

Perceptions of Leadership: Heads of Department in Arabic Universities

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the
University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy

By

Jwharh Madgali

(May 2017)

DECLARATION

I, Jwharh Madgali, confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm this has been indicated in the thesis

Jwharh Madgali

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Undertaking this PhD has been a truly life-changing experience for me and it would not have been possible for me to achieve this without the support and guidance I have received from many people. But first and foremost, I praise almighty Allah, the Creator and the Guardian, for providing me with this opportunity and granting me the ability and help that I needed to be able to proceed successfully.

I am deeply indebted to my patient and enthusiastic supervisor, Professor. John Taylor, for the support, motivation and encouragement he has given me throughout. His critical comments and suggestions have helped not only to develop my thesis but to enlighten me in my way of thinking. I would also like to thank my new second supervisor Dr. Lisa Anderson, for her insights and suggestions. I really appreciate her willingness to meet and help me at this final stage.

I would like to thank my sponsor Saudi Government and the Ministry of Education (MOE) who gave me the opportunity to do this degree through the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP).

My sincere gratitude is reserved for all those participants who showed an interest in taking part, sharing their experiences and thoughts with me, and contributing generously to this research. I am also grateful for the great cooperation, warmth and welcome that they extended to me during my time in Qatar.

A special thanks to my family, father and mother, sisters and brothers; their prayer, understanding, support and encouragement for me are what have sustained me thus far. They have been by my side, living every single minute of it along with me, and without them, I would not have had the courage to embark on this journey. I would like to say a heartfelt thank you to my father for always believing in me and encouraging me to follow my dreams and my mother for her continuous kindness, sweet words and spiritual support and prayers. I would like to express my special appreciation and thanks also to my husband, for his support.

A special acknowledgement goes to my beloved kids Thamer, Ayad and Wesam who are the most essential source of my life's energy; my support and motivation. Their love has been unconditional all these years; they have given up many things for me to get my PhD; thank you my darling kids for being such good boys and making it possible for me to complete my thesis.

Last but not least, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my best true friends. A very special thank you for Symayah for supporting me spiritually throughout and for helping in whatever way she could during this challenging period. Special appreciation goes to Al-Bandary, for her support and care, and her invaluable advice and feedback

on my research. Her discussion and deep insights helped me at various stages of my research. I am extremely grateful to my best friend Mashael, who was always my spiritual support and there for me when I needed her the most, thank you for your kindness and understanding. I also remain indebted to these three lovely people for their understanding, patience and support during my difficult times. They gave me the incentive to strive towards my goal; they are my inspiration!

Finally, I would also like to take this opportunity to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to all those people, including special friends who have not been named and have directly or indirectly provided their assistance and support. Special mention and deep appreciation goes to the kind, wise friends who have helped and advised me in numerous ways throughout some of these most significant stages in my life.

ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions (HEIs) remain central to the intellectual, economic, cultural, technological and social life for the global community. These obligations create enormous pressure on institutions to position themselves at the leading edge of strategic change and innovation. Higher education everywhere faces massive changes, especially in the context of a competitive global economy. In this context, leadership has a significant impact on the performance and outcomes of all organizations, including HEIs. Consequently, exploring the kind of leadership behaviours and practice that are perceived as effective by peers, faculty, administrators and other stakeholders within HEIs has become increasingly important. Leadership in HE is critical at all levels, but Heads of Department (HoDs) are widely considered as key “building blocks” within university hierarchy.

Higher education is expanding rapidly across the Arabic world and effective leadership will be critical for the success of this expansion. However, most literature draws upon European and North American experience and there is little work on Arabic higher education and on leadership in particular. This study therefore focuses on leadership at the level of the HoD in HE in Qatar, one of the GCC countries that is currently facing considerable pressure to expand HE and ensure its quality in response to the region’s rapid social and economic change. Using a qualitative approach based on a single case study, 39 interviews were conducted with different university stakeholders to identify what were perceived to be necessary skills and competences for HoDs to lead in HE.

The study identifies a range of leadership characteristics, knowledge and behaviours that were viewed as essential for departmental leadership within HE. Significantly, the research has also demonstrated some differences of emphasis between leadership in higher education in an Arabic context compared with Western experience. The study further demonstrates those competences are influenced by contextual factors, such as societal and organizational culture, and the nature of the department and discipline, as well as specific characteristics of academic context. The study shows ways in which ideas of leadership at the level of the HoD in an Arabic university may differ from Western models discussed in much of the published literature.

Important issues were also identified in terms of experience of taking on the role, challenges and opportunities, selection and appointment, career development and training that have received little attention until now in the context of universities in the Gulf region.

The overall conclusion confirms the significant role of HoDs as leaders within the university. Recommendations are made regarding developments necessary to enhance leadership at the HoD level and for future research to understand the practice of leadership in the Arabic world. The thesis also provides important insights into the conduct of qualitative research in the Arabic context, and especially the role of the female researcher.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	3
ABSTRACT	5
TABLE OF CONTENTS	7
LIST OF FIGURES	10
LIST OF TABLES	10
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION	11
1.1. Introduction.....	11
1.2. Overview of Research Context	13
1.2.1. Qatar	13
1.3. Introduction to the Research Problem.....	15
1.4. Research Assumptions	18
1.5. Research Aim and Objectives	21
1.6. Research Design and Methodology	22
1.7. Expected Contributions.....	23
Chapter 2: BACKGROUND QATAR	25
2.1. Introduction.....	25
2.2. Country Overview.....	25
2.3. Economic Overview.....	27
2.4. Higher Education in Qatar	29
2.5. The Case of Qatar University (QU)	33
2.5.1. Background.....	33
2.5.2. Mission and Vision.....	34
2.5.3. Reforms	34
2.5.4. Challenges	36
2.6. Conclusion	39
Chapter 3: Literature review	40
3.1. Introduction.....	40
3.2. Defining Leadership.....	40
3.3. Defining Leadership in Higher Education	41
3.4. Leadership and Management	42
3.5. Leadership in Higher Education: Theories and Styles	45
3.5.1. Trait approach.....	45
3.5.2. Style Approach	47
3.5.3. Contingency Approach	49
3.5.4. Power and Influence Approach	53
3.5.5. Power Theories	55
3.5.6. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles.....	57
3.5.7. Leadership and Teams (Shared and Distributed Leadership)	60
3.5.8. Cross-Cultural Leadership and Diversity	62
3.5.9. Cultural and Symbolic Theories	63
3.6. Framing the study	65
Chapter 4: LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A FOCUS ON HEADS OF DEPARTMENT (HOD)	67
4.1. Introduction.....	67

4.2.	The Position of Head of Department	68
4.3.	Role and Responsibilities	69
4.4.	Challenges and Opportunities Facing HoDs	71
4.5.	Departmental Leadership	76
4.6.	Professional Development and Training Needs	83
4.7.	Conclusion	87
Chapter 5: LEADERSHIP IN ARABIAN GULF STATES CULTURE AND PRACTICE		88
5.1.	Introduction	88
5.2.	Culture and Leadership Practice	88
5.3.	Social Norms and Traditions and Leadership Practic	90
5.3.1.	Collectivist and Tribal Traditions	90
5.3.2.	Power Distance and Superiority	91
5.3.3.	Wasta	92
5.3.4.	Communication Style	93
5.4.	Leadership Style and Characteristics	94
5.4.1.	Desirable Leadership	96
5.5.	Conclusion	97
Chapter 6: RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY		98
6.1.	The Use of Qualitative Methods in Leadership Studies	98
6.2.	Research Philosophy	99
6.3.	Research Paradigm	100
6.4.	Research Methodology	103
6.4.1.	Case Study Approach	104
6.4.2.	QU As A Case	106
6.5.	Methods of Data Collection	107
6.5.1.	Qualitative Interviews	107
6.5.2.	Sampling	111
6.5.3.	Ethics	115
6.5.4.	Interview Process	117
6.6.	Data Analysis and Data Management	122
6.6.1.	Hand Coding Process	125
6.6.2.	Using NVivo Software	128
6.7.	Conclusion	132
Chapter 7: FINDINGS		133
7.1.	Introduction	133
7.2.	Experience and Practice	135
7.2.1.	Difficulties, Challenges and Consequences of the Role	135
7.2.2.	Areas of Satisfaction and Opportunities Within the Role	145
7.2.3.	Defining The Role and Experience	148
7.2.4.	Recruitment and Selection	151
7.3.	Essential Personal Characteristics, Skills, Knowledge and Qualities	159
7.3.1.	Personal Characteristics	159
7.3.2.	Skills	165
7.3.3.	Knowledge	173
7.3.4.	Leadership Qualities and Capabilities	182
7.4.	Heads of Department and Faculty Quality	195
7.5.	Training Needs and Future Development	208
7.5.1.	Availability, Continuity and Relevance	208
7.5.2.	Training needs	210
7.6.	Conclusion	214
Chapter 8: DISCUSSION		215
8.1.	Introduction	215

8.2.	Practice and Experience of being a Head of Department.....	216
8.2.1.	Role Challenges and Difficulties	216
8.2.2.	Enjoyable Aspects and Motivations	220
8.2.3.	Training and Future Professional Development	221
8.2.4.	Method of Appointment and Years of Service	222
8.3.	Essential/Effective Leadership.....	223
8.3.1.	Personal Characteristics.....	223
8.3.2.	Skills.....	227
8.3.3.	Knowledge.....	233
8.3.4.	Qualities.....	238
8.4.	Faculty Advocate	242
8.4.1.	Being a Considerate Professional	243
8.4.2.	Being Personally Considerate.....	252
8.5.	Leadership and Context; Does It Matter?	253
8.5.1.	The University as a Unique Context.....	254
8.5.2.	Departments and Disciplines	256
8.5.3.	Institutional Culture.....	258
8.5.4.	National and Regional Culture	261
Chapter 9:	REFLECTION ON FIELD WORK EXPERIENCE.....	266
9.1.	Introduction.....	266
9.2.	On Reflexivity.....	266
9.2.1.	The Impact of Gender and Power Relationships	267
9.2.2.	Interviewing Academics	273
9.2.3.	Positionality.....	274
9.2.4.	Age	277
9.3.	Culturally Specific Factors.....	277
9.3.1.	Interview Location.....	277
9.3.2.	Hospitality	279
9.3.3.	Assuring Confidentiality and Anonymity.....	281
9.3.4.	Socially Desirable Responses	282
9.4.	Conclusion	284
Chapter 10:	Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations.....	285
10.1.	Introduction.....	285
10.2.	Initial Research Settings.....	285
10.3.	Summary of Key Findings	286
10.3.1.	Experience on Taking on the Role of HoD.....	286
10.3.2.	Leadership Development.....	287
10.3.3.	Perceptions on Required Personal Characteristics, Skills, Knowledge and Qualities 288	
10.3.4.	Leadership and Context	289
10.4.	Contribution to Knowledge.....	291
10.4.1.	To the General Body of Literature.....	291
10.4.2.	Understanding Leadership in Context.	293
10.4.3.	Contribution to the Region	295
10.5.	Methodological Contribution	296
10.6.	Practical Implications.....	296
10.7.	Limitations	300
10.8.	Future Research and Recommendations	302
References	304
Appindex	324

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1: Population in Qatar by Gender</i>	26
<i>Figure 2: Different Nationalities Working in Qatar</i>	26
<i>Figure 3: Number of Public & Private University Students by Gender</i>	30
<i>Figure 4: Student Enrolment in Qatar, by Segment</i>	31
<i>Figure 5: Organizational Structure of Qatar University</i>	36
<i>Figure 6: Academic Staff Working in QU.....</i>	37
<i>Figure 7: Administrative Staff Working in QU.....</i>	38
<i>Figure 8: Academic Staff Average Years of Service – by Nationality</i>	38
<i>Figure 9: Administrative Staff Average Years of Service – by Nationality</i>	39
<i>Figure 10: Interview Scripts in NVivo10.....</i>	131
<i>Figure 11: Codes in NVivo10</i>	131
<i>Figure 12: Codes and Categories.....</i>	132
<i>Figure 13: Experience on Taking on the Role of HoD.....</i>	286
<i>Figure 14 Leadership Development.....</i>	287
<i>Figure 15: Perceptions on the Required Competences of HoD Leadership</i>	288
<i>Figure 16: Factors Found to Influence Leadership Practice & Requirements</i>	289

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 1: Issues before QU Reform</i>	34
<i>Table 2: Sources of Power</i>	54
<i>Table 3: Roles of HoDs</i>	70
<i>Table 4: Why Faculty Became Department Chairs Reason for Serving</i>	74
<i>Table 5: Efective Leadership Behaviours</i>	77
<i>Table 6: Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions & Cultural characteristic of GCC societies</i>	89
<i>Table 7: Arab Gulf Leaders and Managers Characteristics</i>	94
<i>Table 8: Models of Leadership in Arab Culture</i>	94
<i>Table 9: Guidelines for Reasonably Informed Consent.....</i>	117
<i>Table 10: Initial Individual Coding Schemes.....</i>	123
<i>Table 11: Coding Steps</i>	124
<i>Table 12: Hand Coding 1</i>	125
<i>Table 13: Hand Coding 2</i>	126
<i>Table 14: Hand Coding 3.....</i>	127
<i>Table 15 Participants Information</i>	133

Word count (exclusive acknowledgement and bibliography): 99, 805

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Higher education (HE) is crucial to a country's success in every field of individual and national endeavour. The future development of a nation is determined by the capability of its education system to provide people with essential forms of knowledge, to incorporate them effectively into the labour force and to contribute to the economy (Taylor and Machado-Taylor, 2010). Universities have played, and will continue to play, a crucial role in the development of their countries, especially in the developing world (Altbach and Salmi, 2011). Several years ago, most developing countries, and especially countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) including Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates, came to discover a good education system as a basis for economic progress and sustained growth within the global economy. With increasing financial resources and growing realization of the importance of economic diversification, especially the significance of establishing a knowledge-based economy, characterised by innovation, entrepreneurship, research and development, product design and software, the role of higher education has become increasingly important (Alpen Capital, 2016). For universities to play their full role in promoting development, however, they need good leadership (Altbach and Salmi, 2011).

Leadership has a significant impact on the performance and outcomes of all organizations, including higher education institutions (HEIs). While many factors lead to the success of an organization, the major feature that distinguishes a successful organization from one that is unsuccessful is the presence of effective leadership. According to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1982), effective and dynamic leadership is a quality that every organization searches for, but the specific combination of attributes that enables a person to become a successful leader is difficult to delineate. In the context of HE, whether leading an institution, college or research centre or running a department, leadership is a key component of the success of the institution.

Previous research shows that leadership is a critical factor in satisfying and improving the performance and quality of higher education institutions and plays a critical role in

shaping activities such as administration, teaching, learning and research (Middlehurst, 1993; Bryman, 2007a; Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2009; Altbach and Salmi, 2011; Dopson *et al.*, 2016). Altbach and Salmi (2011, p. 1) state that “universities everywhere require leadership and expertise capable of participating in an increasingly complex and globalized world”. However, they also explain that “most university leaders arrive in their executive positions as a result of their academic achievements”; thus, most leaders leading within universities will face challenges because they are generally unprepared for leadership and management positions (Altbach and Salmi, 2011, p. 12). Therefore, one way to respond to the challenges facing higher education is to develop cadres of academic leaders who will be able to change and transform organizations.

There are different administrative academic positions within HEIs /universities that can serve and positively influence outcomes within the academic branch of the institution, including the President/Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, Dean and Head of Department (HoD)/department chair). Yet only one, the HoD, can have a direct impact on different activities and has personal accountability for student and faculty achievement (Jones, 2011). The academic department represents the unit within the university where the majority of day-to-day activities take place, and where issues facing faculty and students, research and services must be handled (Hecht *et al.*, 1999; Gmelch and Buller, 2016).

The position of the Head of Department is continually described as one of the most important positions within the university (Middlehurst, 1993; Hecht, 2004; Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt, 2005; Bryman, 2007a; Gmelch and Buller, 2015, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). Heads of Department (HoD) play a critical role and uniquely influence both the daily and long -term operations within the university (Aziz *et al.*, 2005; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011). 80% of the administrative decisions are made by department chairs (Carroll and Wolverton, 2004). Patton (1961, p. 459) noted that “no one plays a larger part in determining the character of higher education than the department chair”. This remains as true today as it was over fifty years ago. Gmelch and Miskin (1993) described this position as one of the most important positions within higher education and critical to the success and effectiveness of institutions, faculty, students and the wider community as it is the central decision maker and leader. It has a significant

impact on the working environment for faculty members within the department (Lumpkin, 2004). The position of HoDs within the actual and perceived power structures of the organisation is pivotal in creating and enacting the vision of higher education institutions.

This study is concerned with effective leadership for HE in the context of the Arab Gulf, with a focus on the state of Qatar. Thus, the main aim of this first chapter is to give a brief overview of the country and context where the research is set, followed by an introduction to the research problem and the rationale for conducting the study, a statement of its aim and objectives, and an account of the scope of the study. The chapter concludes by outlining the structure of the thesis.

1.2. Overview of Research Context

In this section a brief overview will be given of the country where the research is set; a comprehensive overview of higher education in Qatar will be provided in the next chapter.

1.2.1. Qatar

The State of Qatar is a peninsula located on the western coast of the Arabian Gulf. The history of Qatar dates back to the 6th millennium; Qatar gained its independence from the British in 1971 (Rahman, 2005). The state was transformed between the mid-1960s and the mid-1980s from a poor British protectorate noted mainly for pearling into an independent state with modern infrastructure, services, and industries. The small population of native Qataris represents about 12% of Qatar's total population, around 280,000 out of a population of about 2.3 million (BTI, 2016). Arabic is the official language of the country, but English is also widely used; Islam is the official religion, and the Islamic Law (Sharia) is a major source of legislation in the country.

Economically, Qatar is the world's largest exporter of liquefied natural gas (LNG) and possesses the third largest reserves of natural gas, the backbone of its economy. This has led Qatar to become the richest country in the world with the highest GDP per capita. Qatar's economy is also becoming more and more integrated into the global economic system (MDPS, 2016). However, the Government is aware that the current

rentier state economy will not last forever. Thus, reforms are underway to drive the market into a more mature stage. According to Minister of Finance Al-Emadi, Qatar has increased budget allocation for health, education and infrastructure sectors which will make up 44 % of the total expenditure in the 2017 budget, with 10.4% of the total budget has been allocated for education sector (MOF, 2016). It is the declared goal of the country's long-term Qatar National Vision (QNV) 2030 strategy to expand the country's knowledge-based economy (BTI, 2016, p. 3).

Qatar aims to be a leader in higher education and scientific research, both regionally and internationally, and continually raises its investment in the sector to transform the resource-rich nation into a knowledge-based one. The current Government has sought international assistance to formulate educational reform policies and to set up new academic institutions and research centres (BTI, 2016, p. 3).

Until 2001, Qatar University (QU) was the only institution of higher education in Qatar. QU is the country's national public university, established in 1973 as the country's first College of Education before reforms in 2003 turned Qatar University into a model national university (Moini *et al.*, 2009). However, over the past decade Qatar has invested heavily in improving HE and, currently, Qatar is home to more than 13 universities, both local and foreign run. For example, Qatar has set up a number of agreements with some of the best educational institutions from around the world (US, UK and France) to establish their campuses in Qatar and offer the same quality of education and facilities that their home campuses provide. Both private and public universities are managed by a Government board through the Supreme Education Council (SEC) Ministry of Education and Higher Education Qatar (MEHEQ, 2016).

According to Ministry of Education and Higher Education of Qatar (2017), the State of Qatar pays close attention, and gives careful consideration, to higher education in order to keep pace with economic and social advancement. This concern has been reflected in the expansion of higher education institutions, increased rates of student admissions, an improved learning environment, enhanced academic achievement, large financial budgets, and idealistic plans to provide the best educational options for university students. However, according to the Qatar country report by Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index (BTI), investments in higher education have been considerable, but HE still falls short of its goals (BTI, 2016).

Higher education, for its part, is faced with the challenge of preparing itself to fulfil its mission adequately in a world of transformation and to meet the needs and requirements of twenty-first century society, which will be a society of knowledge, information and education. Therefore, competing at the international level in the knowledge-based economy and helping to diversify the economy in the future are, taken together, considered as a comprehensive goal for higher education institutions in Qatar. To this end, it is important to develop a strong body of academic leaders with the necessary skills and competences to contribute to the needs of improving HEIs in the country.

1.3. Introduction to the Research Problem

Today, the GCC, including Qatar, faces challenges created by its operating environment, fast growth in all industries and sectors, and the influence of social and institutional culture. Therefore, the risk of not having the appropriate organizational capability, including leadership, is high. Precise requirements of leadership vary from one organization to another depending on institutional structure and culture, the sector within which they operate, and even mission and goals, and what leadership approach is deemed to be effective is context bound (Middlehurst, 1993; Hofstede, 2001; Knight and Trowler, 2001; Bryman and Lilley, 2009). While there is no doubt that scholars have made a great contribution to the research on leadership over many years, leadership is still of key importance for further study. Various theories have been developed to understand the leadership phenomenon and its practical implications. However, researchers stress the importance of the context where leadership operates. Therefore, it is important when conducting a study in the field of leadership to bear in mind differences in the type, culture and size of the institutions under review (Bryman, Stephens and Campo, 1996; Parry and Bryman, 2013). This research focuses on examining departmental leadership in the context of Arabian Gulf HEIs, with a particular focus on a public university in Qatar.

Given the critical role that a department chair plays within the university system, it has been suggested to be the most critical position within the university hierarchy, but also the most neglected (Buller, 2013). Thus, it is important to explore leadership practice at this level. A number of writers argue that it is not only leadership from the top that

is required in a successful institution, but also leadership throughout the institution (Rowley, 1997; Middlehurst, 2012). Marshall (2007, p. 1) claims that “leadership ‘at all levels’ is seen as a more appropriate means of bringing about and sustaining transformational and lasting change”. Rowley (1997, p. 78) also argues that leadership

is important in managers at all levels in higher education and should not be viewed as the sole preserve of the senior manager... the future of academic institutions depends on the development of effective leadership skills at all levels in the organization.

However, there is a lack of research and empirical studies to understand leadership and its role, effectiveness and development in the context of higher education (Middlehurst, 1993; Dopson *et al.*, 2016). Most research into leadership within higher education has focused on the holders of the top and senior academic roles such as Vice Chancellors, Pro-Vice-Chancellors and Deans (Middlehurst, 2004; Drew, 2006; Spendlove, 2007; Breakwell and Tytherleigh, 2008; Scott, Coates and Anderson, 2008); as a result, “there is insufficient understanding of how leadership is perceived among people at earlier stages in their careers and how experiences and perceptions change over time” (Bolden *et al.*, 2009, p. 295).

Nevertheless, these studies have outlined several concerns about leadership within higher education that are worthy of further investigation. These concerns include the higher education context and how that might influence leadership style or behaviors, a new emphasis on leadership at the middle-level/HoD, and how power and politics might affect the perception of leadership (Bolden *et al.*, 2009). In their work for the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education (LFHE), Bolden *et al.* (2009, p. 295) state that “...there is still much to be done. In particular, we need to take a more holistic view of leadership in HE that recognizes the contextual and systemic nature of effective leadership practice”. Gomes and Knowles (1999) write that

although academic departments have been appointing heads for decades, little research exists concerning exactly how those leaders contribute to departmental culture, collaborative atmosphere, and departmental performance (cited in Bryman and Lilley, 2009, p. 333).

A recent systematic research review published by the LFHE confirms the dearth of research in the context of higher education. Dopson and her colleagues conducted a

systematic review to provide new insights on what is known about leadership research in higher education. The authors concluded that:

leadership development and its effectiveness has not been explored in depth empirically, especially across university settings ... the higher education sector is a “knowledge industry” but has a relatively poor record of investing in studying its own effectiveness (Dopson *et al.*, 2016, p. 7).

In higher education, as in any organization, leadership is required, and leaders must possess particular skills, knowledge, and behaviours that are essential to performing specific roles or tasks. Gmelch and Buller (2015) argue that, in order for chairs to function effectively, certain aspects of leadership, and particular skills and competencies, are necessary. Thus, obtaining such skills will result in helping HoDs to achieve the organization’s mission and vision and to accomplish their tasks more effectively. However, Tourish (2012) claims that “every HEI has its own unique characteristics and leadership requirements”. Thus, the leadership behaviours and characteristics that might work in a particular academic institution may not be applicable in another (Middlehurst, 1993). Thus, it is important to identify the core and necessary leadership skills and competencies to be a successful HoD, bearing in mind also the differences in type, culture and size of institution (Parry and Bryman, 2013). However, there is still little research on what leadership skills and characteristics are needed for a HoD to perform their role effectively (Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Jones, 2011).

Above all, there is a lack of theoretical and empirical research to address leadership in the context of the Arabian Gulf. Scholars have paid little attention to the study of leadership in higher education in the context of the Arabian Gulf culture, which is viewed as hierarchal, emphasising centralized tight control, with a focus on rules, regulations and precedents (Al-Nuaimi, 2013; Alshehhi, 2014; Aseri, 2015). There are several studies of organizational behaviour and management practice in the Arab world and of the Western leadership and management approaches that have been adopted in this context. However, there is a marked absence of empirical data and few indications of predictive direction in managerial or leadership styles. Smith, Achoui and Harb (2007, p. 278) write that:

The existing literature thus provides only a partial view of management and leadership from within the Arab region. We currently lack systematic descriptions of the behaviour of Arab leaders.

1.4. Research Assumptions

This research project focuses on leadership as a critical and significant factor in today's organizational success and societal development. Leadership is the backbone of any organisation, and it has been considered fundamental not only at an organisational level, but also at economic, political, and social levels. Research on leadership is becoming extremely important not only in the business sector, but also in the context of an academic organization, due to the rapid expansion of education and higher education in the Arab Gulf States. The growing demands and pressures in assuring the quality of such enormous expansion in the HE sector require successful and effective leadership to drive the success of the organization and face global challenges.

However, in order to examine the relevance of leadership constructs within the HE environment, it is necessary to contextualise and understand the setting in which leadership occurs. Much has been written on the factors that impact upon the leadership process and the way that people perceive the effectiveness of leadership. These factors include the leadership function; situation, national and institutional culture; and the leaders' and followers' traits, values, behaviours, competencies and style. Leadership has been examined in different contexts and among different cultures, and researchers have concluded that leadership is a contextual phenomenon.

Variations among contextual factors, such as the institutional culture of higher education (Rhoads and Tierney, 1992; Knight and Trowler, 2001), have been found to be critical to determine what approaches and style are best practiced in a specific context. Within higher education, McNay (1995) identified four dominant culture types of university organizational culture: Enterprise, Corporate, Collegiate, and Bureaucratic. An organization's culture is reflected in what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in doing it. It concerns decisions, actions, and communication both on an instrumental and a symbolic level (Tierney, 1988, p. 3). For example, a Collegiate culture is characterised by loose policy and loose operational control, decentralization, and a focus on individual freedom, whereas a Bureaucratic culture emphasises loose

policy and tight operational control, with a focus on rules, regulations, and precedents (McNay, 1995). The differences in organizational culture have a direct influence on leadership and management practice (Knight and Trowler, 2001).

In developing countries, for example, politics have some degree of influence in public universities. However, the nature of political interference also depends on different factors such as the type of government, governance structure of the institution and the way leaders are appointed. In some universities, for example, the Government sets out the research areas to be pursued for each institution; in others, university presidents are appointed by the Government and will be subject to political directives. In such circumstances, there will be less room for autonomy or resistance to political interference (Altbach, 2011). Thus, in such situations, leaders are expected to reflect political imperatives in their leadership style and activities.

What is also interesting and important is that academic disciplines might affect leadership behaviours, not only the organizational setting. Becher (1981) focused, for example, exclusively on disciplinary cultures. He argued that 'disciplines are also cultural phenomena: they are embodied in collections of like-minded people, each with their own codes of conduct, sets of values, and distinctive intellectual tasks' (Becher, 1981, p. 109). He suggested that the discipline is the major shaping force of specific attitudes, values and behaviours of academics; thus, discipline could also impact on leadership requirements (Becher and Trowler, 2001; Del Favero, 2006; Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2008).

Literature also suggests that leadership behaviour is culture and context determined (Adler, 1991; Adler and Gundersen, 2007). Kezar *et al* (2006, p. 12) suggested that 'not only organizational context affects perceptions but also the societal influences and previous experiences of individuals'. Individual values and beliefs about religion or politics, or even attitudes toward family and leisure, are not left at home, but these orientations are brought to an institution by each member. Cultural values, norms, assumptions, and beliefs, as well as their roles and functions, play a significant role in defining leadership. Hofstede (2001), for example, argued that values are specific to national cultures and are never universal. Values represent what is desirable and, generally, there is a preference for one state of behaviour over others.

Moreover, these differences in national cultures are reflected in how organisations are structured and managed (Chen, 2004). Evans, Hau and Sculli (1989) argued that leadership style is a function of the level of industrialisation, but cultural characteristics play a significant role in tempering its effects (Adler 2002; Randeree and Chaudhry 2012). Adler (1991) argued that national boundaries create considerable differences in leadership style. Similarly, Robbins and Judge (1993) suggested that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership. The combination of all these values and beliefs forms the basis for acceptable behaviour at a specific institution (Rhoads and Tierney, 1992, p. 15).

It is sometimes argued that the context of higher education differs from other organizational setting in other sectors. A variety of theories and models have been well established in the field of leadership studies, providing different insights into leadership behaviours and attributes that contribute to organizational success. However, different theoretical perspectives offer conflicting views and are not always applicable to a particular context. For example, it has been acknowledged that HEIs are complex organizations and unique in themselves, and present particular characteristics related, for example, to decision making processes, professionalism, multiple and ambiguous goals, and the nature of leadership and client service, which may require different styles of leadership and management (Bolden, Petrov and Gosling, 2008a). Bryman, (2007, p. 17) wrote that “when ‘subordinates’ have a professional orientation and a need for independence - both of which are arguably characteristics of academic staff - the impact of leader behaviour will be neutralized”. It has been further claimed that leading in an academic institution differs from leading in other contexts; what works in one context may not necessarily work in another. It is also clear that the skills and styles of leadership that work in a particular academic institution may not be applicable in another (Middlehurst, 2012) and, similarly, may be viewed simultaneously as both effective and ineffective in the same context (Lumby, 2012).

1.5. Research Aim and Objectives

This absence of research into leadership is especially apparent in the field of higher education. Seeking to make an in-depth investigation, the present study has therefore been made into the departmental perspective. As suggested earlier, leading in an academic institution differs from leadership in other contexts; it is also clear that what skills might work in a particular academic institution may not be applicable in another (Middlehurst, 1993). Therefore, it is important to identify the core and necessary leadership skills and competencies to be a successful HoD, bearing in mind also the differences in type, culture and size of institution (Bryman, 2004).

This research seeks to explore departmental leadership in public higher education in the Arabian Gulf States from the perceptions of various university groups, reflecting disciplinary roots and seniority. In particular, it aims to identify a range of skills, characteristics, behaviours and knowledge and practice that are needed for departmental leaders to undertake their jobs effectively within Gulf State universities, and, thereby, to highlight likely challenges and opportunities for future development. The researcher also believes that this study will help to throw some light on the way that leadership is perceived in the selected context in which formal policies and leadership development are to be promoted.

The study aims to explore the following question:

How is leadership in the academic department viewed by different university stakeholders in the Arabian Gulf States?

To achieve this aim, and considering different contextual factors for this study, there are three main domains used in order to explore departmental leadership in the Arabic context:

- Essential/effective leadership: to explore what are the essential characteristics, competencies, knowledge and skills that are required by departmental leaders to lead effectively within the university.

- The challenge of context: to investigate factors that might impact on individual perceptions of leadership, such as regional culture, academic disciplines, seniority level and social and institutional context; and how these factors affect the practice of leadership.
- Departmental leadership profiling: to explore heads of department as academic professionals looking at the selection criteria, training needs and the main challenges and opportunities that impact on their performance.

1.6. Research Design and Methodology

Given those three main areas of investigation, the researcher was encouraged to investigate different groups with different seniority levels and academic backgrounds from a single detailed case study of a public university in the Arabian Gulf region. This study explores the perceptions of stakeholders using a qualitative approach based on semi-structured interviews. A purposive sample of 39 participants was selected to represent three main groups, by disciplinary background and by seniority. The interviewees represented three main groups:

- Leadership at the senior level; the President, three Vice-Presidents and five Deans from five colleges (Engineering, Arts and Sciences, Education, Law, and Business and Economics (9).
- Leadership in the middle-level, the Heads of Department, two from each college (10).
- Faculty members, two from each department (20).

It was believed that interviewing different stakeholders, reflecting disciplinary roots, seniority and background, would provide valuable insights, revealing their own perspectives and experiences about leading academic departments and exploring the leadership skills and competencies to be effective in their roles. It was also believed that their insights could help to construct a better understanding of leadership in the context of higher education in the Arabian Gulf.

The researcher employed a qualitative methodology based on semi-structured interviews to clarify specific areas of investigation taking into consideration the

operational characteristics and location of the selected university. Kvale (1996, p. 105) sees interviews to be:

Suited for studying people's understanding of the meaning in their lived world, describing their experiences and self-understanding, and clarifying and elaborating their own perspectives on their lived world.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher has also chosen to employ an interpretive qualitative approach to explore and investigate departmental leadership from the point of view of university stakeholders in the GCC. This research adopts an interpretive paradigm using a constructivist epistemology (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011) to gain an understanding of how individuals view and interpret their experience of the HoD as a leader in the university. For this study, it was assumed that perceptions depend largely on certain factors, such as experiences, practices, social and cultural context, for understanding leadership phenomena in the context of higher education in the GCC.

1.7. Expected Contributions

Studies on leadership in higher education have received more attention from scholars in recent years. However, this study addresses two gaps in the literature on leadership in higher education. First, the research looks at leadership in higher education in the Arabian Gulf region. Whilst it is accepted that leadership is context- and culture-sensitive, in practice most literature draws upon European and North American experience and there is little work on higher education in the Arabic world. Secondly, the research is centred upon leadership at departmental level; most existing work relates to leadership at the level of the President or Vice-Chancellor. What kinds of leadership, leadership characteristics, knowledge and behaviours are the most effective for departmental leadership within universities in the Gulf region, and how, if at all, do these differ from those experienced in Western universities? These questions lie at the heart of this thesis. The importance of the work is underlined by the very rapid expansion in higher education in the region, with increasing numbers of universities and students. Successful delivery of this expansion will depend critically on developing good leaders.

This study contributes to two main areas:

- To the knowledge and understanding of leadership in higher education; the research will add to the literature on leadership in higher education and, in particular, to studies of leadership at the level of the academic department.
- To the knowledge and understanding of higher education in the Gulf region; the research will make a general contribution to regional studies of the Arab world and, in particular, the Gulf countries.

