSU, participation was not substantially high. This could show a higher involvement for attendees at the University of Leeds. Participation in these meetings helped in creating discussions, which were extremely helpful in finalising decisions. More input into discussions was brought to the meetings by the academic members of staff. Again, it is not that the Faculty ignores their views totally, or that academic members of staff have some input but this is done in the form of writing proposals and requests. This strategy might be ineffective because it requires time for people to write and send the proposal to particular committees. There are no instant discussions for emerging issues. The Faculty of Education at KSU improvises a solution for this where it allows more discussion at different meetings; and discussion is restricted to limited issues at the Departmental Meeting. The final important issue is the level of influence on different organisational issues. Areas of influence were much broader at Leeds. Academic members of staff were involved in many issues ranging from teaching and learning to finance. It was found that the School involves its members of academic staff in decisions relating to strategy and policy, and this was not found at all at KSU. For example, meeting attendees were consulted on financial issues and spending at Leeds, while at KSU, such an issue was not considered as their business. The

final issue relates to gender. Female attendees at KSU attended meetings; however, they were in different meeting rooms (via a video conferencing system). It was noticed that female staff were less likely to participate in decisions.

Reaching and Making Decisions

It was found that there were different levels of academic staff engagement in decision-making. The most important point related to shared decisions. At the School of Education at the University of Leeds, although decisions were generally shared between attendees, there was an informal and implicit voting style, yet not all views were considered. On the other hand, at KSU decisions were not particularly shared. It can be concluded that decisions are discussed in the departments and approved in the faculty meetings. It might be said that members of committees are academic members of staff, and in this sense they participate in decision-making in their specialised committees or departments. This is true; nonetheless their decisions were limited to teaching and supervising issues. They were involved in any administrative, policy or strategy related issues.

Integrating academic members of staff in decisions relating to policy and strategy at Leeds has proved positive, as there were examples where one of the attendees enriched the meeting by sharing an experience gained from another university. In this example, integrating academic members of staff in the meeting proves that this does, in fact, add value to the decision-making process, and ultimately enables the University to receive maximum input and value for money from all members of staff, by fully utilising the organisation's resources. The School of Education at the University of Leeds has therefore proved to be more resourceful than the other organisation. Another example is that some administrative members of staff are invited to meetings and consulted in order to reach better decisions.

The influence of authority of the Dean in decision-making was felt at both organisations. This influence, however, was more dominant at KSU. Most decisions relating to the organisation's policy and strategy were made by him, or by the University's Chancellor. A final remark regarding decision-making from meeting observations was postponing. Whenever the Chair of meetings was not sure about what decision to make, they postponed making such a

decision. This strategy could provide them with more time to obtain more information and make better decisions. This was demonstrated in both universities, that the right amount of time, consideration and consultation was given before any decisions were finalised, showing the commitment required to ensure that the best decision was reached.

4.3.5 Research Follow-up

This research phase has promoted major reflection on the study in two ways. The first is regarding the research methodology and design. There were several examples where findings of the study provided useful insights to be included in the following stage. A collection of thoughts were grouped together and were included in the meeting schedule for the following research stage. Some points had been included originally, yet the findings of the documentary analysis and observation stages helped in refining the questions, making them more focused. In some other examples, a key finding has suggested adding a new prompt or sub-question, in order to gain more focused ideas.

Another reflection resulting from this initial research stage is on the theoretical framework for this study. The major issue is that each of the organisations have totally different approaches to decision-making. This supports the ideas suggested by Hofstede (2010) where cultural differences have major implications for understanding organisational behaviour. One very important issue this exploratory stage has helped in is reflecting on the wording and construction of the questionnaire, the research tool for the survey (the third stage of the research). This is the focus of the following chapter.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings from the exploratory stage employing documentary analysis and observation. The chapter has been divided into two major parts where the first presented and analysed findings from documents, and the second presented and analysed findings from observations. All themes and sub-themes in this chapter have been suggested from the data itself rather than the initial research's agenda or previously published literature. It is important to note that the first section related to documents showed 'areas related to decision-making' while the second part showed 'themes related to decision-making'.

Reviewing the exploratory research stages revealed that there were significant differences between the two institutions. Findings from Leeds show that meetings are more of a place where the School administration discusses their academic staff members' considerations. The most important area relates to policy and budget. This means, according to Martin (1998), issues and decisions made at the meeting relate to the objectives of the institution. Bringing such issues to this meeting means that the School wants to involve their academic staff members in discussing such an issue, or raising the levels of involvement regarding issues of objectives of the institution. This was not evident at the Faculty of Education at KSU. It was felt that the meeting at this institution is a place where members of academic staff raise their requests and suggestions. It relates more, in this sense, to the structure of the institution in the way it makes decisions (Beach & Connolly, 2005). The variation between the two institutions again show different identities for each institution and this supports the ideas presented by Keep *et al.* (1996), Fleming (1997), and Zona (2005) about the differences in higher education institutions and that an institution is affected or even directed by its context. Nonetheless, it is too early to reach conclusions as the nature of this research stage was exploratory, aiming to obtain preliminary ideas about each of the institutions regarding decision-making for academic staff.

Chapter Five

The Survey Findings

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four presented the results of documentary analysis and observation. This chapter now aims at presenting and discussing the results from the survey questionnaire completed by academic staff from both the School of Education at the University of Leeds and the Education Faculty at KSU. This chapter is divided into four main parts. In organising the first part, I followed the same pattern used previously with the questionnaires. The first section, or Part 1, presents general descriptive information about participants, relating specifically to participants' age, gender and number of years of experience. The following section, part two, presents findings related to teaching decisions, followed by research teaching decisions. This part also includes the presentation of financial decisions and then later by administrative decisions. Part three of the chapter focuses on inferential analysis of the differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in terms of relevant decisions. Finally, the last part includes sections on participants' comments from the open ended questions presented, discussion of key findings and a summary of the chapter. The findings at the first part of the chapter are presented collectively from both universities. The second part of the chapter presents a comparative analysis between data findings from both universities. At this research stage, I use one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine the differences between the two universities in relation to different types of decisions (teaching, financial, research and administrative).

As mentioned in the Methodology chapter, 190 questionnaires were distributed - 141 at KSU and 49 at the University of Leeds. 96 questionnaires were completed from both universities, which means that the overall response rate is 50.52 per cent (53 per cent of staff at the Faculty of Education, KSU and 50.3 per cent of the School of Education, University of Leeds). According to Biemer and Lyberg (2003), there are no response rates generally considered to be the most widely compared statistics for judging the quality of surveys. In other words, there is no specific answer for the response rate in social sciences. Babbie

(1998) suggest that 50 per cent is an acceptable response rate in social sciences. This means that the response rate acceptable in this study is methodologically acceptable.

5.2 Profiles of Research Participants

This section represents the results of the questions presented on page one of the questionnaire. There are seven items in this section asking for information covering the following: age, gender, number of years of experience in higher education, year of experience in current role, formal job function, formal title of position and administrative position. Participants' characteristics are used as factors (independent variables) that may or may not affect academic staff participation in teaching, research, financial and administrative decisions. In other words, these factors may be used as predictors for the future behaviour of academic staff. Regression in general is used to examine the relationship between dependent variables and independent variables that affect the behaviour of the dependent variable.

5.2.1 Study Sample by Gender

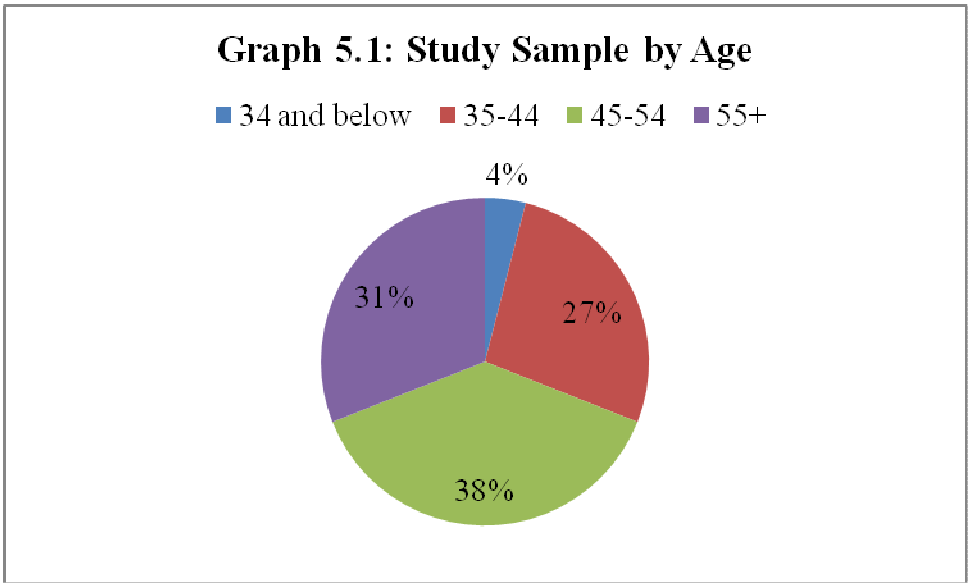
Table 5.1: Distribution of the Study Sample by Gender

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	72	75
Female	24	25
Total	**96**	**100**

The second question on the questionnaire and the next item for discussion in this section relates to the 'gender' of participants. There was a very noticeable difference in the ratio of responses received from males and females in that 72 males participated in the survey which equated to 75 per cent, and only 24 females participated, totalling 25 per cent. It was noticed how the number of male participants massively exceeded the number of females participants. Table 5.1 above shows this difference.

5.2.2 Study Sample by Age

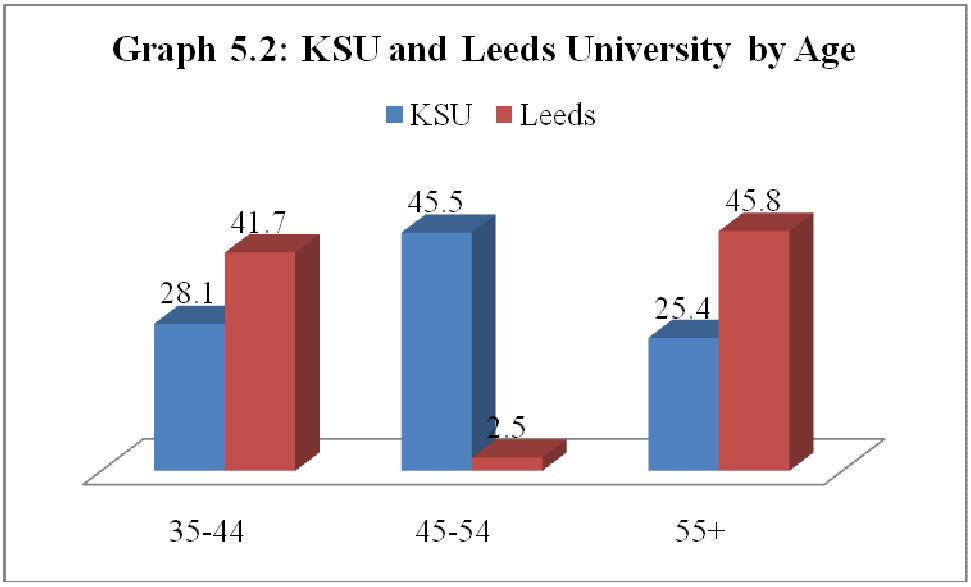
The results show that only 4.2 per cent of the participants were 34 years old or under. Very few people actually succeed in obtaining their qualification or moving into such a post prior to the age of 34. The second age group is 35 - 44. As can be seen, there is a very obvious increase in the number of participants who fell into this age group category, and a total of 27.4 per cent of participants of the total interviewed fell into this age group. The age range of the third group is 45 - 54, and this age group represents the largest percentage of participants, totalling 37.5 per cent (n = 36). The last group represents 55 years old plus, and this age group also has a substantial amount of participants, a total of 30.5 per cent falling into this age group. These findings are summarised in Graph 5.1.



It is immediately obvious to note the dominant age groups in this career were those in the age group of 45 and over, representing 69.5 per cent of participants.

In terms of age comparison between KSU and Leeds, it is shown that KSU has some academic members of staff who are 35 years of age or younger, whereas, there are none of under this age range at the University of Leeds. The highest age group at both organisations is the 55 years old or older category. This has significance and relevance to the research since people of a certain age have particular views and reflections on decisions. Generally, people

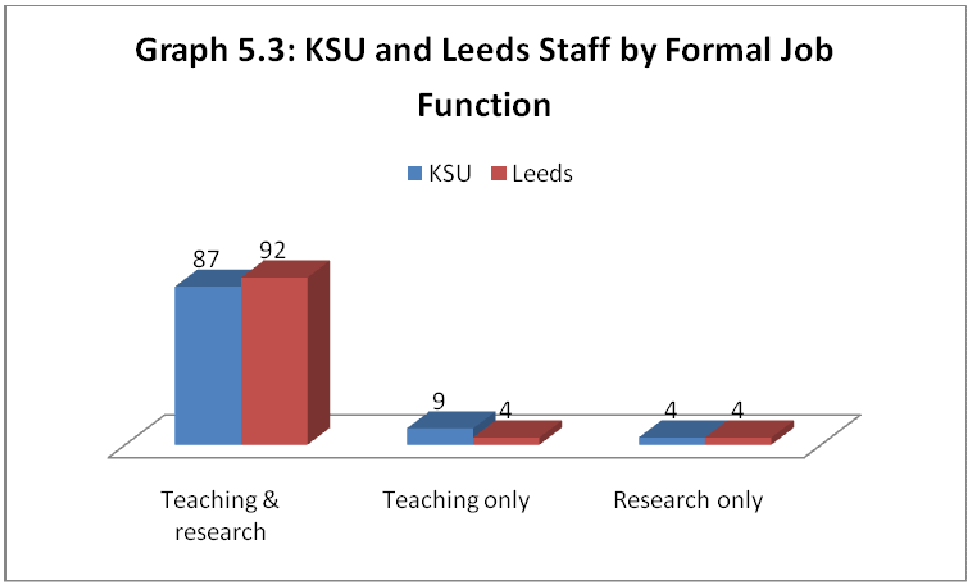
who fall into this age range will have extensive life experience, extensive work experience and will have built up several years of academic experience, gained in education.



5.2.3 Study Sample by Formal Job Function at KSU and the University of Leeds

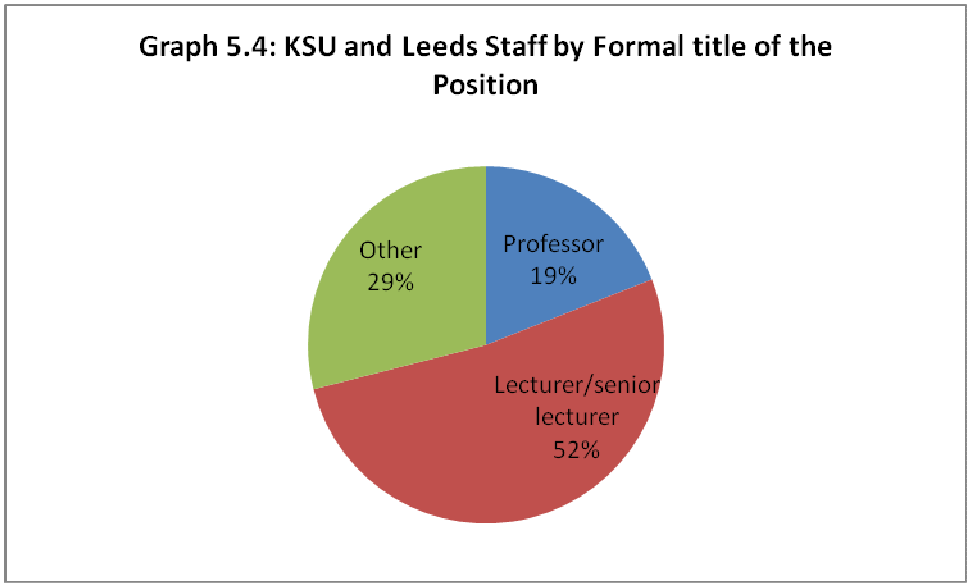
This item inquires about formal job function, which seeks to identify the participants' duties, i.e., identifying whether this is a teaching, research or other role. The highest group is teaching and research, which represents 87 per cent in both universities. This shows that these organisations invest their academics in both teaching and research. The lowest scoring group is research, only 4 per cent in both universities, which seems natural as these organisations provide higher education.

Graph 5.3 below illustrates participants' work nature, whether it involves teaching, research or both. A look at the graph shows that at KSU and Leeds, the number of participants involved only in teaching is very low (9 per cent and 4 per cent, respectively). The vast majority of participants are involved in both teaching and research in universities, (87 per cent and 92 per cent respectively).

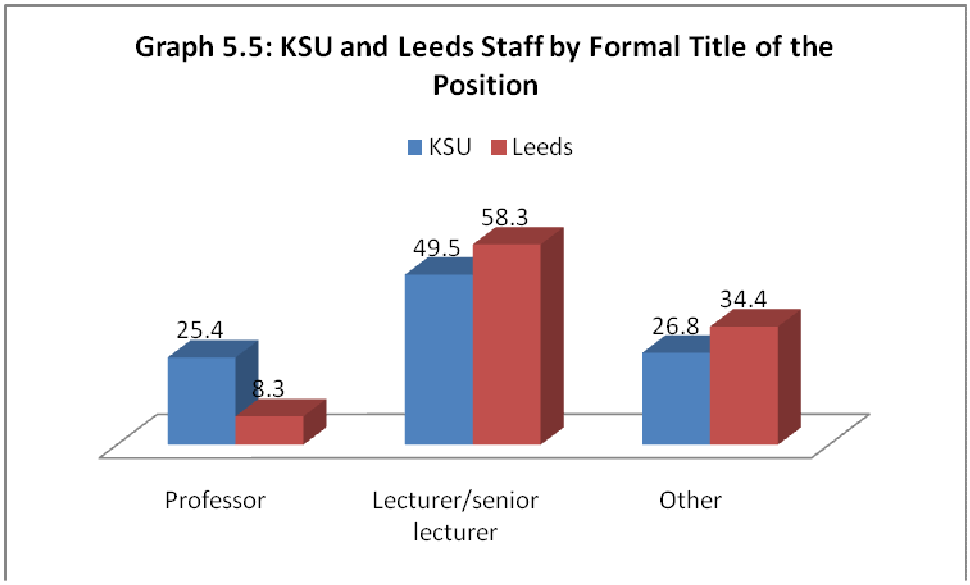


5.2.4 Study Sample by Formal Title of Position

This item seeks to identify academic staff member's formal title of position and academic status. This item in particular has some concerns in presenting and analysing data collectively between the two organisations. This is so as each of the academic systems in the UK and KSA have a different system and use different titles for their academic positions. There are a larger range of titles used in Britain than in Saudi Arabia. In the British system, the academic titles are as follows, namely, teaching fellow, research fellow, lecturer, senior lecturer, reader and professor. The Saudi system has only three academic titles, lecturer, associate professor and professor. Further analysis and discussion is presented later in the comparative section of the chapter. In general, I divided the sample into three groups: professor, lecturer/senior lecturer and others. Graph 5.4 shows that the percentage of professors accounted for is 19 per cent versus 52 per cent for lecturers and senior lecturers.



There are clear differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in terms of professors employed, with the percentage of Professors accounting for 25.4 per cent at KSU, against 8.3 per cent at the University of Leeds. There is no big difference between the two universities in relation to the percentage of lecturers/senior lecturers (49.5 per cent and 58.3 per cent respectively).



5.3 Teaching-Related Decisions

This section presents the questionnaire results of teaching-related decisions at both KSU and the University of Leeds.

5.3.1 Teaching-Related Decisions at KSU & the University of Leeds

Under this heading, I present and discuss findings from Section B of the questionnaire, which questions the role and involvement of academic members of staff regarding teaching related decisions at the Faculty of Education at KSU and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. This section not only deals with the actual involvement of such decisions, but also seeks to acquire participants' views of their desired level of involvement. There are 13 items under this question and participants are asked to rate them on a four point scale, where 1 is no participation and 4 is always participation (participate always). Results from this question are presented in the following Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Teaching Related Decisions at KSA and the University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Choosing your teaching methods	Actual	2.1	17.0	22.3	58.5	3.37	.842
	Desired	0	2.1	17.0	80.9	3.77	.557
Deciding on the course references	Actual	6.6	20.0	15.8	57.9	3.25	.989
	Desired	0	3.2	18.9	77.9	3.75	.505
Producing synopsis of the modules you teach	Actual	14.0	19.4	25.8	40.9	2.94	1.082
	Desired	0	0	24.2	75.8	3.76	.431
Identifying the content of what you teach	Actual	14.0	23.7	23.7	38.7	2.87	1.086
	Desired	0	0	13.7	86.3	3.86	.346
Identifying the objectives of the modules you teach	Actual	16.8	17.9	31.6	33.7	2.82	1.082
	Desired	0	0	26.3	26.3	3.74	.443
Developing the curriculum related to your teaching courses	Actual	15.1	35.5	26.9	22.6	2.57	1.004
	Desired	3.3	3.3	37.4	56.0	3.46	0.720
The choice of module that you teach	Actual	16.1	34.4	28.0	21.5	2.55	1.006
	Desired	3.2	8.4	29.5	58.9	3.44	0.782
Periodical changes in students evaluation strategies	Actual	22.6	31.2	24.7	21.5	2.45	1.068
	Desired	3.4	13.5	29.2	53.9	3.34	0.839
Course material evaluation for credit transfer for students from other universities	Actual	42.5	29.9	12.6	04.9	2.00	1.078
	Desired	14.1	11.8	35.3	38.8	2.99	1.041
Production of general school timetable	Actual	46.9	30.2	14.6	8.3	1.84	.966
	Desired	12.0	18.5	38.0	31.5	2.89	.988
Evaluating teaching standards in the department	Actual	48.9	28.3	15.2	7.6	1.82	.960
	Desired	15.2	16.3	33.7	34.8	2.88	1.057
Assessing teaching load of each staff member	Actual	50.5	33.0	10.6	6.4	1.73	.894
	Desired	14.4	16.7	32.2	36.7	2.91	1.056

Table 5.2 indicates that choosing teaching methods by academic members of staff at both institutions had the highest mean rank (3.37) for the actual decisions compared to 3.77 mean for the desired decisions. These results show differences between the actual and desired decisions. However, the table shows that more than half of the participants (58.5 per cent)

have always participated in decision-making, compared to 80.9 per cent who wish to have more involvement in choosing the teaching methods for the courses they teach.

Deciding on the course, references were rated as the second mean rank (3.25) against (3.75) the desired decisions. More than half of the academics at both universities (57.9 per cent) actually decided on course references, while more than two-thirds (77.9 per cent) desired to participate. Actual participation in producing the synopsis of modules taught by academic members of staff was rated as the third rank in its importance (2.94) compared to (3.76) for desired decisions. About 40 per cent of participants from both universities actually participate in the production of synopses, versus 75.8 per cent of participants who wish to get more involvement.

Table 5.2 also shows that academic members of staff are less likely to actually participate in decisions regarding developing the curriculum related to courses they teach with a mean rank 2.57 against 3.46 for the desired participation. These figures mean that the participation of academic staff in designing modules is low and they wish to have more participation in such decisions. It is also clear from the table that the actual participation of academic staff in decisions related to choosing the modules they teach with mean rank 2.55 versus 3.44 mean for the desired participation. In terms of percentages, less than one quarter actually participate in the choice of modules they teach, against 58.9 per cent for desired participation.

It is clear from the table above that the actual participation in evaluating teaching standards and assessing the teaching load for each staff member in both universities had the lowest mean ranks (mean = 1.82 and 1.73 respectively). However, the desired participation accounted for higher mean rank than the actual participation in both universities (mean= 2.88 and 2.91 respectiely).

5.3.2 Teaching-related Decisions in the Faculty of Education at KSU

This section presents the findings of teaching-related decisions from academic members of staff of the Faculty of Education at KSU. Table 5.3 below summarises these findings.

Table 5.3: Teaching-related Decisions – KSU

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Choosing your teaching methods	Actual	2.9	20.3	29.0	47.8	3.22	0.872
	Desired	2.9	0	21.7	75.4	3.70	0.626
Deciding on the course references	Actual	8.5	26.8	12.7	52.1	3.08	1.066
	Desired	0	4.2	16.9	78.9	3.75	0.626
Producing synopsis of the modules you teach	Actual	18.8	25,2	27.5	30.2	2.70	1.102
	Desired	0	0	19.7	80.3	3.77	0.421
Identifying the objectives of the modules you teach	Actual	21.1	22.5	27.5	24.6	2.62	1.100
	Desired	0	0	16.9	83.1	3.80	0.401
Identifying the content of what you teach	Actual	18.8	29	27.5	24.6	2.58	1.063
	Desired	0	0	16.9	83.1	3.83	0.377
The choice of module that you teach	Actual	15.9	42	24.6	17.4	2.43	0.962
	Desired	4.2	2.8	26.8	66.2	3.55	0.752
Production of the general school time table	Actual	35.2	36.6	16.9	11.3	2.04	0.992
	Desired	4.2	11.3	43.7	40.8	3.21	0.809
Course material evaluation for credit transfer for students from other universities	Actual	41.8	29.9	13.4	14.9	2.01	1.080
	Desired	7.5	9	38.8	44.8	3.21	0.897
Developing the curriculum related to your teaching courses	Actual	15.5	45.1	22.5	16.9	2.41	0.950
	Desired	4.3	2.9	31.9	60.9	3.49	0.760
Assessing teaching load for each staff member	Actual	44.9	42	7.0	5.8	1.74	0.834
	Desired	4.6	16.9	33.8	44.6	3.18	0.882
Periodical changes in students evaluation strategies	Actual	2.9	35.2	15.5	25.4	2.42	1.117
	Desired	4.5	9	17.9	68.7	3.51	0.842
Evaluating teaching standards in the department	Actual	59.7	26.9	7.5	6	1.60	0.871
	Desired	17.9	9	26.9	46.3	3.01	1.135

It is clear from Table 5.3 that the highest mean rank was allocated for the actual choosing of teaching methods by academic staff, mean = 3.22 versus 3.70 for desirable participation. The second mean rank was allocated for actual participation in decisions related to deciding on course references, mean = 3.08 against 3.75 for desired participation. Actual participation of academic staff in the production of synopsis of modules they teach had the third highest mean rank, 2.70 versus 3.77 for desired participation.

Table 5.3 also demonstrates a large difference between actual participation and desired participation (mean = 2.62 and 3.80 respectively) in relation to identifying the objectives of modules. This means that academic members of staff wish to get more involved in related decisions. Actual participation in identifying the content of what to teach by academic staff had the fifth highest mean rank (2.58) compared to a higher mean rank for desired participation (3.83). It can be understood from these results that there is a noteworthy difference between actual and desired participation.

It seems from the table that the lowest mean ranks were allocated for item evaluating teaching standards in the department (mean = 1.60), although the desired mean ranks was high to a large extent (3.01). This means that academics wish to have more involvement in such decisions.

5.3.3 Teaching-Related Decisions in the School of Education at the University of Leeds

This section presents the questionnaire results related to teaching-related decisions in the School of Education at the University of Leeds. Table 5.4 below summarises these findings.

Table 5.4: Teaching-related Decisions – University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Choosing your teaching methods	Actual	2.8	18.4	29.1	49.7	3.80	0.882
	Desired	2.9	0	22.7	74.4	3.96	0.626
Deciding on the course references	Actual	8.5	23.8	12.7	55.1	3.75	1.066
	Desired	0	4.2	16.9	78.9	3.75	0.626
Producing synopsis of the modules you teach	Actual	18.8	25,2	27.5	30.2	3.63	1.102
	Desired	0	0	16.5	83.5	3.71	0.421
Identifying the objectives of the modules you teach	Actual	21.1	22.5	27.5	24.6	3.42	1.100
	Desired	0	0	16.9	83.1	3.54	0.401
Identifying the content of what you teach	Actual	17.8	27	28.5	26.6	3.71	1.063
	Desired	0	0	14.9	85.1	3.96	0.377
The choice of module that you teach	Actual	15.9	42	24.6	17.4	2.88	0.962
	Desired	4.2	2.8	26.8	66.2	3.12	0.752
Production of the general school time table	Actual	35.2	36.6	16.9	11.3	1.28	0.992
	Desired	4.2	11.3	43.7	40.8	1.81	0.809
Course material evaluation for credit transfer for students from other universities	Actual	41.8	29.9	13.4	14.9	1.95	1.080
	Desired	7.5	9	38.8	44.8	2.17	0.897
Developing the curriculum related to your teaching courses	Actual	15.5	45.1	22.5	16.9	2.55	0.950
	Desired	4.3	2.9	31.9	60.9	2.82	0.760
Assessing teaching load for each staff member	Actual	44.9	42	7.0	5.8	1.72	0.834
	Desired	4.6	16.9	33.8	44.6	2.20	0.882
Periodical changes in students evaluation strategies	Actual	2.9	35.2	15.5	25.4	2.85	1.117
	Desired	4.5	9	17.9	68.7	3.09	0.842
Evaluating teaching standards in the department	Actual	59.7	26.9	7.5	6	2.40	0.871
	Desired	17.9	9	26.9	46.3	2.52	1.135

Table 5.4 indicates no major differences between the actual and desired participation in teaching decisions in all items. It is clear from the table that the the highest mean rank was allocated for the actual choosing of teaching methods by academic staff, mean = 3.80 versus 3.96 for desirable participation, followed by deciding on the course references accounted for 3.75 for both actual and desired participation.

The mean of actual participation in the choice of module that academic members of staff choose to teach accounted for 2.88 compared to 3.12 for desired participation. This was followed by production of the general school time table, (actual = 2.85 and desired = 3.09). The mean of participation in identifying the objectives of modules an academic staff member teaches, was 3.42 for actual and 3.54 for desired participation.

The mean of actual participation of the academic staff in the production of the general school timetable accounted for 1.28 compared to 1.81 for desired participation.. In terms of evaluating teaching standards in the department, the mean for actual participation is 2.40 and desired 2.52. Table 5.4 presents other items of participation in decisions related to teaching.

5.3.4 Comparing KSU and the University of Leeds

This section presents the differences between the Faculty of Education at KSU and the School of Education at the University of Leeds, concerning their participation in teaching related decisions. Table 5.5 summarises these findings in a comparative manner below.

Table 5.5: Comparing Teaching-related Decisions (Leeds and KSA)

Areas of Participation	State	Leeds	KSU	K. W. Sig.
Choosing your teaching methods	Actual	3.80	3.22	.001
	Desired	3.96	3.70	.025
Deciding on course references	Actual	3.75	3.08	.009
	Desired	3.75	3.75	.776
Producing synopsis of the modules you teach	Actual	3.63	2.70	.000
	Desired	3.71	3.77	.514
Identifying the objectives of the modules you teach	Actual	3.42	2.62	.002
	Desired	3.54	3.80	.012
Identifying the content of what you teach	Actual	3.71	2.58	.000
	Desired	3.96	3.83	.119
The choice of module that you teach	Actual	2.88	2.43	.054
	Desired	3.12	3.55	.008
Periodical changes in the students' evaluation strategies	Actual	2.85	2.42	.543
	Desired	3.09	3.51	.000
Developing the curriculum related to your teaching courses	Actual	2.55	2.41	.000
	Desired	2.82	3.49	.167
Production of the general school time table	Actual	1.28	2.04	.000
	Desired	1.81	3.21	.000
Course materials evaluation for credit transfer for students from other universities	Actual	1.95	2.01	.472
	Desired	2.17	3.21	.000
Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department	Actual	1.72	1.76	0.819
	Desired	2.20	3.33	0.918
Assessing teaching load for each staff member	Actual	1.72	1.74	.472
	Desired	2.20	3.18	.000
Evaluating teaching standards in the department	Actual	2.40	1.60	.000
	Desired	2.52	3.01	.008

It is clear from table 5.5 that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to actually participate in choosing the teaching methods for courses they teach (mean = 3.80), than their counterparts at KSU (mean = 3.22) with P=0.001<0.05). Although staff at the University of Leeds actually participate in the teaching methods in decision-making, they still wish to desirably participate in such decisions (mean = 3.96) compared to 3.70 at KSU. In relation to deciding on the course references, again, staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate (mean = 3.75) in such decisions than staff at KSU (mean = 3.08), along with P=0.009. Staff at both universities equally wish to desirably participate in such decisions with no significant differences between the two universities (mean = 3.75, P= 0.776). Actual participation in decisions related to the production of synopsis of modules had the third mean rank (mean = 3.63 for the University of Leeds and 2.70 for KSU) with P=0.000. However, results in the table above indicate no significant differences between the two universities in relation to desired participation in producing a synopsis (mean = 3.71 and 3.77 respectively, P = 0.514>0.05).

Actual participation of staff in identifying the objectives of the module they teach accounted for significant differences between the University of Leeds (mean = 3.42) and KSU (mean = 2.62) along with P = 0.002<0.05. Apparently, the academic staff members at KSU are more likely to desirably participate in such decisions (mean = 3.80) than those at the University of Leeds (mean = 3.54) along with P = 0.012<0.05.

Again, staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to actually participate in decisions related to identifying the content of what they teach (mean = 3.71) than their counterparts from KSU (mean = 2.58) with P = 0.000<0.05. The findings demonstrate no significant differences between universities (P = 0.119>0.05), since the academics at both universities wish to gain more involvement in decisions related to the content of the modules that they teach.

Table 5.5, in general, indicates to what extent members of academic staff from both universities participate in teaching-related decisions. The table shows that the lowest mean rank was allocated for decisions related to evaluating teaching standards whether in Leeds

(mean = 2.40), or KSU (mean = 1.60). However, those at KSU wish to have more involvement in such decisions (mean = 3.01), than their counterparts from Leeds (mean = 2.52) along with P = 0.008<0.05.

5.3.5 Assumptions One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The nature of this study and its research questions entail the use of ANOVA because it aims to examine the differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in terms of decision-making at both universities. There are a number of underlying assumptions of ANOVA (Green and Salkind 2003):

1. The dependent variable is continuous;
2. Normality of dependent variable in relation to the independent variable;
3. The population variances and covariance among the dependent variables are the same across all levels of the factor (homogeneity).

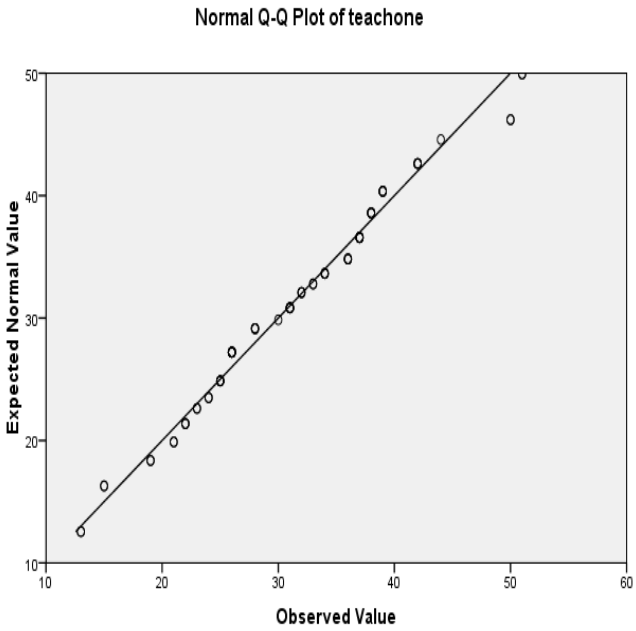
Assumption One:

I used COMOUTE in SPSS to create an additive index, which added all items in the questionnaire related to teaching, research, financial and administrative decisions. This process has produced four continuous variables: teaching related-decisions, financial-related decision, research-related decisions and administrative-related decision. It can be concluded that the first assumption was achieved. It is clear from the four graphs below that the majority of observations are crowded around the mean, and therefore are approximately following normal distribution.

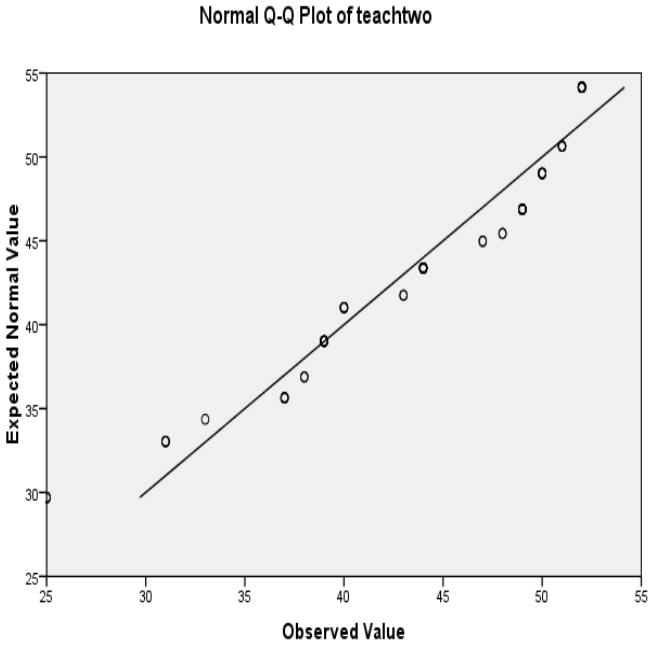
Assumption Two: Normality

The following histograms of the six dependent variables are presented below. It is clear from the six graphs below that all continuous variables are approximately normal. Therefore, the assumption of normality is met. It is clear from the six scatter plots that the vast majority of data are scattered around the straight line.

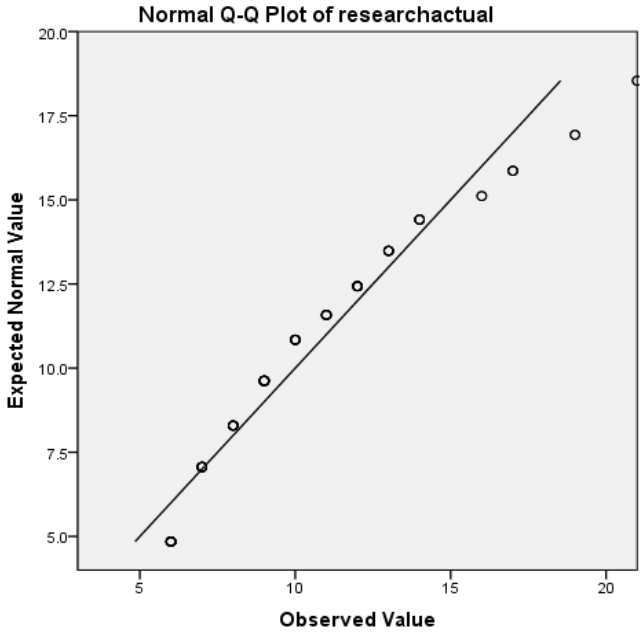
Teaching-related decisions (actual)



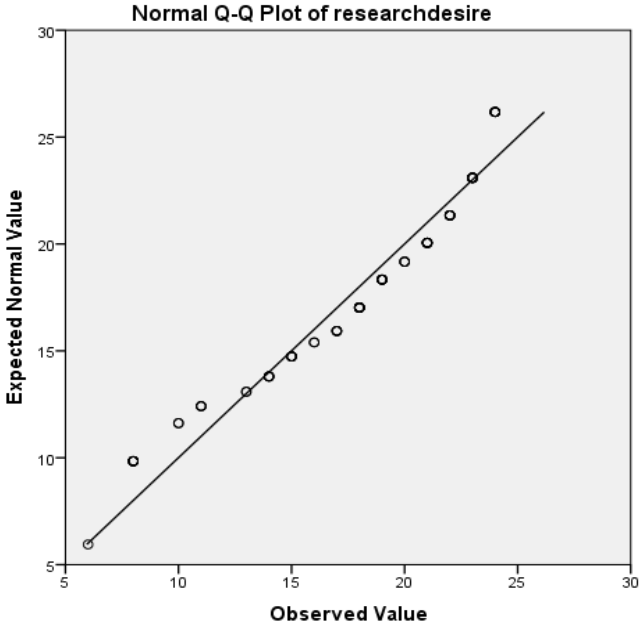
Teaching related decisions (desired)



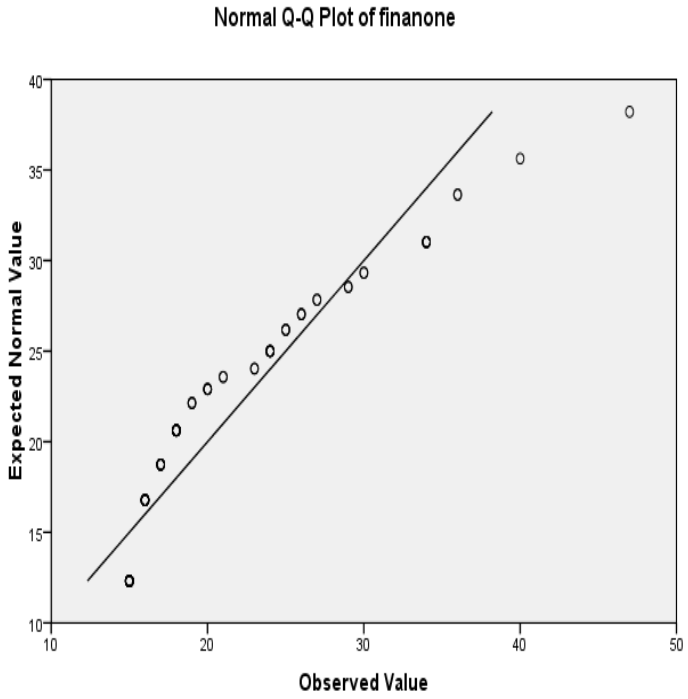
Research related decisions (actual)



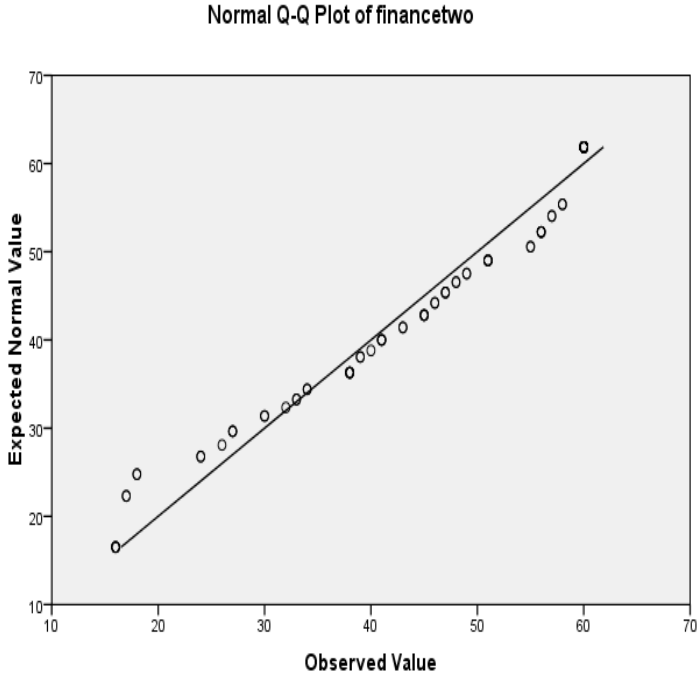
Research related decisions (desired)



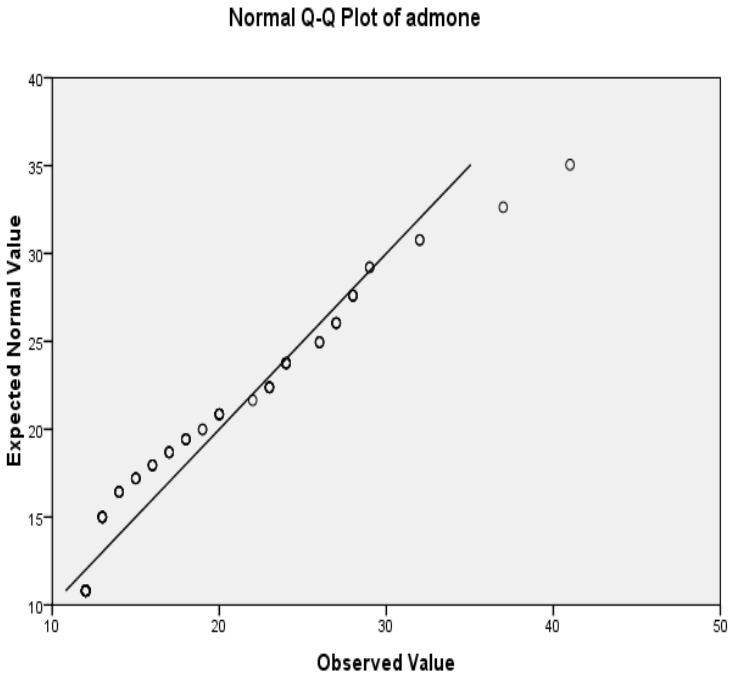
Financial related decisions (actual)



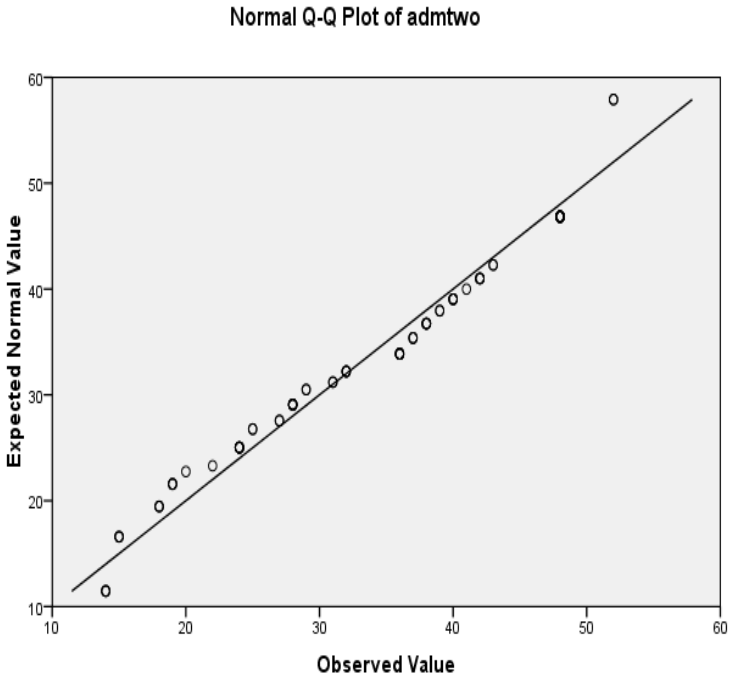
Financial related decisions (desired)



Administration related decisions (actual)



Administrative related decisions (desired)



Assumption Three: Homogeneity of Variances

Levene's test of the homogeneity of variance (see Methodology chapter) in the table below, indicates that the p-values (significant level) for variables (teaching-related decisions actual, teaching-related desired decisions, financial-related decisions-actual, financial-related decisions desired, administrative-related decisions actual, administrative-related decisions desired, research-related decisions actual, and research-related decisions desired) are greater than 0.05, which brings the conclusion that variances across groups are significantly different (unequal). Therefore, the assumption of homogeneity is not violated. This is shown in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: Test of Homogeneity

Levene Statistics	P-value
2.227	0.140
3.052	0.138
1.791	0.136
2.81	0.092
1.683	0.058
2.115	0.199
0.167	0.684
3.115	0.081

5.3.6 Findings of One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Actual Teaching-related Decisions

ANOVA Table 5.7 indicates a significant difference between KSU and the University of Leeds in relation to the actual teaching decisions taken ($F = 7.483$, $P = 0.008<0.05$). This means that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in decisions related to teaching, than their counterparts at the KSU.

Table 5.7: ANOVA for Teaching Related-decisions (actual)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	506.229	1	506.229	7.483	.008
Within Groups	5074.083	75	67.654		
Total	5580.312	76			

Desired Teaching-related Decisions

Again, the results of one way ANOVA demonstrate a significant difference between staff at KSU and staff at the University of Leeds regarding their desire to participate in teaching-related decisions ($F = 16.697$, $P = 0.000<0.05$). Although the actual participation of academic staff at the University of Leeds was higher than KSU, the desire of the academic staff at KSU to participate in teaching related decisions was higher than those at the University of Leeds.

Table 5.8: ANOVA for Teaching Related-decisions (desire)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	680.260	1	680.260	16.697	.000
Within Groups	3055.532	75	40.740		
Total	3735.792	76			

These results reflect the significant differences between the two universities in relation to teaching-related decisions. It is clear from the results that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds participated more in teaching-related decisions than their counterparts at KSU. Furthermore, one ANOVA demonstrates significant statistical differences between the two universities, which emphasises that those at the University of Leeds have more freedom to express their views, which was supported in the in-depth interviews (see Chapter Six).

5.4 Research-related Decisions

This section presents the questionnaire results of research related decisions in both King Saud University and the University of Leeds.

5.4.1 Research Related Decisions in KSU and the University of Leeds

Table 5.9: Research-related Decisions at KSU and the University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Contract negotiation for privately funded research	Actual	57.1	31.9	8.8	2.2	3.25	0.989
	Desired	19.5	9.2	39.1	32.2	3.75	0.505
Writing a grant application for externally funded research projects	Actual	52.6	27.4	13.7	6.3	1.74	0.925
	Desired	8.6	12.9	35.5	43.0	3.13	0.947
Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department	Actual	51.6	27.4	16.8	4.2	1.74	.890
	Desired	19.4	8.6	28.0	44.1	2.97	1.146
External research consultancy	Actual	61.1	21.1	14.7	3.2	1.6	0.856
	Desired	10.8	8.6	40.9	39.8	3.1	0.956
Feasibility studies for private funded research projects	Actual	69.7	22.5	4.5	3.4	1.42	0.736
	Desired	24.1	16.1	20.7	39.1	2.75	1.13
Periodically estimating the research projects budget of the department	Actual	78.9	12.6	7.4	1.1	1.31	0.654
	Desired	24.2	17.9	38.5	19.8	2.54	1.068

This section presents academic staff members' participation in research related decisions. Table 5.9 above indicates that contract negotiation for privately funded projects had the highest mean rank (3.25) for actual participation of academic staff, compared to 3.75 mean rank for desired participation. The second mean rank was for writing grant applications for externally funded research projects, with 1.74 mean for actual participation and 3.13 for desired participation. Again, the engagement of academic staff in the evaluation process of research projects was rated as the third rank with mean 1.74 for actual participation and 2.97 for desired participation. The table also shows the actual participation of academic members in external research consultancy which had a low mean rank (1.6), compared to 3.1 desired participation. Apparently, the periodically estimating research projects budget had the lowest rank, with a mean of 1.31 for actual participation and 2.54 for desired participation. The

results presented in the table above demonstrate significant differences between actual and desired participation in research related decisions.

5.4.2 Research Related Decisions at KSU

Table 5.10: Research-related Decisions at KSU

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department	Actual	45.1	36.6	15.5	2.8	1.76	0.819
	Desired	7.2	8.7	27.5	56.5	3.33	0.918
Contract negotiation for privately funded research	Actual	54.9	36.6	5.6	2.8	1.56	0.732
	Desired	7.5	6	46.3	40.3	3.19	0.857
Writing grant applications for externally funded research projects	Actual	63.4	25.4	11.3	0	1.48	0.694
	Desired	7.2	8.7	34.8	49.3	3.26	0.902
Feasibility studies for private funded research projects	Actual	69.7	22.5	4.5	3.4	1.42	0.736
	Desired	24.1	16.1	20.7	39.1	2.75	1.13
External research consultancy	Actual	71.8	19.7	8.5	0	1.37	0.638
	Desired	7.2	2.9	40.6	49.3	3.32	0.849
Periodically estimating the research projects budget of the department	Actual	77.5	14.1	8.5	0	1.31	0.623
	Desired	7.5	19.4	47.8	25.4	2.91	0.866

Table 5.10 demonstrates low participation in all statements related to academic staff participation in research related activities and decisions. Although actual participation in the evaluation of progress of research projects had the highest rank, its actual mean accounted only for 1.76, compared to 3.33 for desired participation. The second mean rank was for the participation of academics in contract negotiation in privately funded research projects (1.56), compared with 3.19 for desired participation. Writing grant applications for externally funded research projects had the third mean rank of actual participation (1.48), compared with 3.26 for desired participation. The table also shows that periodically estimating the research projects budgets of the department had the lowest actual mean rank (1.31), compared with 2.91 for desired participation. In general, the results indicate significant

differences between the actual participation of academic staff in research decisions and their desired participation. Therefore, staff wish to have more involvement in research decisions.

5.4.3 Research-related Decisions at the University of Leeds

Table 5.11: Research Related Decisions at the University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No Participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Writing a grant application for externally funded research projects	Actual	20.8	35.3	20.8	25	2.50	1.103
	Desired	12.5	25	37.5	25	2.75	0.989
External research consultancy	Actual	29.2	25	33.3	12	2.29	1.042
	Desired	20.8	25	41.7	12.5	2.46	0.997
Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department	Actual	45.1	36.6	15.5	2.8	1.76	0.819
	Desired	7.2	8.7	27.5	56.5	1.92	0.918
Feasibility studies for private funded research projects	Actual	65	20	15	0	1.65	1.089
	Desired	0	60	25	15	1.70	1.081
Contract negotiation for privately funded research	Actual	6.5	15	20	0	1.55	0.826
	Desired	60	20	15	5	1.65	0.933
Periodically estimating research projects budget of the department	Actual	83.3	8.3	4.2	4.2	1.29	0.751
	Desired	70.8	12.5	12.5	4.2	1.50	0.885

It is clear from Table 5.11 that the participation of academic members of staff at the University of Leeds in research-related activities and decisions is different from KSU, as shown in the next section. The table indicates that the actual participation of academics in writing grant applications for externally funded projects had the highest rank mean (2.50), compared to 2.75 for desired participation. Actual participation in external research consultancy had the second highest mean rank (2.29), compared to 2.46 to desired participation. Actual participation in the evaluation of progress of research projects registered as the third mean rank (1.76), compared to 1.92 for desired participation. This means that staff wished to have more involvement in the evaluation of progress. Apparently, the actual participation in periodically estimating the research projects' budgets accounted for the lowest mean rank along with 1.29, compared as well to a low desired participation in that

activity. This means that academic members of staff are not interested in participation in such decisions.

5.4.4 Comparing Research-Related Decisions between KSU and the University of Leeds

Table 5.12: Comparing Research-Related Decisions between KSU and Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	Leeds	KSU	Significance
Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department	Actual	1.67	1.76	0.252
	Desired	1.92	3.33	0.000
Contract negotiation for privately funded research	Actual	1.55	1.56	0.728
	Desired	1.65	3.19	0.000
Writing grant applications for externally funded research projects	Actual	2.50	1.48	0.000
	Desired	2.75	3.26	0.017
Feasibility studies for private funded research projects	Actual	1.65	1.42	0.439
	Desired	1.70	2.75	0.000
External research consultancy	Actual	2.29	1.37	0.000
	Desired	2.46	3.32	0.000
Periodically estimating the research projects budget of the department	Actual	1.29	1.37	0.604
	Desired	1.50	2.91	0.000

In this sub-section, I compare the actual and desired participation of academic staff in research related decisions. Table 5.12 demonstrates no significant difference between the actual participation of both academic staff in KSU and University of Leeds (P = 0.252). This means that staff members at both universities significantly participate in the evaluation process of research. However, the table indicates significant differences between desired participation in the evaluation of research (P = 0.000<0.05), since academic staff at King Saud University wish to be more involved in decision-making. Similarly, the table above indicates no significance in actual participation of staff in contract negotiation for privately funded research projects. Nevertheless, the table shows significant differences between both universities (p=0.728>0.05), since staff at both universities are not engaged in the negotiation process of contracting research projects.

In terms of writing grant applications for external funding, the results of this study show a significant difference between the two universities (P = 0.000), whereas academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to be engaged in writing a grant application than their counterparts from KSU (2.50 and 1.48 respectively, P = 0.000).

An important difference appears from the table above, in that academics at KSU are less likely to actually participate in external research consultancy (mean = 1.37) than their counterparts at the University of Leeds (mean = 2.29, P = 0.000). Similarly, the table shows significant differences between both organisations in relation to desirably participating in research consultancy, since those at KSU wish to be involved more than their counterparts from the University of Leeds.

Similarly, the results in the table above indicate no significant difference between the two universities in relation to the actual participation of academic members of staff in estimating the budgets of research projects (P = 0.604). However, those at KSU are more likely to be involved in decision-making than their counterparts from the University of Leeds (P=0.000).