The conclusions from this study may serve as a foundation for a new awareness of the importance of leadership, for good practice in staff recruitment and training, and for policy formation in GCC higher education, especially for the case study university.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND QATAR

2.1. Introduction

This chapter offers a brief introduction to Qatar, where the case study used in this research is located. Aspects of the history and economy, and the HE sector will be considered, representing an essential part of the context within which the university and its leaders operate.

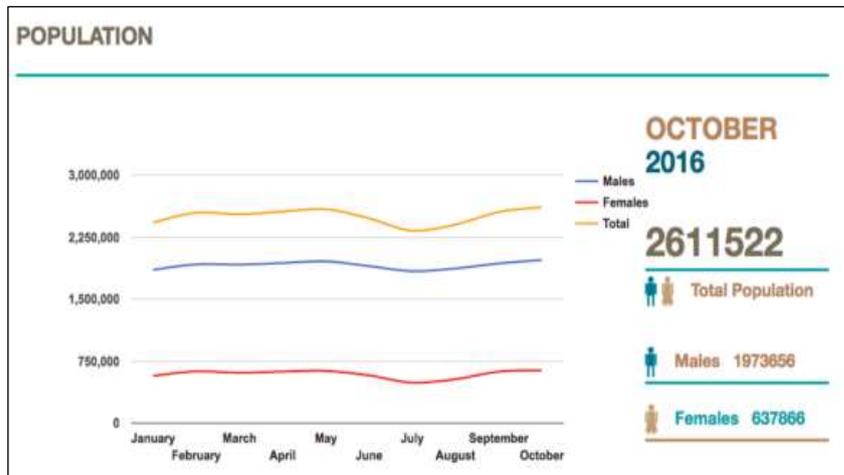
2.2. Country Overview

The State of Qatar is a peninsula located on the western coast of the Arabian Gulf. The country borders Saudi Arabia to the south, with the rest of its land bordering the Arabian Gulf; the capital city of Qatar is Doha (OBG, 2016). Arabic is the official language of the country, but English is also widely used. Islam is the official religion, Islamic Law (Sharia) the main source of legislation in the country.

The history of Qatar dates back to the 6th millennium. Qatar gained its independence from the British in 1971 and is a monarchy, governed by the Al Thani family since the mid 19th century (Blanchard, 2014, p. 3). Sheikh Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani, is the current emir. As an absolute monarchy with all power vested in the emir, Sheikh Hamad has the power to create and reject any legislative changes and is widely credited with overhauling the state to create the economic and political powerhouse that Qatar is today (OBG, 2016).

According to the 2016 census, the total population of the country in October 2016 was 2.6 million; nearly 2 million are male and over 600,000 female (Figure 1). Native Qatari's account for approximately 12% of the population (around 280,000); the remainder comprising foreign residents and temporary labourers (MDPS, 2016). Approximately 40% of the population are Arab. Most of the population of Qatar are of working age; almost 70% of the total population are between 30 and 39 years of age (Kapiszewski, 2006), the average age of the total population is 32.6 years (Koch and Stenberg, 2010, p. 16).

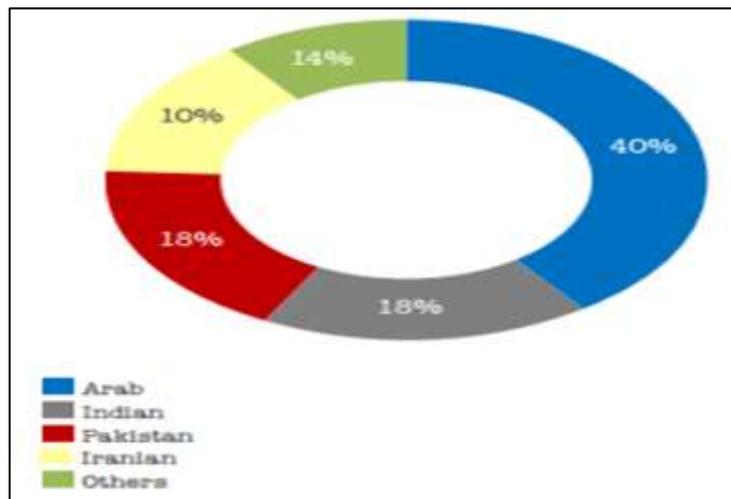
Figure 1: Population in Qatar by Gender



Source: (MDPS, 2016)

Due to the small local population, Qatar imports the majority of its workforce. The immigrant population makes up approximately 76% of the total population and 94% of the total labour force in Qatar (Najat *et al.*, 2016, p. 6). Among non-Qataris, there is a substantial population of non-GCC Arab expatriates (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Different Nationalities Working in Qatar



Source: (Babar *et al.*, 2015)

The Ministry of Development, Planning and Statistics (MDPS, 2015, p. 2) has identified a lack of home grown skilled and competent candidate employees in Qatar which has hindered the growth of employment and the labour market. The MDPS has emphasised that more must be done to balance nationalities across jobs and weed out

redundant positions; in the coming years, the focus will be on *Qatarization*¹ increasing the number of nationals and controlling recruitment of “expat” workers (MDPS, 2015).

Arabic is the official language of Qatar although English is widely spoken. Given the sizeable non-Arabic speaking population, it is often used as the *de facto* language for everyday communication. Other languages are also well represented in non-Arab communities living in Qatar.

In February 2016, the Council of Ministers passed a draft law to protect Arabic in Qatar. It states that all ministries, official public institutions and public educational institutions will be required to use Arabic for all instructions, documents, contracts, transactions, correspondence and advertisements. The aim of this law is to protect cultural identity and ensure that younger generations of Qataris can speak Modern Standard Arabic. The rapid globalisation of Qatar has resulted in a high percentage of young people who can no longer speak Arabic, or choose not to (OBG, 2016).

2.3. Economic Overview

Historically, the population of Qatar was dependent on cattle breeding and pearl fishing. Oil exports began in 1949, a turning point for the country, followed by rapid developments in infrastructure and public services (Metz, 1993).

Economically, Qatar is now the world’s largest exporter of liquefied natural gas (LNG), possessing the third largest reserve of natural gas, the backbone of its economy. While gas and oil exports account for the majority of GDP, other non-hydrocarbons sectors have expanded rapidly in recent years.

In 2015, real GDP expanded by 3.7%, but the recent fall in oil prices led nominal GDP to decline for the first time since 2009 by 20.6%. It was reported by the MDPS that, despite lower oil prices, real economic growth in 2016 was expected to rise to 3.9%, buttressed by the continued vigour of the non-hydrocarbon sector and the boost to upstream hydrocarbon production from the Barzan gas project (MDPS, 2016, p. 11).

¹ Qatarization “is the identification and development of quality, competent Qatari males and females to assume permanent positions in our industry. Our objective is Quality Qatarization” (http://www.qatarization.com.qa/Qatarization/Qatarization.nsf/en_Index?ReadForm)

According to the Qatar Economic Outlook 2016-2018, in 2017 and 2018, hydrocarbon production will again plateau, but solid expansion in non-hydrocarbon activities will sustain overall economic momentum. Services will be the largest contributor to growth, followed by construction. As attention turns towards completing current projects rather than starting new ones, and as population growth eases, growth in the non-hydrocarbon sector is expected to moderate (MDPS, 2016, p. 11).

Qatar's economy is becoming more integrated within the global economic system. The government is seeking to diversify this economy and be less dependent on an expatriate workforce by directing more public and private investments into non-energy sectors. Qatar aims to move towards a knowledge-based economy, enriching its level of human capital and improving competitiveness. It will be necessary to cultivate excellence in HE to improve and sustain innovation and entrepreneurship, research and development, product design and software development. This, in turn, implies that people use their education and skills appropriately. As a key source of sustained growth in a global economy (BTI, 2016), strong leaders are required to manage this push.

Human development is one of the four pillars of the country's economic blueprint as set out in the Qatar National Vision 2030 (QNV 2030). Along with fostering economic, and social and environmental development, working to sustain a prosperous society remains one of the state's major goals. Before becoming emir, Sheikh Hamad led the Supreme Oversight Committee responsible for implementing QNV 2030. In its National Development Strategy (NDS) 22.011-16, the committee highlighted the importance of education in driving the state's push toward a knowledge-based economy (OBG, 2016).

Higher education plays a key role in preparing students to participate in the building of a knowledge economy. The core mission of higher education in Qatar is to optimize talents and capabilities, develop knowledge and skills that are compatible with labour market needs and support the aspirations of society (Qatar Supreme Education Council, 2011, p. 20). Fulfilling this vision will depend on the ability of those who are to drive this transition, including HEI leaders.

Expenditure on education and healthcare is high and continues to increase. This investment is intended to improve the educational opportunities available to its citizens in order to prepare the next generation of Qataris to assume leadership roles in the country's economic, political and military institutions (Blanchard, 2014, p. 3).

As education and training sector strategy for 2011–2016 was formulated in 2010. The strategy extended the Education for a New Era reforms and included initiatives in the core areas of education and training, including cross-cutting education and training, general education (K-12), higher education, technical education and vocational training and scientific research (GSDP, 2012, p. 33). Al-Thani states “no progress can be accomplished without advanced high quality educational and training service” (Qatar Supreme Education Council, 2011, p. 3), which, in turn, cannot be achieved without strong leaders.

According to the Qatar Country Report (BTI) Qatar, with its strong public sector base and ambitions for economic growth and diversification, is well positioned to move towards a knowledge economy. However, it will require additional policies and programmes to achieve this as new industries will need to be developed as the education and skill levels of young Qataris increase.

2.4. Higher Education in Qatar

Higher education in Qatar dates back to 1973 when the first National College of Education was opened (QU, 2016) following a decree by the Emir. Reflecting the developmental needs of the country, the College was expanded and other colleges opened eventually forming Qatar University. Up to 2001, Qatar University was the only institution of higher education in Qatar (Ibnouf, Dou and Knight, 2014, p. 43), but following heavy investment to improve the educational opportunities available to its citizens in recent years, Qatar is now home to more than 13 universities.

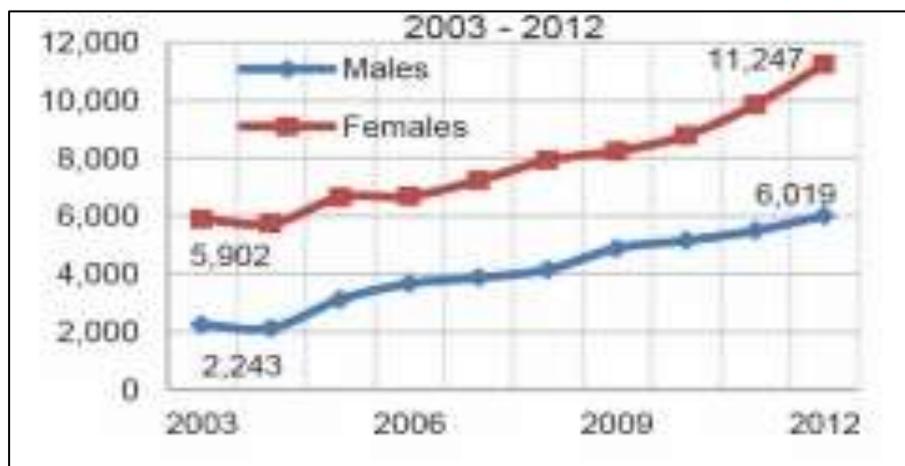
As a private, non-profit organisation founded in 1995, the work of the Qatar Foundation (QF) encompasses education, research and community development. Through a visionary and forward-looking initiative in 2002, Shaikha Mozah Bint Nasser Al Missned (one of Shaikh Hamad's wives) helped launch Qatar's Education City under the umbrella of the Qatar Foundation, a state-of-the-art, international

campus in Doha. Initially occupied by the Virginia Commonwealth University in Qatar, by 2011 it had expanded to include nine, government-assisted branch campuses of globally recognised universities, offering bachelors and master’s degrees in various fields of specialization (GSDP, 2012). Education City houses nine universities in all: one Qatari (Hamad bin Khalifa University) and eight foreign institutions namely six American universities (Georgetown University School of Foreign Service, Northwestern University, Weill Cornell Medical College, Virginia Commonwealth University, Carnegie Mellon University and Texas A&M University), one British (UCL Qatar) and one French (HEC Paris)(OBG, 2016).

Education City and its university programs sit at the top of a diverse Qatari public and private education system, which serves both Qatari citizens, resident expatriates and visiting students from around the world. Education City universities currently account for almost 10% of all Qatari tertiary enrolments. Qatari citizens receive financial support for tuition in primary, secondary and university education provided by the government or a corporate sponsor (OBG, 2016). The government also offers significant financial support to many other institutions to facilitate their operations (Blanchard, 2014, p. 10).

The student population has increased over the years and is expected to rise further; the number of students enrolled in universities (HE) is expected to increase by 3.6% by 2020; the number of students in the region is expected to be more than 26,000 (Alpen Capital, 2016).The number of students enrolled in various universities over years is shown below:

Figure 3: Number of Public & Private University Students by Gender

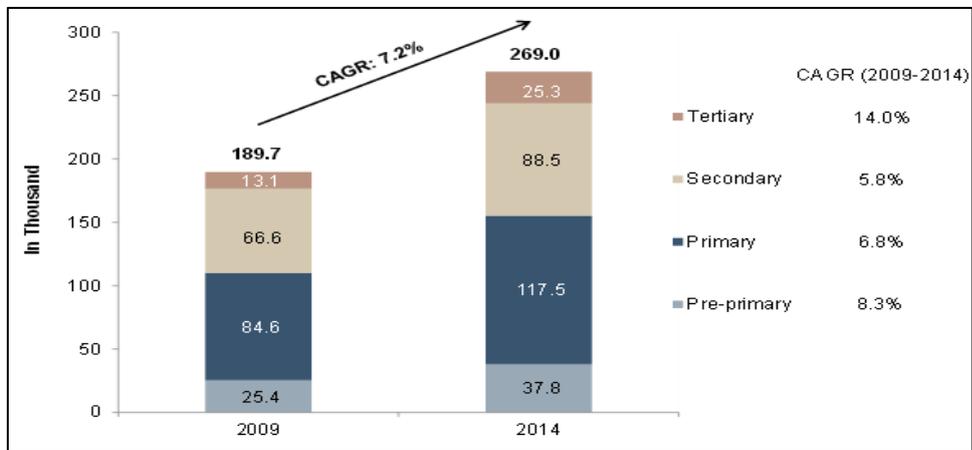


Source: Alpen Capital (2016)

The figure above shows that the student population in Qatar increased from approximately 8,000 to 17,000 in just a decade.

Female students are also reported to comprise more than 60% of the total student population. Interestingly, more female students go onto HE while some of their male counterparts enter the labour force soon after high school (Walker, 2014). Another report shows that student enrolment in universities increased by 12,200 from 13,200 in 2009 to 25,000, and 30,000 in 2014, a percentage increase of 14% (Alpen Capital, 2016, p. 28).

Figure 4: Student Enrolment in Qatar, by Segment



Source: Alpen Capital (2016, p.28)

Key Growth Drivers

High quality education is crucial to the development of any nation (Altbach and Salmi, 2011) and Qatar has also undertaken several initiatives to improve the value and the quantity of education over the last decade. Initially the government of Qatar had the aim of improving the quality and coverage of education in Qatar. This was instituted through various legislative measures such as increasing expenditure on the education sector. This has facilitated a more conducive environment for learning, allowed the establishment of universities and assisted students to enter higher education.

There has been an increase in the number of people seeking higher education because of an increase in the number of expatriate workers and immigrants, and growth in overall population; in response, the government had no option but to increase the number of universities in Qatar as well as increase the quality of education offered.

With annual increases in per capita income, parents are more willing to spend money on quality education for their children. This has increased the demand for private sector education in Qatar leading, in turn, to the growth of many private universities in Qatar over the last decade. Due to access to Qatar's economy, private and foreign investors have been taking advantage of the opportunity to invest in the region, this also contributing to the increase in private universities in the country (Clark, 2013).

Students from other Middle East and North African (MENA) countries have increasingly migrated to Qatar to access high quality education. Some of this trend may be because Qatar has encouraged increased use of technology in the education sector which has improved teaching methods and the overall quality of education available.

Challenges Facing the Higher Education Sector in Qatar.

Although the higher education sector has expanded over the last decade, there are various challenges associated with this expansion according to Qatar's Third National Human Development Report. To attain world-class standards, Qatar has made significant financial investment, up grading its entire education system. That said, students' performance is not improving at a corresponding pace. Among Qataris who engage in higher education, many fail to meet the standards required to go to university and study at foundation level. The failure rate from these courses is high; a percentage of those who qualify for university and study at degree level do not complete their degree (GSDP, 2012, pp. 32–43).

One reason for a seeming lack of incentive to attend university is that many Qataris can actually depend on gaining employment and attaining a comparatively high standard of living irrespective of their qualifications. Accessibility to assured, high-status well paid public sector posts, including the police force and military, that do not demand any higher education qualifications, may make university education unattractive (Moini *et al.*, 2009). Increasing financial stability means that many Qatari parents can enjoy a very comfortable life style, this removing the need for them to motivate their children to engage in higher education as it is not necessary in order to succeed. As a result, children, specifically boys, complete their basic schooling then drop out of the education system. Lowered numbers of Qataris with relevant higher

education qualifications is making it difficult to achieve the goal of placing Qataris' into responsible employment posts.

This situation is not helped by the lower numbers of individuals reading subjects of importance to Qatar's economic development, including science, mathematics and technology. This has meant that science and mathematics programmes at Qatar University (the only national university offering such programmes) are not offered due to a drop in applicants, at a time when the demand for science and technology graduates has increased (Moini *et al.*, 2009).

Although the number of students in HE in general has increased, the enrolment rate in Qatar is still low compared with other developed countries. This reflects a mismatch between the skills developed by graduates and the requirements of the outside world

2.5. The Case of Qatar University (QU)

2.5.1. Background

Qatar's national university was established in 1973 as a College of Education enrolling both men and women. Since then, the University has experienced a transformation in the quality and quantity of higher education offerings in Qatar. The Emir of Qatar, as Supreme Head of Qatar University, initiated reforms in 2003 to turn Qatar University into a model national university, one that would meet the needs of a new generation of young Qataris (Gonzalez, 2008). The University has grown rapidly in recent years. In its first stage of development, it relied exclusively on training students for government services, especially in human resources, finance, purchasing, and property.

By 2009, all the principal recommendations had either been completed or were under development and the majority of academic syllabi including biological sciences, chemistry and business and economics, had received esteemed international certification. A leading centre of excellence in research is also being developed with the recent creation of the Social and Economic Survey Research Institute, the Environmental Studies Centre, the Gas Processing Centre, the Office of Academic Research, the Materials Technology Unit and the Office of Quality Management (GSDP, 2012).

2.5.2. Mission and Vision

The vision of Qatar University is to attain regional recognition for distinctive excellence in education and research, and to become an institution of choice for students and scholars. Additionally, it aims at becoming a catalyst for the sustainable socio-economic development in Qatar (QU, 2015).

It has the mission of providing high-quality undergraduate and graduate programmes that prepare competent graduates who are destined to shape the future of Qatar. It aims to implement its mission through a diverse and committed faculty who teach and conduct research. The research is intended to address relevant local and regional challenges resulting in the advancement of knowledge and an active contribution to the needs and aspirations of society (QU, 2015).

2.5.3. Reforms

In recent years, the University's performance has been deteriorating by some measures making reforms necessary. Table 1 shows the most prominent problems identified before the reforms were launched:

Table 1: Issues before QU Reform

<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Lengthening time that students required to complete their degree programs and the growing fraction of graduating students who did so with very poor grades.- Student engagement also suggested problems particularly among male students.- Poor student class attendance, lackadaisical approaches to studies, and occasional hectoring of faculty by students or parents about grades.- Few extracurricular activities were available to students.- No University community existed in any meaningful sense.- In 2003, the University had no written compilation of procedures documenting how important academic or administrative processes were to be conducted. Key aspects of University life were handled through sometimes inconsistent improvisation or governed by long-standing but unwritten tradition.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- By some objective measures, the quality of the faculty was declining. Within a faculty of roughly constant size, the number of lecturers (as opposed to assistant professors and professors) was rising, and the number of full professors had fallen sharply in the years before the reform.- More-qualitative measures also suggested problems with the faculty. Morale was widely reported to be low.- Internal administration had become increasingly centralized. Faculty complained that the central administration was usurping authorities that had traditionally rested with the faculty and with academic departments.- There was growing estrangement between the central administration and the faculty.- Evidence was accumulating by 2003 that the University was failing to meet the needs of the larger Qatari society. Employers in Qatar—in both the public and private sectors—reported that few University graduates met required standards for employment.
--	---

Source: Adapted from (Moini *et al.*, 2009, pp. xx–xxi).

In 2003 the Emir of Qatar emphasised the need for reforms to strengthen education for young Qataris and to assist the University with reform of its major administrative and academic structures, policies, and practices (Moini *et al.*, 2009). This was accomplished through the creation of a Senior Reform Committee to develop and implement a reform strategy in (2003). The Committee operated as a forum for open discussion and helped with shaping the reform proposal, but it was not the decision maker. Decisions had to be made by the University President, with the approval of the Emir. The following is a summary of the recommendations made:

- Governance: the University would be autonomous with less close links with the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Civil Service Affairs
- Administration decentralization: increased delegation of authority to various academic departments
- Organizational structure: the structure needs to be modernized
- Academic planning: development of a long-term plan and constant evaluation of the curriculum in the university
- Compliance and quality assurance: the qualifications in the faculty were sub-standard compared with the mission and status of Qatar University (Moini *et al.*, 2009).

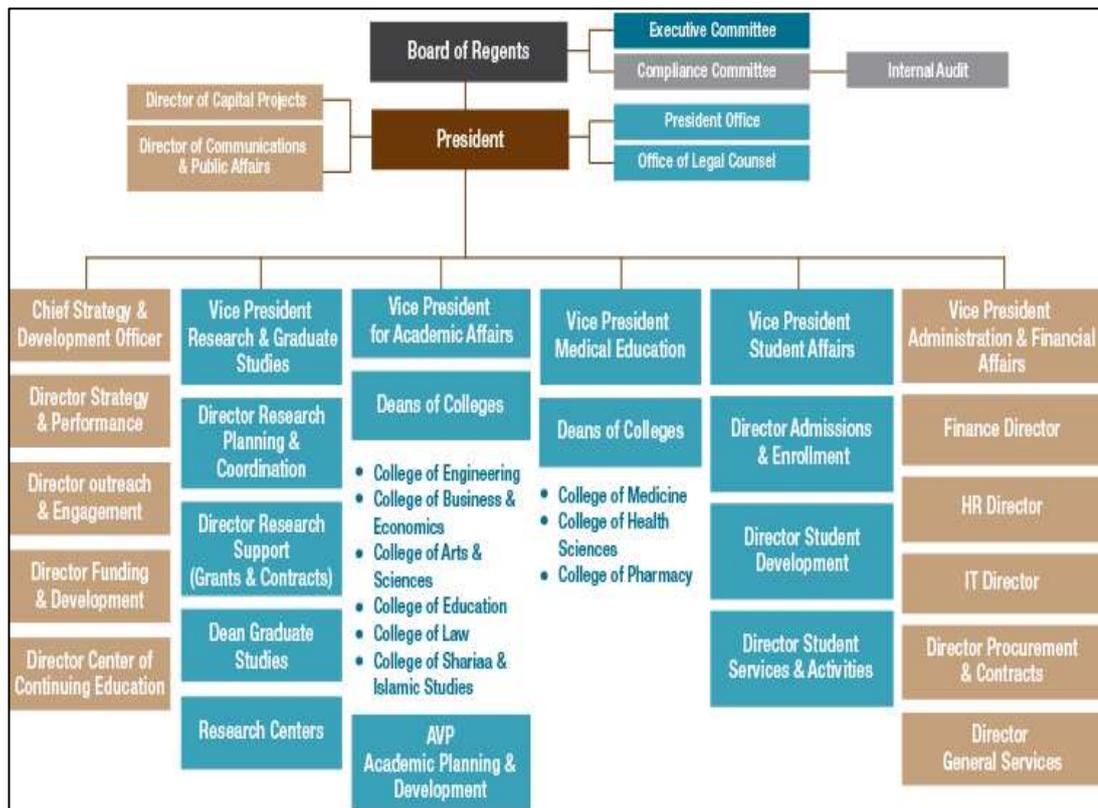
From the perspective of the present research project, aspects of leadership at the level of the academic department may be identified in each of these recommendations. For reform to be successful, the HoD would be a crucial player.

In 2012, the Government adopted the National Research Strategy, which initiated the provision of major research funding through grants awarded by the Qatar National Research Fund (QNRF). The University's population has also grown from 150 students in 1973 to 2,600 students in 1980 to 7,245 students in 2008, and currently stands at more over 14,000 currently (QU, 2016). This reflects the continued increase in enrolment in the universities of Qatari students and a diverse body of other students from different countries. As a result, key reforms have enabled the Qatar University to develop its capacity in finance, human resources, purchasing and property matters. It has also drafted new policies, procedures and job descriptions, and established a function for institutional research.

2.5.4. Challenges

The intentions underlying the reforms are positive and they have led to several changes in the structure of the University. However, various challenges have made the implementation process of the policies more difficult. The most challenging issue was to change the hierarchical bureaucratic structure, and the first step was to establish autonomy and self-governance. Managing the faculty was also a challenge because it required cultural change. It was easy to set new procedures and develop faculty performance appraisal, but it has been an issue to manage, hold, and attract distinguished faculty members. Additionally, the component missing in the policies was cultural transformation at the societal level, especially the impact of culture and tribal customs (Moini *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, the absence of competition was apparent. It is important to note that only a few Qataris are available to fill the vacancies created by the Qatar law.

Figure 5: Organizational Structure of Qatar University



Source: (QU Organization Chart Qatar - University Website, 2016)

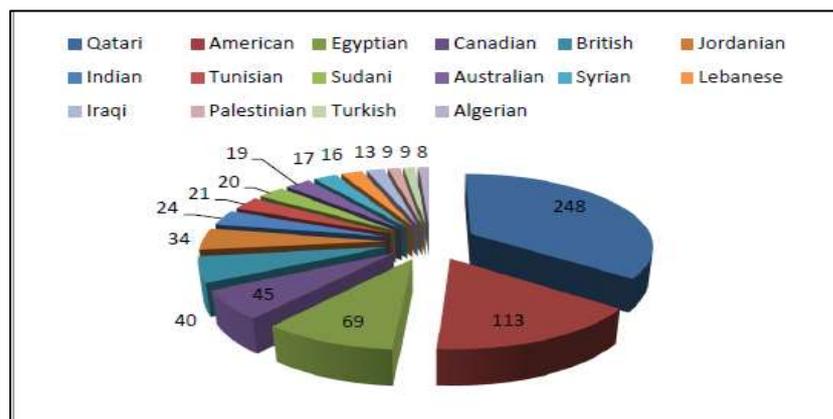
According to the report by QU (2014), the management of the University is principles and results based. The HR team understand that the University must know and support these principles. The administration is flexible, and their interpretation and implementation of policies abide by the values. The structure of the organization is characterized by customer service excellence, teamwork, respect, alignment and accountability, collaboration, and confidentiality. The structure is therefore seen to enable the University to achieve its objectives and vision (QU, 2014). At the same time, however, more needs to be understood about the role of leadership within the University, especially the crucial role of the HoD.

Human Resource (HR) Strategy

The human resources functions have also been reformed to ensure that the University understands its needs more accurately. HR has been aligned with internal customers and provides a clear accountability framework. The University aims at improving human resources advisory services and wants to ensure that employees are appropriately regarded to retain their support and to keep them motivated.(QU, 2014)

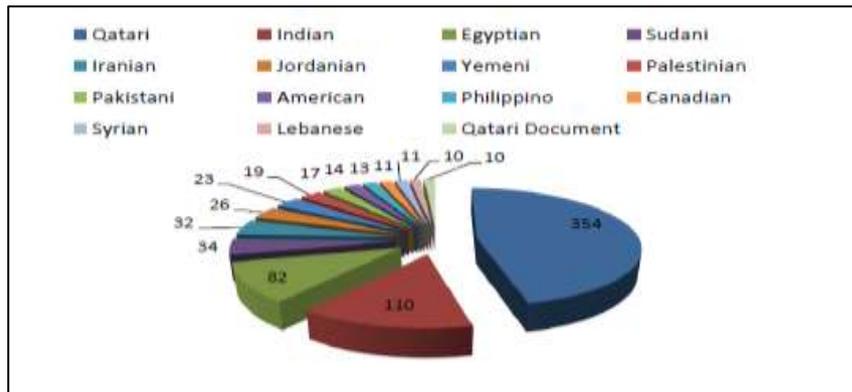
The University faculty includes employees of many different nationalities which are important for diversification, according to the Qatar University Human Resource Report (QU, 2014).

Figure 6: Academic Staff Working in QU



Source: (QU, 2014)

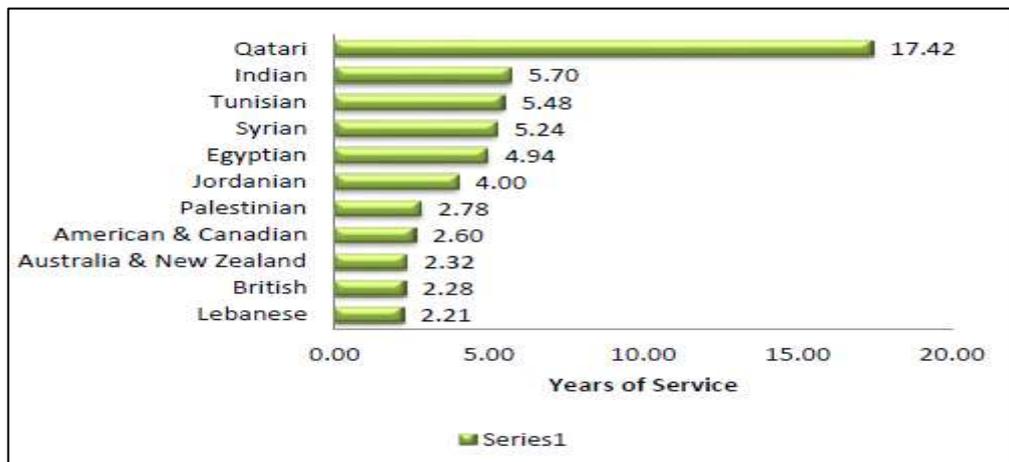
Figure 7: Administrative Staff Working in QU



Source: (QU, 2014)

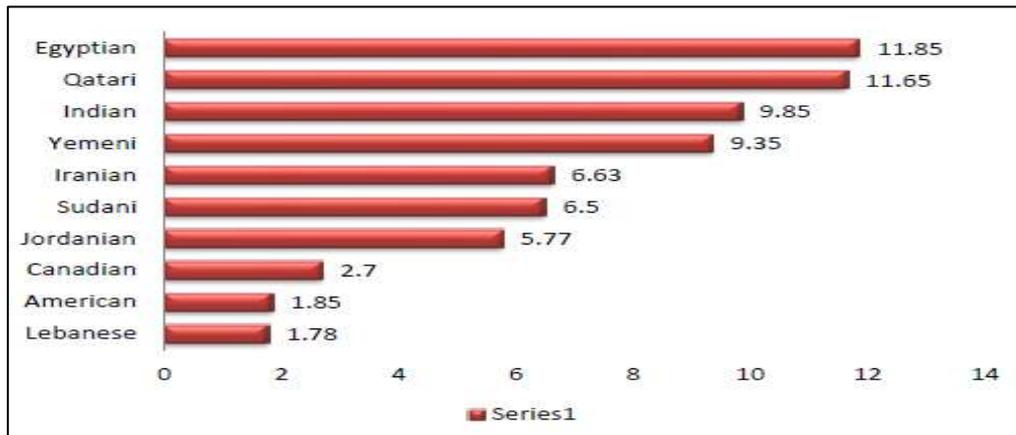
Qataris represent the largest single group of academic staff, and the Qatari employees have the longest average length of service to the University, which is estimated to be over 17 years on average. The following graphs show how these staff were hired to fill gaps created by the turnover accompanying academic reforms. The figures also indicate that Western faculty do not stay with QU as long as members of other nationalities (QU, 2014).

Figure 8: Academic Staff Average Years of Service – by Nationality



Source: (QU, 2014)

Figure 9: Administrative Staff Average Years of Service – by Nationality



Source: (QU, 2014)

In addition to ethnic diversity, which has proved to be an important part of its organizational culture, QU has another priority called Generational Diversity. The University wants to have faculty with employees from different age groups, but this has proved difficult to achieve (QU, 2014)

2.6. Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the national context for the research study, including the economy and the higher education system. The chapter also provided an overview of the case study institution, including its history, reforms and key challenges. The next chapter will review the relevant literature for this research.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a critical overview of relevant literature in the field and to identify gaps in existing research. In this way, further justification will be provided for the research question to be investigated. More specifically, the chapter will provide different definitions of leadership in general and in the context of HE, presenting different views on the relationship between leadership and management, and give an overview and description of early and recent leadership theories and approaches and their relevance to HEIs supported by some evidence from empirical research.

3.2. Defining Leadership

While the topic of leadership has been studied in various fields, the concept of leadership still remains ambiguous, and there is no universal definition in use. Burns (1978) argues that "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth." Perhaps this is because the phenomenon of leadership is constructed in various ways dependent on how people perceive it, the context of use and the type of institution within which it is observed (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Despite the debate on what is meant by leadership or how it should be defined, there is some agreement among different writers that leadership tends to be considered as a process of influencing others to accomplish desired goals and objectives (Stogdill, 1950; Katz and Kahn, 1979; Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). Yukl (2013, p. 18) for example, concludes that:

Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization.

This definition offers insight into leadership for the individual as well as for the group. Similarly, Northouse (2013, p. 3) defined leadership with an emphasis on the ability of the individual: "... a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 30) offered a similar definition perceiving leadership as "the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for the shared aspirations".

It is clear that the predominant theme in the definition of leadership is that leadership is about influence to accomplish certain activities and to motivate them to achieve their goals in a given situation, but that this should be combined with skills which include facilitating, directing, guiding and planning others (Conger, 1992; Thomas, Martin and Riggio, 2013; Daft, 2014).

3.3. Defining Leadership in Higher Education

Leadership in higher education (HE) is also multi-faceted in concept and practice. Both in academic and popular literature, there are many different definitions of leadership according to different contexts, situations and cultural settings. That said, there are some widely used definitions of leadership in HE offered by researchers; for example, Ramsden (1998, p. 4) defined leadership in HE as: "...the everyday process of supporting, managing, developing and inspiring academic colleagues". Knight and Trowler (2001) saw it as concerned with managing change at different levels. More recently, and from an American and European perspective, leadership is linked to a collection of group actions to serve a common goal. According to Bolden *et al.* (2008b) leadership is about sharing responsibilities, accountabilities and resources that help objectives to become achievable. In other words, leadership is considered as a "process of interactions between leaders, followers and situational context of the institution" (Spillane and Sherer, 2004, p. 27). Spillane and Sherer (2004, p. 3) suggest that "leadership practice takes shape in interactions of people and their situation, rather than from actions of an individual leader". This definition pays more attention to social interactions and the specific situation; for example, the organisational structure of the institution.