5.4.5 Analysis of Variance of Research-related Decisions (ANOVA)

Actual Research-related Decisions

ANOVA Table 5.13 indicates a significant difference between KSU and University of Leeds in relation to the actual research decisions taken at the School of Education (F = 6.445, P = 0.002<0.05). This means that people at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in research-related decisions than their counterparts at KSU.

Table 5.13: ANOVA for Related Decisions (actual)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	332.418	1	361.521	6.445	.002
Within Groups	4869.259	75	57.273		
Total	5207.057	76			

Desired Research-related Decisions

The results of one way ANOVA demonstrate significant difference between KSU and the University of Leeds concerning the desire of participation in research-related decisions (F = 14.260, P = 0.000<0.05). Although the actual participation of those at Leeds University was higher than KSU, the desire of KSU staff to participate in research-related decisions was higher than those at the University of Leeds.

Table 5.14: ANOVA for Teaching Related Decisions (desire)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	522.416	1	680.260	14.214	.000
Within Groups	2925.256	75	37.752		
Total	3489.2551	76			

5.5 Financial-Related Decisions

This section presents the questionnaire results related to financial decisions in both KSU and the University of Leeds.

5.5.1 Financial-Related Decisions at KSU and the University of Leeds

Under this heading, I present and discuss the findings from Section C of the questionnaire, which queries participants about their role and level of involvement of academic members of staff regarding making financial decisions. This section does not only deal with the actual involvement of such decisions, but also seeks the participants' views on what they feel regarding their level of involvement. There are 15 items under this question, and they are grouped for ease of presentation. In the question, participants are asked to rate items on a four point scale, where 1 is no participation and 4 is always participate. Results from this question are presented in Table 5.15 below.

Table 5.15: Financial-related Decisions at KSU and the University of Leeds							
Areas of Participation	**State**	**No Participation**	**Low participation**	**High participation**	**Always participate**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Supplying equipment for the department	Actual	50.0	25.6	17.8	6.7	1.81	0.959
	Desired	8.1	22.1	43.0	26.7	2.88	0.900
Maintenance of departmental buildings and equipment	Actual	48.9	31.1	12.2	7.8	1.79	0.942
	Desired	12.9	22.4	32.9	31.8	2.84	1.022
Purchasing teaching materials, books and scientific periodicals	Actual	51.1	27.8	15.6	5.6	1.76	0.916
	Desired	22.1	23.3	33.7	20.9	2.53	1.059
Estimating the value of additional teaching hours as a component of the budget	Actual	51.1	31.8	9.1	8.0	1.74	0.928
	Desired	16.7	22.6	19.0	40.5	3.08	0.475
Estimating the budget allocation to purchase the equipment needed for your department	Actual	57.1	33.8	5.8	3.3	1.52	0.726
	Desired	22.1	30.4	27.9	17.6	2.43	1.034
Assessing financial incentives for students	Actual	56.7	33.4	9.9	0	1.52	0.647
	Desired	21.2	29.4	29.4	20.0	2.48	1.032
Supplying stationary for the department	Actual	57.7	33.5	8.8	0	1.52	0.757
	Desired	21.2	31.4	27.4	20.0	2.48	1.022
Educational grants from international foundations for new courses	Actual	59.1	31.8	6.7	2.4	1.52	0.727
	Desired	21.1	32.4	26.9	19.6	2.43	1.035
Identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by the department	Actual	56.7	34.4	8.9	0	1.52	0.657
	Desired	21.2	29.4	29.4	20.0	2.48	1.042
Estimating the cost of equipment and tools required for the department	Actual	80.7	13.6	5.7	0	1.25	0.552
	Desired	50.0	21.4	11.9	16.7	1.95	1.140

Table 5.15 clearly shows that the participation of academic members of staff at KSU and the University of Leeds, in general, is very low since the highest mean rank of actual participation in supplying equipment for the Faculty or School of Education accounted only for 1.81, compared to 2.88 for the desired mean.

The actual participation of academics in decisions related to maintenance of the Faculty or School of Education building is very low, and does not exceed, mean 1.79 compared to 2.84 who wish to desirably participate in such decisions. To a large extent, only 5.6 per cent of participants reported their always participation in decisions related to purchasing teaching

materials such as books and journals, compared to 20.9 per cent who wish to be more involved in such decisions.

The actual participation of academics in decisions related to estimating the cost of equipment and tools required for the Faculty or School of Education was the lowest mean rank (1.25), compared to 1.95 for desired participation. It is clear from Table 5.15 that the majority of participants do not participate in such decisions.

5.5.2 Financial-Related Decisions at KSU

Table 5.16 demonstrates a general perception that the overwhelming majority of academic staff of the Faculty of Education at KSU do not participate in financial related decisions.

Table 5.16: Financial-related Decisions, KSU

Areas of Participation	State	No participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Estimating the cost of equipment and tools required for the department	Actual	63.4	23.9	9.9	2.8	1.52	0.790
	Desired	13	7.2	40.6	39.1	3.06	0.998
Supplying equipment for the department	Actual	62.3	24.6	13	0	1.51	0.72
	Desired	10	16.4	32.8	40.3	3.03	1.000
Purchasing teaching materials, books and scientific periodicals	Actual	67.6	22.9	7	2.8	1.45	0.752
	Desired	7.2	14.3	33.3	44.9	3.16	0.933
Assessing financial incentives for students	Actual	67.6	20.9	9	2.8	1.45	0.752
	Desired	7.2	14	33.6	44.9	3.16	0.933
Estimating the value of additional teaching hours as a component of the budget	Actual	69.6	20.3	7.2	2.9	1.43	0.757
	Desired	10.4	25.4	20.9	43.3	2.97	1.058
Estimating the budget allocation to purchase the equipment needed for your department	Actual	69.6	22.3	5.2	2.9	1.43	0.757
	Desired	10.3	25.5	20.9	43.3	2.97	1.058
Identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by the department	Actual	76.1	19.7	4.2	0	1.28	0.539
	Desired	23.2	26.1	14.5	36.2	2.64	1.200
The maintenance of the departmental buildings and equipment	Actual	80.3	15.5	4.2	0	1.24	0.520
	Desired	14.5	29.0	23.2	33.3	2.75	1.077
Supplying stationary for the department	Actual	69.6	21.3	6.2	2.9	1.42	.167
	Desired	11.3	24.5	21.9	42.3	3.01	000
Educational grants from international foundations for new courses	Actual	81.7	14.1	4.2	0	1.23	0.513
	Desired	10.4	10.4	30.8	30.3	3.09	0.965

Although participation in estimating the cost of equipment for the Faculty rated the highest mean rank (1.52), it was too low compared to teaching related decisions. Table 5.16 indicates that more than three-quarters of participants in the study wish to participate in such decisions.

The table also indicates a significant difference between the actual and desired participation of staff in supplying equipment for the Faculty of Education (mean rank = 1.51 and 3.03 respectively). Again, there is a significant difference between actual and desired participation in purchasing teaching materials, such as books and scientific periodicals (mean rank = 1.45 and 3.16 respectively).

The actual participation in estimating the value of any additional teaching hours accounted for 1.43, versus 2.97 for desired participation. Academic members of staff are less likely to actually participate in identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by the Faculty (mean = 1.28), than desired participation (mean = 2.64).

It is clear from Table 5.16 that the actual participation of staff in decisions on educational grants from international foundations and for new courses had the lowest mean rank (1.23). Despite, the low level of actual participation, the majority of academic staff wish to have more involvement in such decisions (mean = 3.09).

5.5.3 Financial-Related Decisions at the University of Leeds

This section presents different areas of financial-related decisions, in which academic members of staff from the University of Leeds participate. These findings are summarised in Table 5.17 below.

Table 5.17: Financial Related Decisions: University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Purchasing teaching materials, books and scientific periodicals	Actual	16.7	54.2	8.3	20.8	2.33	1.007
	Desired	12.5	45.8	20.8	20.8	2.50	0.978
Estimating the value of additional teaching hours as a component of the budget	Actual	50	20	22	8	1.69	0.873
	Desired	40.5	30.5	15	5	1.75	0.856
Supplying equipment for the department	Actual	54.5	27.3	18.2	0	1.64	0.790
	Desired	50	31.8	18.2	0	1.68	0.780
Estimating the budget allocation to purchase the equipment needed for your department	Actual	79.3	8.3	4.2	8.2	1.50	0.681
	Desired	70.8	10.5	14.5	4.2	1.71	0.672
Educational grants from international foundations for new courses	Actual	59.1	31.8	9.1	0	1.50	0.673
	Desired	54.4	36.4	9.1	0	1.55	0.671
The maintenance of departmental buildings and equipment	Actual	70.8	16.7	12.5	0	1.42	0.717
	Desired	70.8	16.7	12.5	0	1.42	0.717
Periodically estimating the research projects budget of the department	Actual	83.3	8.3	4.2	4.2	1.29	0.751
	Desired	70.8	12.5	12.5	4.2	1.50	0.885
Estimating the cost of the equipment and tools required for the department	Actual	70.8	29.2	0	0	1.29	0.464
	Desired	58.3	41.7	0	0	1.42	0.504
Identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by department	Actual	75	20.8	4.2	0	1.29	0.550
	Desired	62.5	25	12.5	12.50	1.50	0.722
Supplying stationary for the department	Actual	77	18.8	4.2	0	1.17	0.162
	Desired	64.5	25	12.5	10.50	1.17	0.421

Table 5.17 shows that the actual participation of staff from the School of Education at the University of Leeds in decisions related to purchasing teaching materials, books and scientific periodicals had the highest mean rank (2.33), compared to 2.50 for desired participation. The actual participation in estimating the value of additional teaching hours had

the second highest mean rank 1.69, compared to 1.75, which means no significant differences between the actual and desired participation. The actual participation of academics in supplying equipment for the School had the third highest mean rank (1.64) compared only to 1.68. Therefore, there is no significant difference between actual and desired participation. Similarly, there is no significant difference between actual and desired participation of staff in educational grants from international foundations for new courses (mean = 1.50 and 1.55 respectively). Table 5.17 also shows that the lowest mean rank (1.17) was allocated to the actual participation of staff in Supplying stationary for the department.

5.5.4 Comparing Financial-related Decisions between KSU and the University of Leeds

This section presents the differences between the Faculty of Education at KSU and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. This comparison has been summarised in Table 5.18 below.

Table 5.18: Comparing Financial-related Decisions Between KSU and Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	Leeds	KSU	K. W. Sig
Purchasing teaching materials, books, and scientific periodicals	Actual	2.33	1.45	.000
	Desired	2.50	3.16	.000
Estimating the value of additional teaching hours as a component of the budget	Actual	1.69	1.43	.029
	Desired	1.75	2.97	.000
Supplying equipment for the department	Actual	1.64	1.51	.483
	Desired	1.68	3.03	.000
Estimating the budget allocation to purchase the equipment needed for your department	Actual	1.50	1.43	.597
	Desired	1.71	2.97	.000
Educational grants from international foundations for new courses	Actual	1.50	1.23	.032
	Desired	1.55	3.09	.000
The maintenance of departmental buildings and equipment	Actual	1.42	1.24	.281
	Desired	1.42	2.75	.000
Assessing financial incentives for students	Actual	1.41	1.45	.686
	Desired	1.55	3.16	.000
Estimating the cost of equipment and the tools required for the department	Actual	1.29	1.52	.333
	Desired	1.42	3.06	.000
Identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by the department	Actual	1.29	1.28	.922
	Desired	1.50	2.64	.000
Supplying stationary for the department	Actual	1.17	1.42	.168
	Desired	1.17	3.01	.000

Table 5.18 demonstrates significant differences between the actual participation of academic staff in purchasing teaching materials, books, and scientific periodicals (mean = 2.33 and 1.45, P =

0.000<0.05). The table also indicates that academic staff members at KSU are more likely to get involved in the decision-making process than their counterparts from the University of Leeds (mean = 3.16 and 2.50 respectively, P=0.000<0.05).

The results in Table 5.18 also indicate no significant differences in actual participation of supplying equipment for the School or Faculty of Education between the University of Leeds and KSU (mean = 1.64 and 1.51 respectively). However, the results show significant differences between institutions in relation to their desired participation, since the staff at KSU wish to have more participation in supplying equipment, more so than their counterparts at the University of Leeds (mean = 3.03 and 1.68 respectively along with P = 0.000<0.05).

It is also clear from the table above that there is no significant statistical difference between the two institutions in their actual participation in estimating the cost of the equipment and the tools required (mean = 1.29 and 1.52, P=0.483>0.05). On the contrary, the results on the table show significant differences between the two institutions, whereas participants from KSU are more likely to desirably get involved in such decisions than participants from the University of Leeds (mean = 3.06 and 1.42 respectively, P = 0.000<0.05).

Table 5.18 indicates significant differences between the two universities in terms of their actual participation in educational grants from international foundations for new courses (mean = 1.50 for University of Leeds, and 1.23 for KSU, P=0.032<0.05). Similarly, results demonstrate significant differences between the two institutions in relation to their desired participation, whereas participants from KSU are more likely to participate in such decisions than participants from the University of Leeds (mean = 3.09 and 1.55 respectively, P = 0.000<0.05).

It is shown in the table above that the lowest level of actual participation of staff from the two institutions was in identifying the cost of annual activities and social events held by the department, as well as supplying stationary for the department. There were no significant differences between the two institutions in relation to their actual participation in identifying

the cost of annual activities (mean = 1.29 and 1.28 respectively, P=0.922>0.05). However, staff from KSU (mean = 2.64) are more likely to get involved those people at the University of Leeds (mean = 1.50). Again, participants from KSU (mean = 3.01) are more likely to participate in decisions related to supplying stationary for the department than their counterparts at the University of Leeds (mean = 1.17).

5.5.5 Analysis of Variance of Financial Decisions (ANOVA)

This section presents ANOVA for financial-related decisions for both actual and desired participation.

Actual Financial-related Decisions

It is clear from ANOVA tables that there are differences between the staff at KSU and the University of Leeds in relation to decisions related to financial issues in both universities (F = 8.186, P = 0.005<0.05). Descriptive results in previous sections have demonstrated that academics from Leeds are more likely to participate in financial decisions than their counterparts at KSU.

Table 5.19: ANOVA for Actual Financial-related Decisions (actual)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	367.103	1	367.103	8.186	.005
Within Groups	3542.922	79	44.847		
Total	3910.025	80			

Desired Financial-related Decisions

Table 5.19 above shows that academic staff members at the University of Leeds are more likely to actually participate in financial-related decisions than those at KSU. Table 5.20 below, however, demonstrates a significant difference between the two universities (F = 440.142, P = 0.000<0.05). It is clear from the descriptive analysis that staff at KSU wish to participate in financial-related decisions, more than those at the University of Leeds.

Table 5.20: ANOVA for Desired Financial-related Decisions

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5397.236	1	5397.236	44.142	.000
Within Groups	8925.644	73	122.269		
Total	14322.880	74			

5.6 Administrative-related Decisions

This section presents findings related to administrative decisions at KSU and the University

5.6.1 Administrative-Related Decisions at KSU and the University of Leeds

Under this heading, I present and discuss the findings from Section D of the questionnaire, which investigates the level of involvement of academic members of staff regarding administrative decisions. Similar to the earlier two sections, this section not only deals with the actual involvement of such decisions, but also seeks to find participants' views of the state of their desired level of involvement. There are 12 items under this question, and they are grouped for ease of presentation. In the question, participants are asked to rate items on a four point scale where 1 is no participation and 4 is always participate. Results from this question are presented in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Administration-Related Decisions at KSU and the University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Drafting the strategy and annual report of the department	Actual	43.7	28.7	14.9	12.6	1.97	1.050
	Desired	8.2	15.3	31.8	44.7	3.13	0.961
Training programs and development of members of academic staff	Actual	52.9	24.1	14.9	8.0	1.78	0.982
	Desired	10.6	10.6	38.8	40.0	3.08	0.966
The appointment of staff in the department	Actual	50.6	31.0	9.2	9.2	1.77	0.961
	Desired	9.4	24.7	20.0	45.9	3.02	1.046
Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the department	Actual	65.4	21.0	4.9	8.6	1.57	0.935
	Desired	25.3	16.5	19.0	39.2	2.72	1.229
Formulating regulations for student discipline	Actual	59.0	27.7	12.0	1.2	1.55	0.753
	Desired	22.5	12.5	35.0	30.0	2.73	1.125
Administrative decisions related to academic problems of students	Actual	60.7	26.2	13.1	0	1.52	0.719
	Desired	23.2	24.4	26.8	25.6	2.55	1.113
Recruitment of academic staff	Actual	67.9	21.8	5.1	5.1	1.47	0.817
	Desired	21.3	14.7	34.7	29.3	2.72	1.110
Accommodation services for students	Actual	64.4	27.6	5.7	2.3	1.46	0.712
	Desired	27.1	21.2	27.1	24.7	2.49	1.140
Designing the departmental handbook	Actual	75.9	12.6	8.0	3.4	1.39	0.783
	Desired	28.6	16.7	34.5	20.2	2.46	1.113
Leisure excursions by the department	Actual	72.9	18.8	8.2	0	1.35	0.631
	Desired	24.4	17.1	32.9	25.6	2.60	1.121
The nomination of staff for managerial positions	Actual	72.4	21.8	5.7	0	1.33	0.584
	Desired	35.3	28.2	14.1	22.4	2.24	1.161
The nomination of academic staff for managerial positions	Actual	75.9	16.1	8.0	0	1.32	0.619
	Desired	35.3	23.5	20.0	21.2	2.27	1.159

The first item in this section investigates academic staff participation in drafting the strategy and annual report of the department with mean 1.97 for actual and 3.13 for desired. This is followed by participation in training programs and development of members of academic staff with 1.78 for actual, and 3.08 for desired participation.

In terms of appointment of new staff in the department, results in table 5.21 above show low participation of academic staff with 1.77 mean for actual, and 3.02 for desired participation. Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the department came as the fourth rank in which the mean of the actual and desired participation amounted for 1.57 and 2.72 respectively. The mean of academic staff participation in formulating regulations for student discipline accounted 1.55 for actual and 2.73 desired participation, followed by participation in drafting the strategy and annual report of the department (1.54 for actual and 2.55 for desired participation).

It is clear from the table above that the participation of staff in designing the departmental handbook is low (1.39 for actual and 2.46 for desired participation). Seemingly, to a large extent, academic members of staff do not participate in the nomination of academic staff for managerial positions (1.32 and 2.27 for actual and desired participation).

5.6.2 Administrative-related Decisions at KSU

This section presents the participation of academic members of staff in the Faculty of Education at King Saud University. In general, Table 5.22 below indicates significant differences between the actual and desired participation of academics at KSU.

Table 5.22 indicates significant differences between the actual and desired participation of staff in drafting the strategy and annual report of the Faculty of Education (mean = 1.66 and 3.22 respectively). The actual participation in the nomination of academic staff for managerial positions had the second high mean rank (1.66), compared to 3.19 for desired participation, followed by training programmes and development of members of academic staff (mean = 1.65 and 3.43 respectively).

The table demonstrates a significant difference between the actual and desired participation of staff in leisure excursions by the Faculty of Education (mean rank = 1.46 and 2.84 respectively). There is also a significant difference between actual and desired participation in formulating regulations related to students' discipline (mean rank = 1.44 and 2.96 respectively).

Table 5.22: Administration-Related Decisions, KSU							
Areas of Participation	**State**	**No participation**	**Low participation**	**High participation**	**Always participate**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Drafting the strategy and annual report of the department	Actual	43.7	46.3	9.9	0	1.66	0.653
	Desired	5.8	18.8	26.1	49.3	3.22	0.994
T he nomination of academic staff for managerial positions	Actual	56.3	23.9	16.9	2.8	1.66	0.861
	Desired	7.7	9.2	36.9	46.2	3.19	0.910
Training programs and development of members of academic staff	Actual	46.5	42.3	11.3	0	1.65	0.678
	Desired	4.3	5.8	31.9	5.8	3.43	0.795
Designing the departmental handbook	Actual	62	29.6	8.5	0	1.46	0.651
	Desired	4.3	11.6	37.7	46.4	3.26	0.834
Leisure excursions by the department	Actual	70.4	16.9	8.5	4.2	1.46	0.825
	Desired	15.9	15.9	37.7	30.4	2.83	1.043
Formulating regulations for student discipline	Actual	70.4	15.5	14.1	0	1.44	0.732
	Desired	13.4	9	46.3	31.3	2.96	0.976
Administrative decisions related to academic problems of students	Actual	67.6	21.1	11.3	0	1.44	0.691
	Desired	10.4	14.9	43.3	31.3	2.96	0.944
Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the department	Actual	6.9	22.5	5.6	2.8	1.42	0.730
	Desired	13.8	15.4	24.6	46.2	3.03	1.089
Accommodation services for students	Actual	75.4	14.5	10.1	0	1.35	0.660
	Desired	24.6	30.8	18.5	26.2	2.46	1.133
Nomination of staff for managerial positions	Actual	70.4	23.9	5.6	0	1.35	0.588
	Desired	16.9	16.9	33.8	32.3	2.82	1.074
Appointment of staff in the department	Actual	70.4	23.9	3.6	0	1.35	0.588
	Desired	25.4	19.4	29.9	25.4	2.55	1.132
Recruitment of academic staff	Actual	76.8	20.3	2.9	0	1.26	0.504
	Desired	16.9	12.3	15.4	52.3	3.68	0.658

5.6.3 Administrative-Related Decisions in University of Leeds

This section presents survey results related to the participation of academic members of staff at the School of Education, University of Leeds in relation to administrative decisions. These results are summarised in Table 5.23 above.

Table 5.23: Administration-related Decisions, University of Leeds

Areas of Participation	State	No participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate	Mean	Std. Dev.
Recruitment of the academic staff	Actual	16	44	24	16	2.40	0.957
	Desired	32	28	32	24	2.64	1.036
Administrative decisions related to academic problems of students	Actual	24	28	36	12	2.36	0.995
	Desired	8	28	52	12	2.68	0.802
Appointment of staff in the department	Actual	24	36	32	8	2.24	0.926
	Desired	16	36	40	8	2.40	0.866
Designing the departmental handbook	Actual	28	40	32	0	2.04	0.790
	Desired	20	40	40	0	2.20	0.764
Training programs and development of members of academic staff	Actual	32	44	16	8	2.00	0.913
	Desired	32	28	24	16	2.24	1.091
Nomination of academic staff for managerial positions	Actual	44	32	16	8	1.88	0.971
	Desired	24	40	28	8	2.20	0.912
Drafting the strategy and annual report of the department	Actual	36	48	12	4	1.84	0.800
	Desired	24	60	12	0	1.96	0.735
Formulating regulations for student discipline	Actual	44	44	8	4	1.72	0.792
	Desired	36	36	24	3	1.96	0.889
Nomination of staff for managerial positions	Actual	44	48	8	0	1.64	0.638
	Desired	28	56	16	0	1.88	0.666
Leisure excursions by the department	Actual	47.8	47.8	4.3	0	1.57	0.590
	Desired	34.8	60.9	4.3	0	1.70	0.559
Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the department	Actual	64	28	0	8	1.52	0.872
	Desired	36	48	0	16	1.96	1.020
Accommodation services for students	Actual	92	8	0	0	1.08	0.277
	Desired	80	20	0	0	1.20	0.408

Table 5.23 indicates that academics, in general, do not highly participate in administrative-related decisions and do not keenly desire to further participate in such decisions. The table indicates that the actual participation in recruitment of academic staff had the highest mean rank (2.40) compared to 2.63 for desired participation. Actual participation in the administrative decisions related to academic problems with students had the second highest mean rank (2.36), compared to 2.36 for desired participation. It seems from Table 6.23 that staff are less likely to actually participate in the appointment of new staff (mean = 2.24), compared to 2.40 for desired participation.

Furthermore, academic members of staff do not actually participate in designing the handbook for the School of Education (mean 2.04), compared to 2.20 for desired participation. The table also shows no significant differences between the actual and desired participation of staff in training and development programmes of the academic staff (mean = 2.00 and 2.24 respectively). There is also no significant difference between the actual and desired participation regarding the nomination of academic staff for managerial positions (mean = 1.88 and 2 respectively). Table 5.23 also indicates that actual participation in deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the School, and accommodation services for students were the lowest mean ranks (1.52 and 1.08 respectively).

5.6.4 Comparing Administrative-Related Decisions between KSU and the University of Leeds

This section presents the results of the survey questionnaire that compares administrative-related decisions between the Education departments of both universities. In general, the actual participation of academic members of staff in administrative-related decisions to a large extent is low at both institutions. Table 5.24 below presents a comparative summary for findings.

Table 5.24: Comparing Administrative-related Decisions				
Areas of Participation	**State**	**Leeds**	**KSU**	**K. W. Sig.**
Recruitment of academic staff	Actual	2.40	1.26	.000
	Desired	2.64	3.68	.038
Administrative decisions related to the academic problems of students	Actual	2.36	1.44	.000
	Desired	2.68	2.96	.117
Appointment of staff in the department	Actual	2.24	1.35	.000
	Desired	2.40	2.55	.495
Designing the departmental handbook	Actual	2.04	1.46	.001
	Desired	2.20	3.26	.000
Training programs and development of the members of academic staff	Actual	2.00	1.65	.097
	Desired	2.24	3.43	.000
The nomination of academic staff for managerial positions	Actual	1.88	1.66	.302
	Desired	2.20	3.22	.000
Drafting the strategy and annual report of the department	Actual	1.84	1.66	.380
	Desired	1.96	3.19	.000
Formulating the regulations for student discipline	Actual	1.72	1.44	.049
	Desired	1.96	2.96	.000
The nomination of staff for managerial positions	Actual	1.64	1.35	.025
	Desired	1.88	2.82	.000
Leisure excursions by the department	Actual	1.57	1.46	.146
	Desired	1.70	2.83	.000
Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the department	Actual	1.52	1.42	.659
	Desired	1.96	3.03	.000
Accommodation services for students	Actual	1.08	1.35	.066
	Desired	1.20	2.46	.000

Members of academic staff at the University of Leeds are less likely to desirably wish to participate in such decisions than their counterparts from King Saud University. Table 5.24 provides examples of the participation of academic staff in administration-related decisions. For instance, the table demonstrates significant differences between the two universities concerning participation in the recruitment of academic staff (mean = 2.40 for Leeds and 1.26 for KSU, P = 0.000<0.05). On the other hand, participants from KSU are more likely to desirably have more involvement in decision-making (3.68), than participants from the University of Leeds (2.64) along with P = 0.038<0.05.

It is clear from the table above that there is a significant difference between the two universities in relation to actual participation in administrative decisions related to academic problems with students (P = 0.000<0.05). However, the table shows no significant differences between them concerning desired participation (P = 0.117>0.05).

Actual participation in the appointment of members at both institutions had the highest mean for the University of Leeds and KSU (1.35 and 2.55 respectively). It can be understood from Table 5.24 that there is a significant difference between the two organisations (P=0.000<0.05). However, there is no significant difference in relation to desired participation in such decisions (P = 0.495). This means that academics at both universities are not keen to participate in the process of appointing new people.

Table 5.24 indicates significant differences between the two universities regarding the designing of the handbook of the School and Faculty of Education (P=0.001<0.05) where staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in such decisions than staff at KSU. It seems from the table above that staff from KSU are more keen to participate in designing the handbook than their counterparts at the University of Leeds (P=0.000<0.05).

Table 5.24 presents other administrative related activities and the mean rank of participation in these activities. It is clear from the table that members of academic staff are less likely to

interfere in students' accommodation services, and it seems that they are keen to do so in both universities despite the differences between both universities.

5.6.5 Analysis of Variance of Administrative Decisions (ANOVA)

Actual Administrative Decisions

The table of ANOVA results indicate a significant difference between KSU staff and the University of Leeds staff in terms of participation in administrative related decisions ($F = 7.369$, $P = 0.008<0.05$). University of Leeds academics are more likely to participate in such decisions.

Table 5.25: ANOVA for Administrative-related Decisions (actual)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	304.074	1	304.074	7.369	.008
Within Groups	3631.215	88	41.264		
Total	3935.289	89			

Desired Administrative Decisions

The results of ANOVA find a significant difference between the staff at KSU and University of Leeds pertaining to administrative related-decisions ($F = 32.038$, $P = 0.000<0.05$). As shown in the descriptive analysis, members of staff at KSU are more likely to want to participate in administrative related decisions than staff at the University of Leeds.