However, Bryman (2007a) claims that, in the context of higher education, there is no universally accepted definition of leadership. He asserts that there is also no clear definition or clues as to what constitutes effective and successful leadership; the field remains diverse and contested. Bolden (2004, p. 3) wrote: "there is [still] no widely accepted definition of leadership, no common consensus on how best to develop leadership and leaders, and remarkably little evidence of the impact of leadership or leadership development on performance and productivity". Bryman's (2007a) review of research on leadership efficacy in higher education came to similar conclusions

implying that there is a suggestion that leadership in higher education should be contextually defined within the characteristics of the specific discipline and culture (Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2008; Bryman and Lilley, 2009).

3.4. Leadership and Management

There is considerable debate conceptually on the relationship between leadership and management, and whether they should be differentiated or treated as complementary. Some agree about the need to differentiate the leadership role from the management role, viewing leader and manager as a different person (Greene, 1988; Bennis, 1989; Green and McDade, 1991; Middlehurst and Elton, 1992; Kotter, 2001; Kotterman, 2006), while others see them as two complementary parts of a common process (Law and Glover, 2000; Mintzberg, 2009; Stewart, Courtright and Manz, 2011).

According to those who make distinctions between leadership and management, management is about doing things correctly, while leadership is the action of doing the correct thing (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bennis, 1989). To them, leaders and managers are different people in terms of values and personalities (Yukl, 2013). For example, values such as stability, order, efficiency, and focusing on short term results are more associated with a manager, whereas leaders value the perspective of long term outcomes, flexibility and innovation in their approaches, including care for others. Risk and vision constitute the main differences between leadership and management in Greene's (1988) view. He saw vision as created and provided by leaders while the implementation of procedures to achieve said vision is carried out by managers.

Bennett, Dunford and Fawcett (2013) also identified one of the main differences between leadership and management as related to vision and change. According to them, and in agreement with Green, vision is articulated and set by the leader while the manager is required to design and implement procedures which enable the vision to be achieved. However, for the purpose of determining organizational goals and the selection and efficient utilization of resources, managers also need a high degree of vision and judgment. This is where distinctions become complex and blurred as vision is usually also considered a trait of leadership.

Bennis (2009) also sees the leader as someone who motivates, challenges, energises and has vision, while the manager is the person who controls and maintains systems. Bollington (2004, p. 116) supports the view put forward by Bennis, proposing that:

...management is seen as concerned with getting things done, with operational matters and with issues of implementing policies and procedures”, whereas, leadership, is “often seen as concerned with doing the right things, with strategic matters and providing direction and a sense of purpose.

However, findings from empirical studies do not support the assumption that leadership and management are mutually exclusive (Yukl, 2013). Writers, including Kotter (2001); Bass and Bass (2009); and Mintzberg (2009), see leadership and management as distinct roles, rather than assuming that leaders and managers are different types of people, and suggest that the same person cannot fulfil both roles, as with an extreme distinction. They argue that both roles are necessary; however, an appropriate balance is required.

Similarly, Middlehurst and Elton (1992) whose research involved looking at the role of leaders, developed a broad view of the leadership role and how it differed from management roles, particularly within a higher education context, treating the two as separate. They concluded: “it is important to separate the roles of leadership from those of management, at least at the conceptual level. Otherwise the longer-term focus and more intangible aspects of leadership may not be given sufficient attention under the pressures on management” (Middlehurst and Elton, 1992, p. 261). Earlier support for this view was offered by (Handy, 1984, p. 292; cited in Kerry, 2012, p. 74) in his differentiation of leadership and management roles in the context of professional organizations:

In professional organizations the leadership function has to be carried out by the senior professionals--to hand it over to an outsider would be an abrogation of their responsibilities. The administrative function, on the other hand, can be delegated to outsiders or to junior professionals because it is under the direction of professionals.

Although leadership and management are context specific concepts, in that in some organizations strong leadership is needed while another institution might require stronger management, this is not to say that one role is more important than the other. Both are important functions and balance is required between them to facilitate effective operations within an organization. Yukl (2013, p. 22) explains: “too much

emphasis on the managing role can discourage risk taking and create bureaucracy without a clear purpose. Too much emphasis on the leadership role can disturb order and create change that is impractical”.

In academic departments within HEIs, the choice or the need for more leadership or more management oriented Heads is likely to be influenced by department size, prior activities, culture, traditions, the experience of the Head and staff expectations (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 135). Heads of Department are expected to play different roles and are involved in, for example, promoting higher standards of teaching, supporting research activities and managing funds; the role is also involved with the appointment of staff, personnel management and the evaluation of staff and faculty, as well as consulting them, inspiring, supporting them and facilitating their efforts and creating an environment that increases academic productivity. In relation to institutional expectations, the HoD is also expected to engage in political activities and policy formation, both internally and externally. Thus, it is clear that both institutional and staff expectations require a management and administrative role, but that there are also significant leadership responsibilities involved (Middlehurst, 1993).

To this end, this debate has raised issues relating to training, selection and the definition of roles within organizations (Middlehurst, 1993). With respect to higher education, as elsewhere, some might agree with Kotter’s (2001) argument that most organizations are over-managed and under-led (particularly in times of change and uncertainty). However, others would agree with Mintzberg’s (2009) view that leadership is a key managerial role and that an over-emphasis on leadership at the expense of management is potentially dangerous (Gosling and Mintzberg, 2006).

3.5. Leadership in Higher Education: Theories and Styles

Numerous scholars have attempted to define leadership. Different definitions reflect theoretical insights that have emerged across time. The time spectrum shows a theoretical evolution that advanced from trait theories, to behavioural theories, followed by contingency theories to transformation and transactional theories and more recently distributive leadership. Birnbaum *et al.* (1989) completed a comprehensive exploration of the theories and models of leadership within higher education at the time. They classified the theories into six categories: trait theories, power and influence theories, behavioural theories, contingency theories, cultural and symbolic theories, and cognitive theories. Several aspects of these theories remain relevant to higher education leadership discussions. In the following section a historical overview will be given of some of these theories, with discussion of their relevance to the context of higher education by reviewing empirical research in the context of HE.

3.5.1. Trait approach

One of the first attempts to theorise in the field of leadership was the Trait approach which arose from the “Great Man” theory as a way of identifying the key personal characteristics possessed by great leaders (Bass, 1990). These approaches assume that leaders are born and not made. Building on the Great Man theory early in the 20th century, research on leadership was dominated by trait approaches intended to identify a list of definitive characteristics associated with effective leaders (Middlehurst, 2012). Several assumptions have been derived from Trait theory: (a) there are certain leaders’ qualities and characteristics that are different from non-leaders; (b) leadership is a set of characteristics that individual people have developed; (c) these special traits contribute to the power of leaders to influence others; (d) if these special qualities can be isolated, it might be possible to select potential leaders through the selection process within organizations (Middlehurst, 1993).

Dopson *et al.* (2016) referred to the work by Stogdill (1950) which reviewed and analysed over 250 studies in a time period of 30 years to identify leadership characteristics that made leaders different from others. Building on this work, different types of traits were the subject of empirical research: personal characteristics, such as

honesty and integrity, self-confidence, enthusiasm and desire to lead; physical traits such as energy, weight, height, age and appearance; social and background features, such as co-operativeness, interpersonal skills, education and personality attributes; and individual abilities, such as knowledge, intelligence, fluency and cognitive ability (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

In higher education, successful academic leaders have been described in terms of their personal attributes, interpersonal abilities, and technical management skills. Personal attributes include humour, courage, judgment, integrity, intelligence, persistence, work ethic, vision, and being opportunity conscious; interpersonal abilities include being outgoing, team building, and compassionate. (Birnbaum, Bensimon and Neumann, 1989) . Another study by Fisher (1984, p. 24) suggested that a representation of the effective president suggests the following personal traits:

a strong drive for responsibility, vigour, persistence, willingness to take chances originality, ability to delegate, humour, initiative in a social situation, fairness, self-confidence, decisiveness, sense of identity, personal style, capacity to organize, willingness to act or boldness.

Although, some of these traits had been considered as essential for successful leaders (Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Daft, 2014) , Birnbaum, Bensimon and Neumann (1989) argued that possessing certain traits does not in itself guarantee the success of leaders. Bryman and others argue that there is a lack of evidence that links individual traits with leadership effectiveness. Despite the importance of several traits and the consideration that has been given to such traits in the appointing process of organizations, including higher education institutions, findings from studies have failed to prove that characteristics should influence leadership success or to provide a universal set of leadership traits (Bryman, Stephens and Campo, 1996; Hernandez *et al.*, 2011; Parry and Bryman, 2013; Yukl, 2013; Dopson *et al.*, 2016).

However, the theory continues to be influential in images of effective leadership in higher education, even though it is no longer a major approach to research among organizational theorists. For example, Birnbaum, Bensimon and Neumann (1989, p. 35) claimed that works concerned primarily with describing successful presidents, with identifying the characteristics to look for in selecting individuals for positions of leadership, or with comparing the characteristics of effective and ineffective leaders are the most likely to reflect a trait approach. Peters and Ryan (2015, p. 24) surveyed

7,000 staff in HEIs in order to identify attributes and skills for leadership in HE, and conclude that:

Respondents were looking for leaders who had the right personal attributes. This finding aligns with research showing that although most academic work has shifted from such Great Man approaches to leadership, they are still very much a part of lay understandings of leadership.

One of the main problems with Trait theory is that, since the circumstances and situations vary and do not always remain the same, it is difficult to possess certain personal characteristics that are linked to leadership effectiveness (Birnbaum, Bensimon and Neumann, 1989). In an influential review of research based on traits theory, Stogdill concluded the conclusion that possessing certain characteristics was not a sufficient indicator of a leader's success and their value was often relative to the situational context. Therefore, traits that appear to be associated with leadership effectiveness in a particular situation might not be important in another situation (Stogdill, 1950).

3.5.2. Style Approach

Given the limitations and criticisms of the trait approach, there was a shift in the focus of leadership research which led further studies to look beyond traits and pay more attention to what leaders do, how they act (Parry and Bryman, 2006; Dopson *et al.*, 2016), and how leadership behaviour could influence leaders' success (Middlehurst, 1993; Derue *et al.*, 2011). However, the concept of personal characteristics and qualities did not go away completely as leadership behaviour was always considered as a manifestation of personality (Stogdill, 1950). As indicated earlier, traits alone cannot be a sufficient condition for leadership effectiveness, and significant research was conducted on behavioural traditions by Stogdill (1950) and Blake *et al.* (1964). This research broadened the focus of leadership to include more than personal traits and tried to understand what leaders do and how they act (Northouse, 2013).

The style approach implies that a leader's style comprises actions, tasks and relationships. Behaviour theories examine whether the leader is task-oriented (initiating structures) towards goal accomplishment, or people-oriented (consideration) and concerned about the relationship with subordinates, or both. The assumption here is that effective leadership is about how to balance these dimensions

and the aim “is to explain how leaders combine these two kinds of behaviour to influence subordinates in their efforts to reach a goal” (Northouse, 2013, p. 69).

In the HE context, a study of department chairs by Knight and Holen (1985) found that those considered effective by the faculty scored highly both in initiating structures (tasks) and consideration of people. Middlehurst (2012) provides an overview of the main theories and key insights from trait and behavioural approaches that have been applied in higher education e.g., the role of chairpersons of departments (Tucker, 1984), Deans (Tucker and Bryan, 1991) and Presidents (Birnbaum and Umbach, 2001), and institutional leadership (Middlehurst, 2008). Key insights identified by Kezar *et al.* (2006) include:

Leaders need to balance a relational and task orientation; Leaders should work with people, listen and be open to influence, recognising the shared governance environment in higher education; Leaders must be clear about their values and act authentically; Leaders must focus on direction-setting and vision; Leadership differs in different units and at different (cited in Middlehurst, 2012, p. 5)

According to Middlehurst (2012), behavioural theories “challenged the idea that leaders ‘were born, not made’ and enabled a new focus on how leadership could be learned through training and experience” (p.5). However, Dopson *et al.* (2016) referred to the view of Bolden *et al.* (2003) that the notion of training and leadership development, and to what extent leaders can be trained to change their behaviour and capability to be effective leadership, is still a question.

Much earlier, Bowers and Seashore (1966) claimed that studies of behaviour theories have their limitations; in particular, little attention was paid to other factors that influence behaviour, such as the importance of behaviour in relation to the situational context where leaders were operating (Daft, 2014). For example, the approach did not adequately clarify how these styles were related or associated with organizational outcomes (Bryman, 1992), job satisfaction and productivity (Northouse, 2013). Bucolo, Wrigley and Matthews (2012, p. 2) suggested:

... Within each higher education institution (HEI), there will be several levels and various styles of leadership in operation, depending on whether the focus is on leadership at the ‘top’ of an institution, at faculty or departmental level, in particular disciplines or professional service areas.

3.5.3. Contingency Approach

The complexity in research findings and the difficulties encountered in finding consistent results for using definitive traits and behaviours to characterise effective leaders resulted in another shift in the focus of leadership research (Parry and Bryman, 2013). In the late 1960s, studies began to emphasise the context and environment within which leadership occurred. Research focused on understanding the circumstances or situations where leadership behaviours were considered to be effective. The approach suggested that leadership effectiveness depended on how well the style fitted a particular situation (Dopson *et al.*, 2016). Different theories were proposed between 1970 and 1980 including, for example, Path-goal theory, Situational theory, and Fiedler's LPC Contingency Model and the Vroom-Yetton decision making model. Contingency theories "describe how aspects of the leadership situation can alter a leader's influence and effectiveness" (Yukl, 2013, p. 169). Scholars claim that situational factors, such as favourableness and environment (Fiedler, 1978) the nature of the task followers' (Vroom and Jago, 2007) and the interaction between leaders and subordinates (Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp, 1982) are important to the style of leadership. In other words, this approach emphasises leadership in an effective style in relation to a specific situation.

The basic premise of these approaches is that different situations require different leadership styles, and the effectiveness of the style of leadership is context specific (Yukl, 2013). Behaviours that might work effectively in one situation might not work under another condition. Therefore, contingency means "that one thing depends on other things" and "the effectiveness of leader behaviour is contingent upon organizational situations" (Daft, 2014, p. 79). Thus, according to this model of theory, leadership cannot be fully explained by personality models; rather, the leadership qualities required of a good leader need to be adapted to suit different companies, teams and situations (Fiedler, 1978).

The following section discusses three of the most well-known contingency theories and their relevance to the HE context.

An early study by Fiedler (1964) focused on matching the effectiveness of leadership styles with the features of the situation, referred to as 'situational favourableness'. This

described how the situation moderated the effects on group performance of a leadership trait, using the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) as an instrument to indicate orientation of leadership (Fiedler, 1978). The orientation of a leader could be highly task-oriented (low LPC), based on socio-independent individuals (medium LPC), or relations-oriented (high LPC) (Dopson *et al.*, 2016, p. 55). The situational favourableness was considered to be high when leader-member relations, task structure and position power were high. Task-oriented leaders could be more effective when the situation was highly favourable or highly unfavourable, whereas in the intermediate favourable situation Relationship-oriented leaders would be more effective (Daft, 2014).

Therefore, rather than considering a certain style as more effective than another, Fiedler recognized that the degree of effectiveness of any style depended on the situation and environment for leaders. Dopson *et al.* (2016, p. 55) wrote that this model continues to argue that “the effectiveness of leaders is contingent on how favourable the situation is to the leader”.

In early 1971, House developed a new model called Path–Goal theory. The initial idea of this approach describes how different leadership behaviours influence subordinates’ performance and satisfaction in different situations (House, 1996). Four styles were identified: supportive, where leaders are open, friendly, approachable and have a concern for followers’ well-being; directive, where the leader’s role involves clarifying a task, planning, structuring and setting goals; participative, where the main feature of this style involves subordinates in the decision making process by consulting and asking for opinions and suggestions; and achievement-oriented, where leaders’ emphasis is on high quality performance and helping followers to improve performance and achieve challenging goals. The main feature of leadership style in the path-goal theory is therefore different behaviour (Hernandez *et al.*, 2011).

This approach suggests that leaders are responsible for motivating followers either by making the path clear regarding rewards or by increasing rewards that are valued by subordinates or reflect personal satisfaction. The effect of these styles on follower satisfaction depends on the nature of situations, tasks and follower characteristics (Middlehurst, 1993; House, 1996; Daft, 2014). Therefore, leaders should apply the

appropriate style that will suit followers' personal traits and the task environment. For example, Yukl (2013, p. 171) argues

...task-oriented behaviour has a stronger effect on role clarity, self-efficacy, effort, and performance when subordinates are unsure about how to do their work, which occurs they have a complex and difficult task and little prior experience with it...Supportive leadership has a stronger effect when the task is very tedious, dangerous, and stressful. In this situation supportive leadership increases subordinate confidence, effort and satisfaction.

Therefore, having the path outlined to followers is very important to achieve the desired goals and is necessary for a motivator to engage in the required behaviours. However, the extent to which this style is effective depends on subordinates' personal characteristics and the task environment in which they have to operate (Hernandez *et al.*, 2011). Despite the fact that the theory did not show a conclusive supporting result, the four types of leadership style identified have proved to be a useful way to motivate employees. Also, it has influenced other models that have been used in different organizational contexts (Parry and Bryman, 2013; Yukl, 2013; Daft, 2014).

Similar to the path goal theory and in contrast to Fiedler's contingency leadership model, Hersey and Blanchard developed the situational model proposing that, instead of using one particular style, a successful leader should change his/her style based on the 'maturity' or 'readiness' of followers,. This model is based on two dimensions: 'task behaviour', which is the degree of guiding and directing, and 'relationship behaviour', which is the degree of supporting and encouraging. In addition, one environmental factor was included: the maturity or readiness of followers, which is the ability and willingness that followers demonstrate to engage in a given task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

The model specifies the appropriate behaviour of leadership for subordinates in different situations based on the levels of subordinate maturity, ability and willingness to do a task. Based on this theory, for a low maturity subordinate, the leader should define, clarify and direct the work; progress should also be closely monitored. As the maturity level of the subordinate increases, leadership can use relations-oriented behaviours and reduce the task-oriented behaviour. For highly mature people, leaders can delegate and use a limited amount of directive behaviour (Yukl, 2013). Therefore,

leaders should vary their emphasis more or less on the task and on their relationship with those they lead in order to deal with different levels of followers' maturity.

Academic leaders face one of the key leadership challenges since they always deal with faculty members and students at very different levels of maturity. In the very mature state, a group essentially self-actualizes and a leader operates with a high degree of delegation. For instance, in an academic context, Hersey and Blanchard's theory was used to develop a questionnaire that would help department chairs to determine the departmental level of maturity and select a corresponding style of leadership (Tucker, 1981). An analysis of studies on the behaviour of leaders by Glueck and Thorp (1974, p. 83) suggested that, when given a choice of leadership roles, faculty members consistently a "facilitator smoothing out problems and seeking to provide the resources necessary for the department's research program".

The main contribution of this approach is the emphasis on the importance of the need for flexibility in leaders' behaviour towards both tasks and individuals (Middlehurst, 1993; Yukl, 2013). Moreover, Middlehurst (1993) claimed that, whether in the academic institutions or any other organization, by using this model leaders would be able to highlight employees' training needs and to increase their competencies. For example, findings from a study by Shahmandi *et al.* (2011) suggest that academic leaders in a research university should vary their behavioural styles, in line with the situational approach advocated by Hersey and Blanchard; in this way, the required leadership competencies can be identified.

Generally, highly educated and professional people and staff in different organizations, including higher education institutions, expect to be consulted by their leaders in terms of policy formation and professional practice. However, the issue of when, how and to what extent such consultation takes place has been considerably debated in leadership research. Contingency theory was developed by Vroom and Yetton (2007) to address this issue and enhance the way that leaders and managers make decisions. The model mainly focused on the relationship between leadership behaviours and decision-making (Middlehurst, 1993). Vroom and Jago (2007) tested the validity of this model and found that the degree of participation of followers in the decision-making process should vary along with the nature of the problem and situation. Therefore, "an effective leader must possess the ability to view situations

and challenges from multiple, and sometimes contradictory perspectives in order to encompass the full array of options for decision-making and policy development” (Taylor and De Lourdes Machado, 2006, p. 141).

Contingency Theories in Higher Education

In the context of higher education, Middlehurst (2012) provides an overview of research on higher education leadership and management into the 21st century. She states that “contingency theories offered an important breakthrough for leadership studies in general and for higher education studies in particular by noting the influence of context and situation on leaders and leadership effectiveness” (Middlehurst, 2012, p. 6). Bensimon *et al.* (1989) reported that, generally, contingency theories have found their greatest applicability in the study of leadership in academic departments. The authors, for example, referred to a study by Taylor (1982) of decision-making among department chairs that found “they frequently chose autocratic styles of decision-making in situations where a consultative style would have increased the likelihood of the faculty’s acceptance of the decision” (Bensimon *et al.*, 1989, p. 45).

In short, Northouse (2016) notes that results from different empirical studies showed the validity of contingency approaches and how effective leadership can be achieved. Research has also showed the impact of the situational variables on the leader’s style, which, therefore, can give a good indication of which type could be the most effective in a certain situation.

3.5.4. Power and Influence Approach

Power, as defined by Yukl (2013, p. 219) is “the capacity to influence the attitudes and behaviour of people in the desired direction”. Power or influence theories focus on the ways that leaders can influence subordinate decisions and/or behaviours (Northouse, 2016). They mainly focus on leadership as a social exchange process characterised by the acquisition, deployment and demonstration of power and its effect on tasks, relationships and the purpose of leadership (Middlehurst, 2012).

There are different sources of power for potential influence over another person or an event that can be categorised in two types of power: position power, which primarily comes from opportunities that are inherent in a person’s position within an

organization to influence through legitimate authority, control over sources and information, and rewards and punishment (legitimate power, reward power, coercive power); and personal power, which is derived from the leader expertise and personal capability (expert and referent power) (Yukl, 2013, p. 196). A description of each source of power is in Table 2.

Table 2: Sources of Power

Position power	Personal power
Legitimate power: Power stemming from formal authority over work activities	Expert power: The relevant unique knowledge and skills about the best way to perform a task or solve a problem
Reward power: Is the perception by the target person that an agent controls important resources and rewards desired by the target person	Referent power: Is derived from the desire of others to please an agent toward whom they have strong feelings of affection, admiration, and loyalty. People are usually willing to do special favours for a friend and they are more likely to carry out requests made by someone they greatly admire
Coercive power: A leaders' coercive power over subordinate is based on authority over punishments, which varies greatly across different types of organizations	

Source: Adapted from (Yukl, 2013, pp. 191-196)

Studies on the consequences of power have found that effective leadership relies more on expert and personal power than on the assigned authority e.g., (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 1990). Other studies have reported that a sufficient amount of position power is required by effective leaders e.g., (Yukl and Falbe, 1991; Rahim and Afza, 1993). Whether position power, personal power or a mix of both different types is needed, Yukl (2013) argues that the amount and type of power required depends on the nature of the task, the followers and the organization where power is exercised. It also depends on the skills and manner in which the available power is exercised. He explains this:

A moderate of position power is usually optimal. A leader with extensive reward and coercive power is tempted to rely on them excessively, which can cause resentment and rebellion. On the other hand, a leader lacking sufficient position power to reward competent subordinates, make necessary changes, and punish chronic troublemakers will find it difficult to develop a high-performing group or organization. ...Effective leaders rely more on personal power than on position power and they use power in a subtle, careful fashion that minimise status differentials and avoid threats to the target person's self-esteem. In contrast, leaders who exercise power in an arrogant, manipulative, domineering manner are likely to engender resentment and resistance (Yukl, 2013, p. 219).

3.5.5. Power Theories

There are two types of power theory: social exchange theory and transactional leadership theory, and social power theory and transformational leadership theory.

Social Exchange and Transactional Theory

These theories consider leadership in terms of mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers.

In the HE context, according to Bensimon *et al.* (1989), college and university presidents and vice-chancellors can amass and exercise power through the control of access to information, management of budgets, funding for favoured projects, and the appraisal of key faculty and administrative posts. However, the presence of other sources of authority (i.e., governors or trustees who also contribute to policy and faculty authority), restricts the vice-chancellor's discretionary control of organizational events. Because of this, social exchange theory is useful to examine principles of joint governance and consultation, and the perception of the president or vice-chancellor as "first among equals", a situation apparent in many academic institutions. Transactional theory can also be useful when trying to unpack interactions between leaders and followers.

Social Power and Transformational Theory

These theories allow reflection on the impact that leaders may have on others.

Social Power Theory

From this perspective, successful leaders are those who use their position to affect the activities of others. According Bensimon *et al.* (1989), the most likely sources of power for academic leaders are expert and referent powers. Those who are considered charismatic may have significant influence on their institution. . This kind of power is often apparent in those who remain distant or detached from others and who pay attention to personal appearance and style (presidential competence, attitude, speech, dress, mannerisms, appearance, and personal habits) and who exude self-confidence. These are individuals who have been advised not to form close relationships with staff,

not to be obvious in their actions and who stress the importance of the symbolic nature of being in office.

Transformational Theory

Transformational Theory suggests that effective leaders establish and advocate a pleasing vision or image of the institution. Unlike goals, tasks and agendas, which are concerned with refer to specific, material aims to be realised, a vision refers to shifts in views, attitudes, and obligations. It is the task of the transformational leader to inspire the institution to embrace the vision fashioned his or her symbolic actions (Bensimon *et al.*, 1989).

Transformational theory focuses on the role of leadership ethics and morals shifting the stress away from practical consequences (effectiveness) to moral resolutions such as equity (Burns, 1978). This theory, while focused on leadership as part of a hierarchy, shifts the emphasis towards theories that focus much more on the dynamics of relationships between leaders and followers (Middlehurst, 2012). Middlehurst (2012), suggests that perceptions behind power and influence theories are of concrete use in higher education. Kezar *et al.* (2006) acknowledge the following characteristics as necessary for effectual leadership:

Understanding historical patterns of power and conflict are essential to becoming an effective leader; Academic staff, unions and boards of governors all play a significant role in shaping the power dynamics that affect leadership processes and these need special attention; Leaders need to develop political skills in environments where power is being centralized; Mid-level leaders are negotiators; their role is typically constrained more by power and conflict than leaders at other levels (cited in Middlehurst, 2012, p. 7).

In the following section both transformational and transactional leadership styles will be discussed in more detail and their relevance to the higher education context will be considered.

3.5.6. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

These two models were identified by Burns (1978) on the basis of his political leadership study. The two approaches were further developed by Bass *et al.* (1987) and Bass and Riggio (2006). Transactional leadership assumes that the exchange process occurs between followers and a leader. In other words, followers' needs are recognized and satisfied in exchange for completion of tasks. Transformational leadership goes beyond the essential needs and emotions of both leaders and followers. Bass notes that transformational leadership is a combination of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Bass, 1990, p. 22)

Burns suggests that transformational leadership focuses on addressing higher needs, motivating leaders and followers, and inspiring followers to develop their own leadership abilities and skills through empowerment (Bass and Riggio, 2006). While the transformational leadership approach is based on personal values and qualities, transactional leadership is based on the idea of a transaction or exchange between leaders and followers' beliefs (Daft, 2014)

Writers who have developed Burns' idea have drawn attention to some of the specific elements of transformational leadership. These include charisma, where a leader is perceived to have extraordinary abilities and has very high moral standards. Also, he/she is deeply respected, trusted and admired by followers. A second is inspiration, where a leader has a clear vision, sets a good example of behaviour, and provides clear communications and expectations. A third is individualized consideration, with a leader who treats followers individually with trust and respect, pays attention to each one's needs and guides them to grow and develop with the appropriate learning experience. The fourth is intellectual stimulation, with a leader who encourages newly innovative ways of solving and addressing problems and challenges the old methods (Collinson *et al.*, 2011; Northouse, 2013).

Another important element of transformational leadership is that leaders require emotional intelligence (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). Breakwell and Tytherleigh (2008, p. 10) wrote that "whilst not yet reported for the higher education sector, more recent evidence suggests that understanding the emotions of 'others' (more often viewed as a 'female' trait) in the workplace is fast becoming significant for leaders". This applied

in particular aspects, such as generating change (Pounder, 2001), maintaining motivation and increasing productivity (Cacioppe, 1997). However, it has also been argued that “the translation of emotional intelligence into effective leadership may not be as simple as one might expect” (Breakwell and Tytherleigh, 2008, p. 10).

Burns separated and made a distinction between the two approaches. He saw transactional leadership as referring to the exchange process that occurs between leaders and followers, whereas transformational leadership refers to engaging with others. Bass, Bernard and Avolio (1990) also saw both approaches as a single dimension, suggesting that each approach could be employed in different organizational situations by the same leader. For example, transformational may be required in the organization with negative outcomes or in crisis, while transactional leadership may be used more commonly within a stable organization (Middlehurst, 1993; Northouse, 2016). Middlehurst (2012, p. 6) argues that “transactional leadership may also be interpreted as synonymous with ‘management’ and management behaviors, while transformational leadership is associated with real or effective leadership”.

In higher education, Birnbaum *et al.* (1989) suggested that transformational leadership is typically defined as a power and influence theory where the leader acts in ways that influence and appeal to followers’ higher order needs, inspiring and motivating them to move towards a particular purpose. It is usually contrasted with transactional leadership, described as a process of social exchange where leaders interact with and influence followers through granting access to resources such as information, funding, projects, promotions and other rewards in exchange for certain kinds of work, behaviour or performance.

Applications in HE

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), the popularity and wide acceptance of the transformational approach might be due to its focus on followers’ development, satisfaction and motivation. Northouse (2013, p. 171) says that “transformational leadership fits the needs of today’s work groups, who want to be inspired and empowered to succeed in times of uncertainty”. Ultimately, transformational leadership becomes moral leadership "in that it raises the level of human conduct and

ethical aspiration of both the leader and the follower, thus transforming both” (Burns, 1978, p. 4)

In the application of both styles, different contexts may require different approaches; for example, referring to the culture of the academic context, Birnbaum *et al.* (1989) claimed that the transactional leadership approach might be better than transformational leadership. Transactional leadership can be applied to focus on promoting stability and running the organization steadily and smoothly rather than creating change within the organization and developing new strategies, as the case in transformational leadership (Daft, 2014). However, Knight and Trowler (2001) argued that the transactional approach in the academic context has generally been seen as an unsuitable approach and has been replaced by transformational leadership where leaders aim to inspire followers in order to change for better practice. A study by Webb (2008) at evangelical colleges and universities in the US and another by Mason (1998) at American community colleges found that a combination of elements from both transformational and transactional approaches have a predictive result on perceived presidential leadership effectiveness. Therefore, as suggested by Middlehurst (2012), in practice, both transactional and transformational leadership are seen as useful and leaders are encouraged to identify the appropriate approach for different situations.

Both these concepts have been widely applied and researched in the context of higher education. Transformational leadership has been identified as a more appropriate style for higher education institutions by different researchers. For example, Pounder (2001) proposed a conceptualization of transformational leadership in the context of higher education including a leader who acts as a model, inspires and communicates the vision, has integrity, where the leader “walks the talk” by actions, taking risks and prepared for the challenge when treating mistakes like opportunities; a caring person who celebrates followers’ achievements, providing help and support with consideration to all individuals. Work by Middlehurst, Goreham and Woodfield (2009) suggested the need for transformational leadership in higher education where it is most applicable at the institutional level. Martin *et al.* (2003) also found that transformational leadership was linked to high quality in the student learning process and outcomes. Furthermore, transformational leadership is viewed as particularly

important for issues that challenge the *status quo*, such as access, diversity, technology and quality (Kezar *et al.*, 2006).

Other studies suggested rather different results (Fisher and Tack, 1990; Sala, 2003). For instance, Breakwell and Tytherleigh (2008) referred to a study by Sala (2003) which studied relationships and managerial style and organizational climate, and several measures of college-student performance, in a sample of 92 British higher education college principals. He found that the more authoritative and the more coaching styles were associated with higher performance and, in particular, with higher rates of student retention. A more authoritative style was also associated with higher support for students and better college management ratings.

3.5.7. Leadership and Teams (Shared and Distributed Leadership)

Other researchers have focused on effective leadership in relation to teams, considering shared or distributed leadership in higher education (Bolden, Petrov and Gosling, 2008b; Bolden *et al.*, 2015) and collaborative relationships between leaders and followers that foster teamwork (Bensimon and Neumann, 1992). Since the early 2000s, distributed and shared leadership theories have emerged as alternatives that begin with the premise that ‘leadership is best conceived as a group responsibility, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group’ (Bolden, 2011, p. 252) referring to work by (Gibb, 1954). Such a perspective shifts the focus on leadership from the individual leader to leadership as a shared process, where leadership influence is distributed and shared among team members.

The focus of distributive leadership is on developing leadership capacity among individuals who collectively have the necessary skills, rather than focusing on a few formal leaders (Middlehurst, Goreham and Woodfield, 2009; Bolden *et al.*, 2015). It is centred on collective leadership practice where all members play important roles in the realization of the shared vision and the implementation of outcomes of this vision (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). It also represents a condition of mutual influence embedded in the interactions among team members that can significantly improve overall team and organizational performance (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004); team performance is greater than the sum of the individual components.

Results from different studies have found that this distributed perspective of leadership has been widely acknowledged to be highly appropriate for leadership practice in the public sector (Orazi *et al.*, 2014), including higher education (Rowley, 1997; Bolden *et al.*, 2015), “where the ability to manage the range of groups and activities involved is beyond the capability of any one individual, and requires the buy-in of professionals...bringing together different professional and managerial communities and discourses” (Dopson *et al.*, 2016, p. 56).

Rowley (1997) stressed the need for distributed leadership practice in higher education and the need for academic leaders to involve and empower others, rather than individuals assuming sole responsibility for leadership. Bolden *et al.* (2015) emphasized that the distribution of leadership among individuals enables transparency, greater responsiveness and teamwork. Middlehurst suggests that the role of the Head of Department is unlikely to be carried out and fulfilled by one individual, particularly in big departments, and needs organization and delegation to share the workload (Middlehurst, 1993, p. 135). Gibbs *et al.* (2009), in their study investigating eleven world-class universities, found that some form of distributed leadership practice was prevalent in every case study. Kezar *et al.* (2006, pp. 134–5) gave practical insights on teams and on collaborative and distributed leadership in higher education:

... leadership teams help to make more cognitively complex decisions, foster open communication, trust, a willingness to challenge, yet, organizations need to be redesigned to foster collaborative forms of leadership, breaking down hierarchical and bureaucratic structures, and a lack of hierarchy and limited politics need to be carefully developed and fostered to communities of difference.

Although, the distributive approach could slow the process of decision making and lead to role ambiguity, involving staff in leading and having the opportunity to exercise initiative would promote collective understanding of the leadership role and address risks associated with the potential loss of knowledge and motivation in cases where the leader leaves the organization. Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 332) suggested that “those organizations in which influential acts are widely shared are most effective”.