Table 5.26: ANOVA for Desired Administrative-related Decisions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2746.556	1	2746.556	32.038	.000
Within Groups	6858.224	80	85.728		
Total	9604.780	81			

5.7 Regression Analysis

This section presents results of multiple regression analysis, which aimed to examine the relationship between the dependent variables (represented in the composite variables of teaching - actual and desired, research - actual and desired, financial - actual and desired, as well as administrative - actual and desired) and independent variables represented in university (University of Leeds and KSU), years of experience, position in the School/Faculty of Education and age.

5.7.1 University of Leeds

Actual Participation in Teaching-related Decisions

The ANOVA table below indicates a significant relationship between actual participation of University of Leeds in teaching decisions and the independent variables (P=0.016<0.05). On the individual factors, Table 5.29 shows significant impact of the formal title, formal job and gender on participation in teaching decision-making (P<0.05). This means that staff members with higher positions are more likely to actually participate in decision-making. Furthermore, female staff members are less likely to participate in the decision-making process.

Table 5.27: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.783[a]	.614	.485	4.28406

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.28: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	349.644	4	87.411	4.763	.016[a]
	Residual	220.238	12	18.353		
	Total	569.882	16			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.29: Coefficients[a]

Model		Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	69.217	9.274		7.464	.000
	Gender	-6.837	2.586	-.501	-2.643	.021
	Formal job	-2.956	1.318	-.433	-2.243	.045
	Formal title	-4.304	1.281	-.755	-3.360	.006
	Age group	-1.338	1.410	-.210	-.949	.361

a. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Desired Participation in Teaching-related Decisions

Table 5.31 indicates a significant relationship between desired participation in teaching decisions and the independent variables in the regression model (P = 0.001<0.05). On the individual level of factors, Table 5.32 shows that all factors have an impact on desired participation in decision-making. In other words, there are no differences between academic staff regardless of their formal job, gender or age group (P<0.05).

Table 5.30: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.941[a]	.885	.828	1.88440

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.31: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	218.823	4	54.706	15.406	.001[a]
	Residual	28.408	8	3.551		
	Total	247.231	12			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.32: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	71.572	5.276		13.566	.000
Gender	-6.784	1.403	-.718	-4.835	.001
Formal job	-3.105	.715	-.657	-4.345	.002
Formal title	-3.708	.566	-.911	-6.548	.000
Age group	-3.138	.834	-.591	-3.763	.006

a. Dependent Variable: teaching desire

Actual Participation in Research-related Decisions

Table 5.34 indicates no significant association between the actual participation of staff in research decisions and independent variables (P = 0.0.063>0.05). However, Table 5.35 finds a significant relationship between gender and actual participation in research decisions, which means that females are less likely to participate in such decisions (P<0.05).

Table 5.33: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.706[a]	.499	.332	3.80055

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.34: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	172.552	4	43.138	2.987	.063[a]
	Residual	173.330	12	14.444		
	Total	345.882	16			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.35: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	13.723	8.064		1.702	.115
Gender	-4.540	2.004	-.481	-2.266	.043
Formal job	.580	1.684	.083	.344	.736
Formal title	-.277	1.114	-.062	-.249	.808
Age group	1.885	1.191	.376	1.582	.140

a. Dependent Variable: research actual

Desired Participation in Research-related Decisions

As found in the actual participation of staff in research decisions, Table 5.37 found no relationship between desired participation in research decisions and the independent variables (P = 0.054>0.05). None of the individual factors in Table 5.38 had an impact on the desired participation in research decisions (p>0.05).

Table 5.36: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.716[a]	.513	.351	3.75752

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.37: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	178.690	4	44.673	3.164	.054[a]
	Residual	169.427	12	14.119		
	Total	348.118	16			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.38: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	11.728	7.973		1.471	.167
Gender	-4.216	1.981	-.445	-2.128	.055
Formal job	1.168	1.665	.166	.702	.496
Formal title	-.105	1.101	-.024	-.095	.926
Age group	1.956	1.178	.389	1.661	.123

a. Dependent Variable: research desire

Actual Participation in Financial Decisions

Table 5.40 demonstrated no significant relationship between actual financial decisions and the formal job of the academic staff (P = 0.183<05). On individual level factors, none of them have an impact on the actual participation in financial decisions (Table 5.41).

Table 5.39: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.683[a]	.467	.230	4.49790

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.40: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	159.349	4	39.837	1.969	.183[a]
	Residual	182.080	9	20.231		
	Total	341.429	13			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.41: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	25.562	9.970		2.564	.030
Gender	-2.407	2.987	-.244	-.806	.441
Formal job	-4.455	1.998	-.631	-2.229	.053
Formal title	.906	1.317	.194	.688	.509
Age group	2.081	1.896	.308	1.098	.301

a. Dependent Variable: financial actual

Desired Participation in Financial Decisions

Table 5.43 demonstrates a significant association between desired participation in financial decisions and the formal job of the academic staff member (P=0.044<0.05), which means that the Head of School is more likely to participate in financial decisions. Table 5.44 indicates that formal job has an impact on staff participation in decision-making (p=0.019<0.05). This means that senior positions are more likely to decide on financial decisions.

Table 5.42: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.793[a]	.629	.464	3.44967

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.43: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	181.255	4	45.314	3.808	.044[a]
	Residual	107.102	9	11.900		
	Total	288.357	13			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.44: Coefficients

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	23.501	7.646		3.073	.013
Gender	-1.742	2.291	-.192	-.760	.467
Formal job	-4.360	1.533	-.672	-2.845	.019
Formal title	.749	1.010	.175	.741	.478
Age group	3.348	1.454	.540	2.303	.047

a. Dependent Variable: finance desire

Actual Participation in Administrative Decisions

Table 5.46 indicates no relationship between the actual participation of academic staff in administrative decisions (P = 0.206). On the individual level of factors (coefficients), none of the factors have a relationship with actual participation in administration decisions.

Table 5.45: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.588[a]	.346	.144	6.06687

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.46: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	252.622	4	63.155	1.716	.206[a]
	Residual	478.489	13	36.807		
	Total	731.111	17			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.47: Coefficients[a]

Model		Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	34.859	12.242		2.847	.014
	Gender	-3.704	3.082	-.283	-1.202	.251
	Formal job	-2.532	2.688	-.250	-.942	.363
	Formal title	-1.915	1.729	-.301	-1.108	.288
	Age group	2.741	1.800	.386	1.523	.152

a. Dependent Variable: administrative actual

Desired Participation in Administrative Decisions

Table 5.49 demonstrates a significant relationship between the independent variables in the desired participation in administrative decision-making (P = 0.037). It is clear from Table 5.50 that older academic staff with senior positions do not wish to have more involvement in administrative decisions,(P>0.05), because they have a substantial role in actual participation, as shown in the previous section.

Table 5.48: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.721[a]	.521	.373	4.79638

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.49: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	324.710	4	81.177	3.529	.037[a]
	Residual	299.068	13	23.005		
	Total	623.778	17			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.50: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	46.171	9.679		4.770	.000
Gender	-2.592	2.437	-.215	-1.064	.307
Formal job	-7.270	2.125	-.776	-3.421	.005
Formal title	-1.170	1.367	-.199	-.856	.408
Age group	2.962	1.423	.452	2.081	.058

a. Dependent Variable: desired administrative decisions.

5.7.2 King Saud University

Actual Participation in Teaching-related Decisions

Table 5.52 shows a significant relationship between the actual participation and independent variables (P = 0.003). It is evident from Table 5.53 that formal job has an impact on participation in teaching decisions (P <0.05), while there is no significant relationship between the formal title and participation in decisions (P>0.05). These results reveal that

there is no centralisation in teaching decisions, since assistant and associate professors are responsible for teaching methods and delivering lectures.

Table 5.51: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.531[a]	.282	.222	6.22580

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.52: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	730.358	4	182.589	4.711	.003[a]
	Residual	1860.510	48	38.761		
	Total	2590.868	52			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.53: Coefficients[a]

Model		Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13.492	4.651		2.901	.006
	Gender	3.333	2.152	.193	1.549	.128
	Formal job	5.522	1.453	.476	3.800	.000
	Formal title	-.706	1.263	-.072	-.559	.579
	Age group	1.328	1.346	.131	.986	.329

a. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Desired Participation in Teaching-related Decisions

Table 5.55 demonstrates a significant overall relationship between desired participation of academic staff in teaching decisions (P = 0.002). Seemingly, Table 5.56 indicates that members of staff, regardless of their formal job or job title, wish to desirably get involved in

teaching decisions (P < 0.05). Moreover, the table shows a significant relationship between gender and desired participation, whereas female members wish to get more involvement in administrative decisions.

Table 5.54: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.536[a]	.287	.228	5.96226

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.55: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	686.956	4	171.739	4.831	.002[a]
	Residual	1706.328	48	35.548		
	Total	2393.283	52			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.56: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	45.034	4.626		9.735	.000
Gender	-6.683	2.244	-.373	-2.978	.005
Formal job	3.160	1.393	.284	2.269	.028
Formal title	2.649	1.211	.281	2.188	.034
Age group	-1.506	1.296	-.155	-1.162	.251

a. Dependent Variable: teaching desired

Actual Participation in Research-related Decisions

Table 5.58 shows no overall significant relationship between independent variables and actual participation (P = 0.056>0.05). However, Table 5.59 shows a significant relationship between formal job and the actual participation in research decisions (P = 0.017<0.05), since senior position members are more likely to participate in research decisions.

Table 5.57: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.392[a]	.154	.091	2.34407

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.58: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	54.001	4	13.500	2.457	.056[a]
	Residual	296.711	54	5.495		
	Total	350.712	58			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.59: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	11.915	1.744		6.833	.000
Gender	-1.471	.797	-.235	-1.846	.070
Formal job	-1.341	.543	-.317	-2.468	.017
Formal title	.001	.427	.000	.003	.998
Age group	.375	.451	.108	.831	.409

a. Dependent Variable: research actual

Desired Participation in Research-related Decisions

In contrast to actual participation, academic staff wish to have more involvement in research decisions ($P = 0.006<0.05$). On the individual factors level, Table 5.62 indicates a significant relationship between the formal job and participation in research decisions ($P<0.05$). There is also a significant relationship between gender and participation in research decisions ($P<0.05$), whereas females wish to be more involved in research decisions.

Table 5.60: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.499[a]	.249	.189	3.80614

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.61: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	240.648	4	60.162	4.153	.006[a]
	Residual	724.334	50	14.487		
	Total	964.982	54			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.62: Coefficients[a]

Model		Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	22.756	2.943		7.732	.000
	Gender	-4.899	1.416	-.433	-3.460	.001
	Formal job	1.624	.886	.230	1.833	.073
	Formal title	.470	.729	.081	.644	.522
	Age group	-.817	.776	-.136	-1.052	.298

a. Dependent Variable: research desired

Actual Participation in Financial Decisions

It is clear from Table 5.64 that there is a significant relationship between the actual participation in financial decisions and independent variables P = 0.0.023>0.05). On the individual factors levels presented in Table 5.65, it can be seen that there is an impact of gender and formal titles on participation in such decisions.

Table 5.63: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.432[a]	.187	.127	4.53071

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.64: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	254.742	4	63.686	3.102	.023[a]
	Residual	1108.478	54	20.527		
	Total	1363.220	58			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table: 5.65: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	18.488	3.370		5.486	.000
Gender	-4.271	1.540	-.346	-2.772	.008
Formal job	-.548	1.050	-.066	-.522	.604
Formal title	1.702	.825	.257	2.064	.044
Age group	-1.303	.871	-.191	-1.495	.141

a. Dependent Variable: financial actual

Desired Participation in Financial Decisions

In contrast to actual participation in financial decisions, there is a significant relationship between such decisions and independent variables (P = 0.000) (table 5.67). Table 5.68 shows a strong relationship between the factors of formal job, formal title, and gender with financial decisions (P<0.05). It can be concluded that academic staff wish to be more involved in financial decisions. It can also be said that female members of staff wish to be more involved in financial decisions.

Table 5.66: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.587[a]	.345	.290	5.32316

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.67: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	716.321	4	179.080	6.320	.000[a]
	Residual	1360.132	48	28.336		
	Total	2076.453	52			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.68: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	34.905	4.130		8.451	.000
Gender	-7.321	2.004	-.439	-3.654	.001
Formal job	2.412	1.243	.232	1.940	.058
Formal title	3.081	1.081	.351	2.850	.006
Age group	-1.642	1.157	-.181	-1.419	.162

a. Dependent Variable: finance desire

Actual Participation in Administrative Decisions

Table 5.70 indicates no significant relationship between the actual participation in administrative decisions (i.e., recruiting new staff) and the independent variables (P = 0.289). This insignificant relationship is represented in the individual factors, which have no impact on participation in administrative decisions (P>0.05). This means that there is no difference between different positions in the Faculty of Education.

Table 5.69: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.300[a]	.090	.020	5.60880

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.70: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	161.413	4	40.353	1.283	.289[a]
	Residual	1635.851	52	31.459		
	Total	1797.263	56			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.71: Coefficients[a]

Model	Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	20.201	4.219		4.788	.000
Gender	-3.544	1.908	-.249	-1.858	.069
Formal job	.206	1.421	.020	.145	.886
Formal title	-.472	1.096	-.060	-.431	.668
Age group	1.069	1.125	.131	.950	.346

a. Dependent Variable: administration actual

Desired Participation in Administrative Decisions

In contrast to actual participation in administrative decisions, there is a strong relationship between participation in such decisions and the independent variables ($P = 0.001<0.05$). It is clear from Table 5.74 that regardless of the position of academic staff at the School of Education, gender, and formal jobs, they all wish to be more involved in administrative decisions ($P<0.05$).

Table 5.72: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.575[a]	.331	.272	8.40747

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender

Table 5.73: ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1605.291	4	401.323	5.678	.001[a]
	Residual	3251.532	46	70.685		
	Total	4856.824	50			

a. Predictors: (Constant), formal title, formal job, age group, gender
b. Dependent Variable: teaching actual

Table 5.74: Coefficients[a]

Model		Non-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	42.682	6.636		6.432	.000
	Gender	-10.638	3.166	-.416	-3.360	.002
	Formal job	4.529	2.171	.261	2.086	.043
	Formal title	3.917	1.927	.281	2.033	.048
	Age group	-4.793	1.996	-.328	-2.402	.020

a. Dependent Variable: administration desired

5.8 Findings from Open-Ended Questions

It is quite disappointing that the open-ended questions did not generate much data for analysis. Unfortunately, the majority of the questionnaires that were returned did not have many answers to the open-ended questions and these had been left blank. Of the responses that were received, some of these were very short which I felt gave some insight into how participants feel, and this actually reflects their general attitude in regard to the decision-making processes in their organisations. Nonetheless, only 15 of the returned questionnaires provided some further insights into the investigation. The findings from these questionnaires

supported the findings discussed above showing, on the whole, a higher desire for further participation. From the comments provided, it was found that members of academic staff at Leeds are to some extent satisfied with their level of involvement in decision-making. Participants at KSU are not so satisfied and in fact, comments from this organisation were more detailed and insightful. Ideas from KSU are summarised below:

- Academic staff should be trained on how to make decisions.
- Barriers should be removed between academics and administration.
- KSU should be free of bureaucracy and more transparent.
- Voting systems should be the actual decision-making system.
- The role of female members of the academic staff in making decisions should be more active.
- Decision makers are mainly the Dean, his deputies, and the Head of Departments.

It seems that such ideas provided in the questionnaires show some levels of disappointment of participants, which is marginalised in decision-making. All these comments will be taken into account for further investigation in the following research stage. I mentioned that such comments were not provided at all from Leeds, as the majority participants showed enhanced positive attitudes. It is worth mentioning that these comments were collected not for the purpose of triangulation, rather to elicit information about quantitative results. In order to complement the quantitative results, 18 in-depth interviews were conducted with staff members from the two universities.

5.9 Comparative Discussions of Key Findings between the University of Leeds and KSU

A discussion of the study results is based on the key findings of the survey questionnaire and literature review. It is worth mentioning that the literature review (Chapter Two) indicates a lack of empirical studies on a comparative study between higher educational institutions from different cultures. This section divides the key results into four parts: teaching, research, financial and administrative related decisions.

5.9.1 Key Finding One: Teaching-Related Decisions

The results of the survey questionnaire indicated significant differences between the two institutions. In this study, academics at both KSU and the University of Leeds differed on a number of areas of participation in decision-making. Firstly, the differences between the two organisations is visible on an overall level (all areas of participation) and on the category level (participation area). As the overall level, analysis of variance (ANOVA) findings indicate a significant difference between the two universities ($F = 7.482$, $P = 0.008<0.05$). These results demonstrate that members of academic staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in actual teaching-related decisions than their counterparts at KSU. However, ANOVA results also show significant differences between the two universities in relation to the desired participation in teaching related decisions ($F = 16.697$, $P = 0.000<0.05$). It was clearly indicated from the results that academics at KSU wish to be more involvement in such decisions than those at the University of Leeds. For example, members of academic staff at KSU wish to have more involvement in designing the teaching modules. Harry (2005) argues that academic staff should participate in designing modules they teach without significant interference from the Head of Department. Amzat and Idris (2011) attributed the significant participation of academic staff in decision-making to the communication style between the staff and Dean of Faculties.

On the individual category and areas of participation, the survey questionnaire results demonstrate a significant difference between the actual participation of staff at KSU and University of Leeds in choosing teaching methods by lecturers (mean = 3.22 and 3.80 respectively). On the contrary, members of academic staff at KSU are more likely to desirably wish to have more involvement than staff at the University of Leeds. Furthermore, staff at KSU are less likely to actually participate in deciding on course references (mean = 3.08) than staff at the University of Leeds (3.75). Besides, people at KSU are less likely to actually participate in identifying objectives of modules they teach (mean = 2.62) than staff at the University of Leeds (mean = 3.42). The differences between KSU and University of Leeds can be attributed to the fact of culture and the bureaucratic systems in the Arab world. Alawy (1980) addressed issues of comparing the Arabic and Western cultures in relation to higher educational institutions. The author explained that the bureaucratic system in Saudi universities is a barrier of the involvement of academic staff in decision making processes.

5.9.2 Key Finding Two: Research-Related Decisions

The overall results of ANOVA indicate significant differences in the actual participation of academic members of staff, in research-related decisions between the two universities ($F = 6.445$, $P = 0.002$), since academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in research decisions than their counterparts at KSU. On the other hand, people at KSU are more likely to desire to participate in research decisions than those at Leeds ($F = 14.214$, $P = 0.000<0.05$).

On the participation area level (category), the survey questionnaire results found significant differences between the actual participation of academic staff in writing a grant application for externally funded research projects, between KSU and the University of Leeds (mean = 1.48 and 2.50 respectively, $P = 0.000<0.05$). In terms of desired participation, results found that staff at KSU were more likely to desirably participate in writing applications (mean = 3.26 and 2.75 respectively, $P = 0.017<0.05$). These results reveal that staff at KSU do not write their own research proposals and/or participate in such activities. Furthermore, staff at KSU are less likely to participate in external research consultancy services (mean = 1.37 and 2.29 respectively, $P = 0.000<0.05$). As mentioned in the results of in-depth interviews in the following chapter, the Faculty of Education at KSU has not developed a research culture among its staff. Research within the Faculty, to a large extent, depends on the academic staff and their active role in research, as well as their contact with funding organisations.

The differences between the two organisations may be attributed to the lack of research support by top management in Saudi Arabia. According to UNDP (2009), Arab researchers try to exert efforts on an individual level, but an extremely low amount of money was spent by Arab universities on research, innovation and development, which had a negative impact on Arab innovation performance, in both quantitative and qualitative terms. There are more explanations on this issue in the forthcoming chapter.

5.9.3 Key Finding Three: Financial Decisions

The survey questionnaire findings represented in the overall ANOVA results found significant differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in relation to their participation in financial decisions ($F = 8.186$, $P = 0.005<0.05$), since the academic staff members at KSU are less likely to actually participate in such decisions than their counterparts from the University of Leeds. Nevertheless, the staff at the University of Leeds are less likely to get involved in such decisions than staff at KSU ($F = 44.142$, $P = 0.000<.0.05$). It can be understood from these results that the staff at KSU wish to participate in finance-related decisions.

On the participation area level (category), the survey questionnaire results indicate that the actual participation of staff in decisions related to purchasing teaching materials, books, and scientific periodicals is low among those at KSU (mean = 1.42), compared to the University of Leeds (mean = 2.33). Similarly, results find significant differences between the two universities in relation to their actual participation in estimating the value of the additional teaching hours as a component of the budget (mean = 1.31 KSU and 1.69, University of Leeds). It can be concluded from these results that there are significant differences between the actual and desired participation of academic staff in financial decisions, particularly among the staff at KSU. In a study conducted by Halliday (1993) on sub-Saharan teachers, it was found that the main obstacle of teachers was their lack of self-esteem and commitment to their profession. This was due to the lack of participation in decisions on teaching and administrative related issues. This could relate to my findings, nonetheless, and therefore the following chapter is devised to answer all queries raised in this chapter. The study mentioned above also found that all major decisions related to curriculum and instruction, staff management matters, financial matters and participation in the community are held in the office of the head teachers. Bloomer (1991) argues that machinery centralisation is ineffective in planning, organising and directing organisations. It seems that the Faculty of Education at KSU follows machinery centralisation, which is ineffective in strategic planning in the long run.

5.9.4 Key Finding Four: Administrative Decisions

ANOVA results demonstrate significant differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in relation to the actual participation in administrative decisions ($F = 7.369$, $P = 0.008<0.05$), since staff at KSU are less likely to actually participate in such decisions than staff at Leeds. However, staff at KSU are more likely to get involved in such administrative decisions than their counterpart from the University of Leeds ($F = 32.038$, $P = 0.000<0.05$).

In the participation area (category), the survey questionnaire results indicate that the actual participation of staff in the recruitment of academic staff at KSU was lower than the participation of staff at the University of Leeds (mean = 1.26 and 2.40), while more staff at KSU wish to desirably participate in such decisions than staff at Leeds (mean = 3.68 and 2.64 respectively). The results of this study are consistent with a study conducted by Mehta *et al.* (2010) on Indian universities. The study found significant differences between actual and desired participation decisions (administrative) studied on teachers' participation in decision-making. In general, the study pointed to differences between the actual and desired participation in decision-making to be significant. The results of the study, however, are not supported by the study conducted by Mualuko *et al*. (2009) who demonstrated no significant difference between the two, actual and desired participation, related to various types of areas such as instructive, distribution of classes, teaching and administration.

Due to a lack of empirical studies on the comparisons between higher educational institutions from different cultures, I tried to link my study results to similar studies. A study conducted by Sukirrno and Siengthai (2010) in their study on Indonesia found that more than half of the lecturers who participated in the study were involved in planning and building the budget of the department, determining teaching schedules, establishing curriculum, hiring new teachers, setting policy on class size, selecting contents of modules and topics to be taught, and teaching techniques. Vught *et al.* (2009) suggested that higher educational institutions are diverse, and this diversity depends upon several factors such as objectives of the organisation, strategic values and participation of staff in decision-making.

It can be concluded from the discussion above that there is a power distance between leaders at KSU and their subordinates. According to Bhuian (1998), Saudi Arabia's power distance ranking was 80, which indicates a high level of inequality of power within organisations. This rank means that leaders separate themselves from the group. Saudi Arabia's high power distance has an impact on decision-making within organisations. According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), managers in Arab countries generally make their decisions on an autocratic basis, and subordinates are more likely to be silent observers. Cameron and Quinn's (2006) study is consistent with results of this study, as I observed in the meetings how decisions are made.

5.10 Summary

While summarising the findings from surveys, it was understood that participants sought to be more involved in making decisions in their respective organisations. This conclusion is based on the findings that the desired state always scores higher than the actual state. The range was highest in financial decisions (SD = 1.28), followed by administrative decisions (SD = 1.07). It is important to understand that these findings do not mean that actual involvement is low in any of the categories, as the aggregated means for the categories differ. In relation to participation in research-related decisions, the results showed that participation in contract negotiation for privately funded research accounted for the highest mean (3.25 for actual and 3.75 for desired), while the least participation was for the periodic estimation of the research project budgets of the department (1.31 and 2.54 for actual and desired participation).

Talking about actual participation, participants are mostly involved in 'teaching related decisions' as this scores the highest, followed by 'administrative decisions'. The findings show that academic members of staff are not being involved as much in making 'financial decisions'. It is quite understandable that the 'teaching related decisions' category scores the highest as it relates mostly to the core duties of participants, as most of them practice teaching. However, it is questionable why they are being put in such marginalised positions regarding 'financial decisions'. Such points will be further discussed in the discussion chapter.

When comparing the two organisations, it was found that a pattern emerged. Generally, in most instances, lower participation is observed at KSU. Another pattern is that an ample number of participants' desire to be more involved, which is usually much higher than at Leeds. The results show a very high desire from participants from KSU, and I wonder if this is a reaction from academic members of staff. I mean to say that as they probably were marginalised they wanted to be right in the middle of every decision made in the Faculty. At Leeds, however, participants enjoy more participation and they, to some extent, are not that much in favour of being more involved in making decisions, as this might bring with it some more work duties or responsibilities. The question now is that if participants at KSU enjoyed similar involvement to those at Leeds, would their desire reduce? This may or may not be the case as this is a contextual issue related to the exact context at KSU and Saudi Arabia at large.

The inferential statistics of the ANOVA results show that participants from the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in decision-making within the School at all levels (teaching, research, financial and administrative issues) than their counterparts from KSU. However, the members of staff at KSU are more likely to participate in such decisions than at the University of Leeds.

Finally, this chapter has presented findings from surveys providing quantitative and statistical evidence to conclusions. It has also presented results in a collective manner from both universities and in a comparative manner. The findings have also demonstrated both the actual and desired state of participation in different areas of decision-making with the education departments at both universities. This chapter has answered questions related to academic staff participation in decisions relating to the Education departments at both universities. It was necessary to enquire about why members of staff at KSU have low participation and how they improve this participation. This was also applied to members of staff at the University of Leeds. The next chapter presents the main findings of in-depth interviews conducted with staff from both universities in order to explain emerging findings and patterns from this chapter.

Chapter Six

Qualitative Data Analysis: Interviews

6.1 Introduction

This chapter takes the findings from earlier chapters for further explanation by presenting results of in-depth interviews. It focuses on academic staff members' experiences from both organisations under investigation in terms of perception and experiences of participation in different types of decisions related to teaching, finance, administration and research. The analysis of the qualitative data is based on themes and sub-themes that have emerged from earlier chapters of data analysis. It is worth mentioning that the qualitative results presented in this chapter are complementary to the quantitative results presented in Chapter Five aiming at further explaining qualitative patterns. In other words, qualitative results in this chapter explain the quantitative findings located in the earlier chapter. In forming questions for interviews, findings from the exploratory phase, as well as the survey, have provided guidance and useful ideas.

This chapter consists of four main sections. The first provides an overview about the respondents' profiles. The second and third sections present results of academic staff participation from the two organisations. Each of these sections is divided into further sub-headings of teaching, research, financial and administrative related decisions, in addition to organisational change and leadership. The fourth section discusses differences and similarities between the two institutions. Each section presents similarities and differences between participants as well as contradictions in their viewpoints. The following sections also report participants' views on their actual and desired participation. Although the chapter allows discussion towards the end, it is highlighted that more discussions are presented in the following chapter.

6.2 Participants' Profiles

18 participants were interviewed and nine participants were selected from each institution, representing perspectives at four levels of seniority ranging from professors to research fellows (see Table 7.1). The table shows that five professors participated in the study (two from Leeds and three from KSU) comprising of three Readers and Senior Lecturers at Leeds and three Associate Professors at KSU. Only two lecturers participated from Leeds as compared to three Assistant Professors from KSU. It is clear from the table that only two Research Fellows participated in interviews from Leeds, while there were no Research Fellows from KSU (see Chapter Three: Research Methodology).

Table 6.1: Respondents' Profile Interviewed at the School of Education: University of Leeds

Participants' Position	University of Leeds	King Saud University	Total
Professor	2	3	5
Reader/ Senior Lecturer-Associate Professor	3	3	6
Lecturer/Assistant Professor	2	3	5
Research Fellow	2	0	2
Total	**9**	**9**	**18**

6.3 Decision-Making in the School of Education: University of Leeds

This section consists of five sub-sections related to decision-making at the School of Education, University of Leeds. These are (1) teaching-related decisions, (2) research-related decisions, (3) finance-related decisions, (4) administrative decisions, and (5) general and thematic discussions of issues of organisational change and leadership styles.