Despite this transition in leadership responsibilities from formal managers to team members, relatively little research has so far addressed the implications of this evolutionary shift (Carson, Tesluk and Marrone, 2007). For example, this style may be more applicable in a flat organizational structure. Since decentralization and

breaking down hierarchical and bureaucratic structures is a key aspect of distributive leadership, as suggested by Kezar *et al.* (2006, pp. 134–5), this style would not be successfully implemented or applicable in the context where social power is deeply rooted and a hierarchical structure is existing and required to run the organization effectively.

3.5.8. Cross-Cultural Leadership and Diversity

Studies show that cultural values and beliefs have an influence on leadership behaviour, particularly when they are consistent with core values of an organization (Yukl, 2013). Given that most research on leadership theories and approaches was conducted in the US, Canada and Western Europe, more recently new interests in studying leadership in non-Western context have emerged. This reflects important overarching questions as to what extent leadership theories can be applied and generalised across different cultural contexts, and how effective leadership and management practice is viewed in different countries (Yukl, 2013).

Factors such as globalization, changing demographic patterns and increasing diversity in the workplace are making it more important for leaders to understand how to influence and manage people with different values, beliefs and expectations. This requires new understanding of these cultures and how subordinates view and interpret their leaders' actions. Therefore, "to understand these issues, it is essential to determine if a leadership theory is valid in cultures that differ from the one in which it was developed" (Yukl, 2013, p. 348).

Although one could argue that cultural values and beliefs or social traditions are deeply rooted or embedded in a particular society, those values could change overtime. For example, Yukl argues that

Cultural values are influenced by many types of changes (e.g., economic, political, social, technological). Countries in which socialism is being replaced by capitalism and emphasis in entrepreneurship are likely to see a shift toward stronger individualism and performance orientation values. Countries in which autocratic political system is replaced by a democratic system are likely to become more accepting of participative leadership and empowerment in organizations. Countries in which strong gender differentiation is gradually replaced by gender equality can be expected to become more accepting of leadership practice that reflect feminine attributes...cultural value and beliefs about the determinant of effective leadership are likely to change in consistent ways (Yukl, 2013, p. 349).

Yukl notes that cross cultural research on leadership has become important and has been increasing over the last ten years, some conducted on a single culture, others crossing different cultures, and most involved with behaviors, skills and traits in relation to cultural values, and how beliefs on the effectiveness of those competencies are similar or different from one country to another. This research has been significantly influenced by studies of cultural values by Hofstede (2001a) and House *et al.* (2004). However, paying more attention to other possible effects of situational variables that have not usually been included in the existing theories (including language, religion, history, law, political system and ethnic subculture) would provide new insights on leadership behaviour that might be associated with effective management and leadership practices (Yukl, 2013, p. 348).

3.5.9. Cultural and Symbolic Theories

Further theories explore the symbolic and cultural functions of leadership, including how leaders use symbols and rituals in their approaches to change management (Birnbaum, 1992). The symbolic force for leadership relates to those things the leader pays attention to, while cultural leadership is about focusing the attention of followers on these matters of importance over time (Schein, 2010). According to Schein, symbolic and cultural leadership do not need to be anything particularly remarkable; rather, it is in the day-to-day expressions of routine work that these are expressed. Giosa and De Giosa (2009, p. 186) analysed leadership from a symbolic point of view and argued that the importance of symbols and languages is clearly depicted, starting from the assumption that reality is a social construction, and that organizations, like other social entities, can be regarded as systems of shared meanings.

Research on cultural and symbolic theories explores cultural representations and leadership roles such as the application of the symbolic meaning of cultural values to inspire organizational members (Birnbaum, 1992; Kezar *et al.*, 2006). In order for leaders to achieve more confident and creative participation in common actions, the symbolic nature of an organization should be understood (Pfeffer, 1992). Moreover, leaders need to understand the significance of social interaction and the role that people play in both shaping and in being shaped by the organizational culture. This involves understanding the informal codes associated with the subcultural elements which also serve as guidelines for how to act in different social contexts (Bensimon

and Neumann, 1992; Rhoads and Tierney, 1992). Therefore, according to Kezar *et al.* (2006, p. 130):

...the process of establishing effective leadership structures should thus involve the alignment of all strategies with institutional culture, the organizational structure such as the political, hierarchies and corporate cultures. The ideas and strategies associated with effective leadership are greatly influenced by the organizational history culture.

Provided that each organization has its own history, traditions, culture and symbolic meanings, there is need for effectiveness in the formulation of leadership strategies that acknowledge the distinct leadership contexts from one organisation to another (Tierney, 1988; Bensimon and Neumann, 1992). It is also essential to understand that various factors and subcultures (e.g. different forms of values, norms and beliefs that different people exhibit) exist within the institution (Rhoads and Tierney, 1992, p. 9). Similarly, since leadership is determined by the organization's principles, culture, and social structure, the whole context needs to be thought of much more broadly, assessing both the internal and external environments associated with a given institution in the establishment of appropriate leadership strategies (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

To conclude, Yukl (1994, p. 75) states that “results from this massive research effort have been mostly contradictory and inconclusive.” Although much research aims to identify a universal style associated with effective leadership outcomes, researchers have failed to determine the most effective style in almost every situation (Northouse, 2013, p. 79). Similarly, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) claimed that leaders could not be categorized in terms of simplistic patterns of behavior that might be labelled habitual “styles”. Rather, they suggest that leadership behaviors should be viewed as ranged on a continuum; individuals shift position on the continuum according to circumstances.

However, in short, it could be said that the most important lesson learned during the past 60 or so years is that leadership is an ongoing, highly complex interaction between an individual and the social and task environment, requiring a leader who can adapt accordingly (Fiedler, 1996).

3.6. Framing the study

Early leadership theories, and their application within higher education, ignored the importance of context as a key factor affecting the leadership process, focusing rather on identifying a set of traits and behaviours to identify one leader from another, including their power and influence or cognitive mind-sets. Contingency theories, however, have offered an important breakthrough for leadership studies in general, and for higher education studies in particular, by noting the influence of context and situation on leaders and leadership effectiveness (Middlehurst, 2012; Bensimon *et al.*, 1989).

These theories recognized that different styles of leadership were called for in different settings and that situational factors could influence who emerged as a leader (Middlehurst, 2012). Early thinking on situational and contingency approaches considered the significant effect of micro-aspects of the organizational context (task nature and follower development) in relation to leadership. In more recent studies, researchers have focused on how organizations and societies have particular cultures and histories that affect the organizational phenomenon, including leadership. These studies challenge earlier thoughts on contingency approaches that emphasised micro-contextual factors but tended to overlook some other macro-contextual aspects, such as institutional culture and systems, and the role of society and global and economic conditions. As a result, new thinking on contingency approaches focuses more broadly on broad interpretations of context and how they affect leadership (Middlehurst, 2012; Bryman and Lilly 2009; Pettigrew *et al.*, 2001; Osborn, Hunt, and Jauch. 2002). The advances in contingency and situational theories have placed additional attention on macro-contextual conditions, such as institutional culture and structure, societal influence, and global and economic factors, as important influences on who emerges as a leader.

Additionally, new thinking on contingency and situational approaches challenges earlier thought and examines the leadership process within the constructivist paradigm, arguing that leadership is organisationally context determined and that each organisation has its unique context, culture and structure. According to Kezar *et al.* (2006, 59) “situations are not objective realities to which leaders respond”. Instead, “situations are interpreted and created by people in a setting”. In other words,

“leadership actions are not contingent on objective, fixed situational variables in the organization. Instead, situational aspects such as employees’ motivation or task design are interpreted by various people in the context” (Kezar *et al.*, 2006, 59).

The essential premise of the contingency approach proposes that effective leadership is contingent on the relationship between personal characteristics and behaviours, and variables of situation, such as the nature of task structure, authority and followers' attitudes and skills. Hence, the ‘best’ or ‘‘effective’ leadership style does not exist, and effectiveness can be achieved in more than one way. Drawing on this approach, the current study assumes that leadership is organisationally context determined and that each organisation has its unique context, culture and structure. Thus, the skills, characteristics and competencies required and found to be effective in one setting might not be considered as effective in another. The new thinking on contingency leadership approaches has guided the assumptions made in this research study.

In addition, given the emergence of contingency theory in increasing the understanding of leadership, the researcher sought to develop a series of research questions that examined how participants perceived the importance of context. In this way, the relevance of context could be tested and possibly developed further in the setting of an Arabic university.

CHAPTER 4: LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A FOCUS ON HEADS OF DEPARTMENT (HOD)

4.1. Introduction

The context of higher education has rapidly changed the role and responsibilities of academic leaders to become more ambiguous and complex. In the past, academic leaders mostly served as outstanding models in teaching and research, and happened to engage in some administrative activities (Kallenberg, 2007). However, in today's higher education context they are expected to exert academic leadership and play a major role in both academic and administrative activities. Among those leaders, heads of department serve in the middle level management and hold a central role, responsible for the day-to-day operations (Gmelch and Buller, 2015).

The importance of HoDs within university management and leadership is widely recognised. It has been suggested that around 80% of institutional decisions relating to strategy and implementation are taken at this level (Gmelch and Miskin, 1993; Carroll and Wolverton, 2004). Heads of Department are involved with almost every aspect of departmental life; Gmelch and Miskin (1993) identified four main categories of responsibility, as faculty developer, manager, leader and scholar. They have a critical role, acting as agents of strategy and change, whilst at the same time working to ensure the effective day-to-day operation of their departments. Gmelch and Burns (1993, p. 79) conclude that "the departmental chair person has been identified as key in the management of today's colleges and universities". Moreover, this dependence upon the Head of Department is increasing as higher education responds to external pressures for productivity and accountability.

Given the central role that the department chair plays within the university system, it has been suggested that it is the most critical within the university hierarchy, but also the most neglected. Thus, it is important to explore leadership practice at this level. A number of writers argue that it is not only leadership from the top that is required, but also throughout the institution (Rowley, 1997; Middlehurst, Kennie and Woodfield, 2010). Marshall (2007, p. 1) claims that "leadership at all levels' is seen as a more appropriate means of bringing about and sustaining transformational and lasting change". Rowley (1997, p. 78) also argues that leadership

...is important in managers at all levels in higher education and should not be viewed as the sole preserve of the senior manager... the future of academic institutions depends on the development of effective leadership skills at all levels in the organization.

However, little empirical research has been done on the academic leader within universities (Dopson *et al.*, 2016), with little focus on middle level leadership, particularly those holding positions of Heads of Department (Gomes and Knowles, 1999; Bryman, 2007a; Bryman and Lilley, 2009). This chapter will analyse the position of Head of Department and their responsibilities, and identify key attributes, styles and behaviours necessary to lead academic departments within HE. It will also present the key challenges faced in the position and the training and professional development required to perform their role effectively. Empirical studies of departmental leadership will also be reviewed.

4.2. The Position of Head of Department

Hecht, Higginson, Gmelch and Tucker wrote:

Department chairs are the only academic managers who must live with their decisions every day. The dean and the vice president make many important administrative decisions, such as which colleges or departments will get the lion's share of the year's operating budget. The dean and the vice president, however, do not have to say good morning—every morning—to their colleagues in the department; they do not have to teach several times a week alongside their colleagues; they do not have to maintain a family relationship with their faculty members. The department chair, on the other hand, must be acutely aware of the vital statistics of each family member including births, deaths, marriages, divorces, illnesses, and even private financial woes. This intimate relationship is not duplicated anywhere else on the campus because no other academic unit takes on the ambiance of a family, with its personal interaction, its daily sharing of common goals and interests, and its concern for each member (Hecht *et al.*, 1999).

The academic department represents the unit within the university where the majority of day to day activities take place, and where issues of faculty and students, research and services must be handled (Hecht *et al.*, 1999; Wheeler, 2016). The position of Head of Department is continually described as one of the most important positions within the university (Creswell, 1990; Middlehurst, 1993; Bryman, 2007a; Lees, J. Malik and Vemuri, 2009; Gmelch and Buller, 2015, 2016). Heads of Department (HoDs) play a critical role and uniquely influence both the daily and long-term operations within the university (Aziz *et al.*, 2005; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011). Patton

(1961, p. 459) noted that “no one plays a larger part in determining the character of higher education than the department chair”. Gmelch and Miskin (1993) described this position as one of the most important positions within higher education and critical to the success and effectiveness of institutions, faculty, students and the community as the HoD is the central decision maker and leader. The HoD has a significant impact on the work environment for faculty members within the department (Lumpkin, 2004). Within the perceived power structure, the position of department chairs was pivotal in creating and enacting the vision of higher education institutions.

4.3. Role and Responsibilities

HoDs assume multiple roles and responsibilities (Lindholm, 1999). Booth (1982, p. 4) describes the position of head of department as the ‘the basic administrative unit of a college or university’. HoDs act as the primary spokespersons of the department faculty and students. They represent the administration to members of their department while at the same time articulating departmental needs to the administration. Importantly, institutions of higher learning rely heavily on HoDs to implement and carry out the institution’s policy and mission at an operational level. Thus, they have a critical role, acting as agents of strategy and change, whilst at the same time working to ensure the effective day-to-day operation of their departments.

Although it is clear that the precise job role and responsibilities of HoDs vary from institution to institution and from discipline to discipline, and also vary with the departmental size, nature and context (Middlehurst, 2004; Buller, 2011; Nguyen, 2013), most department chairs fulfil some common roles; for example, in leading, managing, teaching, faculty professional development and being the intermediaries between faculty and upper administration (Buller, 2011, p. 3). There are various roles and responsibilities and leadership activities that scholars have listed depending on the nature of the institutions such as the lists identified by, for example, (Creswell, 1990; Carroll and Gmelch, 1992; Hecht *et al.*, 1999). Looking at these different studies and a wide range of literature (e.g. Lucas (2000); Gmelch (2004); Middlehurst (1993)) on the departmental chair role and responsibilities, it can be assumed that HoDs carry out different activities (Table 3);

Table 3: Roles of HoDs

<p style="text-align: center;"><i>The role of acting as an administrator</i></p> <p>Lucas (2000): teaching schedules, ensuring teaching effectiveness of staff, managing graduate assistants and other departmental staff, performing personnel decision-making, revising the curriculum, and managing the budget.</p> <p>Middlehurst (1993): supervising, scheduling, planning for their discipline, recruiting students, hiring faculty members, managing data, proposing and managing budgets, assigning tasks to faculty members, reviewing programmes, conducting and attending meetings, implementing policy, managing resources, assuring academic quality, responding to emails and phone calls.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>The role of acting as a scholar:</i></p> <p>Heads of Department should continue their scholarly activities, such as research, teaching, obtaining grants, pursuing academic excellence and publishing. However, for this particular role, a study by Gmelch (2004) found that 86% of department chairs reduced their academic activities and found it impossible to remain as active as before serving in the chair position.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>The role of acting as a leader which involves:</i></p> <p>Demonstrating vision, aspiring, influencing and empowering others, managing personnel, directing supporting and motivating departmental staff, managing and evaluating faculty performance, managing conflicts, creating vision, promoting information exchange, building teams, decision making, keep faculty informed and updated of all information and concerns, promoting and representing the university both internally and externally, and acting as a role model(Gmelch and Buller, 2016).</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>The role of acting as a faculty developer includes:</i></p> <p>Encouraging faculty to improve teaching skills and, publishing, drawing on individual strengths and contributions, making recommendation, promoting their professional careers (Buller, 2011; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011).</p>

Source: Author

Therefore, there is a heavy reliance on the department unit by universities and central administration, whether for policy implementation on campus or for achieving the mission of the university. In addition, HoDs serve more than one constituency within and outside the institutions adding further external pressure to their role and responsibilities. For example, the central administration, professional accrediting agencies, Government departments, and granting agencies are just some of the external publics that department chairs must understand and address. Various constituencies have different expectations from this dual role and the demands of these multiple constituencies represent pressures and difficulties for HoDs, and need to be understood effectively. In other words, as stated by Gmelch and Burns (1993, p. 79) “the department chair person has been identified as key in the management of today’s

colleges and universities”. Moreover, the reliance upon HoDs and academic units as primary change agents and leader-managers will continue to increase as HE responds to external pressures for productivity and accountability.

4.4. Challenges and Opportunities Facing HoDs

Carrying out such an exhaustive list of roles makes the position of Head of Department within higher education institutions powerful, critical and influential. However, given the nature and complexity of the role of HoD, the position is rife with challenges and difficulties that bring a certain amount of stress. This impacts upon the career decision as to whether to accept appointment or continue serving as a Head, or move forward to higher position, or go back to faculty status (Carroll and Wolverton, 2004). The literature identifies several interrelated areas as sources of stress and challenge in serving as a HoD, including: the multiple expectations of others, the ambiguous role of the position, the unclear lines of authority, and transitional issues of the role. These are all challenges that require skilful leadership. This section discusses different challenges and difficult tasks that HoDs face and will also present other factors that may be seen to be pleasant aspects of serving as a HoD.

Students, faculty, central administrations and external agencies all seek an input from HoDs. Tucker (1984, p. 6) wrote that Heads thus becomes a "fulcrum in the balancing act". Bennett (1982) claimed that the position of department chair within higher education is the most difficult in campus. Hansen further describes the challenges within the department chair position associated with time management:

Department chairs serving as the main intermediaries between faculty and the administration face increasingly harder challenges in their multiple and sometimes conflicting roles as leaders, managers, and scholars. Ironically, as demands for leadership preparation of department chairs have increased, the time and resources available for chairs to pursue the necessary leadership preparation have decreased (Hansen, 2011, p. 7).

The position is presented as complex with multiple challenges requiring departmental chairs to move backwards and forwards between faculty status and higher positions as deans, or building up their careers as HoD (Lindholm, 1999; Coate *et al.*, 2015; Gmelch and Buller, 2015)

Seedorf (1993) suggested three broad stress-generating categories that still ring true today: dealing with people, coping with the bureaucracy of the institution, and the negative impact on research productivity. Seagren (1993, p. 10) similarly noted that the complex role of department chair is embedded within a larger context of demands by diverse groups and usually involving conflicts, ambiguities, and transitional issues. Due to the demanding and multi-faceted nature of their responsibilities, departmental Heads are also exposed to “high levels of burnout, particularly for those who are not well prepared to handle the inevitable demands of administration” (Lindholm, 1999, p. 3). Stress is especially associated with administrative challenges, fiscal responsibilities and the demands of external constituencies (Gmelch and Burns, 1993; Wild *et al.*, 2003).

The challenges of leading colleagues was identified in different studies as one of the main sources of tension and stress. For example, King (1997) wrote that “the roles of colleague and friend are compromised by responsibilities for evaluation and disbursement of rewards, resulting in problems in interpersonal relations”. Rowley and Sherman (2003), looking at the special challenges of academic leadership in HE, noted that the fact that the Head is previously a colleague to other faculty in the department and that most of time they were likely to have worked together, puts them in a difficult position and makes it hard to put the friendship aside. The same challenge was noted in a study by Tucker (1984). King (1997, p. 213) reflected on Tucker’s findings and stated that “a major roadblock for establishing relationships characterized by trust, equity and caring is found in the chair's role as evaluator”.

Bennett (1982), for example, described the transition and how moving into the position as HoD will result in a shift from loyalty to one’s discipline to embrace loyalty to the wider institution. Heads are then required to represent the institutional perspective, and there will be times when HoDs may need to sacrifice the interests of discipline or department for an institutional need. Much of the role conflict that chairs experience stems from such a shift (Seagren, 1993, p. 69). These tough decisions are likely to make chairs unpopular and are likely to cause conflict with faculty who recognize only the disciplinary perspective and may believe that the chair should place the department first in every situation (Hecht *et al.*, 1999).

Many HoDs take on the role without a clear understanding of the ambiguity involved (Gmelch and Buller, 2016). Different studies have pointed to challenges related to the role ambiguity that arises from the nature of the job, requiring the HoD to be a leader/manager as well as continuing to keep the identity of being a member of the academic faculty and remaining current in teaching and research. Many HoDs complain about the difficulty in balancing both interests (Middlehurst, 1989; Gmelch and Buller, 2016).

A study by Cipriano and Riccardi to understand issues associated with the position of HoD within universities across the US showed that the most significant challenges include: dealing with non-collegial, uncivil faculty; an excessive workload; lack of time to devote to personal research; dealing with bureaucracy; and lack of adequate resources. More than 24% of respondents ranked dealing with non-collegial, uncivil faculty as the number one challenge; almost 45% listed it as a top five challenge. Although not ranked as highly, the lack of time to devote to personal research was the only other challenge listed with more frequency, as more than half of all respondents marked it as one of their top five challenges (Cipriano and Riccardi, 2016, pp. 18–19).

Similar results emerged from a study of 101 research and doctorate-granting universities by Gmelch (1991) indicated that departmental leaders perceive a significant loss of time as a trade-off for accepting the position. Respondents reported that most of the challenge came from the reduced time available to spend on research, teaching, and being up-to-date in the field. The impact on personal time (e.g., time to spend with family, friends or leisure) was also reported to be a negative side of the job which resulted in the chair's dissatisfaction. The study also suggested that, in addition to the heavy workload, there were other factors which were perceived to be a source of stress, including obtaining programme approval, decisions affecting others, resolving collegial differences, evaluating faculty, completing paperwork, telephone/visitor interruptions, meetings, and so forth.

Additional difficulties and challenges faced by HoDs include: insufficient power and authority given to departmental leader to carry their responsibilities (Tucker, 1984; Middlehurst, 1993); ambiguity and no clear description of their role and the expectations of others (Sarros *et al.*, 1999; Cipriano and Riccardi, 2016; Gmelch and Buller, 2016); and the impact on academic productivity and social isolation (King,

1997). Unfamiliarity with the administrative system, particularly for the new Heads, and having to engage in conflict management were also seen to be challenges (Carroll and Wolverton, 2004). In a study that ranks stresses specific to chairs, findings indicate that the number one factor was “having insufficient time to stay current in my academic field” (Gmelch and Miskin, 2011, p. 121).

However, the HoD’s position may also present opportunities and enjoyable aspects which provide the motivation to take up a leadership position. Given the complications and ambiguities of the chair position, why do faculty members choose to serve as HoD? Gmelch and Miskin (1993) showed that there were various factors, including extrinsic motivation such as pressure from a dean or colleagues, the feeling that they can do a better job than other faculty; and intrinsic motivation, such as the opportunity to help the department to grow and to build stronger department; and personal reasons, such as self-development, enjoyment of a challenge, gaining managerial and leadership experience, and trying something new by taking control of the department.

Similar results emerged from studies by Gmelch (2002) and Carroll and Wolverton (2004); in addition, financial gain was occasionally reported in both studies. The results also revealed that chairs who served for extrinsic reasons were less likely to serve for a second term (Table 4).

Table 4: Why Faculty Became Department Chairs Reason for Serving

		No. Chairs
1.	For personal development (interesting challenge, new opportunities)	321
2.	Drafted by the dean or my colleagues	251
3.	Out of necessity (lack of alternative candidates)	196
4.	To be more in control of my environment	161
5.	Out of sense of duty, it was my turn	133
6.	For financial gain	117
7.	An opportunity to relocate at new institution	101

□

Source: (Gmelch and Miskin, 1993, p.3)

A study by Gmelch and Miskin (2011) on the rewards of serving as HoD revealed six areas of reward: financial, sense of achievement, sense of power, altruistic satisfaction, departmental success, and personal growth. Similarly, results from a four-year study conducted by Cipriano (2011), covering over 800 department chairs from different universities across different countries, showed that consistently more than 85% were either satisfied or very satisfied, and revealed that there were many pleasant aspects reported by respondents. These included: interpersonal communication; encouraging professional development of department faculty; representing the department at professional meetings; interacting with administration on behalf of the department; developing and initiating long-term department programmes, plans, and goals; recruiting new full-time faculty; encouraging faculty research and publications; planning and reviewing curriculum, academic programmes, and courses; retaining untenured faculty; and department organizational tasks (Cipriano, 2011, p. 15) What is especially interesting here is that many of the same tasks that were previously seen to cause stress for HoDs could also provide job satisfaction. Different individuals can react in very different ways.

The unique nature of the job itself is a prime contributor of stress for department heads. However, there are also positive aspects that ensure that departmental leaders continue to serve in the position.

4.5. Departmental Leadership

Most research into leadership within higher education has focused on the holders of the top and senior academic roles such as Vice Chancellors, Pro-Vice-Chancellors and Deans (McDaniel, 2002; Drew, 2006; Breakwell and Tytherleigh, 2008; Scott *et al.*, 2010). There has been little focus on middle level leadership, as noted by Seagren (1993, p. 17), despite the importance of these roles. Several studies have looked at formal leadership processes at the institutional level, but far less is known about leadership within academic departments and, in particular, how leaders at this level respond to challenges and changing contexts.

This lack of research was also acknowledged by Gomes and Knowles (1999) who suggest that little is known about how HoDs contribute to “departmental culture, collaborative atmosphere, and departmental performance” (cited in Bryman and Lilley, 2009, p. 333). Bryman’s review of effective leadership in higher education argues that one of the more important components within HE which needs examination is the individual department because of its role in resource management, teaching and research activity (Bryman, 2007a, p. 694).

Departmental chairs have numerous responsibilities associated with managerial and academic duties, as departments now operate in an environment within which teaching and research is critically scrutinized and subject to audit to ascertain their quality of delivery. These pressures represent just some of the numerous challenges facing departmental heads. A number of studies have therefore addressed ways of assisting departmental heads to prepare themselves for the ongoing changes in their roles and functions (Lindholm, 1999) and how departmental leadership could be performed effectively (Bryman, 2007a; Zhang and Wu, 2010).

In his final report on effective leadership in higher education, Bryman (Bryman, 2007b) summarized his key findings on leadership styles, approaches and behaviours. His research project comprised a systematic review of literature related to leadership and efficacy, and a series of interviews with academic leaders. He identified thirteen leadership behaviours considered to be essential (Table 5):

Table 5: Effective Leadership Behaviours

Providing resources for, and adjusting workloads, to stimulate scholarship and research.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">•Making academic appointments that enhance department's reputation.•Instilling a clear sense of direction/strategic vision.•Treating academic staff fairly and with integrity.•Being trustworthy and having personal integrity.•Acting as a role model/having credibility.•Creating a positive/collegial work atmosphere in the department.•Advancing the department's cause with respect to constituencies, internal and external to the university, and being proactive in doing so.•Providing feedback on performance.•Allowing the chance to contribute in key decisions/ encouraging open communication.•Communicating well about the direction the department is going.•Preparing department arrangements to facilitate the direction set.•Being considerate.

Source: Adapted from Bryman (Bryman, 2007b)

The higher education context has some special features which Bryman and Lilley (2009) suggest help to shape leadership styles, some of which are shared by other professions. These include an emphasis on collegiality; the desire for autonomy; individualism; a primary loyalty to the discipline rather than the employing organisation; and tensions with “difficult” colleagues resistant to management. A phrase often employed by their respondents was that managing academics was “like herding cats”. These characteristics pointed to the need for different skills from leaders in other sectors.

This emphasis on suitable people skills was further pursued by Bryman (2009, p. 5), specifically with reference to communication and conflict resolution. Rowley and Sherman's (2003) work revealed the need for heads to cultivate honest behaviours with their staff, not only during evaluations but also during their day to day activities. Consultation with and respect for staff was also suggested by Debrowski (2015). In particular, departmental heads required knowledge and skills to support academic staff, including motivational techniques as well as conflict resolution skills.

Looking further at leadership strategies for HoDs in universities, Bolman and Gallos (2011) claimed that one of the roles of the leader was that of mediator. This required good listening skills, the ability to respect differences in perspectives and the ability to

see both sides of an argument without bias. They added that negotiation skills were essential to identify mutual gains, particularly when there are two or more conflicting perspectives. Successful academic leaders also understood the dynamics of the system, such strategies to move beyond immediate issues, keep focused and remain on top of things.

In HE, leading clever people also requires the management of organisational processes (Dopson *et al.*, 2016). Goffee and Jones (2007, p. 77) explain that ‘clever’ individuals often perceive institutional administration as a nuisance, a distraction from the job. However, the rationality of higher education system roles and policies often requires the HoD to be in line with campus goals and vision, effectively relieving their staff from the burdens of bureaucracy. This approach results in a better response from staff: they work at full potential (Dopson *et al.*, 2016, p. 39), and in a caring and productive environment (Bolman and Gallos, 2011, p. 12).

Wolverton *et al.* (2005) also identified the following requirements and characteristics for setting direction in departments: good people skills, treating faculty with integrity and honesty, promoting collegiality and good communication skills. Further research by Smith and Wolverton (2010) identified five categories of similar leadership skills: analytical skills, communication skills, sympathy for student affairs, good interpersonal behaviour and strong external relations. Gardner (2006) concluded that a requirement for leadership to be effective was “interpersonal intelligence” which included understanding how to communicate with others and how to build on those relationships within a collaborative culture (p. 108). Given the agreed importance of these skills, Wolverton *et al.* (2005) noted that some departmental chairs were lacking in many, needing more training and preparation, a situation confirmed by other research (Gmelch, 2002; Aziz *et al.*, 2005; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011).

Working in an environment in times of change and increasing pressure brings its own set of challenges. Ramsden (1998) identified nine characteristics as necessary to make a university effective, reflecting an emphasis on people skills. These included expertise in helping staff to embrace change and to see change as an opportunity; a vision and genius based on trust and concern, for inspiring students and staff to achieve things they never thought they were capable of; a gift for enabling academics to realize

the highest standards of excellence and creativity by shrewdly combining freedom with discipline: a commitment to helping people develop their skills, and to reward and recognize them for their performance and their commitment to continuous learning; the capacity to manage both resources and people firmly, fairly and equally; the ability to deliver high quality products and services on time and on budget to an increasingly demanding set of customers; a talent for marrying imagination with information, independence with discipline, and theory with application; a willingness to live with paradox and to nurture tolerance; and finally, the courage to admit inevitable mistakes.

However, in order to develop such a range of skills, Jones (2011) suggested that effective leaders must be “self-aware of their thoughts, emotions, values, and beliefs, and align their actions and behaviours to their internalized values and beliefs” (Jones, 2011, p. 25). Such leaders understand the moral consequences of their actions and clarify existing rules and regulations. Jones (2011, p. 26) also emphasized effective leadership in line with contingency theories and approaches, seeing leaders as needing to be able to respond appropriately to the environment they find themselves in.

Reflective practice was one of three areas identified by Gmelch and Miskin (2011) as important academic leadership skills. In addition to conceptual understanding and skill development, their focus was on the uniqueness of the role, responsibilities and specific skills that HoDs need to lead their department, including developing an academic team, encouraging departmental productivity, setting goals and action plans, and managing time, conflict and stress. HoDs need to be aligned with the institutional mission and the desired level of productivity for the department, allowing them to set clear goals and foster an attitude that encourages staff and faculty to work towards departmental success (Gmelch and Miskin, 2011).

The act of managing time (setting priorities) and dealing with conflict and stress were found to be critical skills; these aspects of the role had a direct impact on the productivity of the team and efficacy of the HoD. Regarding time management, it was suggested that the solution lay in control over how time was used and not simply more time (Gmelch and Miskin, 2011, p. 88). Conflict is inherent in the Head’s position since the position involves upwards and downwards interaction, and must inevitably also involve dealing with difficult issues. Gmelch and Miskin (2011) identified conflict

with faculty as their major source of stress, yet unavoidable. The consequences of stress can be negative causing psychological, emotional and physical concerns for department leaders, impacting upon their department and ultimately, the whole institution. Thus, managing stress and being able to cope with different kinds of tension are important for departmental leaders.

Higher levels of stress are always experienced in times of crisis. Haddon *et al.* (2015) explored what followers want from their leaders in terms of management style in the context of crisis management in higher education. They showed that much of the prior literature had suggested that an agent-based or authoritative style may be preferred and their quantitative findings broadly supported this view, but the qualitative data suggested that academic followers presented a more complex picture. Whilst expecting leaders to make decisions and act in response to any crises, this was only perceived as effective when communicated clearly and promptly to staff.

Haddon *et al.* (2015) also conducted studies on an African American institution with the aim of exploring what made effective leaders in relation to followers' needs and management styles. Findings revealed that leaders were expected to be decision makers and action takers in times of crisis. Such crisis management required the combination of decisive and continuous communication.

The ability to make and implement good decisions can often be grounded in political skills (Pfeffer, 1989); Mintzberg, (1985). Ferris *et al.* (2005, p. 127) define this as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives". This was a perspective shared by many researchers (Mintzberg, 1985; Seagren, 1993) and applied within HE, where both external and internal factors and constituencies influence decision making processes. Research has shown the positive impact of political skills on others, such as team performance (Ahearn *et al.*, 2004); rating leaders' effectiveness (Ammeter *et al.*, 2002); trust management and follower job satisfaction (Ferris *et al.*, 2007).

Mintzberg (1983) defined political skills as the exercise of influence through persuasion, manipulation and negotiation. This skill set implies access to wider networking and the possession of a leadership style that allows the development of

relationships and coalitions. The ability to use social astuteness to determine how and where to position themselves to create opportunities and take advantage of any given situation is also a pre-requisite (Pfeffer, 1992), termed ‘situated identity’ (Alexander Jr and Knight, 1971).

In the HE context, departmental leaders have different sources of political influence and power, including authority assigned formally by the job description, personal characteristics, and abilities and experience, any of which can be used effectively. HoDs consequently have to understand how to use this power and influence competently to build and sustain their departments (Seagren, 1993, pp. 43–44). It is assumed that, although performance, effectiveness and career success are determined in part by intelligence and hard work, other factors, such as social astuteness, positioning and political “savvy” also play important roles (Mintzberg, 1983; Ferris *et al.*, 2007).

The impact of such a wide range of leadership skills is commonly assessed by performance in particular tasks. Gibbs *et al.* (2009) studied departments that were deemed excellent in teaching, two each from eleven world-class, research-intensive universities in eight countries. Detailed case studies were undertaken to identify the role, if any, of departmental leadership in creating and supporting excellence. Findings identified nine clusters of leadership activity, including interpersonal skills with staff, problem solving, collegiate management and the provision of support for both staff and students. Effective leadership of teaching was seen to involve different combinations of these characteristics in different contexts. Some HoDs simply fine-tuned traditional methods to control the autonomy of individual academics, while others embarked on radical innovations and collaborations with similar success (Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2009, p. 9).

A study in Australian universities by Harkin and Healy (2013) investigated the pattern of leadership in disciplines. The results revealed that effective planning, retention of corporate knowledge and good communication were important during the transition period from faculty to Head of Department. They argued that it was vital for professional staff to continue to work closely alongside academics as extended members of the discipline and that distributed leadership encouraged this interaction. They also found that the duties of a discipline leader could be similar to those faced

by a HoD. The research suggests that universities should therefore establish clear policies, position descriptions and appropriate remuneration packages in order to recruit, train and retain staff as academic leaders.