6.3.1 Teaching-Related Decisions

The data from the interviews point out that most participants from the institution consistently expressed their satisfaction with the level of actual participation in teaching-related decisions. This is consistent with the findings from the earlier chapters, bearing in mind the small gap between the actual and desired states. The findings presented in this subsection explain the reasons and provide some further qualitative insights. Participants' expressions were built on their perceived substantial experiences at the school. Five participants teaching different modules stressed that they were responsible for designing, teaching and evaluating their courses. They have also emphasised that the Head of School is cooperative and has developed professional, as well as positive, relationships with them. The door of the Head of the School is always open for any question or enquiry, as well as for any matter to be discussed. However, the important matters (for example, the curriculum), which require in-depth discussions and decisions are discussed in the regular meetings of the School. One of the participants, who work as a Senior Lecturer, stated:

> … In relation to what I teach then I'm a module leader so, I make all decisions about how things are taught in the module, but the actual curriculum is prescribed by the TDA because this is an initial teacher training course and so we have to follow the prescribed standards and so on, but how I teach it is up to me. (Senior Lecturer)

This view is supported by another senior lecturer responsible for the programme he teaches. He reveals:

> … There is one programme where I designed it, and I teach all of it, so that's a very high degree of influence whereas; some of the other decisions that involve other people in team meetings we'll think through who is doing what and what the balances of work are in there. (Senior Lecturer)

A module leader understands decision-making from the curriculum content point of view and reported that he makes most decisions related to designing and delivering the course. In his own words, he says:

> I feel as though I have a voice in deciding aims and objectives of the module, modes of assessment of the module and also the way in which, each part of the module is delivered to students. In terms of what informs my decision-making about the content, it is a combination of factors I would say. It is partly 25 years of experience within the subject, I draw upon my own research in my teaching, and I also make sure that I contextualise that in relationship to my awareness and my scholarly activity discovering other people's research. (Reader)

It can be understood from these statements that work within the School is divided among the academic members of staff since each one is responsible for a particular module in terms of designing, teaching, assessment and evaluation of the course from students' perspectives. Interviews also reveal that participants are mostly free to choose the way of teaching and delivering the course. Furthermore, statements show that the political decisions related to curricula are discussed in the School's meetings because they should be endorsed by the School in accordance with the University's policies.

The interviews also revealed that up to a large extent, the research fellows are not engaged in teaching, and therefore their participation in teaching related decisions is not noticeable. A Research Fellow who took part in this study tended to express his contentment with what he had been doing. The following is an extract from the dialogue that took place for illustrative purposes.

"Interviewer: Do you think you need to be more involved or participate more in teaching decisions?
Research Fellow: No, I am happy with the level of participation and with my involvement, yes.
Interviewer: To what extent do you think that you are being marginalised in relation to teaching decisions?
Research Fellow: Not at all. I don't think that I am being marginalised. I am involved, so I'm not marginalised.
Interviewer: To what extent do you think your participation affects the outcome of the School's decisions?
Research Fellow: Well I haven't really had any experience particularly of important decision-making because I am quite new to the teaching, but I imagine, well I hope that my

views will be taken account of. I am fairly confident that I will influence some of the outcomes as appropriate".

This conversation illustrates that because researchers within the School are responsible for research projects, they are not keen to get involved in teaching-related decisions, although they are involved in some teaching.

Almost all participants reported that they are not marginalised in teaching-related decisions because they work collaboratively and harmoniously within the School team. Participants have placed an emphasis on the ability of the Head of the School to listen to any problem raised by academic staff. One of the participants expressed his view in the following statement:

> I don't feel marginalised. We have a very collaborative approach within our team. The door of the Head of School is open if you want to air an issue with him. We have a Teaching Strategy Group, so there are mechanisms if you want to raise issues. (Senior Lecturer)

Another participant has supported this view by stating that:

> I don't think I really am, but I think that is more to do with being new to teaching so feeling more like I am still learning from people who are more experienced and so I'm happy to be on the periphery for now and sort of observe, watch and learn. I don't know what it's like to be in a place where I feel like I have a firm understanding and beliefs about this is how it should be done. Therefore, if I wasn't able to voice that I might feel marginalised but at this point I don't have that feeling, you know what I mean? I think if I were here longer, I've only been here for a year so. (Research Fellow)

In contrast to these views, only one participant presented and expressed her marginalisation in decisions related to teaching. She believed that she has problems in teaching a number of modules that are not related to her area of specialisation. The participant attributed her marginalisation to the lack of participation in choosing the right module to teach. She disclosed:

> Am I being marginalised in relation to teaching decisions? Well, I think I am totally marginalised in relation to content because that is not in my control, and in the School I sometimes feel pressure to teach in a certain way by my course leader, but I resist. As I believe I have the professional knowledge to make decisions about how I teach.

> Well there is no real discussion about it so sometimes this leads to a bit of conflict that I resist because I believe I've got the professional expertise. (Senior Lecturer)

It is evident from the statement above that academic staff members, to a large extent, are not marginalised in making decisions, although one of the participants reported a complaint about the ways of decision making.

Participants who took part in this study were asked about their desired involvement in teaching-related decisions. In general, participants expressed an unwillingness to be further involved in the School. They have attributed this unwillingness to the fact that they have sufficient workloads in relation to designing and delivering teaching modules. The participants also reported their engagement in committees and external organisations. One Professor, who is engaged in a number of committees, emphasised that his time does not allow him to additionally participate in different types of activities. He stated:

> I feel sufficiently involved. If I wanted to be, I could be involved in the committee, but I've got other responsibilities. (Professor)

This view was supported by a Senior Lecturer, who stressed the following:

> I think there are, or there may be opportunities for us to have spaces in which we share ideas and information so I don't want to take the lead necessarily, but to open up some spaces for those discussions. (Senior Lecturer)

A Reader who has worked at the School for many years, reported that the Head gives him a structure and allows working on giving students the opportunity to participate in committees. He stated:

> My experience to date has been that the School gives structure for me to be involved in decision-making and also do things like course committees for students; as well as the materials that I have spoken about in processes. Students are on committees as well that they can have opportunities to give feedback. So I think that is a good enough structure for me. (Reader)

It can be concluded from the presentation of results that the academic staff are empowered by their effective participation in teaching related decisions. This empowerment gives them the opportunity to address and resolve problems within the School's framework. Furthermore,

the in-depth interviews indicated that decisions are made by staff during staff meetings that are held on a regular basis. Therefore, the decision-making process follows a participatory approach rather than authoritarian. Clearly, these results come in line with the collegial approach in education. Collegial management suggests that teaching staff should play a participatory role in the management of Schools or Educational departments (Sergiovanni, 1991, 26). According to this approach, teaching staff should become an integral part of leadership within educational institutions and share their visions.

6.3.2 Research-Related Decisions

Evidence from the earlier chapter suggests that participation in research-related decisions is slightly different from teaching, finance and administrative related decisions due to the fact that all academic staff (teaching and research teams) are involved in decision-making. However, in-depth interviews show that some participants actively participate in research decisions, while others are inactive. In other words, participants in higher positions are more active, and decisions are in their hands. One of the participants, who used to work as the Director of Research, and is currently involved in writing grant applications, stated:

> I am more involved in that because formerly I was the Director of Research so I've been the Director of Research, and at the moment I am involved in the Research Excellence Framework, which is the way in which our research is assessed on a regular basis, and I am responsible for preparing the Department's return, so I am very involved in the decision-making around research. Again, if it's a project that I am directing then I make decisions, but those are not completely free; decisions are constrained by regulations of the funding agency and University. (Professor)

Despite, the fact that strategic research decisions are taken by higher positions in the School, other academic staff members (lecturers, senior lecturers and research fellows) are free to join research committees and give their feedback and views about projects. They also participate in writing research bids and grants applications. A participant who held a higher position at the School reported:

> I also created as well as the research committee, which was in existence, a research planning group for volunteers who wanted to come along and be involved in planning the way we worked with research in the School. So that has happened within the past 10 months. For the public meeting, we had Minutes taken and a report of that meeting was sent to everyone in the School and that has formed the agenda for the way we have worked, and I have issued periodic responses back to people about the way we have acted on their decisions. So, in terms of creating a democratic culture that is the way I have tried to do it. That is the short answer really. (Reader)

In relation to writing bids and grant applications, in-depth interviews show that all academic members of staff, regardless their positions have been engaged in writing research proposals. This might be attributed to the fact that the policy of the University of Leeds is partly embedded in generating alternative financial sources to the University. The following conversation with a research fellow explains further:

Interviewer: To what extent are you involved in decision-making related to research decisions?

Participant: Well, we have a responsibility to get research funding, and so I write bids for research and those bids are accepted.

Interviewer: Do you think your decisions affect the outcome of decisions in the School?
Participant: Do you mean does my research influence?
Interviewer: Your research and your decision.
Participant: Do you mean my decisions about funding in the School?
Interviewer: Yes.
Participant: Well I've had no involvement in the School in any decisions about funding, so only externally I've had involvement but not in School.
Interviewer: What about knowledge transfer and participation?
Participant: Well I do a lot of that yes, but I'm asked to do projects by external bodies and so I make my own decision about whether I will accept those.
Interviewer: And the University will let you do what you want freely?
Participant: It's not free that you do as you want no. No, you have to earn money for the university, but the university is not interested in what you do, like the topic of the actual project, so the university is interested in the amount of money, but not in the actual substance of the project.

Another Research Fellow offered an alternative view; he thought that participation in research decision-making focused on giving feedback on research bids and the evaluation of research projects. In his own words, he stated:

> Well, we all write research bids, it comes with the territory. Do I evaluate? Well we look at each other's so someone will ask me to look at their draft evaluation if someone was going to put in a bid, and someone said 'will you read it through for me before it goes in?', yes, I've done that on two or three occasions. (Senior Lecturer)

Although the Research Fellows are significantly involved in research, they think that their role is just to implement research projects rather than making any relevant decisions because

the higher decisions are made by Senior Positions in the School. One of the research fellows stated:

> I think if you are thinking about it from the sort of management position, the sort of management type decisions, then I don't think I am part of those, but I think those are made even by a higher body. (Research Fellow)

It is clear from the research's statement that he feels some sort of marginalisation in decision making related to policy issues of research. However, this view does not subscribe with another Research Fellow's viewpoint. The second Research Fellow thinks that his participation in decision-making comes through talking with colleagues about projects and thinking about obtaining money for research projects. However, the reality is to largely participate in setting budgets and long term plans for research. This Research Fellow said:

> I think within this area, which is Science Education, which is where I am kind of placed now, we work quite well together, and we tend to agree on what we should be doing anyway, so it works quite well so far. (Research Fellow)

It can be concluded from the above statements and the presentation of the in-depth interviews that academic staff are satisfactorily engaged in research projects. However, to some extent, members of staff do not participate in research related decisions because they comply with the School and University policies and regulations. As mentioned in other areas of decision-making, (i.e. teaching), higher positions are predominantly strategic decisions but not on an individualistic basis.

6.3.3 Finance-Related Decisions

Findings from the in-depth interviews were consistent with those from the survey showing that participants participate in making decisions related to financial matters. The interviews also pointed out that participation in decision-making depends on the position of academic staff in the School. It is clear from the interviews that higher positions (i.e. Professor, Reader) are more likely to participate in setting the budget of School than others of lower levels (i.e., Lecturers, Senior Lecturers). This is also consistent with quantitative results. This is attributed to seniority and years of experience. These results come in line with the study of Torrington *et al.* (2008) who found that the longer the years of experience in the School (seniority positions), the more participation in strategic decisions could take place. It can be

concluded that years of experience play an important role in the participation of decision-making. For instance, a Professor stated:

> Well, I'm a member of something called the SMT, which is the Senior Management Team, so as part of the Senior Management Team we discuss with the Heads of Departments about financial matters, so we are involved in the decision-making; however, the final decision-making is made, not within the Department, it is within the Faculty and also within the University so we, the Heads of Departments present budgets. The Heads of Departments present budgets, which then have to be approved and agreed within the Faculty and within the University, and I get involved in that process. I'm involved at the level of the Department in discussing and advising the Department. So, yes, I am involved and I know what is going on. (Professor)

It is worth remembering that there are a number of committees at the School responsible for various areas, such as budget allocation for the School in general and courses in particular. The School is mainly responsible for setting the main items of the budget; however, this budget should be endorsed by the Dean of Faculty, rather than the Head of School.

When a Reader was asked about his participation in financial decisions, he placed an emphasis on his participation in such decisions, besides the participant tackled the issue of budgeting from the students' facilities point of view, since students require some materials (books, journals, etc.). This view should be raised by the tutor responsible for meeting the students' requirements. In his own words, he said:

> I feel as an individual tutor if there were things that I wasn't satisfied with, then I could raise that through my module evaluation. In addition, there is a section of the module evaluation that students complete to do with facilities, for example, so that students could also have that commentary made and that I would, as a tutor, take up their voice in relationship to asking for changes or for budgetary requirements. Because I also have a management role, I am involved at a senior level through the Senior Management Team looking at issues to do with finance, as well. (Reader)

It is understood from the above senior positions' statements that the Head of School largely delegates major tasks to senior members of staff related to financial issues. Such delegation gives these people the opportunity to autonomously decide on more important matters within the School. It is also clear from the above statements that there is a Senior Management Team, which is responsible for taking strategic decisions related to the School.

On the other hand, in-depth interviews indicated that Senior Lecturers are responsible for suggesting budgets for the courses that they design and deliver, but are not responsible for

approving these budgets. They are also responsible for expensing the budget on the course requirements, including students' needs. A Senior Lecturer revealed:

> We get a budget from the Government that is designed for a particular course, and I am responsible for making sure that we stay in the back… Okay, so I have a great deal of autonomy but within a structure, so with that course I know how much money there is. I know what needs to be done. I can think about how best to use it, if there is an under-spend I can ask if we can use it in a particular way. So that is a very particular piece. (Senior Lecturer)

Evidently, the statement reported by the Senior Lecturer indicates that he is autonomous in making financial decisions related to the course, but according to regulations and rules of the University.

As indicated in teaching-related decisions, Research Fellows are not involved in financial decision-making, which might be attributed to the nature of work of research posts at the University of Leeds. Research Fellows have also expressed their unwillingness to participate in financial issues. In relation to participation in financial related matters, the following conversation took place with a Research Fellow (RF):

Interviewer: To what extent are you involved in the decision-making related to financial issues?
RF: Not much at all, other than as it relates to research budgets and things I am not involved in financial decision-making as far as I am aware.
Interviewer: Why do you think you are not participating in that area?
RF: Well, personally, I don't want to be involved in financial decision-making.
Interviewer: Why?
RF: Because I am not interested in it. I mean I want to be involved in all decision-making to some extent and financial things are kind of secondary. I mean, obviously they are important but personally I am not interested in looking at spread sheets of figures to do with the budget. So I am happy with the fact that I don't have to think about it too much. I mean, obviously we have to think about projects and whether they are worth doing financially, so I am not that naive.

Another Research Fellow did not participate in financial matters, but he understands the financial system within the School, such as budgets allocated for the library. In his own words, he revealed:

> I do know that there is a system in place that the School has a certain amount of money that the library is allocated to order books and stuff and journals for us and things like that. (Research Fellow)

This Research Fellow complained about cutting budgets allocated for books and journals since the University has removed a number of journals from websites.

> So recently there was an email that went to all staff, which said we are going to have to remove some of these journals from the list because our budget is decreasing. Therefore, I had the chance to feed in and say - no, please, I really need this journal for research or for teaching or whatever it is ,or I think that students from this University in this School would benefit so let's keep it - and I do feel like that was listened to. (Research Fellow)

This section has presented the participation of academic staff in financial related decisions. It is clear from the in-depth interviews that members of academic staff significantly participate in various financial matters and allocating budgets to different activities in the School. As mentioned earlier, the position in the School is critical in the participation of making decisions, whereas lower ranks are less likely to participate in setting the budget.

6.3.4 Administrative-Related Decisions

Similar to the findings in the earlier chapter and finance-related decisions, participation in administrative decisions depends on seniority. For instance, professors and readers are more likely to be engaged in the decision-making process. Administrative decisions include a number of students in each module, recruiting and appointing new staff. A professor, who participates in a number of committees, reported his participation in administrative decisions saying:

> Well, again the mechanism by which I'm involved in decision-making is through the Senior Management Team so these issues are discussed at Senior Management Team level and I will make a contribution if I have a suggestion or a contribution. But again decisions about the student numbers, for example, are decided not within the School but within the Faculty and within the University. Anything relating to numbers and the projection for the School so my involvement is at the level of the School, not at the level of the Faculty or the University. (Professor)

Another participant, who has the role of Reader, emphasised his participation in administrative-related decisions since he participated in several aspects, such as the number of students in the modules, attendance at course meetings, course committees and the recruitment of new staff. The participant stated:

> I must admit that so far I have felt involved in thinking that through my attendance at course meetings and course committees and in some areas such as electives I have a voice in saying what the ceiling is about the number of students. (Reader)

It is noted from the participant's statement that there is some tension between different opinions related to the number of students in each group, particularly at Masters level, and the position of the University. He revealed:

> In relationship to the first areas that you talked about concerning administration and issues about student numbers for modules, I guess there is a tension between opinions I might have about a good size of the group in order to facilitate learning at degree level or masters' level and the position of the University. (Reader)

In relation to appointing new members of staff at the School, the participant said:

> In relation to the appointment of staff, which is another area I think you mentioned, I've been invited to take part in a variety of appointment procedures where I have attended on panels as a member of staff and again I feel that those have been good democratic experiences, and I'm satisfied by the university's policies on areas such as equality of opportunity so that women have a place within the University or people from ethnic minorities etc. are followed carefully. (Reader)

It is evident from the above statement that the participant was involved in different activities related to administration. This indicated the importance of experience and seniority in taking strategic and critical decisions in the School. This also confirms the School's policy towards engaging and involving higher positions in higher level decisions.

Staff in medium and lower positions are less likely to participate in strategic decisions such as those mentioned above. Senior Lecturers are mostly involved in decisions related to managing the courses they design and deliver, admissions to Masters programmes, and equality and diversity policy.

On one the side of the picture, the in-depth interviews indicated that some participants are not interested in getting involved in administrative related decisions, as they try to avoid conflicts with other members of staff. A Senior Lecturer who manages her own course believed that her participation was quite limited in the following:

> On the main course I teach, I am involved to some extent but it is quite limited, so I take responsibility for my own things. For example, I have the responsibility for assessment on the course that I teach and so I take ownership of that, and I make decisions, which I communicate to the course leader, but sometimes this causes conflict because the course leader doesn't agree with decisions. (Senior Lecturer)

It is clear from the statement above that this participant is not content with her participation in administration-related decisions because the course leader does not agree with some of the decisions she takes. When this participant was asked whether she wanted to be involved in administrative decision-making, she said the following:

Interviewer: What about administrative decisions like deciding the number of students to be enrolled in the department?
Participant: None, whatsoever because that's decided by the government.
Interviewer: What about the nomination or promotion of academic staff into higher positions?
Participant: None at all.
Interviewer: Are you involved in decisions relating to the support staff? Do you participate in their appointment?
Participant: In a limited way yes, when it is directly related to my course as it were.
Interviewer: Why are you less involved in decisions relating to administrative staff?
Participant: Because that is the structure.
Interviewer: And in your opinion, do you feel that you need to be more involved?
Participant: Yes, I believe that that would be a much better way but the structure is very hierarchical.

It can be understood from the conversation that this Senior Lecturer wished to participate in decision-making but due to the hierarchy of the structure within the School, her opinion would not count on issues other than those about the modules she teaches. As mentioned above, higher positions are more likely to participate in decision-making than their lower levels counterparts.

On the level of Research Fellows, the in-depth interviews showed that they do not participate in administrative decision-making due to the fact that they partly do not want to participate, or the structure of the School does not allow them to do. One Research Fellow reported:

> I don't really have any role in that, I think the only thing is through various committee meetings that I might get involved in, and I can feed into advice about it, but the actual decisions are made by other people. (Research Fellow)

Another research fellow reveals his unwillingness to participate in administrative decisions because he does not wish to do that. In his own words, he said:

> Again, it's a bit similar to the financial one in that I'm not particularly involved, but I think that is partly because I am not, well I don't need to be involved. I mean if we have new lecturers coming in to be interviewed then I am involved a bit. We can go

> and watch their presentation, and we are encouraged to do so and give feedback about what we think of them but apart from that I am not particularly involved. (Research Fellow)

Evidently, this research fellow participates in the presentations delivered by candidates interviewed for jobs, which is not considered a part of the decision-making. The Research Fellow just gave his views about the lecturer. The role of Research Fellow does not require any involvement and/or participation in administration apart from the research project being investigated. This explanation is supported by another Research Fellow, saying:

> I'm not a lecturer; I'm a Research Fellow and that mean that my role is a bit narrower. I am not involved in a lot of teaching so there are certain things that I don't know much about. I am happy with my level of involvement and really I am an unusual example. You probably won't be interviewing many other research fellows. I am moving towards being a lecturer. (Research Fellow)

Participants in this study were asked about whether they wished to be more involved in administrative decisions. In-depth interviews show that they do not want to participate because they are satisfactorily engaged in many different things. This to some extent goes in line with findings in the earlier chapter. A Professor reported:

> I mean life is too short, and I am involved enough. I feel that if there are some things that I don't like, I have the capacity to influence and to say something about it because I am a senior member of the department. So, if I was a junior member it could be different and I might not get that opportunity. (Professor)

It can be concluded from this section that staff of different levels are engaged in administrative decisions, but engagement is based on the role in the School, which is determined by position and seniority.

6.3.5 Discussion

This section discusses the main results of academic staff participation in different types of decisions: teaching, research, finance and administration. It also makes the discussion more themes focused, discussing issues of organisational change and leadership styles.

The results of the interviews found that academic members of staff, to a large extent, actually participated in teaching-related decisions such as designing and delivering modules, as well as teaching methods. Academic members of staff also assess and evaluate the course from students' perspectives. In general, staff are satisfied with their actual participation in teaching decisions and do not wish to be more involved in teaching decisions, because of their engagement in other business within the School.

It is clear from the interviews' results that participants in higher positions in the School are more likely to participate in decisions related to funding regulations, involvement in research excellence framework and preparing the School's returns of research. On the other hand, interviews show that lecturers and Research Fellows are free to join research committees and give their feedback. They also participate in writing research bids and grant applications. It was also clear from the interviews that Research Fellows are less likely to be engaged in writing research projects and do not participate in research-related decisions. This could be attributed to the specific role of Research Fellows and the nature of their work contracts.

In relation to financial decisions, it was clear from interviews that the actual participation in financial decisions depends upon the position of academic staff in the School. For instance, Professors and Readers are more likely to participate and have a say in strategic financial decisions (i.e., annual budget for the School), than other staff such as lecturers and researchers. Therefore, seniority is an important factor in the actual participation of financial matters. Although the budget of the School is prepared by senior members of staff, it should be endorsed by the Dean of the Faculty. It is worth mentioning that junior academic members of staff participate in determining students' requirements and facilities from books and journals. Furthermore, the Head of School delegates major tasks to senior members of staff, such as budgeting and course modules.

The participation of academic staff in administrative decisions does not differ from their participation in financial decisions since; the decision-making process depends on the seniority of academic staff. For instance, professors and readers are responsible for designing the policies for recruiting new staff. On the other hand, senior lecturers and lecturers are mostly involved in decisions related to accepting students to postgraduate programmes and diversity policy.

It is clear from this brief description of the main results that the academic members of staff, in general, are satisfied with their participation in different types of decisions. Seniority forms an important factor in staff participation in strategic financial and administrative decisions. This means that decisions are almost decentralised.

Organisational Change

All participants in the in-depth interviews centred on the financial crisis (recession) and its reflection on the university. For example, this reflected on restructuring the School and led to a cut in funding and staff. The organisational change within the School has also led to cuts in the funding of library resources, as well as administrative staff. One of the participants stated that:

> We have been through a financial crisis, which has resulted in the restructure. The University requires that all departments need to balance their budgets, so they are not prepared to what we call cross-subsidise. (Professor)

Another participant emphasised that the cut in staff has increased staff workloads, in terms of teaching and administration. However, this participant believes that restricting of the School may lead to appoint new staff. In his own words, he reported:

> The School of Education has been through a very lean period when we had to restructure quite a lot and shed staff, so people had to take on higher workloads because of people leaving. We are now moving into a different era where we can actually start appointing staff and open up some opportunities. (Senior Lecturer)

In relation to organisational culture, which should be as a result of organisational change, participants emphasise that the research culture has changed in the last few years because of a lack of sufficient funding. The research culture has become very individualistic rather than collective in terms of effort. One participant said:

> Well, I have only been here for two years and I guess I feel best aware of the past year, so I could talk about some of the changes to do with research. One example is that people felt that the research culture was very individualistic, and they wanted more space to share ideas with each other, so that has been part of the reason why we created the research seminar series. We have re-framed and re-worked the School Research Conference, again to include post-graduate research students. (Reader)

It is understood from these statements that the organisational change that had taken place in the School was due to financial crises rather than any lack of participation in the decision-making process. In this case, nobody can change the rules because it is out of their hands. The pressure from the University on departments has led to restructuring their budgets in accordance with no subsidies.

Furthermore, due to the financial crisis faced by the University, the School has also been affected. For instance, the financial constraints had led to a loss in significant numbers of staff in the last few years, which have substantially increased the workload on academic and administrative staff. It can be concluded that due to these reasons, academic staff are not interested in participating in all areas of decision-making. One more issue that is understood from this section is that the School is sensitive to changes in the external environment. That is to say when there are financial hardships on the Government it is reflected on the University and the School.

Leadership Styles

When participants were asked about leadership in the School, they almost all answered this question by saying that the Head of School follows a democratic leadership style. This type of leadership depends upon equal participation among staff and gives them the opportunity to express their viewpoint freely. One of the participants said, for example:

> I think the style is one that is relatively democratic. I think structures in place through meetings and through committees' works well if you try to allow people to communicate their ideas and to collaborate in decisions. At the same time, roles have clear descriptors of responsibility, and I think my experience over the past two years here, is that people handle that in a fair and equitable manner. (Reader)

This statement is supported by another view of a Senior Lecturer who reported:

> I think that the current Head of School and the previous Heads of School have all been highly approachable people who would listen to a reasoned and arguable case. So, if you just go in with a hair brain scheme then you are not going to get anywhere, but you shouldn't do; but they are always willing to listen to a reasoned case. I work in a team where there is a strong collaborative culture. (Senior Lecturer)

Only one participant demonstrated his view by saying that his line manager was not democratic, and had no qualifications essential for leadership. She stated:

> So, the person who is in a kind of leadership position in relation to me, I don't believe actually has the real qualifications and skills to fulfil the role because it's a very difficult role. Therefore, I find it very difficult because I sometimes see things that he doesn't see and I have to find a way to express a view to him that he finds difficult to accept that leads to tension between us. (Senior Lecturer)

It can be said in general that the Head of School is characterised by transformational leadership styles who delegates important parts of his responsibilities to committees and senior members of staff. This also emphasises the importance of staff participation in all decisions related to the School, which leads to strengthen this loyalty and adherence to the school visions and achieve its strategic objectives. According to Avolio and Bass (1995), leadership is regarded as a critical factor in institutions and the implementation of transformation in organisations. Leadership creates a positive impact on individuals, teams and organisations. With respect to the management of transformation processes in organisations, there is a strong need for leaders who are more change-centred. Avolio and Bass (1995) argue that leadership can take different styles, including directive-versus-participative leadership, autocratic-versus-democratic leadership and task-versus-relation oriented leadership.

6.4 Decision-Making in the Faculty of Education: Kind Saud University

Similar to the section on the University of Leeds, this section consists of five sub-sections related to decision-making at the Faulty of Education, KSU. These are (1) teaching-related decisions, (2) research-related decisions, (3) finance-related decisions, (4) administrative-related decisions, and (5) general and thematic discussions of issues of organisational change and leadership styles.

6.4.1 Teaching-Related Decisions

In-depth interviews with participants from the Faculty of Education at KSU indicate that they participate in teaching-related decisions; this is not in line with findings in the earlier chapter. This could be a result of the point that their participation is excluded in all strategic decisions,

which are made only by the Head of the Department. However, participants acknowledged their participation in teaching decisions and relevant issues, such as designing modules and choosing teaching methods. For example, participants stated that some decisions are discussed in the regular staff meetings, but the final say is with the Head of the Department. These decisions include educational standardised terminology used in various modules, distribution of classes, teaching methods and curriculum. In addition, academic members of staff can make decisions related to the timing and placing of classes and evaluation of students. One of the participants focused on the importance of terminology and vocabulary used in the Faculty, where academic staff cannot change these educational terms. The participant reported:

> The problem is that some universities still use old terminologies, which were introduced about ten years ago. As academic staff, we cannot change them, as well as the Faculty of Education has no intention to change these terms. (Assistant Professor)

This participant faced this problem with postgraduate students who took their undergraduate degrees at other universities and recently joined KSU. The participant had to change all terms to suit the new students' ability to understand. It is worth mentioning that KSU is considered one of the top universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and uses contemporary terminology in terms of all subjects. Conversely, some other universities are still using the old educational terminology system and have not updated accordingly.

All participants emphasised that there are a number of committees which take responsibility for making suggestions rather than decisions. For instance, there is a committee responsible for the curriculum. However, these committees discuss these suggestions, but cannot make decisions. It is up to the department whether to accept or reject these suggestions. Some decisions are taken by the Dean of Faculty rather than by the Head of Department, such as curriculum, number of credit hours and teaching methods (for example, e-learning). The participant stated:

> There are a number of committees, which include cultural committee, social committee, curriculum committee and committee responsible for students' problems. The department can adopt or reject any recommendation. The final word is in the hands of the Head of Department. (Associate Professor)

One Associate Professor who has worked for a long time for the Faculty emphasised that academic decisions are mostly accepted by his Head of Department. This participant gave an example about decision-making, saying:

> Academic decisions are mostly discussed by committees established for purposes of approving topics suggested by staff. Committees' members listen to all suggestions and then vote on these suggestions. (Associate Professor)

These statements reveal that the major decisions are highly centralised because, for example, academic staff cannot change the programme of studies, curriculum and the content of modules.

Interviews also indicate that, to some extent, academic members of staff cannot choose all the modules that they teach, findings similar to those reported by Easton and Van Laar (1995). The Faculty selects a number of references from textbooks in a particular subject matter area, which should be used by teachers and students. Lecturers can choose relevant references if there is no list suggested from the department. A participant stated:

> There is no absolute freedom for lecturers to choose relevant sources recommended for students. References should be approved by the Faculty Committee. Some lecturers try to impose books they have written to the department. (Assistant Professor)

It is understood from interviews that the Dean of Faculty's point of view is different from a staff perspective. All academic decisions are taken by committees established in the Faculty for different tasks such as financial committee, recruiting and selection. However, one Head of Department emphasised the point that academic staff are not free to make any decisions. The following discussion takes place between me and one of the Heads of Departments (HoD), and it explains this point.

Interviewer: Do you think academic members of staff participate in teaching-related decisions?

HoD: Of course, because they practice their academic activities such as their methods of students' evaluation, marking and grading (assessment). In terms of modification of students' grades during the semester, lecturers can discuss that in the department meetings.

Interviewer: Do you mean that lecturers can make these decisions without consultation?

HoD: No, no, there is no absolute freedom in doing that, they can participate but within regulations of the Faculty.

Interviewer: Educational terms and vocabularies, for example…

HoD: These terminologies are discussed in the department and should be approved by the academic committee.

It can be understood from this conversation that academic staff cannot make decisions without consulting the department. It seems that the Head of Department thinks in an authoritative way.

Only one Assistant Professor (AP) who was interviewed in this study thinks that most decisions are taken by the staff, rather than by the department. There are a number of committees responsible for making different types of decisions. The following conversation illustrates:

Interviewer: Do you want to participate in teaching related decision-making in the department?

AP: Yes, definitely, I wish to be a part of the team and make relevant decisions.

Interviewer: Why?

AP: This is my department and it is healthy to participate in all teaching decisions, such as evaluation of students and grading.

Interviewer: Are you contented with the level of participation in teaching decisions in the department?

AP: Very much satisfied with my participation in all teaching related decisions.

Interviewer: Have you ever been marginalised in relation to participation in teaching related decisions in the department?

AP: Not at all, if any of the academic staff members reserve decisions, they can discuss this reservation, which will be discussed in the department and then by the Faculty.

This conversation reveals that this participant feels empowered and comfortable with being able to participate in teaching related decisions. The above statement is supported by an Assistant Professor who stated:

> There has been a big decision taken by higher committees, but unfortunately, was not discussed by the teaching committee. The decision substance was to cancel credit

> hours and replace it by semester system. Discussions of this issue took about three years and have not reached a decision by the university. (Associate Professor)

Interviews show that all participants want to get involved in teaching-related decisions because this participation solves several problems related to the curriculum, teaching methods and educational terms. One participant emphasised this by saying:

> Throughout my experience in the Faculty of Education, I have never been significantly engaged in designing curriculum and other relevant decisions. I wish to be more active in the department, and my voice is heard. (Assistant Professor)

This statement is supported by an Associate Professor, who stated:

> I was normally involved in decisions related to arranging and distribution of classes. I need to participate in the strategic vision and objectives of the faculty and designing curriculum. (Assistant Professor)

6.4.2 Research-Related Decisions

It is clear from interviews that research projects are poorly addressed by the Faculty of Education. This explains the low level of participation for academics in such decisions, raised in the earlier chapter, since there are not many decisions to be made. Therefore, research is almost not on the agenda of meetings, apart from publishing individual books and papers. The culture of research is individual rather than a Faculty policy. However, the Saudi government has initiated supporting research by introducing a programme of rewards to researchers. Although research is an individualised issue, promotion from lecturer to Assistant Professor or from Assistant Professor to Associate Professor, and then to Professor depends upon publications in international and local journals. The in-depth interviews pointed out that there is no budget allocated to research. One of the participants stated, for example:

> I am currently working on a joint research project with the Ministry of Education, which was my own initiative. I have written the proposal, discussed it in the departmental meeting and got it approved by the Faculty. (Associate Professor)

A professor who was interviewed in this study agrees that KSU is currently working on developing a plan for research, which focuses on developing relationships between the Faculty and other governmental and non-governmental organisations. The problem is that the University places a focus on teaching, which could be attributed to the system and culture within the university.

> I have been working in this department for about eight years and suggested allocating specific budget for research and have written a proposal. The proposal is still in the Faculty Office awaiting approval. (Associate Professor)

Although the research culture has not been developed to international standards at KSU in general, and the Faculty of Education in particular, there are some efforts exerted in this regard. Participants reported that the university and Faculty have realised the importance of research for the university and people. Therefore, it can be concluded that a research culture is being created at this institution.

6.4.3 Finance-Related Decisions

All participants revealed that the Heads of Departments and academic staff do not participate in financial decisions because most decisions are made by the Faculty Office and/or University Office. Again, this explains the low level of participation in such decisions found in the earlier chapter. The centralisation of financial decisions is critical in Saudi universities due the fact that these decisions are made on the basis of the departments' needs. The interviews also show that the Dean of Faculty, as well as the staff, have only limited responsibilities for financial matters. For example, an Associate Professor mentioned:

> Unfortunately, academic staff and Heads of Departments have no financial responsibilities. Only four people are responsible for financial matters within the University: the Vice Chancellor and his deputies. (Associate Professor)

One participant felt that academic staff should not be given any financial responsibilities because they will not manage them effectively. In his own words, he stated that:

> If an academic member of staff is given the responsibility of finance, he will not spend the money in a proper way. He may decide to change his desk and spend more money on hospitability (Assistant Professor).

Some participants believe that academic members of staff should not interfere in financial matters because they are only responsible for teaching and other academic duties. One of the participants said, for example:

> It is imperative that academic staff should not participate in financial decisions, which are natural in academic institutions. Lecturers can determine their financial needs that are met according to regulations in the Faculty. (Assistant Professor)

This statement does not concur another Associate Professor's opinion, who said:

> The problem is that there is bureaucracy and a centralised system in financial decisions, since you have to write to the department and then to the Faulty of Education and then the Faculty writes to relevant units… It is a complicated process (Associate Professor).

The problem is that academic staff are not involved in finance related decisions, but they are also not engaged in setting the budget for departments. The Faculty itself is not engaged in setting its own budgets. The Vice Chancellor and his deputies only are responsible for setting all relevant budgets. One Head of Department revealed:

> I agree that every faculty and every department should have its budget, but unfortunately, this is the system in the University. We have a very small budget for the department, which is not sufficient to cover the needs. We have to write to the Dean, and then the Dean writes to the Vice Chancellor deputy responsible for financial issues in order to get any money. (Professor)

When academic members of staff were asked whether they wish to further participate in financial-related decisions, seven of them demonstrated their desire to do so. All of them agreed that the department should have its own budget, which enables staff and Heads of Department to be independent of the Faculty. Furthermore, this will reduce the time for bureaucratic correspondence and procedures. An Associate Professor stated:

> To be honest with you, I wish our department to be financially independent, which will give the opportunity to achieve departmental goals in terms of enriching the Faculty library, covering costs of stationary, travelling for formal conferences. (Associate Professor)

This viewpoint was supported by an Assistant Professor who emphasised the importance of independence of departments and faculties, in terms of finance. He mentioned:

> Throughout my long experience in the Faculty, I have been struggling to convince the top management in the University to allocate decent budgets for faculties, which can distribute this budget among its departments. Unfortunately, centralising of decisions hinders any progress in this regard. (Associate Professor)

Although financial decisions are centrally taken, it is important not to ignore the fact that KSU has tried to meet staff and departments requirements. The results of this study come in line with what is called "cost centre management" which states that the financial processes are undertaken in the main centre of the organisation. In other words, the structure of the organisation and financial processes are addressed to achieve a centralised management system (Briathwaite, 1993).

6.4.4 Administrative-Related Decisions

It is clear from interviews that academic members of staff, to a large extent, are not engaged in administrative decisions, findings that are similar those highlighted in the earlier chapters. The University top management is responsible for new appointments, promotions and other administrative issues. The role of academic staff and support staff is limited to determining their requirements, such as lecturers. The system of appointing academic staff follows a bureaucratic procedure. For instance, if any department within the Faculty of Education wants to appoint a new academic member of staff (lecturer, Assistant or Associate Professor), the Head of Department writes down all person specifications and sends them to the Dean of Faculty.

An Associate Professor reported:

> As for appointing a secretary or a member of academic staff, the Head of Department should write to the Dean who doesn't take budget into consideration because salaries are paid by the government rather than the University then advertises the job in the newspaper. (Associate Professor)

This statement is of high importance to this study as it shows that jobs offered at KSU are looked upon as public jobs being paid by the Government, rather than the institution itself. In this regard, an institution would not care about efficiency and reducing costs. This statement is supported by another view of an Associate Professor who reported that administrative decisions are made within the Government rather than the University. The participant said:

> There is a system within the Saudi public sector since every job should be advertised by the Vice Chancellor's Office. This usually is recommended by departments or faculties when they desire to hire a new member of staff. (Associate Professor)

It is evident that employees' appointments are centralised within the responsibilities of the Vice Chancellor Office. This could be attributed to the fact that universities in Saudi Arabia belong to the public governmental sector, which entail a long process of selection and recruitment. Interviews also indicate that the university has to inform the Administrative Services Ministry about any vacancy and appointment. For this reason, the Ministry is responsible for giving a unique number for every employee in the country. The advantage of this process is that university employees are financially covered, secured and protected by the Government, rather than the institution itself.

Another important issue that was raised in the interviews was the appointment of academic staff for administrative positions. The in-depth interviews pointed out that every member of academic staff can nominate themselves for the position of Head of Department, or members of academic staff can nominate one of their colleagues. Once the department chooses the candidate for the position, the Head of Department sends that nomination to the Dean of Faculty. A participant who works as a Head of Department within the Faculty of Education, reported:

> Yes, as the Head of Department, I invite my colleagues for a meeting to nominate one of our colleagues for the position of Head. However, the problem, no one wants to head the department because it focuses and consumes much time on administrative issues and duties. (Professor)

All participants emphasised that no-one wants to head any department or have the position of a Dean of Faculty, because there are no financial returns. As the Head of Department, in addition to teaching responsibilities, they have administrative and financial tasks that take time to perform. Furthermore, the Head of Department is held responsible and liable for any mistake or problem. Very recently, the university introduced an extra payment of 1,500 Saudi Reyal (equal to $500 USD) for the position of Head of Department, as an incentive.

In general, participants are not satisfied with their participation in administrative decisions, although the new Vice Chancellor and the Deans of Faculties have formed a number of committees for the purpose of appointing new staff and promoting others. Participants also emphasised that these committees, in reality, follow the instructions of the Vice Chancellor or the Dean of Faculty. One of the participants stated:

> The new Vice Chancellor has focused on committees, which will be responsible for appointing new people in the University. To be honest with you, these committees are not effective in choosing the right persons for the higher positions… there is some kind of influence being posed from above. (Associate Professor)

When participants were asked to get more involved in administrative decisions, seven participants expressed their desire to participate in such decisions. Participation in administrative decisions is important in helping the Head of Department in discussing and resolving problems (Kathryn *et al.* 1993); however, this study found that members of academic staff desire to participate more in administrative decisions, without any formal responsibilities, as all participants expressed their refusal to be appointed to an administrative position, for example, the Head of Department.

6.4.5 Discussion

This section discusses the main results relating to academic staff participation in teaching, research, finance and administrative decisions. It also raises the discussion of being more themes focused in discussing issues of organisational change and leadership styles.

Results of interviews demonstrated that strategic teaching decisions are made by the Heads of Departments within the Faculty of Education. These decisions include numbers of modules, and choosing the major sources for courses. However, academic members of staff participate in the discussion of designing and delivering relevant modules. Although there are a number of committees that can make suggestions about modules and courses, the final say is for senior administrative personnel.

In terms of research-related decisions, the results of the interviews indicated that the culture of research has not been created in the departments of the Faculty and is still addressed on an individual level. Publishing research papers and books depend on academic members of staff. Very recently, the Saudi government allocated budgets for research in Saudi universities.

The results of the interviews demonstrate a consensus about the non-participation of academic staff in financial related decisions, since all decisions are made by the Faculty and Vice Chancellors Office. In other words, financial decisions are centralised in the top management offices. For these reasons, academic members of staff wish to be more involved

in such decisions. It is worth stressing that despite the lack of participation in financial decisions, almost all staff and departments demands' are financially independent. Chong and Chong (2002) suggest that participation in budgeting should include all levels of employees. Participation of lower level employees in decision-making yields more practical plans with open discussion, and also provides motivational effects and improvement in the quality of decision-making (*ibid*). Administrative decisions such as recruiting new staff are also mainly taken by the Dean of Faculty and the top management at the University.

It can be understood from the presentation of results that the participation of academic staff in teaching, research, finance and administrative decisions is substantially weak. In other words, decisions are centralised in the Dean of Faculty and Vice Chancellors Offices. Sanyal (1995) argues that there are many problems that hinder the decentralisation decisions and participation of academic staff in relevant academic decision. These problems include centralised bureaucracy, no department's governance, and disruption of participation, as well as an unwillingness to participate in such decisions. According to Hoy and Miskel (1982) higher educational institutions require leaders who can give more space to their subordinates to express their views related to academic issues.

Organisational Change

Organisational change is understood by participants as creating a new culture within the Faculty. This culture is embedded in more participation, in decision-making, creating research culture and learning. Participants also understand organisational change in terms of changing the bureaucratic system and centralisation of decision-making. One of the participants stated:

> The problem in the Faculty of Education is that the top management intend to change and have set action plans for research, forming academic and social committees, but these action plans have not been translated into programmes and projects. (Associate Professor)

Another participant thinks that organisational culture should occur at the top level of the University, and not at the lower level. In his own words, he said:

> Although the top management at the University places an emphasis on the participation of academic staff in financial and administrative decisions, but on the ground level, this has not occurred. This could be imputed to the culture that prevails in the university. It seems that the top management intends not to change. (Associate Professor)

Participants were asked how to develop a culture of participation in financial and administrative related decisions. Almost, all participants reported that transparency does not exist in the Faculty; hypocrisy prevails while decisions are taken on the basis of participation.

One participant mentioned:

> There is the intention for achieving transparency not only on the level of the Faculty or University, but on the societal level. If transparency is there, everything can be justified, and justice will prevail. (Assistant Professor)

Another participant added.

> …We have to be fair in our decisions in relation to appointment and promotion. This culture should change otherwise our University will not become one of the top universities in the world… Unfortunately, we do not want to change and change our culture. I found many of our colleagues do not want to be transparent because this change will affect their interests in particularly in appointing friends or relatives. (Associate Professor)

It can be concluded from these statements that participants are not optimistic pertaining the organisational change at the Faculty of Education. Also, participants do not blame the Faculty of Education only, but even blame themselves because of their own culture. The results of interviews indicate that there will be no organisational change at the Faculty in the short run, because the top management at Faculty and University levels has no intention to do so. This reflects on the issue of change resistance. According to Clark (1995), on the individual and organisational level, there is often a peculiar kind of organisational autism, which blocks the universities' demand for more autonomy. To a large extent, the Saudi public universities that belong to the governmental sector are funded by the government. This could be attributed to cultural change, which is a critical issue for planning long term changes in the governance of universities (Schein 1992).

Leadership Styles

Interviews indicate that participants are not satisfied with the leadership styles of their line managers in particular, and the Faculty of Education in general. Interviews attributed that to the way of making decisions, reference was mostly made to administrative and financial decisions. Almost decisions are taken solely, such as the appointment of new staff and promotion. One participant stated:

> Most recruitment decisions are taken by our Head of Department and the Dean of Faculty, although they consult us in such decisions. There is an Arabic proverb that says: you consult them, but you do not have to take their opinions into account. (Associate Professor)

This viewpoint comes in line with another participant, who reported:

> One of our colleagues was appointed on the basis of *wasta* (mediation and influence). The Dean of Faculty called the Head of Department and informed him about this appointment. The problem is that our Head of Department accepted that without any discussion with the Dean… later he informed us about this decision. (Assistant Professor)

It can be concluded from this brief description of leadership at the Faculty of Education that the Head of Departments and Dean of Faculty follow authoritative leadership style in some financial and administrative decisions (i.e., budgeting, recruiting new staff) rather than a participative approach. However, in relation to teaching-related decisions, to some extent, academic members of staff are participative. These results are consistent with the authoritative model of managers. According to this model, managers base their decisions on the knowledge they can gather. However, they then explain their decision to the group. According to Muindi (2011), the group or team may have different feelings or opinions, as well as reactions from their managers. However, managers or leaders assume that their subordinates have the same views as theirs.

6.5 Comparative Analysis and Discussions

The discussion will follow the research questions of the study. This section discusses the major similarities and dissimilarities between both organisations in relation to teaching, finance, administrative and research related decisions.

6.5.1 Teaching-Related Decisions

Interviews indicate that academic members of staff from Leeds, to some extent, are more likely to participate in teaching-related decisions than staff from KSU. In contrast, academic members of staff from KSU are more likely to desirably participate in teaching-related decisions than those at Leeds.

Interviews in both organisations revealed no significant differences in academic participation, in teaching related decisions. However, it can be said that the main differences are embedded in the ability of staff at the University of Leeds in leading specific modules through designing the module, delivering and evaluating students. This means that the academic members of staff have the flexibility in choosing the supporting sources and terminology. On the other hand, the academic members of staff at KSU are only responsible for delivering the course. They do not significantly participate in designing modules, and they are required to discuss that with the Head of Department. They are not free to use relevant terminology and supporting sources because these should be discussed first and approved by the department. The results of this study are in line with Rowan's study (1995) who found that teachers actually had substantial engagement in decisions related to teaching (introduction of new educational programmes, or purchasing teaching equipment), but they desire to directly participate in such decisions. Furthermore, Harry (2005) argues that academic staff should make decisions that relate to designing modules, rather than the Head of Department. It is worth noting that academic members of staff in universities play a critical role in the success of these universities, and achieving the goals of the institutions. At the same time, academic members of staff (teachers, researchers and administrators) play an important role in graduating good quality students. Therefore, the participation of academic staff in decision-making is reflected in the image of universities (Dessler, 2003).

Another major difference between the two organisations is that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds expressed their unwillingness to additionally participate in teaching related decisions, while staff at KSU reported their desire to participate in all teaching-related decisions. The latter does feel marginalised. Members of academic staff at the University of Leeds expressed their satisfaction with their participation in teaching-related decisions.

6.5.2 Financial-Related Decisions

It is clear from the results above that both organisations considerably differ in relation to staff participation in financial decisions. The first issue, which should be emphasised in this regard, is that the institution at Leeds has its own annual budget in which the Head of School and staff are responsible for spending, in accordance with their requirements. They do not have to consult the Dean of Faculty or the Vice Chancellor in any related issue. The budget allocated for the School of Education at Leeds is spent according to the university regulations and rules. It can be concluded that the budget is centralised within the School rather than the Faculty or the University. Furthermore, the School of Education at the University of Leeds can generate money through research and use it for the purpose of developing the School and hiring new members of staff.

On the other hand, the Faculty of Education at KSU has a very small budget allocation that can be used for hospitality, for example. The Vice Chancellor has a deputy for financial issues and is responsible for all expenses within the University. Therefore, participation in financial decisions does not exist because there are no real or large budgets for the Faculty. All budgets are centralised within the Vice Chancellor's and deputy offices.

Interviews indicate that senior positions at the School of Education at the University of Leeds are responsible for setting budgets. On the middle level such as lecturers, they may suggest budgets for courses they teach, which are mostly approved by the School. This budget may include allocated money for the library, travel expenses, conferences and so on. On the department level at KSU, participation in financial decisions is not possible because there are no real budgets for these departments, but in most cases their requirements are met. Results are consistent with the study conducted by Jiang and Wei (2009), who conducted a study of two universities, one in the United States and other in China. The study found the final say in decisions, in the Chinese universities are impinged by the Vice Chancellors and their deputies. The study also found that both universities (in the US and China) perceived that faculties have no governance over their budgets, and they seek more involvement.

6.5.3 Administrative-Related Decisions

In-depth interviews point out significant differences between the two organisations in relation to administrative decisions. Academic members of staff at the University of Leeds significantly participate in appointing new staff, such as lecturers and researchers, as well as other types of staff. Conversely, the appointment of academic staff at KSU is centralised in the Dean or Vice Chancellors Office, as there is no allocated budget for every department for staff labour required. In other words, the bureaucratic system prevails in the Faculty of Education and its departments. Appointing new members of staff takes place at department level at the University of Leeds, while it does so at Faculty and University level at KSU.

There are two different organisational structures in the two institutions. The School of Education at the University Leeds is considered as a single and independent entity, which is responsible for every single issue in the School. For this reason, all decisions are made within this entity, but in accordance with University policies and regulations. On the other hand, the structure of the Faculty at KSU and its departments are not regarded as independent entities due to the fact that they are not responsible for all decisions made. For these reasons, the decision-making process is different since staff participation is different. These findings are highly important to the study and the comparison process between the two institutions, bearing in mind that one follows a less centralised or decentralised management system (Leeds), and the other follows a more strictly centralised management system (KSU). This variation in management system between the Arab educational institutions and other Western institutions has been reported by Al-Baker (2009).

According to Luthans (2005), there are two ranges of participation in decision-making. One range does not allow participation, and managers do not involve subordinates in gaining new ideas. Another range allows the participation of subordinates in decision making. Results of this study are to a large extent not consistent with Luthans' statements, due the fact that academic staff from both universities participate in teaching related decisions despite their differences.

In general, Collins *et al.* (1989) highlight that teachers' participation in administrative activities enhances their experience and reduces frustration and boredom, enabling them to be

more committed and efficient. The findings from KSU are in line with those reported by Tonga (1997), where administrators and top level management do not encourage their subordinates to participate in decision-making.

6.5.4 Research-Related Decisions

Brew (2006) suggests that universities should move from the focus on teaching to the duality roles of research and teaching. Results of this study found great differences between the two universities related to research. This has been attributed to the organisations' cultures, since this culture has been created and enhanced at the University of Leeds and has become a collective phenomenon. On the other hand, the research culture at KSU is of an individualistic approach rather than a university approach, whereas research depends upon academic staff efforts in bringing research funds and publishing papers. At the University of Leeds, research is one of the main policies which encourage academic staff to write grant applications and bids, and look for funding agencies. Generating funds help in subsidising the School, appointing researchers and publishing papers. At KSU, research is mainly supported by the government represented by the Ministry of Higher Education.

In relation to participation in research-related decisions, findings from Leeds show that those in higher positions at the School are responsible for strategic decisions, such as setting research programmes and plans. At the other institution, academic members of staff are individually responsible for generating funds and writing research, and decisions are made at the Ministry. There are intentions at the King Saud University towards developing a good research environment on academic staff and student's levels. The University attempts to support and boost what is recently known as research initiatives. For this reason, KSU initiated an agency responsible for research, the University Agency of Scientific Research. Unfortunately, this agency focuses its efforts mostly on scientific research areas rather than human and social sciences. One participant reported:

> Yes, the University has allocated budgets for research, which are overwhelmingly directed towards the Faculty of Science and Computing and little money has been allocated for the Faculty of Education. (Associate Professor)

Additionally, participants added that if an organisation or a university plans to conduct some research, it should contact the research agency at the University, which will send a formal

letter to the pertaining Faculty or department. The Faculty or department holds a meeting with the academic members to choose academic staff or a team to work on the research project. One participant commented on this, saying:

> The Dean of the Faculty or Head of Departments may select a particular academic member of staff without consulting other members… Sometimes we have some worries or concerns about such selections or appointments, like why was that person in particular chosen and not another. (Associate Professor)

Although the research agency transforms research projects to the pertaining faculties or departments, decisions are still made on individual levels rather than on a collective level. Furthermore, decisions are made on the top level rather than the bottom line levels.

6.5.5 Organisational Change

Organisational change was addressed from two different perspectives. At the University of Leeds, participants focused on the financial pressure and crises, which has led to cuts in funding, staff and research. This is consistent with the findings of Jones (1985), Cuthbert (1996) and Zona (2005), which also emphasise that such pressure has led to more cost-efficiency. However, at KSU, participants addressed the issue of organisational change from culture and the centralisation of decision points of view. The decision-making process is centralised and is in the hands of higher positions, such as the Dean of Faculty and the Vice Chancellor. It is worth mentioning that a new Vice Chancellor for KSU has been recently appointed, who has been focusing on developing the University in terms of engaging academic staff in decision-making and encourages research environment. It can be concluded from data that KSU is trying to move forward, towards the participatory approach in decision-making.

6.5.6 Leadership Styles

Interviews reveal in general that leadership styles are different in both organisations. For example, it can be concluded that leaders at the School of Education, University of Leeds follow more of a democratic leadership style, whereas they delegate substantial parts of their responsibilities to their deputies or assistants, such as Director of Research, module coordinators and others. This also relates to the collegial model highlighted previously in the

literature of Shattock, 2002 and Sergiovanni, 1991. On the other hand, the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Heads of Departments at KSU generally follow more of a consultative leadership style, since decisions are not made on a participatory basis. Although the academic members of staff at KSU reveal low satisfaction with levels of participation in decision-making, they have reported their significant participation in teaching-related decisions. Yet, their participation in administrative and financial decisions is low because such decisions are still centralised in top management offices.

In relation to this aspect, participative decision-making moves decisions from a minority group of upper level positions to lower levels (Glew *et al.,* 1995); something that has been evident at Leeds. Muindi (2011) conducts a study on the participation of academics in decision-making, in the School of Business at the University of Nairobi. The study finds that academics are satisfied with their participation in decision-making and work with minimal interference from the Dean of Faculty. The study also reports that decision-making is participatory for all issues addressed by the School (teaching, administrative and finance). These findings seem to go in line with the findings from the University of Leeds.