Flexible leadership styles may prove helpful during continuous change. Turnbull and Edwards (2005) analysed a leadership development intervention in one post-1992 UK university. They suggested that HoDs should be seen as complex hybrids balancing traditional academic values with an increasing emphasis on changing market forces. The nature of the job may also vary by level of seniority. HoDs, for instance, typically displayed a collegial style; otherwise it would be difficult to return to a faculty-level position once the period as HoD was complete. These constraints applied less to higher-level roles, where visionary forms of leadership were more possible.

Centring on the range of necessary leadership characteristics in academia, Deem *et al.* (2007) investigated the influence of New Public Management-(NPM) reforms on the roles, identities and learning needs of academic managers in UK universities, specifically those required to attain equilibrium between strategic and operational control. They interviewed over 130 academic managers about the training they had received on or before becoming a manager. Individuals revealed that they often participated in quite simple, induction programmes which were usually cognitive in orientation, tutor led and non-specific in nature. These were reported to be of limited worth with the exception that they offered ready-made networking prospects. With reference to content, individuals proposed that the following areas would be of more use and value: financial management; culture change; acting as a change agent; dealing with more assertive consumers; entrepreneurship; performance management of academic staff, and risk management.

As well as different levels of seniority, culture has a role to play in styles of leadership. Hamlin and Patel (2015) built on the work of Bryman (2007), Middlehurst (1993; 2008) and Ramsden (1998; 2006) carried out in Anglo-Saxon countries, examining whether perceptions of effective and ineffective management and leadership differed in the case of a French university. They undertook a content analysis of texts around critical incidents, both positive and negative finding that just over 40% of effective behaviours found in the French setting and 70% in Bryman's review of Anglo-Saxon literature overlapped. The first three common features were the provision of resources

and support, proactive interest in staff and their needs, and efforts to create a warm and trustworthy working relationship between staff (Hamlin and Patel, 2015, p. 14).

In summary, the leadership literature makes reference to various qualities necessary for academic leadership (Drew, 2006; Bryman, 2007a). However, important questions remain on how to promote effective leadership in higher education institutions. Whilst a number of studies have sought to establish modalities, there are few empirical studies of what makes a good leader in academic departments in higher education.

4.6. Professional Development and Training Needs

In most academic careers very little time is spent on training for higher education leadership and there is often little preparation for the role (Hecht, 2004; Altbach, 2011; Buller, 2013; Gmelch and Buller, 2015; Cipriano and Riccardi, 2016). Academic leaders commonly assume their administrative role with inadequate knowledge, insufficient skills and experience of what the job entails, and little understanding of the complexities associated with the leadership role (Altbach, 2011). A survey of departmental leaders in U.S. universities showed that only 3% from over 200 leaders had any leadership experience (Gmelch, 2004). Another survey by Cipriano and Riccardi (2016) found about 80% of department chairs received no formal training for their administrative and leadership roles.

The role of HoD requires people who are able to lead and manage effectively, and can use their position to transform processes and to make a difference (Lumpkin, 2004). However, Gmelch and Miskin (1993, p. 1) write: “the critical question is how well chairs and departments prepare for it and position themselves to survive and succeed”. Recently, a similar question was raised by Wheeler (2016, p. 24) asking “who are we placing in these crucial jobs?”. Answering these questions, he writes: “people with good intentions and a strong department commitment but with little administrative experience are usually chosen”; the position is still continuously filled with people who are excellent in teaching and research without being asked to demonstrate the adequate leadership skills (Middlehurst, 1993; Gmelch and Buller, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). Gmelch and Burns (1994, p. 79) concluded: “the departmental chair person has been identified as key in the management of today’s colleges and universities”.

Moreover, this dependence upon the Head of Department is increasing as higher education responds to external pressures for productivity and accountability. However, literature suggests that appointing procedures and arrangements for training and development remain ill-suited for the role.

Heads of Department face numerous factors that may facilitate or hinder their career growth and transition into new roles. Prior skills and knowledge from professional development are valuable in their advancement. Their approach to learning and understanding specific tasks and demands, such as interpersonal skills and change management skills, can improve performance. However, generally, training and development programmes are mainly intended for those who serve in the upper levels in higher education, such as chancellor, vice-chancellor and deans (Filan and Seagren, 2003, p. 22). Until recently, few or no formal opportunities were given to those who serve in the middle-level as heads of department. Buller (2013, p. 3) stated that “the job of chairing a department is probably the most important, least appreciated and toughest administrative position in higher education”.

Middlehurst (1993) and Gmelch and Wolverson (2002) suggested that, in order for academic leadership to fulfil its role and associated responsibilities, it was necessary to understand the day-to-day operations of the institution, sources of information, control mechanisms, points of leverage, key stakeholders and the purpose of their interventions, organisational culture, and organisational design. Knowledge of managing projects, teams, and budgets, and dealing with crises; all this knowledge will contribute to the broadening and deepening of experience necessary for leadership. A broad knowledge of how an institution, department or unit operates is essential for the HoD.

The challenges and opportunities faced by HoDs have created significant changes in the roles and responsibilities of academic leaders. The ambiguity and complexity of their duties require their roles to encompass managerial and academic aspects. Interestingly, the most able academic persons, as judged by teaching and research standards, are not always the most suited for managerial positions (Aziz *et al.*, 2005, p. 572). As a result, preparation, training and professional development of HoDs is important for an ideal candidate to maintain the two positions of departmental chair and academician.

The role played by HoDs are crucial to the success of the institution; at the same time, they are usually overworked and underprepared to undertake their roles. Considering the nature and characteristics of their roles, Filan (1999, p. 47) notes that “considering that this position is the most critical unit in the institution, the value of providing leadership training for chairs is too great not to invest in”. As mentioned by Altbach (2011, p. xii) “there has been a concern that since most university leaders arrive in their executive positions as a result of their academic achievements, their management, administrative, and planning capabilities need to be strengthened”. Thus, it is important to apply both administrative and academic leadership perspectives in meeting the leadership challenges facing higher education (Gmelch and Miskin, 2011).

Wolverton *et al.* (2005, p. 230) undertook a needs assessment task in an American university to help decide the content of a leadership development programme for newly appointed departmental chairs with a view that to begin preparation a year before taking up the post might be more beneficial to all concerned. They concluded that “three pervasive themes surfaced among departmental chairs – budgetary issues, personnel management and balancing roles.” Day *et al.* (2014) added learning, skills, personality, self-development, interpersonal skills and authenticity to this list.

Morris and Laipple (2015) noted that a substantial number of American academic administrators (e.g. deans, directors and departmental chairs) had little in the way of leadership development opportunities, stating that input was essential in financial stewardship, conflict management and vision. They also reported evidence of elevated incidences of burnout and of increasing disengagement of leaders in post. Women described that they felt swamped more so than men and less skilled in a few areas e.g. finance. However, they also felt more skilled at motivating others and tackling weak performance. Overall, many respondents described a low quality of life at work, having the potential to result in a loss of motivation and retention problems.

Avolio *et al.* (2009) reported on developmental, affective, behavioural, cognitive and performance effects connected to leadership development programmes. They suggested that programmes positively affected 66% of participants. This figure may not be altogether accurate given the complicated circumstances and competitive characteristics of leadership (Dopson *et al.*, 2016). Avolio *et al.* (2009) argued that leadership development programmes indirectly impact followers, organisational

learning, cultures and communities, but point out that the convoluted nature of these relationships makes the magnitude of impact difficult to rationalise.

Continuous training of departmental chairs with important skills needed for the position is important for universities given ongoing retirements among academic staff (Filan, 1999, p. 47). As the academic environment changes, so does the role of departmental heads (Raines, 2003, p. 36). Skills that may be important one day may need to be advanced further to be applied in the future. Therefore, continuous training would bridge the leadership gap as changes are applied. In addition, appropriate training of current chairs provides a “logical focus for training the next generation of college executive leaders” (Filan, 1999, p. 47).

What is critical in providing training and development to leaders is to ensure relevance. Dopson *et al.* (2016) referred to Bratton and Gold who used this model to examine the usefulness of leadership development programmes. They paid particular attention to training events and courses, which, according to them, were often based on theory, models and ideas that were presented as “best practice”. In conclusion, they suggested that these training events can create a gap between what individuals and managers need and what is provided (Bratton and Gold, 2012). Thus, the content of leadership development should be relevant to the role.

In addition, leadership development can be seen as a complex human process, involving leaders, followers, dynamic contexts, timing, resources, technology, history and luck, among many other things (Avolio, 2005, p. 4). Thus, leadership approaches will vary by context. For example, in some contexts, where the challenge is survival, more command and control leadership approaches may be needed to cope with financial crises. In more growth-based settings, or where collaboration is required, more “adaptive leadership” styles will be needed, where decoding or socially constructing contexts are appropriate. Dopson *et al.* (2016, p. 37) suggested that:

Prior to launching leadership development activities in the higher education sector we also need to ask important questions about the purpose of universities and higher education. What are the core tasks of university leaders? What skills and values do they need? The answer to these questions will depend on the different missions of the various organisations in this sector. The degree of institutional variation in the sector appears to be increasing.

4.7. Conclusion

To conclude, as it has been widely perceived that heads of department are the key factor to determine the educational success of universities, it is important to have a clear understanding of their role and responsibilities in order for them to perform effectively and make the real transition from being a lecturer to an academic leader. It is essential also to pay more attention to their role and to the skills required to enable them to fulfil their role effectively. However, understanding the role is not enough. Gmelch (2002) argues that, in order for chairs to function effectively, certain aspects of leadership skills and competencies need to be developed. Training and development can help in obtaining such skills and will enable HoDs to achieve the organization's mission and vision, and accomplish the task successfully.

CHAPTER 5: LEADERSHIP IN ARABIAN GULF STATES CULTURE AND PRACTICE

5.1. Introduction

Given that leadership is assumed to be affected by cultural influences, the aim in this section is to examine a variety of cultural influences identified as likely to impact upon leadership and management in the organizational context of the Arab Gulf region. Some of the features of Arab culture and social behaviours that impact upon people in their daily life, including the workplace, will be explored as they play a substantial role in leadership and management and on the way leadership is perceived. These social norms and traditions include power distance, collectivism, favouritism, *Wasta* (a form of nepotism), autocratic practice, differentiations between “in-group” and “out-group” actions, a pseudo-consultative style and the use of specific communication styles. Many of these characteristics will be examined within the context of Hofstede’s culture dimensions, for example, collectivism and power distance.

5.2. Culture and Leadership Practice

Culture has been defined as the beliefs, customs and norms that guide a particular group in society (Adler and Gundersen, 2007). Different studies have attempted to identify a set of dimensions or characteristics that explain observed variations between cultures (Hofstede, 2001a; House *et al.*, 2004). Hofstede (2001a, p. 9), defined national culture as “...the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from each other”. He goes on to categorise four dimensions: Power Distance; Individualism versus Collectivism; Uncertainty Avoidance and Long Term Orientation (Hofstede, 2001a, p. 8). Fundamental to Hofstede’s model are values, defined as tendencies, which have a strong influence on behaviour, leading individuals to prefer certain states of affairs over others.

By implication, it is suggested that leadership behaviour is culturally determined and hence varies markedly between cultures (Adler, 1991; Middlehurst, 1993). Looking at Hofstede’s studies (2001; 2009) on Arab countries, Gulf countries score high on the

power distance index, moderate in masculinity, low in individualism and high in uncertainty avoidance. Evidence to support these results is found in the work of Al-Faleh (1987) and Ali *et al.* (1997) who found that each of these dimensions influenced daily and working life in Arab countries. Table 6 shows some general characteristics of Arabian Gulf society relative to each dimension (Hofstede, 2009).

Table 6: Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions & Cultural characteristic of GCC societies

<p>Power Distance</p> <p>This dimension deals with the fact that all individuals in societies are not equal – it expresses the attitude of the culture towards these inequalities amongst us. Power Distance is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In GCC Societies</p> <p>People accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralization is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat</p> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">Individualism & Collectivist</p> <p>The fundamental issue addressed by this dimension is <i>the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members</i>. It has to do with whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "We". In Individualist societies people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family only. In Collectivist societies people belong to 'in groups' that take care of them in exchange for loyalty.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In GCC Societies</p> <p>Considered a collectivistic society. This is manifest in a close long-term commitment to the member 'group', be that a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and over-rides most other societal rules and regulations. The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group. In collectivist societies offence leads to shame and loss of face, employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms (like a family link), hiring and promotion decisions take account of the employee's in-group, management is the management of groups.</p> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">Uncertainty Avoidance</p> <p>The dimension Uncertainty Avoidance has to do with the way that a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? This ambiguity brings with it anxiety and different cultures have learnt to deal with this anxiety in different ways. <i>The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these</i> is reflected in the score on Uncertainty Avoidance</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In GCC Societies</p> <p>Have a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high Uncertainty Avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work) time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation.</p> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">Long Term Orientation</p> <p>This dimension describes <i>how every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future</i>, and societies prioritise these two existential goals differently. Normative societies. Which score low on this dimension, for example, prefer to maintain time-honoured traditions and norms while viewing societal change with suspicion. Those with a culture which scores high, on the other hand, take a more pragmatic approach: they encourage thrift and efforts in modern education as a way to prepare for the future</p> <p style="text-align: center;">In GCC Societies</p> <p>People in such societies have a strong concern with establishing the absolute Truth; they are normative in their thinking. They exhibit great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results.</p>

Source: Adapted from (Hofstede, 2001, 2009)

5.3. Social Norms and Traditions and Leadership Practic

5.3.1. Collectivist and Tribal Traditions

Hofstede (1980) described societies with collectivist tendencies as those where, from birth, people are members of strong in-groups (often the family) who expect loyalty in return for life-long care and protection. This collectivistic ethos is one which shapes relationships within Arabian Gulf society. Al-Twajiri and Al-Muhaiza (1996, p. 127) describe Arabs as traditionally organised into “tribes, families or areas” (in-groups) within which loyalties are robust, strengthened, in consequence, by pervasive social forces. As a result of this collectivist culture, personal relationships are paramount within GCC Arab societies, offering benefits to all involved (Brandt and Dixon, 2010).

The impact of tribal and collective culture is clear in organizational contexts, and on leadership styles in the workplace (Brandt and Dixon, 2010, p. 12). This, in turn, has caused issues within managerial systems and with Human Resource Management (HRM) practice (Ali, Azim and Krishnan, 1995; Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Since tribal values place a strong emphasis on commitment and obedience (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001), Rees and Althakhri (2008, p. 128) noted that, in order to fulfil responsibilities towards their in-group, nepotism is apparent in the form of favouritism (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001); first and foremost, individuals are required to ‘pay back’ what they owe regardless of the position they hold in society (Rees and Althakhri, 2008).

Managers place much importance on their interpersonal relationships (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001; Scott-Jackson, 2012). Scott-Jackson (2012) interviewed senior Gulf Arab managers, staff and students, the aim being to promote a range of training programmes for managers. They concluded that relationships were very important in all aspects of life, not just business, such that they perceived their company or team as members of their family. This also implies that a similar level of obligation is applicable to those being led. Further support for this was uncovered by Al-Twajiri and Al-Muhaiza (1996, p. 130) who examined Hofstede's cultural dimensions in GCC Countries. Finding that managers achieved individualist scores, they concluded that in the work place, managers feel they have a responsibility to look after their subordinates in return for loyalty, a similar position as that found in familial in-groups.

Brandt and Dixon (2010, p. 12) explained that members of strong, cohesive in-groups in their personal lives do not leave this membership at home, but take it into the workplace. In this case, the management style adopted can be described as a sharing style, but what is shared with whom depends entirely on relative position within the network. The closer the relationship, the greater the mutual trust and loyalty, and therefore the more that will be shared. Such closeness and sharing of information is often preceded by the phrase 'you are my brother' this delineating a certain level of mutual understanding and obligation (Scott-Jackson, 2008, p.7).

Ali (1995) describes how the qualities of authoritarian tribalism reflect open door policies, hierarchical structures and centralization of decision-making. Regulations and rules are dependent on the person who holds the power position within the hierarchical structure. However, leaders and managers are highly individualistic and usually separate themselves from the group, the open door policy being a conditional feature (Muna, 1980). This may be attributed to power distance as well as relative position.

5.3.2. Power Distance and Superiority

Power distance can be described as the extent to which subordinates expect and accept an unequal distribution of power within an organization and the extent to which they offer opposition to managers (Hofstede, 1980). In high power distance cultures, subordinates accept and feel comfortable with the situation they are in and will not question unfairness in the distribution of power because they do not want to be in an unpredictable situation. In contrast, in low power distance cultures, individuals may question what their superiors say.

The cultural values of the political environment and social traditions within the family and community play a central role regarding organizational power. Power flows smoothly when subordinates defer to their superiors' orders and seek their guidance based on fear, respect or admiration (Hussein, 2011); superiors, in return, protect and give patronage and affection to their subordinates (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). In Arab countries, high power distance is enjoyed by top managers. This is also engendered by the clear social distance between superiors and their subordinates, society as a whole functioning through hierarchical relations (Muna, 2003)

However, the increasing trend for Gulf countries to become integrated into the global economy suggests that new generations are likely to be less tolerant of autocratic styles and high power distance, and more likely to report a preference for participative and consultative styles. Moran *et al.* (2011) also argue that exposure to Western education and multinational management could mean that Arabian Gulf leaders will be less likely to behave entirely according to traditional cultural patterns.

5.3.3. Wasta

Wasta is another social behavioural norm deeply embedded within Arab society, impacting on the daily practice of leadership and management. It is an Arabic term coming from the word *waseet*, referring to a middleman whose main function is to act as an intermediary for two parties. *Wasta* can be thought of as a special position of influence enjoyed by members of the same group or tribe which can be extended to include close friends and acquaintances (Cunningham, Sarayrah and Sarayrah, 1994; Whitaker, 2011). Barnett *et al.* (2013, p. 2) defines it as an ‘implicit social contract’ obliging group members to treat others in the group favourably. This obligation is unqualified, there being no need for those in need to give direct reparation.

Traditionally, *wasta* was used as a means of mediation between families to resolve conflict. The head of the family, tribe or clan, acted as the *waseet* (middleman) to mediate and adjudicate within the tribal group and to negotiate points of conflict with other tribal groups. In so doing, *wasta* helped solidify and maintain the unity, integrity and the status of the tribal group within broader society (Al-Ramahi, 2008). However, the purpose of *wasta* has changed over time and been transformed into a means of securing economic benefits (Cunningham, Sarayrah and Sarayrah, 1994). Consequently, while *wasta* is regarded by many as an intrinsic part of the culture, it is now also a way of conducting business. It is widely practiced and socially accepted throughout Arab society, where it can be seen in government interaction, within business and how public policy is formulated (Mostafa and El-Masry, 2008).

Wasta also impacts on hiring policy and promotion decisions. It is often possible to find a workforce comprising friends and relatives who may, or may not, be qualified. This is not something restricted to Arab nationals, but may also be practised by expatriates who use their connections as *wasta* in both the public and private sectors.

It is common to see *wasta* when job searching and in gaining university admission (Barnett *et al.* 2013). With respect to recruitment, there seems to be a movement away from *wasta*, especially in the case of multinational and professional firms. It hampers economic development and impacts on business by providing unfair advantages and by encouraging decision making based on connections instead of merit, potentially reducing productivity. Barnett *et al.* (2013) claim that it can also be a way of circumventing problems rather than confronting them. Ultimately, *wasta* can be a source of nepotism that contradicts other features of the Islamic work ethic, including fairness and justice.

5.3.4. Communication Style

According to Hall (1976), cultures differ in the importance they place on words; different communication styles predominate in different cultures. Communication styles differ between high-context collectivist cultures and low-context individualistic cultures. Arab culture is high-context (Hofstede, 1980), with a reliance on knowledge of each other and the context of the communication, and less need for explicit verbalisations. This type of explicit communication is perceived as unnecessary at best, or threatening at worst. The individual in receipt of the communication assumes responsibility for reading ‘between the lines’ (Liu, 2016, p. 1).

To this end, in collectivist cultures, it is more important to preserve the relationship by adhering to cultural expectations or by showing worth through good deeds than to complete the task under discussion. It is believed that to ensure success, such respectful behaviour will be more effective; being polite takes precedence over any negative comment, even though that comment may be the truth (Gudykunst *et al.*, 1996).

5.4. Leadership Style and Characteristics

Scholars of Arab management have also identified a number of cultural and social characteristics which collectively describe Arabian Gulf management systems (Scott-Jackson, 2012) (Table 7).

Table 7: Arab Gulf Leaders and Managers Characteristics

Building Relationships & Leading as Head of the Family	Honouring Responsibility	Creating Bold Visions	Trading with Respect
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Actively seeks to build wide and influential relationships. Values loyalty. Adopts a 'person-oriented' rather than impersonal approach to business. Consults extensively to understand the thoughts and feelings of colleagues and create a sense of involvement. Seeks to get to know the personal issues of their people and help them where possible. Demonstrates strong loyalty to their boss and expects strong loyalty from their team 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Arab manager feels a great sense of shared responsibility to the family, tribe, company, country and the world including people, economy and environment. Tries to balance the needs of different communities to which they belong (personal, business, world, environment, nature etc.) but without seeing them as separate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seeks out and embraces challenge – always taking the tough road if it is the right one. Creates and communicates a highly-stretching and bold vision for the future. Sees any failure as a learning experience and not as personal failure. Has confidence in own decisions and ability to work through any mistake or risk. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is hospitable and friendly to all people irrespective of culture or nationality. Willing to learn from others of all backgrounds and nationalities. Adapts behaviour to other cultural norms, but without sacrificing the fundamentals. Exercises common sense and emotional intelligence.

Source: Adapted from Scott-Jackson *et al.* (2012) findings

Kassem and Habib (1989) grouped other characteristics of leadership in Arab culture into two models (Table 8):

Table 8: Models of Leadership in Arab Culture

Model of "Bedocaucracy"	The Arab Management Model
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The main components of this model are : a moderate degree of vertical and horizontal specialization; a low degree of coordination stemming from the exercise of personal authority and extensive use of committees; a low degree of behaviour formalization and highly "bendable" rules regarding personnel decisions (i.e selection, placement, promotion, compensation, etc.) based on flexible criteria subject to wide personal preferences and judgment and leading to overstaffing and disincentives to work hard, and a higher degree of centralization of decision making. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This model describes how Arab managers behave and approach their jobs. Gulf Arab managers tend to: resist innovation and change; seek authority and display bossiness; avert responsibilities and decision-making; admire and respect his superiors; have favourites; dislikes planning but likes to control; prefers secure to high-paying jobs. These behavioural tendencies seem to fit the cultural expectation facing typical managers.

Source: Adapted from Kassem and Habib (1989).

The Model of "Bedocaucracy" combines elements of both the western model of bureaucracy, with an emphasis on efficiency, and the traditional cultural model with

its emphasis on tribal solidarity, collective decision making and communal welfare. However, Kassem and Habib (1989) argue that, while this approach was effective in the past within large but relatively stable organisations, its appropriateness today is questionable.

It is suggested that high power distance explains the twin phenomena of excessive centralization and autocratic leadership. Gulf Arabs expect their leaders to lead them autocratically and to make decisions for them. Evidence for this comes from the reality that Saudis do not tolerate uncertainty and ambiguity, and show a preference to work with explicit rather than implicit rules. This also explains their tendency to delegate upwards, to avert responsibility, to insist on multiple signatures and stamps, and to refer every minor matter to a committee, thus reflecting the impact of social culture on management practice (Hofstede, 2001).

Consultation is another aspect of leadership style. Islam plays a significant role in creating a specific consultative environment called *Shura* which, in turn, is a major influence on Arab business decision making (Ali, 2011). Studies in the Arab World have consistently found that a consultative decision making process is the main approach used among managers (Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Ali, 1989; Ali, Azim and Krishnan, 1995; Yousef, 1998; Muna, 2003). However, the way leadership is practiced varies across different organizational contexts; in some cases, the evidence shows that practice contradicts the consultative style embodied in Islamic teachings.

Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) suggested that Arab executives find that the purpose of consultation is to fulfil the egos of the parties involved rather than to improve the quality of the decision. Ali (1989) argued that Arab managers may display a pseudo-consultative style in order to reduce tension and create a supportive environment. Further fine tuning in the application of this style was found by Ali, Taqi and Krishnan, (1997), who observed that Kuwaiti managers are pseudo-consultative in their decision making, in that they prepare subordinates to accept decisions that have already been made. It could be said that such a model is practiced as a combination of autocracy and democracy.

According to Kabasakal and Bodur (2002), the ideal leader in the Arab culture would be one who consults his subordinates in all matters before making the final decision himself. If the leader allowed the group to generate the final decision, this might be perceived as a sign of weakness; if he did not consult them, this would be a sign of dictatorship. A comparative study by Hollingsworth (1983), looking at the managerial styles of Arab and American leaders, found that while Arab leaders normally used a consultative form of management, a more participative form of leadership also existed, indicating the impact of western leadership on the Arabian leadership style. Overall, these studies indicate that a consultative style is generally favoured, but that one of the most common management styles practiced in Arab states is authoritarian (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001; Al-Omari, 2010; Al-Hummadi, 2013), something which may be considered to reflect high power distance.

5.4.1. Desirable Leadership

A study by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) examined Qatari and Kuwaiti leadership traits/behaviours based on known leadership theory from a culturally conscious perspective. Their results confirmed the view of attributes such as inspiration, motivation and knowledge as important in leader effectiveness, very much the profile of the Islamic leader (Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008). However, previous research identified Arab leaders as paternalistic and centralised, basing their decisions on intuition. That said, leadership styles are broadly consistent with social values and organizational practice and consistent with Islamic teachings with regard to integrity, the team, performance orientation and looking to the future.

Other studies have also examined the styles and characteristics of effective leadership in the Arab context. Enshassi and Burgess (1991) found that managerial effectiveness is related to managerial style. The successful manager is one who recognizes and comprehends the cultural differences between employees and combines two leadership dimensions: task and employee orientation. In another study Al-Mailam (2004) reported that the transformational style of leadership was linked to high levels of employee perception of leadership efficacy. The results also indicated that this leadership style was directly related to quality, employee satisfaction and increased productivity.

5.5. Conclusion

Research has revealed some distinctive characteristics linked to leadership in the Arab context. This research project will examine whether there are aspects of leadership among HoDs that reflect these particular cultural and contextual influences. In doing so it will examine to what extent leadership by HoDs in universities in Gulf regions differs from models advanced in the wider literature based almost exclusively on North American or European research.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

6.1. The Use of Qualitative Methods in Leadership Studies

Despite the wide use of qualitative research in social sciences as a primary method, empirical studies in the field of leadership using qualitative tools are still relatively unusual. According to Klenke (2016), the traditional dependence on the quantitative paradigm is still dominant in leadership research as the main data collection method. Although quantitative methods have been a successful tool for testing hypotheses, they often fail to give a deeper understanding of issues and problems.

According to Creswell (2014), different types of social research issue call for specific methods. For example, quantitative tools may be ideal if the research purpose is to identify some factors that affects the outcomes or for testing theory and hypotheses. By contrast, if the research is more explorative in nature and little has been done before, utilizing qualitative approaches may be more appropriate to understand the phenomena in question (Morse, 1991).

It has been acknowledged that leadership is a context-dependent phenomenon and that ignoring such factors would detract from its understanding. Creswell (2014) and Denzin and Lincoln (2011), in defining qualitative research, proposed that qualitative research is to study things and understand social and human problems in their natural setting. Therefore, qualitative approaches must play an important role in the study of leadership (Bryman, Stephens and Campo, 1996). Klenke (2016, p. 4) states that:

The study of leadership is particularly well suited for qualitative analysis because of the multidisciplinary nature of the field which has to be more open about paradigmatic assumptions, methodological preferences, and ideological commitments than many single disciplines

There are different types of qualitative method that may be used. Interviews are probably the most common method and are used in various types of qualitative research. For example, focus groups are a form of interview involving a group of people; ethnography also involves interviews (Bryman, 2012). However, in the study of leadership, Bryman (2004) and Klenke (2016) state that, until fairly recently, leadership research has relied heavily on quantitative methods and that, even with

more recent qualitative empirical studies, there is still a reluctance to adopt more effective tools in the field, such as interviews or focus groups.

Data collection for understanding perceptions and different opinions requires appropriate tools and methods, which are most often qualitative. The purpose of this study is to explore people's perceptions, opinions and thoughts about the role of the HoD in Arab universities. The study is particularly focused on identifying the perceived skills, behaviours and competencies that are needed by HoDs to be effective leaders in HEIs. In addition, the research attempts to understand the effectiveness of HoDs as perceived by leaders and staff from different levels in the selected university. Such perceptions reflect the views of individuals, their experiences and stories. To obtain such data, a qualitative approach is required. In this regard, the research will use semi-structured interviews as the way to encourage and allow participants to express their feelings and views, and to create interaction with the researcher. Moreover, bearing in mind that the nature of the interview provides insight on how people see the world and understand social and human problems, this approach will allow the researcher to achieve the purpose of the study.

6.2. Research Philosophy

Research is concerned with understanding the social world and how the components in it inter-relate (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2013). Klenke (2016, p. 14) writes that "it is not possible to conduct rigorous research without understanding its philosophical underpinnings". Theoretical issues are fundamental to any research process because they constitute what researchers 'silently think' about research (Scott and Usher, 2010). Therefore, philosophical assumptions about ontology, epistemology and axiology are critical in undertaking a research process (Klenke, 2016). In the following sections, clarity on the philosophical approaches and research paradigm for this study will be provided.

The ontological approach addresses the philosophical question about the nature of reality and how it affects ways of doing research and engaging in other forms of inquiry. This approach focuses on ways of life and the relations behind social realities. Ontology, in the view of qualitative researchers, assumes an emphasis on multiple and

dynamic realities that are *context-dependent* and *socially constructed* by individuals from within their own contextual interpretation, with no consideration of external realities. Ontological assumptions affect opinions and views on what is real and what is not. Such assumptions must be identified and considered so that the findings of particular phenomena can be objective and credible (Klenke, 2016, pp. 15–16).

Epistemology consists of appropriate methods of finding out the nature of the world through knowledge acquisition. This approach emphasizes knowledge acquisition and use to form the basis and background for explanation of social realities. The epistemological viewpoint for qualitative researchers, according to Beck (1979) in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 15), is:

a subjective rather than an objective undertaking, as a means of dealing with the direct experience of people in a specific context, and where social scientists understand, explain and demystify social reality through the eyes of different participants; the participant themselves define the social reality.

6.3. Research Paradigm

In the context of qualitative research, Creswell (2012) defines paradigms as “worldviews”; Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 107) describe a paradigm as

A set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimate or first principles. It deals with a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the “world”, an individual’s place in and the range of possible relationships to that world.

A paradigm, according to Bryman (1988, p. 4) is “a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, how results should be interpreted, and so on”. Therefore, a paradigm is a set of assumptions that outline possible methods of conducting research on a particular issue of social interest (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2009).

Research paradigms are grouped into positivist and interpretive categories. The positivist and interpretivist paradigms can be said to “have been enormously influential in the development of quantitative and qualitative approaches to social research studied” (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2009, p. 11). A positivist paradigm is associated with quantitative research and views the social world as an objective reality irrespective of people’s interpretations. This paradigm assumes that people make

observations from an objective point of view to understand the social realities. On the other hand, an interpretive paradigm views the social world as subjective realities accumulated from people's experiences and interactions. According to this paradigm, the understanding of social realities involves adoption of epistemological perspectives to understand the subject meanings of the realities. Further, propagators of an interpretive paradigm believe that they impact on the research participants and *vice versa* (Dimmock and Lam, 2000, p. 18).

Weber (1864–1930) argued that, to increase knowledge of the social world, it is necessary to understand it from the point of view of the people being studied, rather than explaining human action by means of cause and effect (Weber, 1949). Therefore, “there cannot be an objective reality which exists irrespective of the meanings human beings bring to it” (Briggs, Morrison and Coleman, 2012, p. 23). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.15) add that:

... individuals' behaviour can only be understood by the researcher sharing their frame of reference: understanding of individuals' interpretations of the world around them has to come from the inside, not the outside.

Wilhelm Dilthey, who was a key contributor to the development of interpretivist thought, proposed that:

Social research should explore 'lived experiences' in order to reveal the connections between the social, cultural and historical aspects of people's lives and to see the context in which particular actions take place (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003, p. 7).

Understanding of the phenomenon under study is dependent upon the knowledge of the researcher and their capability to interpret data. Lewis and Ritchie (2003, p. 7) write that:

Those practising qualitative research have tended to place emphasis and value on the human, interpretative aspects of knowing about the social world and the significance of the investigator's own interpretations and understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

For this study, the experiences and opinions of the respondents were considered to be important. Such experiences provide important information on relations between social, cultural and historical aspects of the subject area.

An interpretive paradigm has been seen as an integral part of qualitative research. This paradigm places the emphasis on interpretation as the major process of understanding the social world. The interpretive concept provides for inclusion of social, historical, psychological and historical factors in shaping understanding of the social world. The qualitative research methodology used for this research has reflected this in the use of data collection methods that provide a holistic understanding of responses from participants. In this way, the interrelations between different aspects of participants' lives can be established (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003, p. 7).

In contrast, quantitative research uses predetermined measures that can easily fit the specific hypothesis developed by the researcher. According to Henn, Weinstein and Foard (2009) a positivistic paradigm is used in quantitative research to make these measures suitable. Research outcomes in quantitative research are highly dependent on external factors and processes. However, for this research, the desire to understand human actions from the perspective of participants in an interpretivist approach makes such predetermined measures unsuitable. For this study, therefore, an interpretive paradigm was used to allow participants to provide accounts of their world in their own language and styles.

It is imperative to consider different research paradigms and philosophical approaches when undertaking any form of research. These parameters can influence the way research is organized, conducted and concluded. Understanding and discussing these parameters, prior to commencing a research study, ensures that the researcher's biases and misconceptions are understood and minimized. Particular consideration of how ontology and epistemology relate and feed into each other in comprehending research assumptions is crucial (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2009).

6.4. Research Methodology

Denzin and Lincoln define qualitative research as “a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible” (2011, p. 3). This study has used an interpretive research philosophy to identify and understand the perspectives of the participants involved in the study. This approach enables the researcher to gather necessary information and understand people’s perceptions as well as their observations and interactions with the elements and issues under study.

According to Lewis and Ritchie (2003), natural science methods are not appropriate for conducting a social study because of the law-like properties that guide these research methods. Therefore, exploration of a social issues requires the understanding of social realities through studying and gathering information from research participants, then analysing such data to create meaning and relationships. Essentially, the researcher gains the insights of the study topic through interactions with the participants who are relied upon to provide appropriate data and understanding of research topics.