The power distance dimension refers to national cultural expectations and acceptance that power is distributed unequally in society (Hofstede, 1980). In countries with small or medium power distance, (for example, Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom), subordinates are claimed to be more likely to participate in decision-making than countries with high power distance (e.g. Saudi Arabia, India, China, etc.) (*ibid*). Reflecting this discussion on my study, the results indicated that academic members of staff at Leeds are more likely to participate in decision-making than their counterparts at KSU. The differences between the two organisations may be attributed to claim that people of the Western nations live in the world of rules and instructions, and if they do not follow these rules, they expose themselves to risk of accountability and maybe punishment. On the other hand, developing countries have developed rules and regulations, but people usually do not follow these rules because they are not punished or fined if they do not follow such rules (*ibid*). Reflecting on the findings of my study on this argument, this seems to support claims raised by Hofstede.

Consistent with the argument above, Mohammed *et al.* (2008) also highlight significant cultural differences between the Arab and Western cultures. An example of these differences is that Arabs are largely affected by the national culture and use it in their daily life at home, in the office and on the street (Mohammed *et al*., 2008). Although the national and organisational cultures are different, Hofstede (2005) claims that they are both interrelated and affect one another; the national culture also affects people's behaviour. Since Arab culture is different from British culture, Hofstede (2005) argues that organisations within individualistic cultures have a tendency to assume that leaders act on the basis of their own interests and match them with the organisation's interests; this might relate to my findings bearing in mind that the top managers keep academics away from their strategic decisions. Siddiqi (1997) adds to this highlighting that consultation has a major role in Arab organisations' decision-making, and this was also evident in my findings as top managers consulted other members of staff in the meetings observed. Studies in the Arab world find that the consultation decision-making process is the main approach used by managers in different types of organisations (Siddiqi 1997, Abdalla & Al Homoud 2001 and Mohammed *et al.,* 2008). These studies suggest that Arab executives find that the purpose of consultation is to fulfil the individualities of parties involved rather than to improve the quality of decisions. Perhaps these claims need further investigation in another piece of research as my study did not interview top managers.

Reflecting on the arguments made in this study, the results of interviews indicate that the Dean of the Faculty of Education at KSU is consultative in teaching and research related decisions, while he is authoritarian in administrative and financial decisions. On the other hand, the Head of School at the University of Leeds appears to be a democratic leader, who gives his subordinates the opportunity to effectively participate in all decisions related to the School. In other words, the Head follows the participative approach, which centres efforts on discussing all issues in regular meetings at the School. According to Abu Baker (1997), the participation of academics in decision-making, results in achieving a good quality of education. These results are in line with the study conducted by Reyes and Shin (1995), which believes that the participation of academic members of staff in decision-making leads to more commitment and retention in higher educational institutions. Reflecting this argument on my study, members of staff at Leeds did not desire further participation, but

those at KSU did actually desire further participation. It could be assumed that education, in general, at KSU requires more attention to improving its quality.

6.6 Summary

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss findings of the in-depth interviews conducted with academic members of staff at the University of Leeds and King Saud University. This chapter also aims to complement and further explain the quantitative results located in Chapter Five. In other words, triangulation has been used to mix quantitative with qualitative results. It is highly important to mention that findings from this research stage support those in the earlier stages. One of the major aims of this study is to identify the similarities and differences of the two universities in terms of actual and desired participation in teaching, finance and administrative related decisions. It is clear from the presentation of statements reported by participants that there are significant differences between academic staff at the two institutions in terms of participation in decision-making. The chapter has discussed issues in relation to the area of decisions, (teaching, financial, administrative and research) as well as in the theme of decisions (organisational change and leadership styles). Each of these areas and themes has been addressed in a separate and collective manner. Differences are reflected in the leadership styles of top management at both institutions. Top management at the University of Leeds is characterised as participative, while at KSU, it is characterised as consultative in teaching related decisions, and authoritative in financial and administrative decisions. These could be attributed to the differences in the organisational system of the two universities, as well as cultural backgrounds.

Chapter Seven

Implications of the Research Findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results obtained through the research methods used in this study, including documentary analysis, observation, quantitative and qualitative methods. The exploratory research design followed in the research has provided a wide scope to achieve valid and crucial information regarding the research context. The use of additional methods of data collection under this research design has allowed reaching more sound and reliable results. This chapter provides the overall findings that were derived from different quantitative and qualitative methods, documentary analysis, and observation. In other words, it brings results from all research stages together. However, the discussion heavily depends on results obtained from the survey questionnaire and interviews because these two methods are intensively used in the study and answer research questions. This is also appropriate because the two earlier research stages, documentary analysis and observations are exploratory in nature.

This chapter consists of four main sections, out of which the first focuses on the similarities and differences between the two institutions under investigation. The discussion in this section focuses on issues of (1) organisational change, (2) bureaucracy, (3) impact of globalisation, and (4) participation and marginalisation of academic staff in decision-making. The third section centres on the major insights of this study. This section also compares and reflects the study results based on the literature and theory. Section four compares the implications for leadership of the two universities. The final section briefly discusses the research outcomes.

7.2 Similarities and Difference between the University of Leeds and KSU

This section discusses the similarities and differences between KSU and the University of Leeds in relation to participation in different types of decisions made in two organisations (teaching, research, financial and administrative). This is shown in five sub-themes, which are discussed below.

7.2.1 Organisational Change

This study demonstrates substantial differences between the two institutions pertaining to organisational change. It is worth mentioning here that organisational change is used in the context of academia, rather than the change in businesses. Participants from the University of Leeds focused on the financial crisis that negatively affected the University in general and the School of Education in particular. This crisis had led to cuts in funding and staff recruitment/ retention, which increased the workload on the existing staff. Organisational change is considered one of the main consequences of organisational culture. For instance, participants from the University of Leeds emphasised that the cut in funding has affected the research culture in the School and has become an individualistic issue rather than a School issue. Participants from KSU have understood organisational change from creating a culture of research, a culture of participation in decision-making and a culture of learning. Therefore, they wish these issues to be changed over time and become part of the Faculty's culture.

It is evident from this discussion that the organisational change differs between the two institutions and participants think in different ways. Participants from the University of Leeds focused on the financial crisis, while staff at KSU focused on participation in decision-making and change in the culture of subordination in the Faculty. Perhaps, the focus of members of academic staff at Leeds was on the financial crisis, as it heavily affected their work, where an institution has been described to be more sensitive to the external environment (Jones, 1985; Zona, 2005).

The University of Leeds has developed a research culture, which focuses on writing grant applications and appointing researchers to work on research projects. This, in fact, does not exist at KSU. For these reasons, it is difficult to compare these two universities in relation to research. There is a clear difference between these two universities in relation to research

culture, which is attributed to support by top management. For instance, documentary analysis and observations clearly indicated that research projects are discussed at every meeting at the School of Education, University of Leeds. In contrast, the same research methods were not demonstrated at the same level at the Faculty of Education at KSU. It can, therefore, be said that there are no similarities at all between the two universities regarding research culture. These findings are in line with a UNDP Report (2009), highlighting that Arab researchers try to exert efforts on an individual level, but an extremely low amount was spent by Arab universities on research, innovation and development, which had a negative impact on Arab innovation performance in both quantitative and qualitative terms. My study demonstrates a great difference between the two universities in relation to research culture and results indicate that the School of Education at Leeds has created a research culture in the last few decades. These results are supported by Halligan *et al.* (2010), who addressed the issue of research culture in English and Scottish universities. Their results suggest that a research culture is embedded in university departments (i.e., Education departments) and are highly related to the work environment characterised by role conflict, especially when academic staff balance between teaching and research activities, alongside the external pressures of accountability. In general, universities in the UK have created a research culture that comes abreast with the teaching culture. This can be supported by the proposition made by Cameron and Green (2012), that the decision making approach followed by wise executives is tailored in such a way that goes well with the situation being faced. However, this situation does not exist in Saudi universities in general, although there are some initiatives to create a research culture, but on an individual level, rather than at Faculty or department levels.

7.2.2 Bureaucracy

The issue of bureaucracy emerges for discussion as it is embedded within the issue of leadership style and power distance. This subsection also reflects the level of authority given to academic members of staff for decision-making. Rowan (1995) reports that although teachers substantially participate in teaching decisions, they desire to have direct and further participation in decisions, as it gives them more flexibility in delivering teaching duties. In this regard, it is arguable that results in my study could show academic members of staff seeking more flexibility and less bureaucracy.

Differences in results between KSU and the University of Leeds can be attributed to the differing levels of bureaucracy in the Arab and British cultures. Alawy (1980) addressed issues of comparing Arab culture with the Western culture in relation to higher educational institutions. The author suggested that the bureaucratic system in Saudi universities is a barrier to academic staff involvement in the decisions-making process. Reflecting this on my study, at KSU, the top management is mainly responsible for promotions and new appointments, not only at Faculty level but also on the level of the University, as a whole. For these reasons, academic members of staff do not participate in strategic administrative-related decisions. It can be said that administrative decisions are centralised and follow an excessive bureaucratic system laying responsibility in the hands of particular people at the top. As it has been expressed by Lapsley, Palott and Levy (2002), the traditional style of bureaucratic management involved a lack of responsiveness for organisational working, which is still evident in the culture of Saudi Arabia (Lapsley, Palott and Levy 2002). This is compared to the democratic system at the School of Education at Leeds, where people share such decisions in assigned committees and panels. The situation at Leeds can be supported by the view of Lapsley, Palott and Levy (2002) of a new style of management, which is free from the deep-rooted bureaucratic systems.

7.2.3 The Impact of Globalisation

Quantitative and qualitative results of the study indicate that academic members of staff at the Faculty of Education, King Saud University strongly desire to further participate in different types of decisions. This is due to the low level of actual and effective participation in strategic decisions. Despite the influence of the Saudi culture, studies have documented some differences between different generations. Recent studies conducted on Saudi firms focusing on the new generation and younger people found that this generation has been heavily affected by other cultures, such as the American culture. According to Al-Jaffary and Hollingsworth (1983), there are effects of Western management on Arab countries, in particularly on the Gulf countries. Since the 1970s, a very high number of managers have been trained in Western countries. In relation to higher educational institutions, there are no studies conducted on the impact of culture and globalisation on academic participation in decision-making. However, my study provides some useful insight in this regard, as it was found that many of the academics at KSU were educated in the West.

It is worth mentioning in this study that the majority of academic staff of Saudi universities have graduated from British universities and to a large extent have been affected by the Western cultures. Some of these might aspire to create work environments similar to those at the places where they were educated. It is surprising to see how much influence Western traditions have had in the educational system in Saudi Arabia. Perhaps one of these is the integration of research in to higher educational institutions. Some people argue that in order to gain global competitiveness (researching higher international university ranking), there is a need to embrace such Western systems or business cultures. Indeed there is evidence of a degree of convergence in management practices.

In the end, it is interesting to raise the question of whether it is mainly the Saudi culture that is heavily affected by the impact of globalisation, or are other nations are also affected at the same level. This might raise a general discussion on globalisation where one collective culture is being shared in the global village. Nonetheless, arguments have been raised that the influence of the developed world has been much larger to that brought from less developed countries. Some people even go further by preferring the term 'Americanisation', rather than 'globalisation', where the American culture has dominated other cultures. In this respect, even British culture is being affected by the global impact.

7.2.4 Participation and Marginalisation

In relation to the differences in status and responsibility of academic members of staff, the results of the study indicate that the differences between the two universities are embedded in the actual participation of different types of decisions. As mentioned earlier, members of staff at the School of Education at Leeds are more likely to actually participate in decision-making in different areas. Participating in decision-making offers them the opportunity to develop their skills, not only in teaching matters but also in financial and administrative matters. Such skills are likely to help them in budgeting and managing research projects they are working on. Participation in decision-making also helps junior staff to gain more experience, and learn from more senior members of staff.

Findings indicate significant differences between the two universities in terms of expectations and marginalisation. Almost all participants from Leeds report no marginalisation in the participation of decision-making. They reveal that their expectations of the School and the

Head are met. These findings are in line with those reported in Indonesia by Sukirrno and Siengthain (2010). At KSU, however, it is clear from the findings that they are to a large extent, marginalised in different types of decision-making. Consequently, academic members of staff are not satisfied with their level of participation in the decision-making processes, although there are a number of committees formed by the Dean of Faculty of Education. Academic members of staff wish to be more involved in all activities related to the Faculty. These findings are in line with those reported in Saudi Arabia by Sonbul (1996). Floyd (1986) also reports dissatisfaction being caused by marginalisation.

One important issue related to participation is the low desire for further participation at one institution. Results of this study indicate that academic members of staff in the School of Education at the University of Leeds do not wish to be further involved in different types of decisions. However, as mentioned earlier, participants from KSU desire to further participate. It is evident that participants from Leeds are overloaded and overwhelmed with several tasks, including their responsibility for designing and teaching modules, supervising undergraduate and postgraduate students, managing research projects, participation of higher positions in strategic administrative and financial decisions. In the long run, this may lead to the undermining of the participative model established in the School. Furthermore, this may create some sort of centralisation of decisions. This relates to findings highlighted by Floyd (1986), who says that a low desire to participate is caused by intensified financial pressure, accountability and competition; all of these factors work as de-motivators to participate. The findings of Floyd, although outdated, seem relevant to my findings, especially that of financial pressures.

7.3 Insights of the Study

The study finds significant differences between actual and desired participation in decisions (administrative) conducted on teachers' participation in decision-making. These findings are not limited to this study as Ferrara (1993), Sonbul (1996) and Mehta *et al.* (2010) also find a discrepancy between actual and desired participation between higher managerial domain and the lowest in the technical domain. Evidence indicates that academic staff at the University of Leeds experience higher levels of participation in decision-making than their counterparts from KSU, who desire greater involvement than they yielded. There is a strong desire among academic staff to be consulted on academic matters and be more involved in the processes of

decision-making. These results imply democratic difference between KSU and the University of Leeds, which directly affects academic participation in decision-making. These results might indicate that members of academic staff at KSU have less power than those at Leeds. In other words, academic members of staff have no or limited ownership and governance over decision-making at KSU. Results of this study are consistent with a study conducted by Mehta *et al.* (2010) on Indian universities, who also found significant differences between actual and desired participation in decisions (administrative) conducted on teachers' participation in decision-making. The consistency between the results of my study and the study conducted on Indian universities (Mehta *et al.,* 2010) might be attributed to the fact that Indian universities are affected by local culture which is, in a way, similar to that of Saudi universities. On the other hand, findings from the University of Leeds show less evidence of difference between the actual and desired levels of participation, which is in line with results of the study of Mualuko *et al.* (2009) conducted in Kenya, in a pre-university education institution.

The results of this study, and findings from KSU, are in line with the study conducted by Anwar *et al.* (2008), on decision-making in the Pakistani universities context who finds that academic members of staff are not satisfied with their level of participation in decision-making. The study also indicated that people of lower levels in the hierarchy are more familiar with field problems than staff at higher levels. This might be similar to what has been highlighted in this study, where those at lower levels are the ones actually facing daily problems. The study points out that decentralisation in decision-making increases the need of coordination at higher levels. Anwar *et al.* (2008) reveal that participation of academic members of staff in the decision-making process appears to be considerably ignored. The similarity of findings between my study, results from KSU, and Anwar *et al's.* (2008) study is embedded in the general absence of culture of regular dialogue, and joint forum in universities is manifested in rising cases of unrest. University problems increase if there is a lack of mutual communication between top management and academic staff. Perhaps such problems or lack of dialogue is more evident in less developed countries, for example, Saudi Arabia and Pakistan. The study highlights that the structure of universities in Saudi Arabia is, in a way, similar to the system in Pakistan where the structure of universities does not offer a great degree of autonomy for academic staff to make decisions. However, it might be problematic to generalise this conclusion regarding participation and dialogue in less developed countries, as a study at the University of Nairobi, Kenya contradicts this (Muindi,

2011). This study finds that academics are satisfied with their level of participation in decision-making and work with minimal interference from the Dean of Faculty. The study also reported that decision-making is participatory for all issues addressed by the School (teaching, administrative and finance). The inconsistency between my study and Muindi (2011) is attributed to the point that this university might take a British approach to work and culture.

As previously mentioned in this section, this study found great differences between King Saud University and the University of Leeds, which were mainly attributed to the difference in culture between the two nations. Similar findings of significant difference and cultural effect have been highlighted by Jiang and Wei (2009), who conducted a study on two universities, one in the United States and the other in China. Jiang and Wei (2009) found that the final say in decisions at the Chinese University was impinged by the Vice Chancellors and their deputies while in the US, academic members of staff of every level largely participated in the process of decision-making.

Reflecting on findings from both institutions in my study, I have developed a new theoretical model (shown in Figure 7.1, p. 240). This has been constructed on the basis of a synthesis of insights drawn from both existing literature and my empirical research findings. This model supports and validates the earlier model provided in the theoretical framework section in the literature chapter and reflects in some modifications. It does so as findings of my study regarding KSU have reported (1) decisions are made on a top-down basis, (2) academics are marginalised, (3) decisions are autocratic and centralised, and (4) leaders are consultative, as illustrated in the figure below. Findings regarding Leeds University have reported (1) decisions are made on the bottom-up basis, (2) academics are not marginalised, (3) decisions are democratic and decentralised, and (4) leaders are participative. One important issue that needs to be highlighted at this level is the point that these conclusions are not absolute. For example, when it is said that academics are marginalised at KSU, it does not mean that they are 100 per cent marginalised, as they are somehow involved in teaching-related decisions. Nonetheless, it is meant that the general trend is towards being marginalised. One other important issue that my study has reflected on the theoretical model is that it is not only national and organisational cultures that are reflected upon in the decision-making issue, as the global culture has also been reflected.

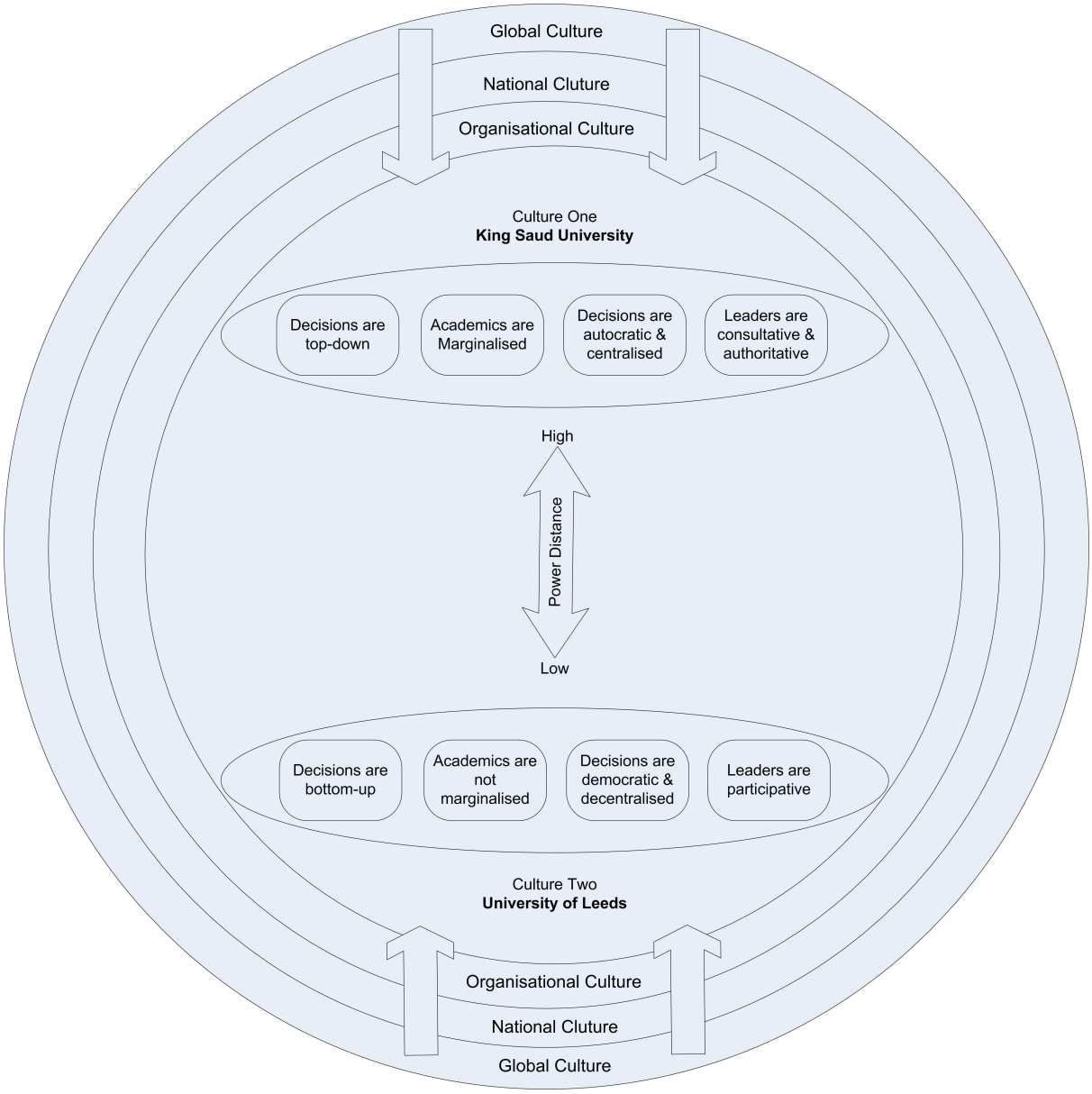


Figure 7.1: Alenezi's decision-making and culture model

7.4 Implications for Leadership

This section sheds light on leadership decision-making styles highlighted in this study. It discusses three leadership styles in relation to decision-making: participative, consultative and centralised/authoritative styles. A further synthesis of findings from this study in relation to leadership style and the decision-making theory is provided in Figure 7.2 (Alenezi's Leadership Style Model). It summarises thoughts regarding participation in teaching, research, finance and administrative related decisions along with leadership styles at both universities. The figure presents different styles of participation in decision-making in relation to organisational and national cultures, and their implications on leadership styles.

The figure illustrates that decision-making in relation to leadership at Leeds University is consultative regarding financial and administrative decisions, and collaborative regarding research and teaching related decisions. For KSU, the figure shows that decision-making in relation to leadership is consultative only in terms of research-related decisions, collaborative regarding teaching-related decisions; and centralised/authoritative regarding financial and administrative decisions (See Figure 7.2 below).

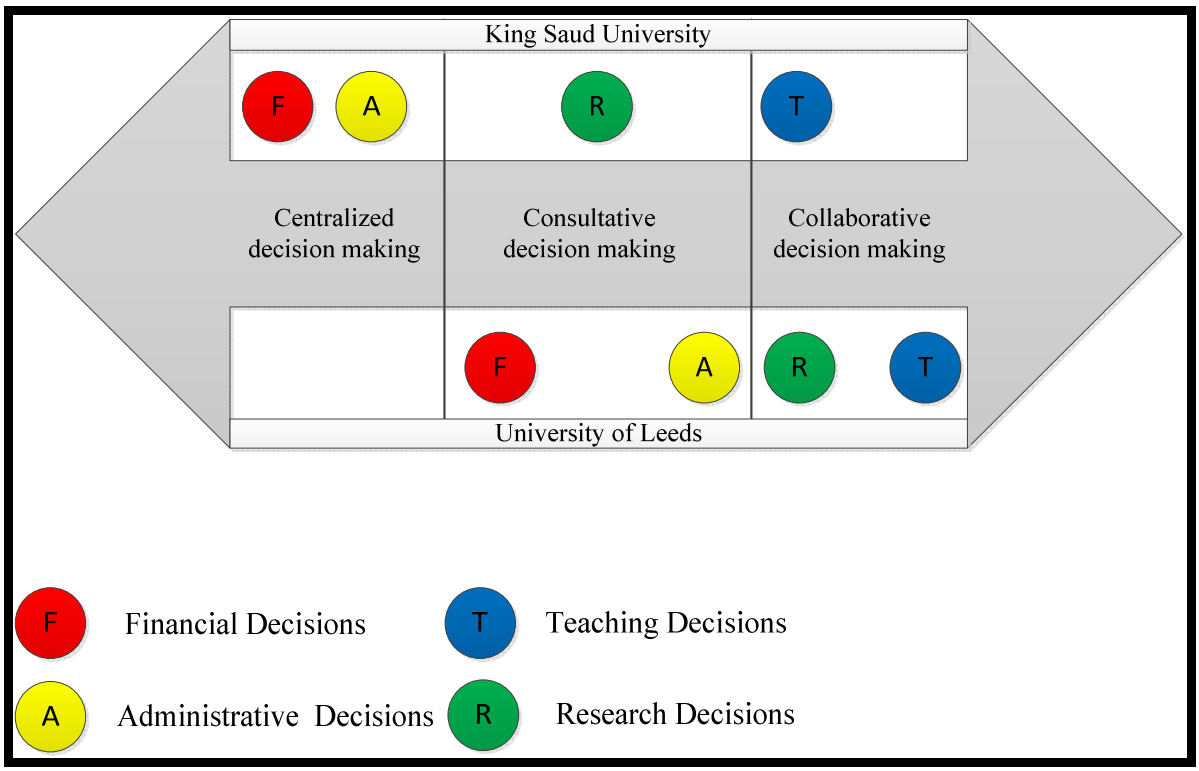


Figure 7.2: Alenezi's Leadership Style Model – leadership styles of participation in decision-making at King Saud University and the University of Leeds.

The interview results indicate that the Dean of the Faculty of Education at KSU is consultative in areas of teaching and research related decisions. In relation to financial decisions, the Faculty and its members of staff do not participate because such decisions are made by top level management, such as the Vice Chancellor and his deputies. Leaders tend to be affected by national culture. It seems that decision-making at KSU is, somehow, similar to the Japanese case, where Hiroki and Joan (1992) highlight that the Japanese culture and traditions dictate that managers consult their workers on many aspects related to individuals and organisations; employees are encouraged to step forward with ideas to improve the work, however, important issues are left to senior managers (Hiroki & Joan, 1992).

On the other hand, as shown in Figure 7.3, to a large extent leaders at the School of Education, University of Leeds follow participative decision-making styles in terms of teaching and research decisions. Nevertheless, making strategic financial (i.e. School budgeting) and administrative decisions (i.e. recruiting new staff) is constrained by the senior positions at the School, such as Professors and Readers. In the UK, the situation of decision-making is different from that of Japan and Saudi Arabia. Decision-making processes are similar to those in Australia and the United States, where organisations tend to support broad-based employee participation. In such organisations, there are no national culture mandates that hinder employees' participation in decision-making, so organisations create their cultures through senior members (Stoll & Spector, 2008).

According to Mohammed *et al.* (2008), there are large cultural differences between the Arab culture and Western cultures. For instance, Arabs are largely affected by their national culture which is used in all aspects of their daily life. Although national and organisational cultures are different, Hofstede (2005) argues that they are interrelated and affect one another. Behaviour is also affected by national culture. Reflecting on such differences, Hofstede (2005) argues that organisations within individualistic cultures have a tendency to assume that leaders act on the basis of their own interests and match them with their organisation's interests. In general, consultation has a major role in the Arab organisations' decision-making (Siddiqi, 1997). Studies in the Arab world found that consultative decision-making processes are the main approaches used by managers of different types of organisations (Siddiqi, 1997, Mohammed *et al.*, 2008, Abdalla & Al Homoud, 2001). These studies suggest that Arab executives find that the purpose of consultation is to fulfil the individualities of parties involved rather than to improve the quality of decisions.

It can be concluded from the conceptual framework of the study and discussion that there is a power distance between leaders at King Saud University and their subordinates. According to Bhuian (1998), Saudi Arabia's power distance ranking was 80, indicating a high level of inequality of power within organisations, and meaning that leaders tend to separate themselves from the group. This Saudi high power distance has an impact on decision-making within organisations. According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), managers in Arab countries generally make their decisions on an autocratic basis, and subordinates are more likely to be silent observers, which falls in line with the findings of my study, as per the meeting observations conducted at KSU. When Hofestede (2000) compared power distances

between Saudi Arabia and Western countries, he found that inequality seemed to be acceptable in Saudi Arabia. Hofestede also highlighted a rigid system and vertical authority structure, respect for authority, fear of boss, and individuals in power are privileged, as well as individualism in decision-making. This is also consistent with the findings of my study, in terms of the interviews conducted with academic members of staff at KSU.

The findings from this study clearly indicate that academic members of staff at the Faculty of Education, KSU have a willingness and desire to further participate in different areas of decisions. This could be attributed to the point that the majority of these people have graduated from British universities, and have been affected by British culture. Therefore, they have started calling for further participation in all decisions at the Faculty. Effective participation in decision-making may bridge the gap between leaders and subordinates in Saudi higher educational institutions.

To sum up this section, results from the four research stages in this study show clear differences between the two institutions. These differences are embedded in the actual level of participation of academic members of staff at Leeds, compared to a very low level of participation at KSU. Although Saudis do not significantly participate in decision-making processes, they clearly wish to have to have greater involvement in decision-making. It is apparent from the findings of this study that members of academic staff at Leeds do not wish to be more involved in decision-making, because they are satisfied with the level of participation in decisions made at the school. The participation of academic staff in decision-making in higher educational institutions in the UK has become part of the culture of universities. On the other hand, however, this culture has not been created in Saudi universities as yet. Arab and Saudi culture still depends upon tribal culture and the visibility of leaders in their communities, including the family, tribe, and institutions.

7.5 Summary

In this chapter, I presented and discussed the main findings reached by the study. This chapter provides an overview about the differences between the University of Leeds and King Saud University, including the organisational culture, bureaucracy, impact of globalisation and participation and marginalisation. This chapter also reflects its results on the literature offering insight on consistency and inconsistency, between my study results and

related literature alongside some explanations for such patterns. In order to reflect on the theoretical and conceptual framework, it was imperative to discuss the issue of leadership styles that directly affect the power distance. The discussion in this section leads to creating a model on leadership styles in relation to decision making at the two institutions. The next chapter summarises the main conclusions reached by the study. It also presents some recommendations, contribution to knowledge, limitations and sets the way for future research in this area.

Chapter Eight

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to summarise the main conclusions from the research, reflecting on the five research questions. Each of these questions is answered in a different subsection. The chapter then discusses areas of strengths for this research, and methods of contributing towards knowledge. The chapter then goes on to provide some recommendations. The chapter also sets the research limitations, and finally paves the way for further future studies in this area.

8.2 Assessment of Research Outcomes

The data collected to answer questions relies on using four research methods divided into four research stages: documentary analysis, observation, questionnaire and interviews. The process of answering the research question began with reviewing documents related to meeting minutes, which was followed by attending a number of meetings at both institutions. The third step was based on conducting quantitative research, which is represented in the survey questionnaire. The fourth step was based on semi-structured interviews with a number of participants from both institutions. In the overall research, all questions have been successfully answered, which is reflected by the conceptual framework given in the study. Specifically, the following points summarise answers for each of the research questions. It is worth mentioning that this section presents how the research questions are answered without any discussion.

1. **What are the similarities and differences between the Education Faculty, King Saud University, and the School of Education, University of Leeds, in the policy and practice of academic staff decision-making?**

This question was answered using four methods, which are mentioned above. The evidence gained from all the research methods used in this study demonstrates substantial differences between the two institutions in relation to teaching, research, financial and administrative

related decisions. This shows that academic members of staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in such decisions.

Regarding desired participation, results indicated that academic members of staff at KSU wish to have more involvement in teaching decisions, in comparison to their counterparts the University of Leeds. To a large extent, these findings are supported by the interview results; for example, academic staff at the University of Leeds expressed positive views about their actual participation in teaching decisions, such as designing and delivering modules, as well as teaching methods.

Quantitative results indicated no similarities between the two universities and this conclusion was supported by the results of the interviews conducted with a number of academic members of staff. The differences between the two institutions are attributed to the difference in the research culture. The University of Leeds has developed a research culture, which focuses on writing grant applications and appointing researchers to work on research projects. This, in fact, does not exist at all at KSU. For these reasons, it is difficult to compare the two universities in relation to research. There is a clear difference between the two universities in relation to research culture, which is attributed to support by top management. For instance, documentary analysis and observations clearly indicate that research projects are discussed at every meeting in the School of Education, University of Leeds; nonetheless, the same research methods are not demonstrated by the other institution.

This study has found that there are some similarities between the two universities in the way that strategic financial decisions are taken by senior positions. However, the main difference is that decisions at the University of Leeds are discussed and made at School level, whilst at King Saud University, financial decisions are made at the University level, rather than at Faculty or Department level.

Hence, it can be said that the research question has been significantly answered, as the study identifies the similarities and differences between the two studies. This draws attention towards the different conditions of the two countries and leads to an outcome that the policies and decision-making processes among the staff of the two educational institutions differ depending on several other environmental factors, such as cultural differences, and

orientation towards academic development, indicating that staff members at Leeds are more involved in organisational decision making, compared to staff members at KSU, in view of certain specific areas.

2. To what extent are members of academic staff of varying ranks and levels involved in the decision-making process in their departments at the two institutions?

This question is concerned with the differences between the different ranks of the two universities, in relation to the level of involvement in decision-making, and has been answered using the quantitative method represented in results of multiple regression analysis. The results indicated higher positions, such as the Head of School, Dean of Faculty and Professors are more likely to participate in different types of decision making at both organisations. To verify and examine the validity of these results, they have been complemented by qualitative results. It is worth mentioning again that the higher positions at King Saud University are less likely to participate in financial and administrative decisions, as these decisions are made by the Vice Chancellors and their deputies. It can be concluded that the higher positions at the School of Education are more likely to participate in making teaching decisions, than those in lower ranked positions. These results demonstrate no difference between the two universities in relation to the actual level of participation in teaching decisions made by staff in senior positions.

In relation to the research decisions, the multiple regression results indicate that there is no relationship between the actual participation of the academic staff in research decisions and their formal job title. The research decisions do not depend upon the position or seniority of academic staff members at the School of Education, University of Leeds. However, the qualitative results indicate that making strategic decisions depends upon the seniority of academic staff. At the Faculty of Education at King Saud University, the results show that there is no relevance of the position on participation in research decisions. It is worth remembering that research decisions are rarely discussed in the Faculty of Education because it is considered as an individual issue rather than a Faculty issue.

Multiple regression results demonstrate significant relationships between the actual level of participation in financial decision-making and the formal job. This means that members of

academic staff in senior positions at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in financial decision-making, in comparison with their counterparts, which are posted at the lower ranking positions. However, in respect to KSU, regression results found no relationship between the level of participation in making financial decisions and formal job positions at the Faculty of Education.

Again, multiple regression results show no relationship between the formal position in the School of Education at the University of Leeds and participation in making administrative decisions. Similarly, the results also found no effect of the formal position in the Faculty of Education, KSU on the participation in administration decisions. Seniority plays a key role in being involved in strategic decision-making, in both universities.

3. To what extent do the perceptions of staff of their actual level of involvement/participation in decision-making match their desired level of involvement in making decisions, and how might this be explained in terms of the differences in the status and responsibility of respondents?

This question has been answered using quanitative and qualitative interviews. Interviews indicated differences between the two institutions in terms of expectations and marginalisation. Almost all participants from the School of Education, University of Leeds reported no marginalisation in the participation of decision-making. They reveal that their expectations of the School and the Head of School are being met.

At KSU, it is clear from the questionnaire and interviews that academic members of staff are to a large extent, marginalised in different types of decision-making. They are not satisfied with their level of participation in the decision-making processes, although there are a number of committees formed by the Dean of Faculty.

It can be concluded that academic members of staff at the School of Education, University of Leeds are not marginalised, and participation in decision-making lives up to their expectations. On the other hand, members of academic staff at KSU feel marginalised and do not effectively participate in strategic decision-making, and wish to be more involved in all activities related to the Faculty of Education.

In relation to the differences in status and responsibility, results of the study indicate that differences between the two universities are embedded in the actual participation of different types of decisions. As mentioned earlier, members of academic staff at the University of Leeds are more likely to participate in decision-making. Participating in decision-making has given members of staff the opportunity to develop their skills, not only in teaching issues, but also in financial and administrative matters, which helps them in budgeting and managing research. Participation in decision-making also helps with promoting sharing experiences, and allows junior members to gain experience from senior members of staff.

4. From a comparative perspective, to what extent can similarities and/or differences between the two institutions be explained in terms of contrast on organisational culture?

Although, this study is conducted two academic schools of two different universities who, to a large extent, have the same objectives in relation to teaching, research, financial and administrative issues, there are substantial differences between the two organisations pertaining to participation in decision-making. The results of this study demonstrate abundant differences between the two institutions, which are attributed to differences in cultures. For instance, results find that academic members of staff significantly participate in the decision-making process taking place in the School of Education, and this has led to low power distance. As mentioned below in section 8.4, cultural differences and leadership implications, leaders at the University of Leeds are characterised by democratic styles since they follow participation with a collaborative approach. According to Male (2006), the Anglo culture sees leadership as a mean achieving desired outcomes. Leaders behave positively towards subordinates in achieving results and making strategic decisions.

On the other hand, the study results found that academic members of staff at KSU have an extremely limited space for participation in decision-making; something that has led to a higher level of power distance. The results also indicate that those academic members of staff express their desire to participate even more than participants from the University of Leeds. This is attributed to the point that the majority of participants from KSU studied their postgraduate degrees at British universities. These are largely affected by the British organisational culture. As aforementioned, in Chapter Seven, when Hofestede (2000) compared the power distance between Saudi Arabia and Western countries, he pointed out

that Saudi leaders may accept inequality among their subordinates due to the rigidity and verticality of the system in the authority structure.

5. What are the Faculty / departmental change leadership and management implications for optimising staff involvement and the quality of the decision-making process?

This question is answered mainly by the semi-structured interviews. In general, interviews revealed that leadership styles were different at both institutions. For example, leaders at the School of Education, University of Leeds follow democratic leadership styles and delegate substantial parts of their responsibilities to their deputies, such as the Director of Research, Module Coordinators, and others. On the other hand, the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Heads of Departments at KSU follow consultative leadership styles, since decisions are not made on a participative basis. Although, the academic members of staff at KSU reveal low satisfaction with the level of participation in decision-making, they have also reported significant participation in teaching-related decisions. However, their participation in administrative and financial decisions is low because such decisions are still centralised in top management offices.

On the basis of these results, leaders may work on creating some changes in the participation culture within the organisation. At the University of Leeds, leaders may motivate academic members of staff to write grant applications to compensate for the cuts in funding. Furthermore, leaders may work on developing new plans for collaboration with organisations on both national and international levels to support new initiatives, and generate new financial resources.

On the Saudi level, work on empowering academic staff requires substantial effort from leaders to change their leadership styles and give more opportunities to staff to participate in strategic decisions. Therefore, this leads to the creation of an organisational culture that depends on participation rather than consultation and authoritarian systems. Participants from this institution have understood organisational change from creating a culture of research, a culture of participation in decision-making and a culture of learning.

It is evident from this discussion that organisational change differs between the two universities and participants think in different ways. Participants from the University of Leeds focus on the financial crisis, while staff at KSU focus on decision-making and changing the culture of subordination in the Faculty. As mentioned in Chapter Seven, the cultural differences between the two organisations have created differences in power distance. According to Hofstede (1980), national culture affects the participation of subordinates in decision-making and creates a sense of inequality in the society.

8.3 Strengths and Contribution to the Study of Knowledge

The outcome of this study is a bridge in the gap of knowledge, in different facets. There are several areas to which this study adds value and contributes significantly to knowledge, including multiple uses of various research methodologies to answer the research questions; strengths and weakness of decision-making in the Faculty/School of Education at KSU and the University of Leeds. The contribution of this study to knowledge comes through using four complementary research methods including documentary analysis, observation, quantitative, and qualitative methods. The major aim of this combination relates to answer the research inquiry. It has been imperative in this study to analyse meeting minutes and examine how decisions are made with the School and Faculty of Education, complemented by my attendance at a number of meetings, to observe the contribution of members of academic staff in decision-making. The quantitative method has been suitable for exploring the actual and desired participation of academic staff in decision-making, while the qualitative method has been useful to complement quantitative results and to investigate the impact of organisational and national culture of the process of decision-making, exploring organisational change and leadership styles at both institutions. The contribution of this study is also embedded in designing a new questionnaire that can be used or adapted by other researchers. Therefore, this study contributes to examine the participation of academic staff in decision-making from different perspectives.

The study contributes in filling the gap in existing literature relevant to the participation of academic staff in decision-making, not only on the level of Saudi Arabia, but also on a regional level (Arab level), and an international level. This study has addressed the issue of decision-making from two perspectives and two different cultures (two organisations). This

has been highlighted in the comparative dimension for the study, where there is some kind of scarcity in such studies.

Finally, this study has developed a theoretical framework, which was built on the results of the study related to decision-making (teaching, research, financial and administrative) from different perspectives, such as power distance, organisational change, leadership styles and Saudi national culture. I have postulated how culture affects the process of decision-making and leadership styles at both universities (see section 7.4).

8.4 Recommendations

The outcomes of the study results and the conclusions attempt to suggest a number of recommendations. Traditionally, academic members of staff in higher educational institutions perform teaching-related duties of lecturing, marking, designing curricula and materials. The academic members of staff also work in research. However, academic members of staff roles may be extended to include participation in financial and administrative decisions and matters related to an institution. Therefore, this study recommends that academic staff, regardless of their position, may effectively participate in different types of decisions such as setting budgets of Faculties and departments, as well as participation in recruiting new members of staff. Higher levels of participation might relate to the issue of cost efficiency in the sense that when an institution hands administrative issues and decisions to its academic members of staff, they might save costs in recruiting staff to perform these duties. Perhaps the financial crises in the UK might have reflected on the need to delegate more responsibilities to academic members of staff. On the other hand, the case in KSA is different as such a crisis does not exist, added to this public organisation culture dominating there, which might imply the government might need to bring more job opportunities to the market. This means, it would be desirable for the government to have more work positions at their public organisations. This probably relates to the issue of disguised unemployment, which has been a common trend in the Saudi public sector.

It is clear from the study results that academic staff should be given opportunities to take their role in decision-making, particularly in financial and administrative decisions. At the same time, KSU and the University of Leeds should adopt and develop strategic plans that focus on improving academic staff in decision-making. The study recommends that both King Saud

University and the University of Leeds are to promote academic staff skills, not only in teaching, but also in financial and administrative issues.

As this study found that research culture has not been well established at the Faculty of Education at KSU, it recommends academic members of staff to initiate writing research proposals and bring funding from charities in Saudi Arabia or other alternative sources. In the long run, this will help the Faculty to create a research culture and overcome possible resistance for change. These steps might require developing channels of communication between top management and academic members of staff in the university.

In light of the study results, leaders in both the universities are advised to receive training in leadership styles including coaching, planning, motivation and communication. These training courses may enable them to understand the importance of subordinates' participation in decision-making, and to understand different styles of leadership.

This study recommends that the Faculty of Education at KSU should work on establishing its budget in collaboration with the Vice Chancellors Office, and other top management positions. Consequently, this will enable the Faculty to meet its requirements without the long process of excessive bureaucracy. This study will enhance academic staff participation in financial and administrative decisions and will lead to the decentralisation of decision-making for the Faculty.

8.5 Limitations of the Study

Although there are a number of strengths and contributions to knowledge for this study, it does have some limitations. The main limitation relates to generalisability; this study focuses at university level, which limits the generalisation of the study focusing on these two universities. The findings might reflect on the UK and Saudi universities who could benefit from the results. Other studies may be conducted on a large scale sample that cover academic staff and top management. This requires researchers to draw a large sample size that represents all universities in Saudi Arabia (see section 8.6 below). Despite the fact that this study uses a case study approach, it uses four research methods to overcome the problem of internal validity. In relation to generalisation, external validity, the results of this case study might be looked at from a naturalistic approach to generalisation, (Stake & Trumbull, 1982)

who define naturalistic generalisation as a process where readers can gain some insight that gives them the opportunity to reflect on the details and descriptions of case studies. Since readers are able to recognise similarities in case study details and find their description resound with their own experience, they can understand and realise that these case studies have sufficient information and description to generalise their findings (Stake & Trumbull, 1982). In order to ensure the generalisation of this study's results, I have described in detail how I conducted this study, including defining the target group, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, and findings. Therefore, readers of this script can recognise the level of reliability and validity for its findings (Melrose, 2009).

Another main limitation relates to representative-ness within the case studies. Although female academic members of staff did participate in the quantitative survey, and their contributions were analysed in the documentary analysis, it was not possible to conduct in-depth interviews with them. Due to cultural norms of gender segregation within the Saudi context, I could not observe female participation in Faculty meetings, and as a male researcher, I could not enter the women's premises and meet them there in person either.

8.6 Future Studies

In order to address the limitations of this study, future research could focus on four key issues. First, as it has been difficult to encompass the full range of people responsible for decision-making, including the Vice Chancellors and their senior management teams, by way of triangulation further research could focus on this top management perspective and how it compares this with the views of staff at less senior levels. This would develop insights into the related issues of the centralisation and decentralisation of decision-making in universities.

Second, further studies could extend across a wider sample of Faculties of Education in Saudi and British universities to achieve stronger generalisation within the university education sector. In order to carry out such a study, a representative sample would be required to ensure adequate coverage of the diverse rage of higher education institutions in both countries so that research findings could be generalised at national levels, perhaps with the use of quantitative techniques and statisitical generalisation.

Third, future research needs to address the gender issue. Although, this study targeted female academic members of staff in both universities, there was some imbalance. Women participated in the interview only from the University of Leeds, with no women from KSU. Future studies can bridge the gap in this area and cover both male and female staff, using qualitative methods. Cultural factors that hinder women from participation in research will need to be surmounted and alternative ways found to help women take part in different types of studies so that their voices can be heard and their views taken seriously. As it is difficult to cross the geneder divide in the interviewing process, more female researchers could be recruited to conduct interviews and with female respondents. This would facilitate fruitful cross-gender comparisons and achieve a breakthrough in generalisability, as much research in Saudi Arabia claims currently claims generalisability despite ignoring women's views.

Finally, in extending international comparative research on university staff decion making, a future focus could extend beyond education faculty to include other faculties and departments to achieve a more holistic perspective of university decision making at the system-wide level.

8.7 Summary

Chapter Eight has concluded the study. It is based on the discussion chapter, which addressed the main findings of the study. This chapter summarises the main conclusions of the study, which have led to a number of recommendations and further studies. It was necessary to show the strengths of the study, and its contribution to knowledge. This chapter has also highlighted some limitations, something that is usual in any academic research. The chapter also briefly summarises how the research questions have been successfully assessed and answered.

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Appendices

Appendix One: Questionnaire

Appendix Two: Interview Schedule

Appendix One: Questionnaire

A Survey on the Decision-Making Process at the Faculty of Education

Dear academic members of staff,

This survey is part of a PhD research study that looks at the perceptions of members of academic staff regarding the management of decision-making processes in the Faculties of Education at King Saud University and the School of Education at the University of Leeds. The research compares academic perceptions in these two institutions. The aim of the study is to gain further understanding of the complexities of the decision-making process in the Education faculties.

It would really help my research if you could please complete this questionnaire. I draw your attention to the fact that the information you provide will be treated as completely confidential. Kindly drop the questionnaire in the postgraduate students pigeonhole under the letter A for me to collect. I will be grateful if you please return the questionnaire before ****.

Finally, I would like to take this opportunity to give my appreciation for your effort in participating in this study.

If you have any queries, please feel free to contact me at this email address:omer_210@hotmail.com

Sincerely Yours
OmeirAlenezi

Academic Staff Questionnaire Regarding Decision Making

Section A: Personal Information.

Please tick in the appropriate box to register your response to questions 1- 6.

1. Age group:

a. ☐ 5- 34 b. ☐ 35- 44

c. ☐ 45- 54 d. ☐ 55- 65

2. Years of Experience in your current role:

a. ☐ Less than 5 years b. ☐ 5 to 10 years

c. ☐ 11 to 15 years d. ☐ 16 to 20 years

e. ☐ More than 20 years

3. Years of Experience in Higher Education:

a. ☐ Less than 5years b. ☐ 5 to 10 years

c. ☐ 11 to 15 years d. ☐ 16 to 20 years

e. ☐ More than 20 years

4. Formal job function:

a. ☐ Teaching only b. ☐ Teaching and research

c. ☐ Research fellow d. ☐ Others ……

5. Formal title of position:

a. ☐ Professor b. ☐ Assistant Professor

c. ☐ Associate professor d. ☐ Others ……..

6. Administrative Position:

a. ☐ Principal b. ☐ Dean

c. ☐ Vice Dean d. ☐ Administrator

e. ☐ Head of Department f. ☐ Others……

Section B: Teaching related decisions

Please read carefully and circle the appropriate number to register your response.

(A) As a member of academic staff can you rate your participation in the following statements in taking teaching related decisions ranging from (1 to 4), **as (1) means no participation and (4) always participation.**

(B) As a member of academic staff can you rate what you think your participation should be in the same decision-making areas ranging from (1 to 4), as (**1)** means **no participation and (4) means always participation**

Areas of Participation		Extent of Participation				
			No participation	Low participation	High participation	Always participate
			1	2	3	4
a	**Production of the general school timetable**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
b	**The module selection of the course of your expertise**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
c	**Producing synopsis for the modules you teach**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
d	**Identifying the objectives of the modules you teach**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
e	**Identifying the titles of the course material you teach**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
f	**Deciding on course references**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
g	**Choosing your teaching methods**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
h	**Course material evaluation for credit transfer for students from other universities**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
i	**Periodical changes in evaluation strategies**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
j	**Responsibility sharing among the members of faculty**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
k	**Evaluating teaching standards in the faculty**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4
l	**Assessing teaching load of each staff member**	A:is	1	2	3	4
		B:should be	1	2	3	4

Section C: Research Related Decisions

Please read carefully and encircle the appropriate number to register your response.

(A) As a member of academic staff can you rate your participation in the following statements in taking research related decisions ranging from (1 to 4), **as (1) means no participation and (4) always participation.**

(B) As a member of academic staff can you rate what you think your participation should be in the same decision-making areas ranging from (1 to 4), as (**1)** means **no participation and (4) means always participation.**

Areas of Participation		Extent of Participation				
			No participation 1	Low participation 2	High participation 3	Always participate 4
a	**Evaluation of progress of research projects in the department**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
b	**Periodically estimating the research projects budget of the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
c	**Granting applications from government and private firms for research projects**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
d	**External consultancy for research contracts**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
e	**Development of project proposals for private funding**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
f	**Feasibility studies for privately funded research projects**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4

Section D: Financial Decisions

Please read carefully and circle the appropriate number to register your response.

A) As a member of academic staff can you rate your participation in the following statements in taking financial decisions ranging from (1 to 4), **as (1) means no participation and (4) means always participation.**

B) As a member of academic staff can you rate what you think your participation should be in the same decision-making areas ranging from (1 to 4) , as (**1)** means **no participation and (4) means always participation**

Areas of participation		Extent of participation				
			No participation 1	low participation 2	High participation 3	Always participate 4
a	**Estimating the value of additional teaching hours as a component of the budget**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
b	**Estimating the cost of research scholarships**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
c	**Supplying furniture for the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
d	**Estimating the cost of equipment and tools required for the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
e	**Educational grants from international foundations for new courses**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
f	**The maintenance of faculty buildings and equipment**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
g	**Identifying the cost of the annual activities and social events held by the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
h	**Purchasing teaching materials, books and scientific periodicals**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
i	**Supplying stationary for the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
j	**Estimating the budget allocated to purchase equipment needed for your department**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4

Section E: Administrative Decisions

Please read carefully and circle the appropriate number to register your response.

A) As a member of academic staff can you rate your participation in the following statements in taking administrative decisions ranging from (1 to 4),**as (1) means no participation and (4) means always participation.**

B) As a member of academic staff can you rate what you think your participation should be in the same decision-making areas ranging from (1 to 4) , as (**1)** means **no participation and (4) means always participation**

Areas of participation		Extent of participation				
			No participation	low participation	High participation	Always participate
			1	2	3	4
a	**Designing general administration guide and instruction manual**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
b	**Drafting the annual report of the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
c	**The training programs and development of members of academic staff**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
d	**Admission procedures of academic staff**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
e	**Deciding on the number of students to be enrolled in the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
f	**Formulating regulatory laws for student discipline**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
g	**Administrative decisions related to academic problems of students**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
h	**Accommodation services of students**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
i	**Leisure excursions by the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
j	**The nomination of members of the teaching board for managerial positions**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
k	**The nomination of staff for managerial positions**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
l	**The appointment of staff in the faculty**	A:is B:should be	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4

Section F: Observations and Remarks of the Respondents

Please answer the following Questions 1-3:

1. What is your general opinion about the current role of participation of members of academic staff in decision-making processes in the Education faculty?

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2. What are your recommendations to make the above process more efficient?

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3. What do you think about the level of co-ordination between the administrative staff and the Education faculty?

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Section G: Omissions and Suggestions

1. Could you please identify any important decision-making aspects that have not been mentioned in the questionnaire? Please specify.

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Thank you very much for your effort in participating in this survey.

Omeir Alenezi

Appendix Two: Interviews schedule

Question One (Perception of Role in Decision Making)

Could you tell me about your role in the decision making process in the Faculty?

Probes:

- To what extent are you involved in the decision making related to teaching, research, financial and administration at your faculty?
- Why do you think your participation in decision making is important in these areas?
- What is your participation level?
- Do you think your input affects the process of decision making? How?
- To what extent do you feel that you are marginalized in decision making related to teaching, research, financial and administration?
- Why, could you give me some examples?
- How do you know that you are being marginalized?
- What can be done to improve decision making in the School?
- How can your participation and involvement in decision making be achieved?

Question Two: (Teaching Related)

- To what extent are you involved in the decision making related to teaching (i.e. designing modules)?
- If you please, I want you speak more about your participation in teaching related decisions such as designing modules.
- Is there any further participation in relevant decisions?
- In what ways do you participate in decisions related to teaching?
- To what extent do you think your participation affects the outcome of those decisions?
- Do you think your participation affects decisions related to teaching?

Question Three: (Research related)

As you know, universities nowadays are engaged in research projects and other areas in collaboration with other bodies and organisations (universities, charities, non-governmental organisations, etc.) I really wish to know what role you play in such areas, and who is the main decision maker?

- I would also like to ask you about your participation in decisions related to knowledge transfer and consultancy?

- In what ways do you participate in decisions related to research? (i.e. writing research proposals)

- To what extent do you think your participation affects the outcome of those decisions?

- Do you think your participation affects decisions related to research?

Question Four: (Financial related)

In relation to financial related decisions:

Would you welcome further participation in decisions related to finance?

- To what extent do you feel that you are being marginalized in relation to financial decisions?

- If you feel that, why do you think?

- Do you think your participation affects decision making process such as increasing research budgets, allocating funds for hiring researchers, extra paid/unpaid work, etc.?

Question Five: (Administrative related)

In relation to administrative related decisions:

Would you welcome further participation in decisions relating to finance?

- To what extent do you feel you are being marginalized in recruiting, appointing or negotiating staff whether academic or administrative decisions?

- If so, why do you think?

- To what extent do you think your views are ignored in the school?

- To what extent do you think your participation affects decision making processes, such as increasing research budgets, allocating funds for hiring researchers, extra paid/unpaid work, etc.?
- Have you participated in any training courses/programmes in the last five years?
- If yes, what types of courses?
- Have you been consulted in these programmes?

Question Six: (Views on Areas of Participation)

- Are there any particular areas you believe you should be more involved in with decision making?
- If so, could tell me about them?
- If not, why do you think you are less involved?

Question Seven: (Female Role in Decision Making)

I will move to another question which tackles the issue of academic women's participation in decision making?

Probe:

- What is the level of women's participation in decisions in the Faculty? If they do not participate, why is women's participation is low? If they do participate, why do you think women's voices should be heard in the meetings?
- In general, do you think males try to dominate the meetings? In what sense? Could you give some examples…
- Do you think females' views are being marginalized?
- How does marginalization usually happen?

Question Eight: (Organizational change)

- What change has taken place in the School of Education in the last five years (i.e. research, teaching methods, financial, etc.)
- What has been your role in this change?
- How this change has been performed?

- What is the impact of change on improving the performance of the School of Education in terms of research, increasing financial resources and administrative roles?
- What is your contribution in the change process?
- In your opinion, was there any resistance to change?

Question Nine: (Leadership)

This section is about leadership within the School of Education.

- Are you familiar with the goals and objectives of the School of Education?
- How important is your role in achieving the goals of the School of Education?
- How achievable are these goals?
- What is your opinion of the leadership styles of the Head of School and other directors in the School?
- What type of communication do you use with the Head of School? (i.e. face to face)

Thank you very much for your help in making the research success.