An interpretive research methodology is crucial in understanding areas of interest from the perspectives of individuals as well as to investigate the interaction of individuals in their social, cultural and historical environments. The research methodology adopted should use the appropriate data collection and analytical tools. This should lead to understanding of the research topic based on the interpretations and interactions between participants and researchers (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) point out that there is no universally accepted method of conducting qualitative research. Researchers have different ways of carrying out qualitative research depending on their beliefs about the nature of the social world and the extent of knowledge about it (ontology), the nature of knowledge and how it can be acquired (epistemology), the aims and objectives of the research, the nature of the study population, the target audience for the research findings, and the funders of the research, as well as the position and environment of the researchers themselves.

6.4.1. Case Study Approach

This section explains the choice of a case study as the methodology or research strategy for the present investigation.

The case study method allows a researcher to explore and investigate a real life phenomenon through detailed contextual analysis within a specific context. Robson (2002, p. 178) defines the case study as "...a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence". Yin (1984, p. 23) defines the case study research method "as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used." As this current research project is based in a real-life situation, the case study approach is deemed the most appropriate.

There are different ways to conduct a case study. Yin (2013) differentiates between single case studies and multiple-case studies, the choice dependent on the issue in question and purpose of the study. For example, in situations where there are no other cases available for replication, the researcher can adopt the single-case design. Yin (2013) suggests that a case study design should be considered when the aim is to answer "how" and "why" and to cover contextual conditions that the researcher believes are relevant to the phenomenon under investigation, which is one of assumptions of the current study.

The aim of the present study is to investigate the experience of departmental leadership and what make HoDs effective leaders based on individual perceptions in their real context where leadership occurs. The specific focus is on the contextual factors that might influence leadership practice and requirements in HE in Qatar. Qatar University is the only public university in the country; thus, a holistic, single case study is the most appropriate approach in order to explore and understand perspectives of leadership from different groups within the case. It could be argued that the analysis might have treated each college/department as a single project/unit within the case, examining the same issues from different seniority and disciplinary contexts in greater detail. However, a holistic approach was considered more appropriate because there

were no ‘logical subunits can be identified and when the relevant theory underlying the case study is itself of a holistic nature’ (Yin, 2003, p. 42).

Strengths and Weaknesses of Using a Case Study

There are a number of advantages in using case studies. Firstly, by investigating the the phenomenon of leadership within the context that it occurs means that the data collected is embedded within that context (Yin, 1984); the activity cannot be separated from the context (Yin, 2013). Secondly, in-depth analyses provide better detail and clearer insight into the subject under study. Detailed qualitative data allows exploration of the complexities of real-life situations and the dynamic characteristics of the social world context that may not be captured through, for example, a survey. Moreover, employing a case study strategy can also offer researchers the flexibility to adopt a variety of methods and triangulate multiple sources of evidence so as to be able to examine, explore and understand relevant phenomena (Stake, 1995). Flyvbjerg (2006, p. 235) comments that the case study is important in that it produces practical (context-dependent) knowledge and concrete experience, which are valuable in helping researchers to learn and to develop their professional skills.

Despite these advantages, the case study strategy is not without criticism. The question commonly raised is “how can you generalize from a single case?” (Yin, 1984, p. 21). Case studies provide very little basis for scientific generalization since they use a small number of subjects, some conducted with only one subject, meaning that generalizable conclusions cannot be reached (Tellis, 1997). Stake (1995) agrees that it is unsafe to generalize from a single case study, but argues that they can be used to generate hypotheses but not to test them. Theory building is dependent upon other methods of inquiry; thus, case studies cannot contribute to scientific development except at the generation stage. However, Flyvbjerg (2006) strongly rejects the criticism, asserting that “...it is incorrect to conclude that one cannot generalize from a single case. It depends on the case one is speaking of and how it is chosen”, because the strategic selection of cases (e.g. random or information-oriented selection) can increase the generalizability of case studies. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) agree, emphasising that case studies are generalizable to form theoretical propositions, but are not applicable to whole populations or universes.

Limitations of time and resources can also be challenging for case study researchers (Robson, 2002), but the simultaneous collection of data from multiple sources of evidence within the case can save time. This allows researchers to address criticisms that, as a methodology, it takes up too much time, producing massive data sets and documentation (Yin, 1984). The real problem here, however, is one of data management.

One of the greatest concerns about case study research is its potential lack of rigour due to a tendency for the researcher to make a biased interpretation of the data. Yin (2003, p. 9) wrote 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”.

Case study research is more than simply conducting research on a single individual or situation. This approach has the potential to deal with simple, but complex, situations. It enables the researcher to answer “how” and “why” type questions, while taking into consideration how a phenomenon is influenced by the context within which it is situated. Therefore, given the exploratory and explanatory nature of the research aims and objectives for this project, and the absence of relevant HE research in Qatar, a detailed investigation of leadership as a critical factor for institutional success was required. It can be concluded that the case study strategy was appropriate for investigating departmental leadership in Qatar HE. This was confirmed by the work of Dul and Hak (2007) who observed that the case study is the preferred strategy for exploratory research.

6.4.2. QU As A Case

Following the research aim and purpose, QU was selected as an appropriate case for this study. This choice can be rationalized in different ways. Given that QU is the first and only public HEI in the country, this institution is the national leading HE institution in the country playing a vital role in Qatar society. The University experienced radical reform and change in 2003, mainly due to the introduction of new strategies and vision. Numerous initiatives were put in place which have met with considerable success. This growth and transformation of the University were key factors making it the ideal choice for a case study. It was believed that QU was an

information-rich case to study in depth. Therefore, it was assumed that HoDs would be required to have high levels of competence, knowledge and skills to perform their role effectively and contribute to the successful transformation of the University. Information gleaned from such individuals would have a substantial impact on the understanding of leadership in HE, knowledge and development.

Finally, a crucial aspect for case study research is access for the purposes of data collection. In this case, full access was provided by the University.

6.5. Methods of Data Collection

Qualitative research methodology relies on various methods of data collection, such as interviews, observations and questionnaires. Interpretive research methods provide insights and understandings by studying the participant perspectives. Both open-ended and semi-structured interviews were used to obtain data for this study

6.5.1. Qualitative Interviews

Qualitative interviews were employed in this study to obtain first-hand data consistent with the interpretive paradigm of qualitative research. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) stress that qualitative interviews allow participants to share their experiences and express their views, while allowing the researcher multiple channels for collecting data. Interviews allow the researcher to create a rapport and relationship with the participants. This provides an opportunity to seek responses for more complex and personal issues that relate to the research study.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) and Klenke (2016) agree that qualitative interviews provide a way of generating empirical data about the social world. Qualitative interviewing goes beyond mere fact gathering and attempts to construct meaning and interpretation in the context of conversation. In this respect, interviews are a special form of conversation where the researcher has the opportunity of constructing meaning and interpreting data gathered depending on the context which the participants provided such responses. However, “it is not an ordinary everyday conversation” (Dyer, 1995, p. 56); rather, “question-based with specific purpose and

specifically planned, which the researcher has an obligation to set up and to abide by the different rules of the game ” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 409).

Kvale (2008) further points out that the main purpose of interviews is to reach an understanding through the conversations between the researcher and the participants. Interviews are mainly preferred in qualitative research because they allow an interpretation of contexts, participants’ behaviour, events, and patterns (Seidman, 2006; Bryman, 2012). Qualitative interviews also allow the researcher to be actively engaged with participants on issues of concern to get rich responses and seek clarifications on new questions and on the complex responses provided (Bryman, 2012). Fontana and Frey (2000, p. 645) state that “it is the most common and powerful way in which we can understand our fellow human being”.

Seidman (2006) identifies qualitative interviews as the most appropriate approach for providing access to people’s behavioural context, creating opportunities for researchers to understand the meaning of behaviours. Rubin and Rubin (2011, p. 1) point out that “the primary concern of the researcher was to gain perceptions into people experiences and views. Thus interviews provided the best methods to achieve and collect detailed responses”. Interviews also allow respondents openly to express their experiences in their desired ways and allow the researcher to obtain an appropriate interpretation of the social realities facing the participants, thus providing the necessary factual data for field of research (Rubin and Rubin, 2011). However, “researchers need to ask the right questions and extract information needed as directly as possible, and here is where the challenge lies” (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995, p. 2).

Types of Interview

The type of interview adopted for a particular research project is dependent on the type and amount of data that needs to be collected. Structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews are the common types of qualitative interviews. Bryman (2013) notes that structured interviews have fixed questions and require pre-determined responses, usually a ‘yes’ or ‘no’. Structured interviews are normally used in instances where the research timetable is very tight or when the research is seeking confirmation of data with no need for explanation (Klenke, 2016).

The assumption in structured interviews is that the interviewer asks all participants similar questions and in the same order, and that they provide short answers since no deep thoughts and views are required. According to Patton (2002) structured interviews are based on an interview protocol using a question and answer format with a fixed order and wording. The interviewer asks each interviewee a series of pre-established questions with a limited set of response categories; thus, interactions between both parties are kept to a minimum. Structured interviews have limitations on the space that they provide for a deep understanding on the important aspects and concepts of the study topic (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

By contrast, semi-structured interviews provide a combination of both structured questions and open-ended questions. This type of interview provides a certain level of flexibility for asking and receiving responses from participants (Klenke, 2016). In semi-structured interviews, questions are often very general and the researcher can include additional questions not originally on the schedule. Bryman (2015, p. 201) defines semi-structured inquiry as:

... a context in which the interviewer has a series of general questions in an interview schedule but is able to vary the sequence of questions. These questions are more general in the way they are posed to participants as opposed to typical questions found in a structured interview schedule.

Unstructured interviews comprise open-ended questions generated from the listed topics of study. The researcher forms questions from the immediate relationship with the environment and with the participants instead of relying on structured questions (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003). Unstructured interviews gather more data compared with other types of data, but are time consuming, and in many instances lead to collection of irrelevant data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Klenke, 2016). Bearing in mind all these issues, semi-structured interviews were used as the appropriate method of data collection for this project.

Semi-Structured Interviews

From the previous section, qualitative interviews differ in terms of their flexibility (Patton, 2002; Bryman, 2012), in the openness of their purpose and the extent to which they are exploratory (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). In this research, there was much interest in the interviewees' points of view; thus, semi-structured questioning

was the appropriate tool for the study. Semi-structured interviews provide more flexibility by allowing the researcher to gain deeper understanding of the study topic instead of relying on predetermined questions to gather information (Bryman, 2015). The probing, exploring and investigative nature of semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gain more understanding on ideas, information and reactions of the participants relating to the study topic. However, Smith (1995) warns that the flexibility of semi-structured interviews may lead to deviation from the study topic and researchers should therefore ensure that they cover all issues within the time limit.

The aim of this study was to gain insights, views, perceptions and opinions of individuals on departmental leadership in the Gulf States and required the use of semi-structured interviews to collect required data. It offered scope for the participants to talk about their views and experiences in depth. Unstructured interviews were avoided because of the minimal direction and control available to the interviewer (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). Further, participants should be allowed freedom to respond to interview questions in their own way, but within the established frameworks (Klenke, 2008). Thus, unstructured interviews would not have allowed the researcher to have a level of control to ensure optimum coverage of the study topic. It also might have resulted in taking the research in different directions.

Interview Structure and Topic Guide

The researcher used an interview guide that consisted of a list of topics to be covered in data collection. For the purposes of the study, the researcher used an interview guide that consisted of a list of topics to be covered in data collection with key initiating questions developed on the basis of the literature reviewed. The main topics were derived from the research aims, objectives and questions; probing and follow-up questions were used as methods of clarification and elaboration to gain and elicit detailed answers based on individual experiences. The topic guide was used for all participants alike to explore perceptions of how effective leadership was viewed. Follow-up questions were phrased slightly differently based on the participant's position and experience (see Appendix A).

A combination of close-ended and open-ended questions for participants was constructed from these topics (Bryman, 2015). Notably, the research topic guided the

main questions, but the mode of propping and following up questions was unstructured, which allowed for flexibility in asking more questions and seeking clarifications (Klenke, 2016, p. 127). This method of data collection helped in gathering information through questions originally not on the interview schedules. Questions that were not included in the guide were also asked, picking up on things said by participants; in particular, the researcher attempted to obtain an appreciation of what participants see as significant and important in relation to each of the topic areas. The researcher was also familiar with the setting in which the interviewees worked, and that helped in understanding what they were saying in their own terms.

6.5.2. Sampling

Purposive Sampling

The purposive sampling approach was employed in this study. In purposive sampling, “researchers hand-pick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 156). In this way, participants were selected in a strategic way to satisfy specific purposes set for the research project. The selection of participants in this sampling technique is based on their relevance to the aim of the study and the research questions that are being posed (Mason, 2002; Bryman, 2012). In choosing such an approach, the researcher needs to be clear about “the criteria that will be relevant to the inclusion or exclusion of units of analysis” (Bryman, 2012, p. 418). The study sample was constructed by considering the purpose and aim of the research. The aim of this research is to explore and investigate departmental leadership in GCC higher education through the views of its stakeholders; thus, participants were purposively sampled to include relevant university stakeholders. It was important for the researcher to select an informed sample; purposive sampling approach was considered to be the most appropriate sampling technique for this study.

Different groups of university stakeholders were selected to reflect a variety of views, opinions and experiences. The stakeholders were initially selected because they occupied a relevant position to the investigation. The first sample was drawn from people who held senior managerial and leadership position within the University, and included the University President, Vice Presidents, Deans and Associate Deans. This

group was chosen as it was believed that they would provide in-depth knowledge and experience related to the research. Most of the participants in this sample agreed to participate, and were interviewed as planned. Two deans did not turn up for the interviews citing legitimate commitment reasons. The second group involved middle level leaders who were already in the position of HoD. This group was selected as they provided immediate experience of serving as HoD. These people faced the actual responsibilities for this position that other groups might not have experienced or might have experienced in the past. Given their direct leadership roles in departments, this sample was assumed to be very resourceful in providing rich responses on their leadership experiences. Opportunities were provided to allow this group to reflect deeply on their experiences in serving in this position and they provided different responses that other groups might not have thought worth mentioning. The third sample was drawn from different academic faculties in the University who worked in the same departments that the HoDs were selected from. It was assumed faculty would be one of the most relevant group to the current issue, they are the people who are led by their Heads, and some may have had experience of being a HoD. Thus their views and insights would contribute to better and deeper understanding of the issue from a different perspective.

Snowball Sampling

Purposive sampling usually involves more than one technique (Bryman, 2012). In this study, the participants were initially purposively sampled without intending to employ a snowball approach. Different groups of university stakeholders, who were believed to be relevant to the aims and research questions, were picked. However, while conducting interviews with the initial participants, others, who were also regarded to be relevant to the issues being studied, were identified. Thereafter, a snowball sampling approach was applied.

Snowball sampling is a non-probability strategy for qualitative research sampling in which, according to (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 158):

Researchers identify a small number of individuals who have the characteristics in which they are interested. The people are then used as informants to identify, or put the researchers in touch with, others who qualify for inclusion and these, in turn, identify yet others - hence the term snowball sampling (also known as ‘chain-referral methods’).

Snowball sampling is often used when recruiting participants is difficult, especially due to their societal or employment positions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). For this study, gaining access and recruiting participants was not an issue; however, the snowball sampling approach was used to expand the scope of the research.

Sample Size

According to different authors, one of the main issues in qualitative sampling is the difficulty in establishing a numerical set or establishing specific guidelines of how many interviews are needed to be carried out (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Baker, Edwards and Doidge, 2012; Bryman, 2012). Bryman (2012, p. 418) states that; “there is little definitive and unambiguous guidance in the qualitative research community regarding how large a sample should be”. Some researchers suggest setting a maximum and a minimum number of respondents that a particular research project should have. However, there are no agreed numbers of what the minimum or maximum numbers should be. For example, Rubin and Rubin (2011) suggest that ideally the number of interviews and respondents for qualitative research should be between thirty and fifty depending on the breadth of the research topic. Bryman referred to Warren’s (2002) suggestion that, for a qualitative interview study to be

published, the minimum number of interviews required should be between twenty and thirty. He also cited Gerson and Horowitz (2002) who suggest that fewer than 60 interviews for a particular research project cannot support convincing conclusions, but that more than 150 produces too much material to analyse effectively and expeditiously (Bryman, 2012, p. 425). Other researchers agree that the answer to the question on the number of interviews for a qualitative research is complicated (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011), and in some cases is impossible to resolve (Bryman, 2012). However, the most important issue in deciding how many qualitative interviews are sufficient should be determined by analysing the purposes of the research, particularly the type of research questions to be addressed and the precise methodology. For this research, it was decided to follow the approach advocated by Brannen and Nilsen (2011).

The sample size for this study may be considered relatively small. It comprised 39 participants from a single, small size university. The study aimed to interview all the senior position holders, all Deans from seven colleges and two Heads of Departments from each college, and two faculty members from each department. Given the time, resources available and the level of diversity needed within the research sample, this number was believed to be sufficient to obtain sufficient data to help reach a convincing conclusion. The researcher also allowed for inclusion of additional participants if the identified respondents did not turn up or could not complete the entire interview process.

Approaching Participants

The researcher submitted institutional consent application forms to the University to gain access to conduct interviews in the university concerned. Similar consent was sought from individual participants before the start of the interview. However, no formal consent was used in the pilot study.

The initial contact was made through the University's Vice-President. This contact included an email containing information sheet detailing the study aims and objectives. Permission was granted and the same information was circulated to the other participants by the Vice-President. Emails were the main point of contact with the participants, and provided all necessary details to help them decide whether to take

part or not. The interviews were also agreed upon and set through emails. Almost all participants were very cooperative and showed a high level of interest in participating in the study, suggesting that they considered the study to be very important.

Recruiting participants was not a difficult task. However, other aspects were time consuming; in particular, arranging and scheduling the interviews was not an easy task, especially managing to arrange appointments with all 39 people in the short time available when the researcher was in the country. The time and place for the interviews were chosen based on the participants' preferences and convenience. The interviews took place from December 2012 to January 2013. A reminder email was sent to each participant one week prior to the date of the interview. Three or four interviews were conducted per day. Most of the interviews were conducted in participants' offices. However, some preferred to be interviewed over the weekend, in which case the interviews were conducted in places of their choice. Most interviews lasted for one hour; they were conducted mainly in English

6.5.3. Ethics

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 61) argue that "ethical issues may stem from the kind of problems investigated and the methods used to obtain valid and reliable data. This means that each stage in the research sequence raises ethical issues". Although, the nature of this topic (leadership experience), the context (the selected university) and the method of data collection (semi-structured interviews) should not have created an ethical problem, the type of data collected might contain sensitive and private information. It was therefore necessary to consider how the data would be stored and how the data could be reported in a manner that would guarantee anonymity (Oliver, 2003, p. 17).

As a part of participants' rights, informed consent must be given and obtained. This includes information about their right to refuse to take part or to withdraw once the research has begun. Informed consent has been defined by Crandall and Diener (1978, p. 57) as "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions". This definition comprises four elements: competence, voluntarism, full information, comprehension (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 76). In this way,

researchers can be assured that the participants' rights have been considered and guarded.

Written informed consent was sought prior to each interview, while adequate information about the research aims and interview purpose was sent to each participant individually by email. This being an exploratory study using semi-structured interviews and open-ended questions, it was difficult to cover all the issues under investigation. Confidentiality, anonymity, non-identifiability and non-traceability issues were guaranteed prior to and during each interview.

To ensure research ethics were upheld, the research used the principles of informed consent as suggested by Crandall and Diener (1978, p. 57) and (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 76); however, some of those principles were difficult to apply.

Competence implies that responsible, mature individuals will make correct decisions if they are given the relevant information. Participants in this study held very responsible positions within the University so the researcher could fairly assume them to be mature enough to take the correct decision in taking part or not.

The principle of voluntarism states that research participants should freely agree to take part in the research and guarantees that exposure to risk is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily. This was not a problem in the present study as they were given the opportunity to refuse to take part. It was fully explained to them in the information sheet and email that taking part in this research was completely voluntary.

Full information implies that consent is fully informed. In qualitative interviews, this can be hard and sometimes it is impossible to inform participants with exact information especially if using open-ended questions. Barbour (2013, p. 88) writes "that it can be hard to spell out exactly what the focus of the research will be. In practice, it would be impossible for researchers to inform participants on everything about a study; thus, the strategy of 'reasonably informed consent' has to be applied (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 76). Bryman (2012) adds to this and argues that the nature and direction of qualitative interviews can be unpredictable and therefore that it is more difficult to be specific about some issues under investigation. Giving the nature of the method of data collection employed in this study (open-ended

and semi-structured interviews), it was sometimes difficult to meet this criterion. Although information about the research, such as, what is the study about, who is undertaking it, why is being investigated and how it is to be promoted (Bryman, 2012 p.138), was explained as fully as possible, the researcher believes that it was impossible to give them all the exact information and that provision of too much information might have caused some confusion. The strategy of ‘reasonably informed consent’ was applied, see guideline in Table 9:

Table 9: Guidelines for Reasonably Informed Consent

<p>1 A fair explanation of the procedures to be followed and their purposes.</p> <p>2 A description of the attendant discomforts and risks reasonably to be expected.</p> <p>3 A description of the benefits reasonably to be expected.</p> <p>4 A disclosure of appropriate alternative procedures that might be advantageous to the participants.</p> <p>5 An offer to answer any enquiries concerning the procedures.</p> <p>6 An instruction that the person is free to withdraw consent and to discontinue participation in the project at any time without prejudice to the participant.</p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>Source : US Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Institutional Guide to DHEW Policy, 1971</i></p>

Source: Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 78)

Finally, the principle of comprehension relates to the level that the participants understand the nature of the research project, especially considering the procedures and risks involved in the process. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) indicate that the researcher should ensure that the participants comprehend the situation they are putting themselves into. They suggest using highly educated subjects or engaging consultants to explain difficulties. However, this study was not complicated and was easily understood by all the individuals comprising the study sample.

6.5.4. Interview Process

Pilot Study

The research process was based on in depth, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. Each interview was based on a pre-prepared topic guide and some questions previously notified. New topics and questions of interest were also included in the interviews. Semi-structured interviews were chosen in order to obtain participants’ perceptions and views of their academic leadership experiences. The researcher first selected the topic guide with some questions that were checked by the supervisor. These questions and the interviewing style were then tested with a small group of individuals who also

had some experience in the field. Three people were interviewed in this pilot study, who were friends and originally from the Gulf countries, but based in the UK at that time. Two of these interviewees held senior positions in their academic institutions. In this way, it was hoped to obtain experience in conducting interviews and to obtain good suggestions and feedback about the chosen method and about how it felt to be a participant. Many valuable lessons were learned from this pilot study. Afterwards, the interview guide was revised and some questions added that had not previously been included. In particular, the researcher found that, in conducting the interviews, it was sometimes important to describe events, real or imaginary, in order to clarify meanings and stimulate responses. This resulted in the researcher gaining more information and deeper understandings. The researcher also realised the importance of being a good listener. The pilot interviews gave the researcher first-hand experience of conducting interviews. This allowed for adequate preparation before engaging in the real interviews.

Prior to the Main Interviews

Prior to the main interviews, the researcher explained the aim and objectives of the study to the interviewees. Although the researcher provided all the information that was thought to be necessary in the participant information sheet, at the beginning of each interview it was felt to be important to give them a brief introduction. The researcher then asked them to read through the informed consent form and sign it. For those who had not actually paid much attention or spent time to read through the form, the researcher had to read and explain each point to make sure that they were aware of the research ethics. One reason for this was that qualitative research based on interviews is relatively unusual in Arabic culture.

Participants took the interviews seriously and actively engaged with the topic and related issues. Some interviewees provided many details and were very forthcoming; others tended to go off topic and had to be re-directed. The researcher was inexperienced and did not find the interviews an easy process, especially at the start. However, the pilot study and a practical training course attended before undertaking the fieldwork were very helpful in this regard.

Interview Mood

Conducting interviews sometimes required a very official atmosphere, especially when dealing with participants drawn from senior management. The presentation of an interviewer could influence the way participants gave responses. However, not all interviews required an official atmosphere. As a first experience, the researcher initially assumed that it was necessary to employ a formal mood while interviewing, but it became apparent that on some occasions a more informal approach was needed, often talking more generally on issues other than the research as an “ice-breaker”. Finally, the researcher realised the need to determine the approach necessary depending on the personality of the participant.

During the interview

During the interviews, the researcher concentrated on two main aspects of the process, expressing curiosity and openness, and establishing rapport.

Establishing rapport

The aim of conducting interviews and using a data collection tool is to gain an understanding of a particular area of study. Adoption of a non-judgmental stance towards participants’ thoughts and feelings helps to establish a rapport that builds trust and develop a relationship between the researcher and the participant. Rapport is very important when collecting data through face-to-face methods; the research is also more interesting for the participants because they will feel they can be able to ask questions.

In this project, the researcher spared some time to engage the participants in various issues of common interest as well as on general issues such as current events and academic developments. This was very helpful to start building rapport with participants. The researcher found that the main topic that made them fully engaged and open was conversation about their academic background and their university. The researcher formed the impression this was an early opportunity to pave the way for more fluid dialogue and warm relationships. Early, positive relations usually resulted in more interaction and gaining more detailed responses from interviewees. However, one drawback was that some of the research time had to be sacrificed in order to build these positive relations and establish common ground for the interviews. Establishing

a rapport before engaging the participant in the data collection process helped the researcher to understand the attitude and willingness of the participant to cooperate, and, thus, to choose wisely the interview questions.

After the formal interview, the researcher gave each participant the opportunity to talk informally, sharing their interests. The dynamics of the meeting changed significantly. Also, the researcher felt that it helped to create a relaxed atmosphere that helped with reflection on the research topic after making sure that the research aim had been appreciated and understood.

Expressing curiosity

Klenke (2008, 2016) points out that expressing curiosity and openness towards contradictions and disagreement during the interview process is very important in obtaining the perspective of participants. Using semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to probe and discuss issues in more detail whenever needed. The flexibility of semi-structured interviews, as a method of data collection, allowed the researcher to re-phrase questions that seemed challenging to the participants. Participants sometimes provided openings for a new line of questioning through their responses. This provided good opportunities for the researcher to gather more and varied information. The use of general topics provided an overview of leadership experience, while specific probing questions provided more detailed interpretations and experiences on leadership.

To achieve a level of depth and detail, the researcher used the main topics to probe and follow up questions based on the participant's previous comments. The main questions were designed to focus on the primary issues under investigation, and to ensure the overall topics were covered. The question follow-up strategy was used to gain very detailed answers, and to allow the participants to elaborate on previous comments. Klenke (2008, p. 129) says that propping and following up questions are used "when the researcher is trying to understand the meaning that informants attach to the original question" .

At this stage, listening skills are very important. Most conversations were natural and focused on the research topic that resulted in the researcher digging deeper into meaningful areas of the study. The researcher believes that this resulted from building

a level of trust with the participants. For instance, some interviewees trusted the researcher to such a degree that it led to providing details and sharing some private and sensitive information, which was not related to the study. However, the process of establishing a rapport should never be exaggerated because it can interfere with the research timetable; it is also recognised that a certain distance between the researcher and participant should be maintained (Patton, 2002).

In the view of the researcher, data collection through interviews requires high skills on the part of the researcher if a quality research outcome is to be guaranteed. Many considerations need to be taken into account before going into the fieldwork, since its success depends on the cooperation of the respondents. In this case, as a new researcher, it was a challenge to manage 39 interviews in order to obtain as much useful data as possible and to achieve the main objectives of conducting those interviews. Despite the challenges experienced in data collection for this study, the objective of this stage of the study were fully accomplished.

6.6. Data Analysis and Data Management

In this study, an interpretive paradigm was used based on people's experiences and interpretive meaning. Therefore, a thematic analysis approach was chosen as an appropriate method for data analysis. According to Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2011, p. 10), thematic analyses:

... require more involvement and interpretation from the researcher. Thematic analyses move beyond counting explicit words or phrases and focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data, that is, themes. Codes are then typically developed to represent the identified themes and applied or linked to raw data as summary markers for later analysis.

The researcher began the process of qualitative thematic analysis after self-translating and transcribing the interviews and typing all the field notes. Thematic analysis involves transcribing, coding, and categorising themes. Coding is a starting point for most qualitative data analysis and is one of the key phases for identifying themes in the whole process of data analysis (Bryman, 2012). Coding means "naming segments of data with a label that categorise, summarise and accounts for each piece of data" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p. 561).

The use of semi-structured or unstructured interviews often produces an overwhelming amount of information, which requires efficient data management techniques. While dealing with substantive interview data, it was decided to use computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) to support the analytical process without overlooking the nature of the data. For the data analysis in this study, the researcher combined both hand and electronic coding approaches. The decision to use computer software reflected the volume of data. The possible options were explored by attending different day training courses, NVivo10 was then chosen from among other software packages primarily because it was new and found to be easy to use. Although it was time consuming, this process made many of the tasks associated with qualitative data analysis easier. Deciding to use Nvivo made the task more manageable and saved the researcher considerable time in analysis and writing. For example, if it was necessary to view some data about a specific topic, rather than having to search back through 39 transcripts, it only took a few small clicks. The basic idea of the researcher using the software was to carry out the administrative tasks to

organise the data more efficiently and for sorting and locating the data to be more manageable, and thereby to ease the task when coding and writing the findings.

Data analysis is determined by both the research objectives (deductive) and interpretations of the raw data (inductive). Thus, the findings are derived from both the research objectives outlined by the researcher and by findings arising directly from the analysis of the raw data. The main source of data for analysis was the interview transcripts. The development of initial individual coding schemes was done manually on paper for the first 10 interviews, where the researcher followed steps in (Table 10) suggested by Bryman (2012):

Table 10: Initial Individual Coding Schemes

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Organizing and preparing the data for analyse this includes transcribing and typing fields notes• Preparation of raw data files (“data cleaning”) Format the raw data files in a common format• Reading through the whole initial set of transcripts with writing down few general notes about what is important, significant or interesting; this is to obtain general sense of the information and reflect on its overall meaning.• Reading through the transcripts again, but this time line by line and started to code as many as possible with writing some notes and thoughts in margins, and in this stage I was coding without worrying about too many codes.• Begin to review my coding and being detailed analysis with the coding process.• Make list of all topics and cluster together similar topics.• Write the codes next to the appropriate segments of text.

Source: Author adapted from (Bryman, 2012)

The researcher also followed steps that were suggested by Creswell *et al.* (2007, p. 185), as shown in (Table 11):

Table 11: Coding Steps

<p style="text-align: center;">STEP 1</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Organize and prepare the data for analysis</p> <p>Transcribing interviews , typing up field notes</p> <p style="text-align: center;">STEP 2</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Read or look at all the data</p> <p>This first step provides a general sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. What general ideas are participants saying? What is the tone of the ideas? What is the impression of the overall depth, credibility, and use of the information? write notes in margins of transcripts or observational field notes, recording general thoughts about the data</p> <p style="text-align: center;">STEP 3</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Start coding all of the data(both hand coding and with computer software NVivo10)</p> <p>Organizing the data by bracketing chunks (or text or image segments) and writing a word representing a category in the margins (Rossman & Rallis, 2012), segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) into categories, and labelling those categories with a term: here I followed the eight steps provided by Tesch (1990, pp. 142–149) that used in forming codes. provided as shown below (Step 3.1)</p> <p>Get a sense of the whole. Read all the transcriptions carefully. Perhaps jot down some ideas as they come to mind as you read.</p> <p>Pick one document (i.e., one interview)—the most interesting one, the shortest, the one on the top of the pile. Go through it, asking yourself, “What is this about?” Do not think about the substance of the information but its underlying meaning. Write thoughts in the margin.</p> <p>When you have completed this task for several participants, make a list of all topics. Cluster together similar topics. Form these topics into columns, perhaps arrayed as major, unique, and leftover topics.</p> <p>Now take this list and go back to your data. Abbreviate the topics as codes and write the codes next to the appropriate segments of the text. Try this preliminary organizing scheme to see if new categories and codes emerge.</p> <p>Find the most descriptive wording for your topics and turn them into categories. Look for ways of reducing your total list of categories by grouping topics that relate to each other. Perhaps draw lines between your categories to show interrelationships.</p> <p>Make a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and alphabetize these codes.</p> <p>Assemble the data material belonging to each category in one place and perform a preliminary analysis.</p> <p>If necessary, recode your existing data. Tesch (1990, pp. 142–149)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">STEP 4</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis</p> <p>Description involves a detailed rendering of information about people, places, or events in a setting. Use the coding as well for generating a small number of themes or categories— perhaps five to seven themes for a research study. These themes are the ones that appear as major findings in qualitative studies and are often used as headings in the findings sections (or in the findings section of a dissertation or thesis) of studies</p> <p style="text-align: center;">STEP 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Advance how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative.</p> <p>Detailed discussion of several themes (complete with subthemes, specific illustrations, multiple perspectives from individuals, and quotations) or a discussion with interconnecting themes. or convey descriptive information about each participant in a table</p> <p style="text-align: center;">STEP 6</p> <p>A final step in data analysis involves making an interpretation in qualitative research of the findings or results. Asking, “What were the lessons learned?” captures the essence of this idea (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).</p> <p>These lessons could be the researcher’s personal interpretation, couched in the understanding that the inquirer brings to the study from a personal culture, history, and experiences. It could also be a meaning derived from a comparison of the findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories. In this way, authors suggest that the findings confirm past information or diverge from it. It can also suggest new questions that need to be asked—questions raised by the data and analysis that the inquirer had not foreseen earlier in the study.</p>

Source: Author adapted from Creswell et al. (2007, p. 185)

Although the researcher followed the steps as suggested, the process was interactive and various stages were interrelated and not always visited in the order presented.

6.6.1. Hand Coding Process

The first stage was coding every interview individually and listing all codes for each interview in the table (Table 12):

Table 12: Hand Coding 1

Interviews	Codes	Level
Interview 1	All codes emerged from reading the transcript line by line	Senior (S)
Interview 2		Middle (M)
Interview 3		Faculty (F)
Interview 4		Faculty (F)
Interview 5		Senior (S)

Source: Author

Those initial codes were then used to identify categories. Categorising all codes involved listing all codes for each interview under each category. Then the researcher tried to put the different categories that emerged from all groups under general sub-themes and list all the relevant codes from all participants (Tables 13 and 14):

Table 13: Hand Coding 2

(Senior = S)				
	Selecting Criteria	Skills Required	Personal Characterises	Faculty Developer
Codes	S1 Academic background Leadership skills Communication skills Ability to lead Recruiting among peers PhD minimum Experience in leadership and management	S1 Academic background Leadership skills Communication skills Ability to lead Recruiting among peers PhD minimum Experience in leadership and management	S1 Trust Respect Leader and manager Ability to lead and manage across institution Ability to communicate Fair and firm Team leading	S1 Put expectations Clear plan Accountability Caring about each individual Communicating with them in a regular bases Tracing and evaluation
	S2 Dean recommendation No specific criteria for how should HoD should be when appointing them Academic background some experience in management Arabic is preferable but is not a must and English is a must Appointing HoD is Dean responsibility	S2 Leadership skills Organizational skills Diplomacy skills Recruiting skills	S2 Someone by nature very welcoming to others' views and ideas Sociable Like listening to people and discussing things Communicate with others Committed to the work Who likes to work to meet objectives	S2 NOTHING BEEN FOUND
	S3 Dean recommendation Collegiality Fairness Experience in leadership and management position Some good practices outside this country before serving here Prefer to be full professor Well organized Knowing how to deal with people	S3 Leadership skills Consultative People skills Smart delegation skills Strategic planning Strategic thinking Building team Recruiting skills	S3 Fair and firm Accessible Available Act as a model leader Take his work seriously (these things are by nature and you cannot move them to be firm or fair but you can fix things) Visionary leader	S3 Should know the strengths and weaknesses of his faculty Capitalize on the strengths Help their faculty to overcome their weaknesses Delegate tasks to them Mentoring junior faculty Listen to their views and opinions Make everyone accountable and have a say
	S4 The willingness to take the position Understand the mission of and the vision of the university and department Communication skills Wide networking internally and externally Able to link the program outcomes with the market needs	S4 People skills Recruiting skills Decision making skills People skills Communication skills Building strong relationships with stakeholders	S4 Respectful	S4 Able to identify strengths of their faculty and build on it Should understand dealing with people here is different from somewhere else Convincing and sharing decision with them Dealing with respect
	S5 NOTHING BEEN FOUND	S5 Organizational skills Diplomacy skills Psychological skills (understanding different personality and mentality) Teaching skills Interpersonal skills	S5 Fair and firm Assertive Open minded Well organized Ethical Diplomatic Persuasive	S5 Ethical Set a developmental plan based on their needs Build trust with their faculty Involving their faculty in major decision Communicate with them Solve their conflicts

Source: Author

Table 14: Hand Coding 3

Main Theme (Not yet)		
Sub-Themes	Codes	Description
Selecting Criteria	<p>Should have the willingness to take the position</p> <p>Well organized</p> <p>Visionary person</p> <p>Someone Familiar with the university system</p> <p>Someone who served as a head outside this country before</p> <p>Have particular characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Wise in dealing with people ▪ Respectful ▪ Honest ▪ Creative ▪ Positive thinking ▪ Very high self-Confident ▪ Fair# ▪ Polite ▪ Direct and straightforward ▪ Skills <p>Mature enough</p> <p>Local</p> <p>Task oriented</p> <p>Someone speak Arabic and English highly committed and hard- working</p> <p>Has experience in management and leadership</p> <p>Collegiality is very important aspect</p> <p>Aware of new trends in education and pedagogies</p> <p>Academic background</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> PhD minimum <input type="checkbox"/> Full prof <p>The most qualified among others</p> <p>Academic records</p> <p>Industrial background (Eng)</p> <p>probably leadership experience (Eng)</p> <p>His ability to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Make decisions ▪ Dealing with change and resistance ▪ Compromise ▪ Commence 	
HoD Appointing to the Position	<p>Rotational system</p> <p>Election</p> <p>Should be Local</p> <p>From inside the university</p> <p>Understanding local needs and culture (positive)</p> <p>Political influence (negative)</p> <p>Outside the university</p> <p>Missing opportunities (negative)</p> <p>Need more time to adjust (negative)</p> <p>Issues with welcoming other people (negative)</p> <p>Bringing new ideas and culture (positive)</p>	
Serving in the Position	<p>3 years renewable or 6 years maximum</p> <p>3 years is enough</p> <p>5 years</p> <p>It depends</p> <p>Minimum 6 years and maximum 9 years then you should go for something else</p> <p>Given the chance to other</p> <p>long contract</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ will become a routine ▪ less creativity and less incentives 	
Roles' pleasant part and opportunities	<p>Career development</p> <p>Adding new dimensions</p> <p>Gaining leadership experience</p> <p>Helping others to make an achievement</p> <p>A chance to make a difference</p> <p>Face challenge (I love challenge)</p> <p>Practice our leadership skills</p>	
Roles' difficulties, challenges and consequences	<p>Delay in academic achievement</p> <p>Hard to balance</p> <p>Managing different people from different educational background</p> <p>Less teaching</p> <p>Overwhelming administrative work</p> <p>No training and professional development available for this group</p> <p>No clear system for this position</p> <p>Challenging university system</p> <p>Bureaucratic issues</p> <p>Huge impact on personal and family life</p> <p>Limited power and authority</p> <p>Stretched at all level hard to get to get use to the system (people from outside)</p> <p>Hard to have mutual understanding ,No longer and academic</p>	
Defining or describing the position	<p>Critical</p> <p>Noble job</p> <p>Different world</p> <p>Tricky job</p>	
Resistance to take the position or move out of the position	<p>Shock</p> <p>Not prepared</p> <p>affect academic life (research and teaching)</p> <p>No desire</p> <p>What is the point</p> <p>Waste of time, life and professional development</p>	
What should be done	<p>Clarification of the system and expectation</p> <p>Receive training</p> <p>Need help with administrative work</p>	

Source: Author

After reading and re-reading several interviews on paper. More codes emerged; it was crucial at this point to start using NVivo10 to be able to identify similarities and differences in the content of responses to each question. Therefore, all transcripts and field notes were imported into NVivo10 after being auto-coded based on the initial codes that emerged from the manual analysis.

6.6.2. Using NVivo Software

After the initial version of the coding scheme for those ten interviews was entered into NVivo, the researcher used Nvivo browser to read again through each interview line by line in order to see if new codes emerged. At this stage, the researcher did not reduce any codes, following the advice by Bryman (2012, p. 577): “do not worry about generating what seem to be too many codes - at least in the early stage of your analysis; some will be fruitful and others will not - the important thing is to be as inventive and imaginative as possible; you can worry about tidying things up later”. NVivo 10 allows the use of ‘child nodes’ (independent categories) and ‘parent nodes’ (groups of categories related hierarchically). At the beginning, the independent (child node) (not hierarchically organized) analysis of each transcript was worked out to provide a descriptive account of the data. In this way, the main purpose of this step descriptive analysis was to generate coding schemes in the software, which completely organized the content and range of participants’ responses. It was evident at this stage of data analysis that some coding categories reflected common categories and sub-themes and patterns across responses. A more detailed level of analysis was then needed to give a more comprehensive description of the participants’ views taking into account not only that was said but also how it was said (the form of expression). Different materials were considered while coding including the following (Bernard and Ryan, 2009)

- Codes on topics that reader would expect to find based on the research objectives and the past literature
- Codes that address a larger theoretical perspective in the research
- Repetitions
- Metaphors and local expressions
- Similarities and differences
- Theory related materials

The process of analysis was always a combination between hand coding and electronic coding. Those codes were gradually refined manually, as the researcher always felt more comfortable using paper in the analysis, where different groups of coding were categorised and used as labels, referring descriptively to distinctive meanings in participants' verbal expressions. In this process, some initial categories were also merged, split, renamed, redefined or even removed. Categories were attached to segments, to several sentences or whole paragraphs in the transcripts. As more transcripts were combined, other potential codes and categories started to emerge. Participants provided relevant responses to particular questions at different points during their interviews, and therefore, an across-question analysis was more applicable than a question-by-question analysis.

In Nvivo 10, some categories were analysed as independent, but later, after recoding and categorising manually, they were 'grouped'. For example, participants were asked about their perceptions and views of knowledge that related to departmental leadership. Some emerging independent categories were 'field knowledge', 'leadership skills', 'university system and procedure' and 'cultural aspects of people'. Later, the labels of these 'independent categories' were refined and a 'parent node' was created to group 'technical knowledge' and 'non-technical knowledge', both grouped under 'knowledge required by departmental leadership'. A process of coding and recoding was undertaken where transcript segments were categorised both manually and electronically. In some cases, where participants' responses had multiple meanings, more than one code was applied to the same segment. Also, some respondents provided more than one answer that was associated to a single code category. The rationale of grouping and regrouping of categories was intended to make sense of the data and offer a more analytical interpretation.

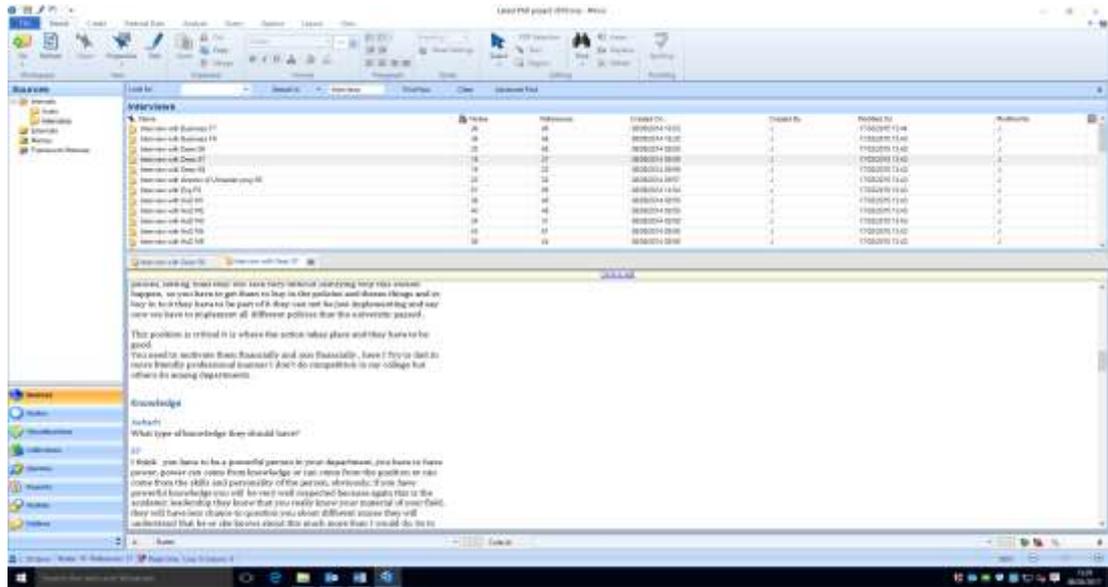
By using NVivo, it was possible to organise all the relevant segments that were associated to a particular coding category and to identify which group of participants contributed responses that were associated to a particular code and how often the researcher had decided to apply the same code to the sets of texts. This process of hand coding and using NVivo was adopted to make sense of the interviewees' responses and to generate coding categories to reflect a range of responses among groups, which could then be conceptualised into broad themes after further discussion with the

supervisor to build my findings chapters. Finally, the whole data was both manually and electronically reviewed at different times to come up with some thematic lines in participants' responses.

After having clear broad themes in mind, the researcher then again went through all categories and themes to start making meanings from the data (meaning making and interpretation), undertake the data interpretation and making a comprehensive meaning, identifying similarities and differences, and establishing relations for the whole dataset. This allowed the researcher to establish some general interpretation to explain some shared features from the participants' ideas as expressed in the interviews. This interpretative analysis of participants' responses involved focusing and refocusing the data to identify interview segments that were relevant in each theme (García-Horta and Guerra-Ramos, 2009, p. 160).

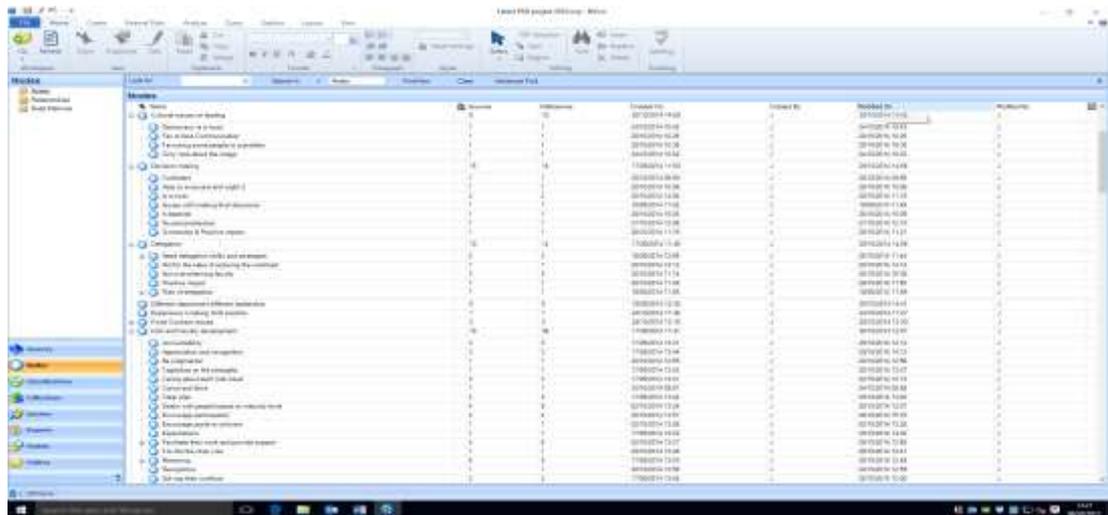
To sum up, as NVivo allowed descriptive analysis to be performed more easily than carrying it out manually. The facilities of NVivo were therefore used to replace the manual tasks and to carry out the task of second stage coding, storing, and organizing in a relatively simple way. However, Nvivo cannot make coding decisions or work out categories or analytical interpretation; this is why the researcher continued to use both manual and electronic coding analysis.

Figure 10: Interview Scripts in NVivo10



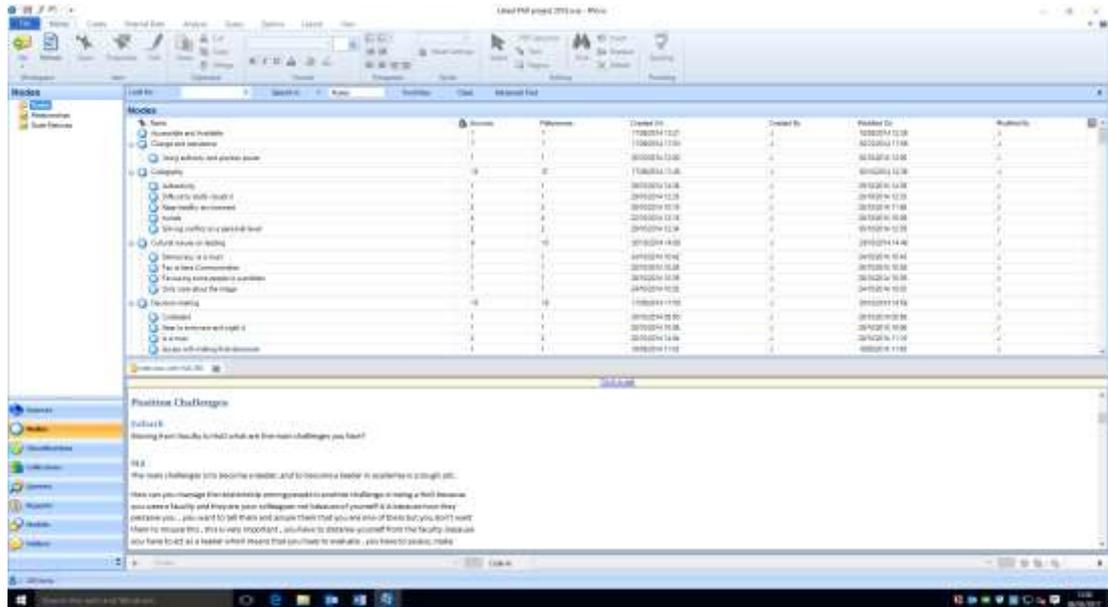
Source: Screenshot Taken From Author Nvivo Project

Figure 11: Codes in NVivo10



Source: Screenshot Taken From Author Nvivo Project

Figure 12: Codes and Categories



Source: Screenshot Taken From Author Nvivo Project

6.7. Conclusion

This chapter has given an overview of the research methodology, justification of research paradigm, research methods and approach that were used to achieve the research aim and objectives. The chapter presented the employment of the case study in clarifying the central area of this study. After that, the chapter explained methods of data collection, and the process of data analysis and how the data were processed.

CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS

7.1. Introduction

This study has taken a qualitative approach, employing semi-structured interviews to obtain data from 39 participants holding different positions within QU. To preserve their anonymity, interviewees from senior positions (President, VP, and Deans) are identified by codes S1 to S9, HoDs by codes M1 to M10, and academic faculty by codes F1 to F20. Table 15 shows some participants information:

Table 15 Participants Information

Interviewee Code	Group	Female/Male
Senior (President /VP/ Deans)		
S 1	President	F
S 2	VP	M
S 3	VP	M
S 4	VP	M
S 5	College of Arts and Sciences	F
S 6	College of Business and Economics	M
S 7	College of Education	F
S 8	College of Law	M
S9	College of Engineering	M
Middle- level (Heads of Department) (M)		
M1	College of Arts and Sciences	M
M2	College of Business and Economics	M
M3	College of Arts and Sciences	M
M4	College of Engineering	M
M5	College of Business and Economics	F
M6	College of Law	M
M7	College of Law	M
M8	College of Arts and Sciences	F
M9	College of Engineering	M

M10	College of Education	F
Academic Faculty (F)		
F1	College of Arts and Sciences	M
F2	College of Law	F
F3	College of Arts and Sciences	M
F4	College of Business and Economics	M
F5	College of Law	F
F6	College of Business and Economics	M
F7	College of Arts and Sciences	M
F8	College of Engineering	M
F9	College of Law	M
F10	College of Education	M
F11	College of Arts and Sciences	F
F12	College of Education	M
F13	College of Engineering	F
F14	College of Business and Economics	M
F15	College of Business and Economics	M
F16	College of Arts and Sciences	F
F17	College of Engineering	M
F18	College of Arts and Sciences	M
F19	College of Engineering	M

Source: Author

This chapter presents the findings according to four main themes: perceptions on practice and experiences on taking up the role of HoD; perceptions and views on the essential skills, characteristics and knowledge required by leaders; the role of HoD as seen by academic faculty; and views on the need for training and development for departmental leadership.

7.2. Experience and Practice

This section presents a summary of responses to the question: “How do different university leaders describe, view and understand their experience of being a HoD and how are departmental leaders appointed or selected for the position?”. Various sub-questions were asked including: Are there any challenges you faced or aspects that you enjoyed in your role? How would you describe your role as a HoD? How did you get into the position, and why? Are there particular criteria for selecting a Head?

Four sub-themes were identified: difficulties and challenges; opportunities on taking an academic leadership role; defining the experience and role of HoD; and selection and recruitment of HoDs. These findings relate to the experiences and expectations of being a HoD as a leader within a university.

7.2.1. Difficulties, Challenges and Consequences of the Role

Participants from different levels - top administration, HoDs and academic faculty - identified several key challenges and difficulties associated with the role. These included overwhelming administration, people management, dealing with people from different national and educational backgrounds (leading within diversity), delays in research and academic achievements, impact on personal and family life, and feelings of being squeezed in the middle without enough power and authority.

People Management

Leading Academic Faculty

One important issue suggested by different participants as key for leadership in an academic context, specifically as a HoD, was that of dealing with academics who were professionally oriented and highly independent. This covered identifying and dealing with poor performance, difficult people and managing academics in general. Different interviewees referred to the problem as ‘herding cats’. This was seen to be a source of tension as many academic members were highly individualistic, with no strong sense of working as a team or of a co-operative or corporate identity, either within the department or the university. All HoDs or those who had previous experience of being a Head felt that bringing faculty members together to work towards the department’s vision was one of their biggest challenges.

One participant (S8) with previous leadership experience in an industrial and commercial organization, but now holding a senior position within the University, compared leading people in an academic context with other organizational settings, and how this presented a challenge to the leader:

In private sectors ... your staff are employees and you give them direction and they have to implement it so there is very limited room for having their own discretion...but in an academic organization, the faculty members, especially the senior ones, they feel they have academic freedom, so they feel independent, I have my own work ... I teach, I do my research – managing them is like herding cats...Managing an academic faculty involves a great deal of challenge We cannot very much mandate how a professor should teach. It is difficult to tell them you must use this technique or that method (S8).

These differences and challenges were also identified by other participants from different groups. For example, M2 explained the diversity and independence of academic faculty members and the difficulty in getting them to work on something they were not interested in or finding a mutual interest within the group.

Leading in the department is hard ...because getting your team- getting all your faculty members or at least most of them to align to your objectives and what you want them to do - it needs time, especially in this part of the world. Here we have diversity in faculty members, not just nationality but also in background and these educational backgrounds make it different. People come from the UK, the US, Arab countries ... and the challenge basically is to blend all of these into one and to get something streamlined to meet the goals and objectives of the institution (M2).

M5 provided a similar perspective:

We are in an academic institution and we expect everyone is educated and mature ... you can take the horse to the river side but you cannot force him to drink water, so you create opportunities, encourage them but if they don't produce you cannot force them, so some of them they don't produce no matter what you do so that is the challenge (M5).

Other faculty members from different departments shared the view that managing academic faculty was a challenge, especially difficulties in getting the faculty do anything that they were not interested in and finding it hard to satisfy and convince some individuals, especially those with an old school mentality or with strong egos. The comments below reflect these views:

How to get the faculty to engage in all these activities...this is a big challenge because you are dealing with people who are almost equal to you, not like in other institutions. You cannot force somebody to do something he is not interested in. You might have people who are more experienced than you but again this is to do with personal skills,

interpersonal skills, and to deal with this you need good communication skills and social skills (F7).

A comment from F6 focused on the individual:

...Satisfying everybody, especially those with a very tough mentality – those with egos. Usually dealing with professors is different from dealing with engineers - usually those people are smart and have their egos so you have to be very talented to deal with that mentalities... I think being talented is natural but you have to learn how to work with their personalities (F6).

Another distinctive feature of academic faculty identified by some leaders was the tendency of some academic faculty to be critical, argumentative or highly questioning in their approach. This observation referred mainly to academics from humanities and social science backgrounds, who were encouraged to do this by the nature of their disciplines:

I come from a social background and when you get to have meeting with faculty you hardly get to decide or get to the point quickly, people talk and argue a lot here (S3).

Managing Former Colleagues

Challenges associated with leading and managing people who were former colleagues were also identified. This was specifically reported by those who had moved from a faculty position to become HoD. Difficulties included leading, managing, evaluating and assessing colleagues, as described below:

The main challenge is to become a leader and to become a leader in academia is a tough job. How you manage relationships between people is another challenge because you were a faculty member and they were your colleagues. It is because of how they perceive you. You want to tell them and assure them that you are one of them but you don't want them to misuse this: this is very important. You have to distance yourself from the faculty because you have to act as a leader which means that you have to evaluate, you have to assess and make decisions and sometimes not necessarily please everyone. You may upset some of them and you will find that some of them are not convinced because what is happening does not match their interests (M8).

M5 felt that it can sometimes be hard to persuade colleagues and compared dealing with them with dealing with children:

Every time you are involved in managing people there are always unpleasant duties especially when you say no to people, sometimes you find people like children - they want chocolate when it is not good for them (M5).

Hiring and Firing Decisions

Three HoDs and senior leaders mentioned the difficulties faced in letting someone go from the department. They viewed this as the toughest responsibility because such decisions affect not only the person as an individual but his/her whole life. M7 commented:

One of the most difficult parts of dealing with faculty is when you make the decision to say goodbye to someone. That's maybe the toughest responsibility when it comes to telling somebody I am sorry but we have to...I think there is no right way to do that. You just have to be frank with the person and there should be no personalisation in the decision making. We all have family and children...most of the people here are expatriates so when you tell somebody goodbye that means you are going to change his life completely (M7).

Managing High Status People

Some participants referred to the difficulty of managing individuals with expertise, high status and a good reputation. They explained that such status was more advanced than simply holding a HoD position, creating a situation of imbalance when it came to management.

There are some important people and even students with big family names - you have to be careful in dealing with them and you cannot do the same as you do with others (M10).

Managing Performance for Faculty Working Under Different Job Systems

Managing faculty members who are on temporary contracts emerged as another major challenge. Most HoDs pointed out that creating stability within a department was a huge challenge given the short term contract system for non-local faculty members. Interviewees referred specifically to issues around the fixed contract system, including levels of commitment and motivation, loyalty to the organization, job performance, low job security, relationships and collegiality which often led to a lack of motivation, increased anxiety and frustration. For example, M6 shared his experience of managing people as well as the working environment when such issues were present:

We have many challenges, for example, our faculty members on the contract basis, so that's not very good for the institution because there is a lot of instability ...three years is not good because first year is probation, second year u just settled, then you don't know if you will continue or not...one of the challenges is to make sure that faculty who are smart, committed good in teaching and research and service continue but it is

not always easy. Recruitment itself it's not easy ... you know not many people are interested because of several social critical educational factors.

...so hiring someone who is willing to stay, so the tension is huge challenges and as a head I think you want some sort of stability in the department. So how can you achieve the stability given the fact that one, the contract is a very short term, number two, as in any institution there might be faculty who you are not really happy working with for different reasons, or maybe their performance is not as good as you expected ... so on one hand there is instability inbuilt into the system because the contract in nature and on the other there are (those) which kind of create a difficult scenario (M6).

HoDs reported that anxiety about job security was another issue that they had to deal with. Individuals tended to worry about their current post and how they could find more work. In this situation, it was the role of the HoD to assure stability in faculty job performance and create a less fearful working environment within the department:

Here we have also big issues about job security for foreigners. People with contracts come and go every 3 or 4 years, but this is not an issue for the national people because they have the tenure system...there is instability built into the system because of the nature of the contract.....so for example in my department, somebody's contract was not renewed...there was no personal reason why...but when that happens there is a kind of anxiety among other faculty members: Oh My God, what's going to happen? Am I going to continue or not? So this will cause a lot of issues related to their commitment, their level of motivation, their worries and so on and so far, so how do you balance this? I mean how do you signal to your faculty members that, if you are doing your work well, you will continue and we would love to have you with us, but in an environment where there is a lot of instability and where sometimes you make decisions and faculty do not see the reason why somebody's contract was not renewed...the news spreads. And people get worried and personally, when I was a faculty member, I was worried (M6).

A HoD also referred to issues related to commitment, motivation and academic performance, particularly among those whose contracts were unlikely to be renewed.

Leaders also implied that an important dimension of their role was to reduce anxiety among other faculty who might think their contract was not going to be renewed:

"...Job security is very important mainly in this part of the world because we pay high competitive salaries and benefits and there is a high demand for these jobs. Qualified people - of course we want to keep them and it is usually a departmental decision whether or not to renew their contracts - but there are no guidelines for how contracts are renewed or not renewed...sometimes it is a personal and departmental decision, so this is why it becomes an issue...but it doesn't mean bad performance or that you did something wrong. The department might say we want to get new people and refresh our department." (M6)

Another stated that levels of commitment to the job can also be affected:

The shorter the contract the weaker commitment to their work and their department and I say this from my experience (F10).

Regarding the lack of motivation and reduced job performance, the following comment explains some of the challenges faced:

You want a faculty member to settle in the department and in the country as well. In the beginning there are a lot of settling in issues...there is this instability. Every time you deal with the price of moving...for example think of this; if I know my contract has not been renewed and am still going to be here for a year what's going to be my level of motivation to work in this institution now that I know am not going to continue. I have dealt with these issues myself so you suppose I am the head and you work for me and I think you shouldn't continue and your contract is not going to be renewed and when you get the message you still have about a year to complete your previous contract so this period it has happened - some professors don't care about anything, although it's ethically very wrong but you are still being paid by the university so you should still be doing what you are expected to do because you are bound by the contract but in reality that doesn't happen ...for example, for somebody in another department where somebody's contract was not renewed and the person still functioned as best as before but this is the exception (M6).

Working with two different systems could also affect internal relationships among colleagues. Although it was understood that temporary workers might differ from their permanent colleagues, it could still affect the working environment in a negative way and thereby make it difficult to create a collegial atmosphere.

Leading Within Diversity

Different interviewees pointed to issues related to aspects of cultural mismatch. Issues related to bureaucracy, values and norms, management systems, equity, gender, nationality and favouritism.

M4 was open in sharing his experiences, revealing that a high level of integrity was required when dealing with people, but that cultural aspects could not be neglected; personal and cultural values were important and could sometimes cause negative outcomes at an individual level. He shared his experience of always being completely honest:

I will tell you something: it is true that I have achieved something great with people - relationships and resolving conflicts; however, because I am (honest), I am worn out and this is why I have been asked to leave this position (M4).

Another issue raised by M2 concerned bureaucracy where the cultural system did not support decentralised leadership and management:

I think at this point, you know, I have tried to implement the culture thing. Unfortunately, the culture we have in Arab countries means usually the Boss is the Boss; nobody touches the Boss, so when mistakes are made you will be in trouble. Since I became the leader of the Department, I have tried to do things differently. In the first two years I really struggled because I inherited people from the old system (M2).

Dealing with people of different nationalities and educational backgrounds was regarded as one of the most challenging aspects in carrying out the role. All university stakeholders were concerned about the head's role in relation to managing and dealing with people since this was likely to affect departmental staff relationships if cultural differences were not understood. The following extracts demonstrate this point:

I think the main challenge is dealing with different people, different mentalities...you always seek to satisfy every person in the way he or she likes so this is the main issue. You need to be wise to deal with different mentalities. You also need very good communication skills, a good personality and logic, and this is actually the case in our leader (F4).

F8 referred to the difficulty in finding mutual understandings among faculty who hold different opinions because they come from different cultural and academic backgrounds. This was noted by all university stakeholders.

...the problem is when you deal with people who have the same or less or higher academic rank, it is not easy to deal with them. Each one has a different opinion and ideas about different things, so to have mutual understanding between all those different people is tricky (F8).

Stuck in the Middle

Pleasing everyone based on their interests was identified as another key challenge. Participants revealed that trying to find a balance between departmental and university goals, and individual faculty and student needs was a key challenge. S4, who had previous experience of being a HoD, felt that he could have done a lot for the department, but described his situation as: "...stuck in the middle and stretched at all levels" with higher administration from above and faculty and students below:

You are dealing with faculty, student, administrators, stakeholders and each group has different expectations of you and you need to understand that. I think this is one of the challenges that each Head of Department faces...students want to change the timetable, faculty want less teaching loads and so on (S4).

One academic faculty commented:

... you always seek to satisfy every person in the way he or she likes so this is the main issue (F4).

Overwhelming Administrative Work (Burn Out)

All HoDs described the excessive day-to-day administrative tasks that were associated with the position as one of the major issues that prevented them from performing their role as leaders and moving their department forward:

What took all my effort is the fact that management duties are so exhausting. As a HoD, my efforts should be focused on teaching, research and service. I should make sure the department is running well, courses are taught well, the department is doing enough quality research, and focus on services to the students and to the industries outside (M4).

Similarly, M2 referred to increasing paper work and compliance issues among faculty:

Too much, more than too much - never seen it in my life...we are stretched at all levels because we are HoDs. You know what I did last week, I disconnected my email from my mobile phone...I really needed to do it you know, so then I felt good: office is office, when it comes to planning and strategies its fine but the paperwork is too much (M2).

Two senior leaders provided another perspective on the issue and especially its impact on personal and family life, and how it was the main reason for stepping down from their position. S4 talked about his situation as follows:

The administrators want you to run the programme efficiently with a reduced budget, students want you to change the timetable, faculty want less of a teaching load and so on...at the end of the day you are human and have your life. I remember when I was a head I didn't see my kids during weekdays, only at the weekend (S4).

Limited Power

The difficulty of coping with with resistance to change without sufficient sources of influence (power and assigned authority), was reported by several participants. This could result in delays in achieving tasks or in the process of implementation because of the need to refer matters to senior administration before making decisions. This was in addition to other tasks and responsibilities which were not matched with sufficient authority and power to enable them to undertake the job properly. One HoD shared his experience and talked about different aspects of his job and cases that were delayed because he did not have the authority to make a decision:

At the end of the day you need to get the approval from your Dean or the upper administration, they are the ones who make the final decision, so you have to wait (M8).

Some issues, for example dealing with change around those with more fixed, inflexible mentalities while not having enough power to lead changes, caused difficulties for academic leadership. F8 explained

It is not up to the HoD, it's up to senior management...so they force this or if the HoD is given the authority there are options. Here, the first one is to have this by law so that he can force this in one way or another. This is the strategy: this the law...you can't break this law...at the end of the day we need to implement this. Second, you need to convince them (F8).

Another issue concerned too many bureaucratic issues with limited authority to deal with problems or take an action:

Many people hesitate about taking on these administration or leadership positions where lots of bureaucratic issues occur and where you cannot do much about them even if you are a HoD (S4).

The majority of HoDs suggested that they did not have enough authority and power to enable them to perform the role properly because they were dealing with significant issues, such as change and resistance, bureaucracy, and too many tasks, as well as trying to enforce change on individuals who had an "old school" mentality.

Role Ambiguity

Many participants who had previous experience of being a head, in addition to HoDs themselves, pointed to the challenge of leading within an uncertain university environment. These ambiguities arose from a system which was cumbersome; in addition, job descriptions and expectations were vague:

...new administrative system that I am not used to and I have to get into...it is a difficult part of this job, for example, one simple technical thing to know is exactly who to communicate with regarding specific issues. HoDs who don't have experience of this, should be told about the different administrative departments that are directly connected to the work of the heads of the department...a clarification of the system and who does what and who can serve us and in which way...it should be done within the transition period (M7).

Understanding the university system and how things work, even for people who had already been working as faculty, was still perceived as a challenge. One head of department, who had been working for the university for more than ten years prior to

promotion, reported that it was very difficult to understand the operating system and how the department should be run:

Moving from faculty to HoD, the main challenge is running a new system within the department and making changes without clear expectations of what I have to do (M10).

M2 talked about the difficulties in understanding and implementing the university system:

QU is like a typical US university in the way it functions... we have imported a US system that works in a large university...to apply it here in a small institution causes some stress... I wish we had our own system that fits the organisation, fits our needs, and fits our culture - whatever you want, but something that is really meeting our needs because each organisation is unique by its nature (M2).

Personal Academic Achievement

Senior leaders and HoDs felt that they had largely left the pursuit of their own discipline and academic work behind when working as a HoD. Participants shared this view and suggested that being in this position incurred considerable personal cost to their academic life and research career:

Finding time to do research and keep up is difficult; at one point you will be back to a faculty position and you will be behind in your field (M9).

A senior leader who had been a HoD and was now a Dean for a college, suggested the importance for HoDs to avoid such academic difficulties:

They have to continue doing their research. They cannot just push people to publish; you need to publish papers and help others to publish their work as mentors for the department faculty...you cannot stop your research...it is also good to collaborate with others, for example, if you have a junior faculty member doing research it is not a bad idea to collaborate with him or her...But the last thing you want to do is to be deadwood...deadwood means there is no intellectual capital, no currency in the field, no research and then you try to motivate people to do creative things in teaching and research but you are not doing this...you need to be balanced (S6).

7.2.2. Areas of Satisfaction and Opportunities Within the Role

Although the data paints a somewhat negative picture about the experience of serving as a HoD, participants also identified positive and enjoyable aspects of the role.

Helping Others to Succeed

Although some HoDs did not enjoy much of their role, they suggested that working with faculty members and helping them to achieve academically was one of the more positive aspects of the role. One HoD described how she worked hard to help people to achieve and how she enjoyed seeing their successes and achievements:

I like helping people to achieve and success. I managed to create a supportive simulating environment among faculty to some extent because I put myself in their shoes...I really want everybody to be happy about what they achieve, which is very important because I didn't have that when I was a faculty member, I suffered (M1).

M5, who also enjoyed the same aspect of this role, said:

The pleasant part is doing my own work and helping faculty to publish in a place that otherwise they didn't think they would publish and helping them to achieve that. Once they achieve that goal I am very, very happy. Also trying to apply for grants for their research...when they get it, I am very happy as well (M5).

Adding New Dimensions and Career Development

Another positive aspect was that the position offered opportunities that could contribute to personal and career growth. This included career moves, the chance to build professional relationships internally and externally, gaining leadership and management experience, professional networking and building social and professional status and reputation. For example, a senior leader with previous experience of being a HoD, commented:

Being in such position adds faculty important dimensions that they would not have understood if they stayed as a faculty member (S4).

One Dean added:

It is a stepping stone to go to the next level or whatever you want to do, so you have to continue to improve yourself (S6).

A Vice-President explained how much valuable experience a person could gain from being a HoD, more than from any other senior position:

First of all let me tell you about my perception about HoDs; it is the most critical position in the whole hierarchy of the university because they are the implementers of all policy that are taken in different level whatever, in terms of curricula and in terms of activities; it is up to the HoDs to implement in their programme. Myself, I did HoD, Dean and now VP and I think most of the experience I got was when I was a HoD (S3).

Another senior leader identified important management and leadership skills that someone could gain:

I learned a lot. This position gives confidence as well as many other management and leadership skills. Also it is an achievement...this is important in academia (S2).

Doing Something for Others

Two leaders felt that a leadership position gave them the chance to understand their role in the community and gave them a sense of responsibility towards their society and nation. It was suggested that serving people, embracing the mission of the university and taking social responsibility was a pleasant part of the role. One Dean, with earlier experience of being a HoD, described how serving in this position and achieving excellence made him feel that he had done something good for others:

In general, what is pleasing about this job is that you are really serving a mission for the nation as an Arab regardless of where you are...I am working in Qatar but I am still serving my fellow Arabs and Muslims so when you see that you are impacting future generations this is very pleasing and it is very rewarding even from the Islam religion perspective. For me this was the main factor that drove me in this position (S8).

Similarly, another HoD described serving in this position as a chance to satisfy his strong desire to achieve something of value for society, either through helping others to accomplish their goals or by his own achievements within the department. He felt this position presented the opportunity to pursue meaning and identity:

This chair I am sitting on always makes me feel I am doing something valuable for others, which in return makes me feel better about myself (M7).

The Chance to Make a Difference

A new head who had just been appointed to the position, despite all the negative responsibilities linked to this role that he did not like, felt that being a head was a chance for him to make a difference. He referred to this as the main reason that had motivated him to take up the role and that it would keep him looking forward. His

assumption was that being a HoD would provide the opportunity to change the way things were done, something which he would not been able to do as only a faculty member:

I worked as a faculty member and now I am a head of department. The Dean called me and offered me the position ... I was not prepared for it ... I thought about it and said well ... I did see some of the things that were done in certain way within the department could've been done differently when I was a faculty, so I thought this is was a chance to do it in the right way. I took the opportunity and accepted the offer to be the Head (M6).

Personal Self-Fulfilment

Facing the challenge was another aspect that emerged as an enjoyable attribute of the role. Two HoDs felt that being in this position meant that they could find personal self-satisfaction by facing the challenges it presented. For example, for M2, being able to carry out a good job in a challenging environment was perceived as an enjoyable facet of the role. He linked this to his cultural and family environment and background and suggested that, by doing so, he would satisfy his needs:

what I like, and what I enjoy most, is reform, which is challenging, so I - by nature - like challenges, and again this depends where the person is coming from...if you were brought up in a competitive environment you will be like this (M2).

In a similar vein, M7 also enjoyed this challenge describing it as a very interesting aspect of the job, so much so that he had asked for his contract to be renewed for this very reason:

As a career, heading a department is quite interesting because I love a challenge but it is a matter of being capable and being up to the challenge and bringing the challenge to those who challenge to you...sometimes the other side will not be expecting that so if someone comes to challenge me I might challenge him back ...are they ready for it? (M7).

A Place for Personal and Professional Growth

Some participants felt that gaining social status and close working relationships were two of the beneficial aspects of being a HoD. They discussed this in terms of the nature of the role (daily responsibilities), especially interaction with administrators, external stakeholders, faculty and students. Participants indicated that the role was the place where close and good working relationships could be built, creating benefits in the future

When you get to this position you get to know many important people in senior positions which will benefit you later on (M9).

Another participant viewed it as a position where he could make contacts and build external working relationships with university stakeholders:

You deal with different people outside the university on different occasions and you can build an image for yourself (M3).

Two other participants talked about the social opportunities that a leader could engage in and how this was a part of the job that they enjoyed. They discussed how it could help them to gain reputation and social status; working and mixing with people would bring many new opportunities and make them socially recognized:

People quote you socially... the social perception is that you are the expert but sometimes it is just a good social reputation (M2).

the position as a HoD also provides an opportunity to develop valued and trusted relationships inside and outside the university (M6).

S3 viewed it as an opportunity for career development:

I believed that this position would involve a lot of work and would take too much time from me, but I then realised nothing is a total waste of time if we use this experience wisely (S3)

7.2.3. Defining The Role and Experience

A Noble Job

Respondents described the role of HoD in terms of being involved with a variety of internal and external stakeholders, describing the daily challenges as extraordinary and challenging within the university. A Dean with previous experience of being a HoD commented:

...Another thing I think about working and practice, the practice of law is very stressful, dealing with clients, dealing with deadlines and you feel that when you work for clients you work to make a profit, but here in a way it is like a more noble job (S8).

A Tricky Job

Another participant (M4) described the role of HoD as a 'tricky job':

As a HOD, my efforts should be focused on teaching, research and service. So I should make sure the department is running well, courses are taught well, the department is doing enough quality research, look at services for the students, to industries outside: it is a critical and tricky job (M4).

A Representative (A Chief Advocate)

Three HoDs felt that one of their main roles was to act as a representative of their staff and students. One pointed out the importance of representing them to upper administration and providing advocacy for the faculty, students and curricula in their particular field. For example, one HoD saw part of his primary role as being the chief advocate for the department with the Dean and central administration,:

We are the one who have the responsibility to represent the department to upper administration and to the external community when you go meetings or conferences and we should excel this role (M9)

M2 expressed:

When I meet with the Dean I don't only present myself I present my department as a whole, for example faculty work, achievements ...and also students (M2)

A Negotiator

M2's description of the role was as a negotiator who served and negotiated between the goals of the university and of the department, and between individual goals and the interests of faculty. He viewed the role as a challenge because faculty and departmental goals were not always aligned:

When it comes to dividing the workloads, we have to be very careful ... it is not easy ...personal interests and department need do not always match. Also among faculty themselves some are more interested in research - others like to teach more or serve in committees. For me, I use different strategies and one of them is a win-win strategy because at the end of the day you do not want to lose your people, so you have to be smart when you negotiate (M2)

The Leader-Manager

Participants also felt that the main role of the HoD was to act as a "leader-manager". In particular, interviewees referred to managerial tasks and day-to-day activities, and how it was important to focus on leadership activities to move the department and people forward and to ensure that the goals of the university were reflected in the work of the department:

To be a head you have to be a leader and manager at the same time, so I was a bit concerned that I could not run the department up to the standard that was expected from me by the Dean, but that turned out to be great (M1).

However, some HoDs were reluctant to describe their roles and influence claiming that, with too many management tasks, you cannot be a good leader:

What took all my efforts is the fact that management duties are exhausting (*monhekah*); as a HOD, my efforts should be focused on, teaching, research and service. so I should make sure the department is running well, courses are taught well, the department doing enough quality research, then service to the student, to the industries outside (M4).

A Complex, Different World and Shocking Experiences

The majority of HoDs felt that working as a Head was like working in a completely different world; this was especially described by new leaders who had just moved into position. M6 described how he had felt when he was appointed and described it as a shocking experience:

...It was a bit of a shock and I was not preparing for it and I asked them to give me some time and think about it...I thought and said well...if I am going to stay in academia at some point somebody has to be a head and this is not something you can get away with, and if other people and the Dean thinks that I am capable to do it then I might as well want to do it and see how it goes...I took it and now it has been over a semester (M6).

Reluctant Managers

Two HoDs (M6, M 5) saw themselves primarily as academics rather than managers or leaders meaning that managerial responsibilities were not a priority. For these individuals, there was a reluctance to take up the position:

Honestly speaking I was not expecting this and I didn't have any desire of becoming a head because I don't want anything to affect the academic teaching and research. I love teaching, I love doing research, but when that came I didn't want her to feel down because they believe that I can do it and don't really want to do it , it will be a waste of some time in my career I think (M6).

'Key and Critical' but 'Least Appreciated'

The majority of university senior leaders and HoDs referred to the importance of the position and how it was fundamental to the operation of the University:

This position is critical, it is where many actions and decisions take place but nobody gives it that attention; it has to be good (S7).

7.2.4. Recruitment and Selection

The previous section presented participants' descriptions of their experiences of being a HoD. This section will focus on the selection criteria that were perceived to be the most important for the role. The recruitment system will also be discussed. Topics include who is considered best for the position; the number of years in post and the qualities and attributes that were perceived to be most crucial when selecting a HoD.

Election or Appointment

In terms of which model is better for appointing a new HoD - election or appointment - the participants suggested that each approach had its own benefits and significance as well as its own difficulties, thus making it hard to identify the better model. Some participants suggested that elections were not ideal for small and medium sized universities as they could be subject to lobbying. Additionally, a lack of maturity could affect the entire selection process, suggesting that appointment by the university might be more appropriate. The following comments reflect this view:

Well...how we should select depends on the maturity of the department, college and university. Both ways have their own philosophy and pros and cons. At the moment the university appoints but in say six years' time when most of our programmes will have been accredited, I think the department would become more mature...they then can elect among themselves. Our departments are too small - we have only 12,000 students in the whole university... elections would work in a large department, but if it is in a department with only ten faculties it is going to be easy to lobby and play political games, so I think is too early to move towards election (S4).

S3 added:

Here in this university we don't have elections. If we had a mature department it is a very good system to let the department select their Head and I am sure it would work better, but since we don't have mature departments I believe the way that is the best is to consult with the key people of the department on which one is the most appropriate guy to be the HoD (S3).

S2 also expressed a similar view and suggested that elections do not work all the time as they can be influenced:

You are in a small university in a small country where people very much - I wouldn't say know each other - but can influence some way or another, either influence or be influenced by others, influence not in terms of scientific field, but it could be social, could be family, could be nationality. Before, Deans were elected and associate deans were also elected but that failed because those people who were elected didn't follow

the direction of the university and sometimes only served the people who voted for them... so it wasn't successful at all, not at all (S2).

Two HoDs shared similar views stating that it was not a matter of a fair election; rather, that it depended on the size and maturity of the university and departments. They suggested that elections might not be of any help as Gulf countries were different from European countries:

The point is it depends on the current situation. If you are a leader sometimes you need to appoint from your team; it is not matter of election. Elections are not always the best way to get the right people because being a leader, it is contextual.... Gulf state universities are different from universities in other parts of the world especially right now where the educational system is moving...change and transformation is happening so we are still at an early stage not like Europe education which is 100 years old and where the institutions are ready, the processes are there.... Here we are starting from scratch, so in order to lead the change you need to appoint your people, but election might be for a later stage, but not for today (M2).

Insiders, Outsiders and Locality

Another interesting finding was whether a HoD should be selected from inside or outside the university and whether she/he should be Qatari or non-Qatari. Some participants suggested that it was important to understand the internal culture, something that outsiders might not be able to understand in a short period of time, meaning that an insider might be more suited for the job. It was also thought that candidates should be from the faculty concerned and should be selected based on experience and expertise:

Well, based on our culture, I think it will be difficult for us to accept someone from outside so I think he should be one of the faculty members who has been developing himself and have the potential of being a good leader...that would encourage other faculty to work hard to become a HoD in the future or any higher position. In our world it is better to get someone from inside, because he will know the system better and know where the gaps are he needs to fill (F4).

A head of department with a similar view said:

I think it should be someone who has been in this university for a couple of years and is familiar with the system, requirements, curricula etc., before taking up a leadership position because sometimes you make a small mistake because you don't know the system or you don't know who you are supposed to talk to. In my case I was supported by the Dean and other colleagues so that it went smoothly...I didn't make disastrous mistakes (M1).

The following views are from different groups of participants who suggest that both approaches may be acceptable, but that insiders were always preferable. One HoD stated that outsiders may not understand the role and responsibilities because of cultural differences, while an insider may find it easy to understand these needs and requirements.

I prefer from inside because of the learning process, contextualising what we have. In most cases I prefer getting my people from inside...the context is different, the culture is different, although having people from outside is not a bad idea - they will bring new thoughts and ideas (M2).

Similarly, a Vice-President added that external experience is sometimes needed:

To have someone from outside...it will take them time to understand the system. We had one case of failure when we brought someone from outside...we have 3 cases, one of them was very successful and the other one was good and one was average. So I would say the idea of bringing one from outside is not totally bad, but when you do this you have to choose someone who you really know and do the match with departmental needs. For me, I would say if we have a good guy and the state of the department is good for sure from inside is better. But if we have real needs and we need an external experience then we can bring from outside (S3).

A senior leader, who was also a Vice-President, explained the advantages and disadvantages for each way of selecting a new head specifically where political influences inside the department might be an issue:

In Qatar University it works both ways. It could be someone who will be hired directly from outside... but most of the time, I would say 70% of time, it will be someone who has served in the department for some years. Each way has a positive and negative side, so when you bring someone in from the department, he could already be influenced by faculty politics and he will have this in his mind when he plans something for his faculty, someone who is outspoken, who is strong, who could go against him, who will influence his decisions or something like that...he will hesitate to plan well on solid ground. And this could impede the progress of the leadership and will almost feed on that culture (S2).

He also shed light on how bringing in someone from outside had its own benefits in the form of not being influenced by others and introducing a new culture that might help to facilitate new developments and change. At the same time, he discussed the issues that might arise in terms of acceptance by and understanding of the university system:

When you bring in someone who has experience in this kind of work before, it will help that he/she will bring new culture. He will be open minded to change and will not be affected or influenced by those people. But of course in the second case you

may run into conflicts and people will be resisting. The loudest of policies and they will try to create issues...they would say this person is new, he doesn't know the system of the department...this happened in some departments. They brought someone from outside...we succeeded in hiring people but we did not succeed in making success, making successful stories...people could resist someone because he just came from outside...they will resist decisions that he or she makes. So there are some issues in terms of welcoming people who are hired directly from outside (S2).

Locality

Participants agreed about one important element when selecting a HoD. They suggested that a leader should be someone who was from the same nation so that the system could be well managed, the culture could be understood and local needs could be met within the university. Based on their views on this point, HoDs should be local (Qatari) when possible. However, this might not always happen as the number of local faculty staff was low. This was unexpectedly raised by a non-local faculty member:

Having a local leader, this is the main thing I think. Here we have problems...it is different here in Qatar from other institutions in the Gulf states...national faculty members are the minority - most of them are expatriates. But if we have enough Qatari, top and middle management should be always managed and led by national people (F7).

Another non-local faculty member indicated that:

Having Qatari people in this position has its advantages, because they will understand the culture and the needs within their society, law and the system better (F3).

A senior leader discussed the issue of not being local and lacking knowledge about the country and society culture. He felt that employing local people who had better understanding and knowledge of local culture should be strongly considered when appointing new leaders as HoD. He felt that this would help them to meet society's needs. His comment was that:

The third criteria to select a new Head, which we use it in this part of the world, is being local if we can, so if we have two candidates who can be a HoD we prefer the local one just to grow local talent and culture, and I have noticed that the local administrator, they connect easier with students than having a non-local administrator (S3).

Interestingly, this point was mostly reported by non-Qatari participants.

Rotational System and Years of Service

In terms of perceptions about how long a HoD should be serving in the position, most thought that a rotational policy or system was the most effective. They were not in favour of permanent positions, arguing that, with rapid change in the environment, it was important to change the leader/administrator to ensure innovative changes. F6 stated that the HoD should stay for a maximum of five years. His claim was that, thereafter, people tended to relax and that this could lead to little change in the system, implying a need for a breath of fresh air:

This is a very good question. It has to be a rotational because if you know that you are going to serve for a fixed time you will ensure that you treat people fairly so that they treat you the same way...I would say 5 years maximum unless people are not satisfied with him...but not permanent (F6).

F7 further added that appointing HoDs should be on a rotational basis as this will offer enough time to make change rather than being permanent and becoming complacent:

I think when you have given everything you have to give, it is good to change to another position and give other people the chance to try and help to achieve the goals of the institution (F7).

Another suggested that the maximum serving period should be six years as one can achieve a reasonable amount of things in this period:

I would think properly no more than six years, because you will accomplish everything you want to accomplish in six years and after that it becomes a routine. There will be no creativity, no incentive to do different things or modify and improve things: it will become a routine aspect in your life and this is not what you want (S7).

M4 supported the same view; he had served for a period of three years but felt the maximum should be six:

We just advertised a couple of weeks ago for my replacement because I have decided not to stay as HoD. I had enough in 3 years and the traditional contract is 3 years renewable for one more...it shouldn't be more than 6 years (M4).

M2 talked about the usefulness of experience and academic knowledge in this situation. He argued that a minimum of six years to a maximum of nine was more than enough to develop and run a department. However, he further stated that nine years should only be offered to an individual possessing exceptional skills and expertise. As it may be difficult to find a good enough replacement in this context, it was important

to focus on nurturing and retaining talent. Additionally, in the academic field, promotion could happen relatively late in career pathways; thus, the focus should be on identifying a new replacement once 3-4 years have passed. This would help in serving the cause of getting a good replacement:

I don't have a specific answer but I think it depends; I will give the alternatives. If you have plans to build, grow and make the department visibility higher, then you need more time to learn and get your team, because getting your team - getting all your faculty members or at least most of them aligned to your objectives and what you want to do - needs time especially in this part of the world. Here we have very diverse faculty members, not just by nationality but also in background, and that educational background makes it different. People come from the UK, the US and other Arab countries so six years I think is fine...it could be extended to nine years. After that I think she or he would be more effective in another position, so basically promotion will give you a broad view...so a minimum six years, and maximum nine years then you should go for something else (M2).

Specific Selection Criteria (Qualifications, Attributes, Qualities and Abilities)

When participants were asked whether there were specific criteria for selection of HoDs, none were identified. However, participants emphasised that more generic criteria were required, including important aspects of knowledge, skills and experience, as well as personal academic background in terms of ranking and qualifications. Technical and non-technical knowledge were important; HoDs should be knowledgeable in their subject area and have good leadership competencies to deal with wide range of issues:

I would definitely say technical and non-technical criteria; technical would be related to experience and knowledge related to the department itself. The one significant issue which is really is not considered when they appoint those HODs is non-technical criteria and competencies. Basically, number one is leadership skills, because when we usually do interviews for managerial positions, what I have seen from my experience, they focus on knowledge, but it is very rare they focus on leadership skills; how do they manage people, how do they lead and motivate people, what are the previous achievements because of their leadership skills, and so on (M3).

The importance of academic background and field knowledge with adequate qualifications, including a PhD as a minimum, was reported as a key criterion for selecting a HoD by the majority of faculty and leaders:

It seems to me when you talk to the Dean they choose somebody with a good academic background. He has to have a PhD as minimum so at the beginning we look at the

academic background, but in terms of ranking whether he is a professor or associate professor – it is not very important (S2).

In contrast, S3 thought that rank would matter:

The rank of the faculty which is linked to the experience, I prefer HoD to be a full professor (S3).

Several faculty members from different departments supported this view, but also stressed the importance of having leadership experience and skills alongside academic background:

It should be the one who is involved in the profession itself. So when they select they should find someone who has awareness and leadership skills...it should be the most qualified at least compared to faculty members. They, for example, should not just do paper work, scheduling, hiring and firing people and just focus on the administrative work because you know this can be done by any administrative people. HoDs should look after the academic department as a whole, the uniting, managing, the future of the unit - what would happen in the short term and long term in terms of development, changes and introducing new courses...new programmes, assessing the current programme...all these I think would make a big difference(F7).

Another faculty member from the Law School commented,

Of course the professional academic background is important but not sufficient enough to proceed with the job (F4).

F6 (engineering background) agreed:

They should look for academic experience and leadership experience - that would help (F6).

What seems to be important for some departments, for example in Applied Sciences, was an industrial background and practical experience. One current HoD shared his experience when appointed to the position:

When I got to this position they looked at my academic background but there was another thing I wished they had focused on but they did not - my industrial background because we are in an Applied Science department. We are not chemistry or physics or maths; these are theoretical sciences. We are engineering and applied science, civil engineering. When you are teaching the design of a road or bridge, it would be very helpful if the professor himself has already worked in the industry and already witnessed the construction a road bridge and so on...non-academic or what we call industrial work experience is very important. I have lots of experience and, to be honest, I did not feel they focused on that although it was mentioned (M4).

Participants also talked about the range of abilities that a person should possess; for example, decision making, leading change and the ability to convince others:

Leaders must be chosen for his or her ability to change for better of course. For example, in the College of Law, the College has changed dramatically during the past 3 years; curricula, courses, hiring people ...you need somebody who makes decisions reasonably and quickly...able to be objective and have the ability to lead (F2).

Additionally, senior leaders felt that skills like leadership skills, diplomacy skills and vision were also required:

Firstly, look for leadership skills and what I mean by leadership skills, they should be fair, they should be assertive (self-confidence) they should be open minded...they have to have organizational skills as well...they have to be organized, fast, on the top amongst their workers. They have to have good relationships with their colleagues and able to handle different kinds of mentality and different kind of difficulties (S6).

Overall, it was found that, in terms of appointing a HoD, most interviewees supported university selection rather than election, because elections could be biased and problematic if applied in a small university. With regard to years of service in the position, the majority believed that a period of six years maximum was optimal. Additionally, key skills required for the position were identified as leadership skills, motivational skills, problem solving skills and inter-personal skills.

7.3. Essential Personal Characteristics, Skills, Knowledge and Qualities

The success of academic leadership was seen to be dependent on demonstrating particular competencies (skills, characteristics, knowledge and abilities). This can be presented under four main sub-themes.

7.3.1. Personal Characteristics

This section focuses on what characteristics were reported to be important for a HoD to possess. It was perceived that leaders needed to have different traits as a moral person, including being fair, firm and trustworthy; other qualities included transparency, integrity, honesty, directness, straightforward acting without having any hidden agenda, and sincerity. Having warmth and a cheerful nature with a sense of humour were also found to be desirable characteristics in HoDs. In addition, an emphasis was also placed on the importance of being confident and assertive, but without being arrogant.

Being a Moral Person (Leader)

Participants from different levels placed a significant emphasis on the importance of morality and being a moral person. Leaders must hold values that are based upon respect for others, and respect for dealing with diversity within the department. This meant being firm and transparent. Being a moral person was viewed as an essential characteristic; leaders were expected to be fair, firm, transparent, respectful and honest and to possess a high level of integrity when dealing with others. Transparency, in particular, was often reported during interviews; participants suggested that transparency and honesty must be presented in every action taken by HoDs. They also suggested that leaders must encourage and create an environment within the department where honesty, trust and openness were present in all activities. The following comments from different participants reflect on the importance of being a moral leader;

I think what leaders need to have and to present are honesty, transparency openness, accepting others, being organized, fairness - ethics are very important (M2).

Everyone has their own values and integrity level. However, leaders not only need to have distinctive values, but also a high degree of integrity and ethical standards. Ethical standards are also important in the hiring process for example. In addition, the character and values of individuals play an important role and should be assessed and analysed critically (M10).

It was found that participants associated transparency with trust, suggesting that a high level of transparency leads to a better level of trust among departmental members. A Head stated that:

Building trust is very important if people don't trust you it will affect the work, being transparent is very important to build trust (M5).

Another similar view from a faculty member emphasized the importance of transparency in getting things done along with winning the trust of others. His views were:

He has to be transparent and clear, what else? So he doesn't have like a hidden agenda; transparency, being very clear very straightforward - that's very important to leaders (F6).

A HoD felt that it was important to be transparent and keep faculty and people informed, along with offering all the relevant information.

A hiding agenda, no way! This is why I told you about the characteristics - sincerity and honesty are very important - you have to be sincere with your people so that they trust you (M2).

A senior leader stressed the importance of integrity and discussed how the environment and culture could impact upon the practice of morals, integrity and fairness. His views also focused on his opinion that how healthy and fair was a culture was more important than fairness as a personal characteristic in individuals. In his view, culture played an important and decisive role in shaping an ethical leader. He revealed that:

The integrity of the person and the integrity of the department are very critical, but here in this culture the environment doesn't help in admitting mistakes so it becomes easy to lie to get things done. Unfortunately, this is occurring in all colleges; people do not like taking blame for making mistakes, they will not come and admit – 'no I made a mistake'. Integrity becomes very important so with the integrity you have to believe in their right...For me I always make it clear to my people you have my trust 100% until you prove it otherwise. Then I don't want you to be my leader one day (S7).

He provided the following example:

I had an issue with one HoD in my college...then I said whatever you are telling me, you had a hidden agenda, you didn't let this person to teach for whatever reason, it doesn't matter what the reason is and to me that is a very low integrity. Then the quality becomes a big issue, so then you can't trust what people report to you and start questioning are you really doing this? And when you start questioning, that means there is not trust. They have to set roles with a high level of integrity. Otherwise, with hidden agenda they have to check, they cannot just depend on whatever they receive. (S7).

Being fair, firm and humble when dealing with the faculty and staff were other aspects of being a moral leader. In this regard, one of the faculty pointed out that:

He has to be fair and I think this is the most important. I worked in many universities and I think fairness comes first...if you are not fair it is going to be very difficult to deal with and will affect your environment and morals as well, which will impact on the performance as well. Because the Head makes most of the decisions and if he or she is not fair, that's going to be a problem and will have so many clashes, like assigning courses to different faculty, tasks distribution you know, so you have to be fair in that (F6).

Another faculty member added that it was very important for a leader to be humble with their staff. It was important to deal with people in a polite manner along with being open in personal communications. Her comment was:

First of all, before anything, a leader should not be big headed at all and morals come first. The boss is the example for all faculty members because we seek his help in many aspects of our academic lives. So if he was a big headed, no one will go and consult him. He should be polite. Morals come before education (F2).

A Dean also mentioned job ethics as a crucial aspect. He stated that the wellbeing of everyone was important rather than thinking about oneself. She said that:

They have to be ethical and not use the position of authority for personal gain, for themselves; they must work for the wellbeing for everyone in the department not only themselves. They have to know what it means to be a HoD; it is about fairness, being assertive etc. They need to know what we might call it - job ethics (S6).

Assertive but not Arrogant

Another characteristic that was reported to be of great importance for HoD leadership was in the form of being confident and assertive, but with a big emphasis on not being arrogant. Participants claimed that, while leaders should have a great vision and skills, and even passion towards what they are doing, they had to be confident and assertive taking action and in charge of situations; otherwise, they would be considered as weak. The importance of being assertive was particularly linked with control of complex situations. Participants believed that leaders had to be confident in their ability, skills and knowledge, and that, without a strong sense of confidence in what they were doing, they could fail in leading academic people. Additionally, being strong, tough, and practical in their behaviour was seen to be related to self-confidence and the assertiveness of a leader; these fundamental traits for leadership that helped in nurturing individuals and groups.

Faculty and HoDs mainly referred to this aspect of leadership. One of the faculty stated that:

Confidence is very important, because if you are going to change your opinion every two seconds nobody is going to trust you as a leader. I worked with someone who does that a lot; he decides something and in few seconds he will change and say no we shouldn't do it this way. so you don't know what to prepare for because this person is just moving from one decision to another because this person said something or that person said something. You should be confident and not affected by others, if you have done everything and consulted everyone and you think it is right, just stick to it, ...but if you change it the next day, nobody will trust you (F1).

Another faculty member also stated the importance of confidence in dealing with people and with departmental issues, alongside being polite, direct and straightforward in their communications. His views highlighted the importance of these points in a precise manner:

He should have very high self-confidence, wise enough to differentiate between different people and different issues, respectful and polite, and know how to deal with people without hurting them, and also, in addition to being honest, he needs to be direct at the same time and straightforward (F4).

Participants also placed an emphasis on being assertive and confident, but not arrogant.

The following comment from a faculty member reflect this view:

I think leaders should be confident, without being arrogant, and confident in his ultimate decision after consulting everyone he should know he is going to take the decision at the end (F1).

Warmth and Openness

Other characteristics that were mentioned by some interviewees related to dealing with people included a sense of humour, being welcoming to others, cheerfulness, and being open minded with positive attitudes. For example, a senior leader suggested that:

HoDs should have a sense of humour when for example talking to your people or delivering classes, and make all the effort to make sure that people are happy all the time. You know, the new research shows that if people who work with you are smiling then they are working and learning, if not then it is a sign of concern (S5).

A faculty member with similar views stated that leaders needed to be cheerful; this helped others to be cheerful and encouraged enthusiasm towards work. This also led to a positive outlook and behaviour. He stated that:

He should be cheerful, smile to others, give them time to discuss things and some issues, say hi, shake hands (F2).

A senior leader suggested:

Having a sense of humour, knowledge and being enthusiastic - those things help me a lot in leading and dealing with people (S5).

Two other faculty members expressed similar views. They stated that welcoming the ideas and suggestions of others was important along with respect for their opinions. This helped in bringing in new ideas and initiatives. They explained [

He should welcome any suggestion from any faculty member, they should have a say; also he should listen to students and any new ideas they come up with. And I really like this in our leader (F2).

He is the one who listens to different views and accepts others' opinions, he should be open to other ideas and encourage others to bring forward new ideas and initiatives (F9).

One of the HoDs shared similar views and emphasized the importance of attitude. Attitude defined the approach and planning of individuals. His views revolved around

a descriptive analysis of the importance of attitude that was related to different factors, leading to favourable situations and outcomes. His views were:

To me, about the main characteristics, I would say attitudes, because attitudes either might take the department to the right or to the left, because attitudes cover a lot of issues, creativity, innovation, the way you react to people, dealing with people, how to motivate them. And your asset here is your people; if you don't know how to talk to people, how to listen to people, how to react to different situations they face every day (M3).

It is clear that personal characteristics matter significantly in dealing with people and operational challenges. Personal characteristics in the form of honesty, transparency, morals, ethics, and confidence, the art of dealing with people, and an assertive and warm nature and behaviour are all important in dealing with people and gaining their trust. Additionally, such traits were considered to be important for delivering a number of positive results within the department and university settings.

7.3.2. Skills

Leadership is a combination of ‘being and doing’; neither is sufficient on its own. Leaders need to have the required skills and behaviours to be able to start the process of doing and taking action. HoDs are chosen for their position mainly because of their knowledge and academic abilities in their disciplines. Being academically distinguished among peers may make them successful faculty members, but they must possess and demonstrate relevant skills and competencies when they move to a leadership position. The following skills were identified by interviewees to be important for good departmental leadership and were seen to be necessary for HoDs in order to perform their roles: management and self-organizational skills; problem solving skills; strategic planning and strategic thinking; interpersonal and people skills, diplomacy and negotiating skills; social skills; communication skills; psychological skills; recruitment skills; performance management, evaluation and assessment skills; and teaching and research (academic skills). All these skills will be discussed in more detail below.

Managerial and Organizational Skills

A majority of the interviewees provided a list of skills and competencies under the heading of managerial and organizational skills that department leaders should possess, since management was seen as an essential task of leaders. These included strategic planning, problem solving, time management, prioritizing, and managing resources. The importance of and the need to acquire these skills were seen to reflect the complex role and overwhelming tasks and responsibilities.

Planning and Time Management

Skills of planning and time management, as well as being able to prioritise tasks and responsibilities, were reported as vital skills that HoDs should have

Time management, we spend so much time on this administrative work which takes us away from our research (M1).

Skills, mmm, believe me, some leaders need even time management skills, and time planning (M3).

Senior leaders also stressed the importance of planning skills for HoDs, the following was a comment from a Vice-President:

That's a very good question...there are the basic skills like strategic planning which they must have (S3).

Another comment was from a Dean:

They have to have organizational skills, plan strategically; I mean they have to be organized, fast, on the top among their workers (S6).

Faculty members highlighted management skills as well as strategic skills; in particular, they stressed the need for project management skills:

I think they need leadership training, they need administrative skills, they need to be able to demonstrate management skills, they have to understand it; for example, if there is a vision and action plan you need someone who is committed to the big picture and make things done correctly in terms of quality, so, yeah, they need management skills and project management skills...the most important thing that departments need is skills of project management (F3).

Another senior leader, discussing the skills necessary for selecting a new HoD, expressed her views and said:

One of the main things we look for is can he manage, and does he have the management and organization skills (S1).

Similarly, a Vice-President observed:

They need some experience in management before chairing the department (S2).

Managing resources

Managing resources was also important:

Another important skill is managing resources, human resources, and how to manage those guys (S5).

A similar view was expressed by a faculty member:

You need resource management, what I mean is to be able to manage people (F3).

Prioritising

Other interviewees highlighted the need for organizing skills and the ability to prioritise tasks:

I didn't study management, but I believe management is a skill, but also I believe it a science by itself. So as you go through the job you need to know more about management, so that you will get better, able to delegate, able to manage people, able to prioritise things in your work. So all of these issues I deal with on a daily basis and I wouldn't have been able to if I didn't read in management stuff. Absolutely, academic leaders should have high skills in management and leadership (S8).

Conflict Management and Problem Solving

Departmental leaders should maintain a healthy and positive outlook in their department using skills of conflict management and problem solving. An interviewee from a senior level discussed the importance of following systematic approaches to problem solving. She shared her personal experience and gave an example of an approach to use when problems occurred, by looking at different aspects of an issue and bringing it all together in a coherent argument:

I wish if there was a formula for solving problems, but again it is also depending on the person, his characteristics, his ability to identify problems. This position teaches me how to see the thing in the whole, all aspects... to understand the issue first from all aspects; after that, sit and talk with people, whether it should be individually or together it depends on the issue, I believe and prefer all together, but sometimes there are some issues that are very sensitive and you have to handle it one by one before you take the next step. After that, you have to make the right decision and even sometimes you know the right decision may not please everyone because you can't please everybody (S1).

All these managerial skills were reported to be important for leadership as a HoD and were perceived as essential for carrying out their day-to day activities.

Recruitment Skills

Participants suggested that the right skills in staff recruitment were vital for a HoD since faculty affairs and staffing the department with the right, competent people was one of the main activities that HoDs were responsible for. HoDs must ensure selection of the right people and are accountable for this task. One senior leader said that bringing in the right people who will contribute to the department's vision and will enhance and develop the work of the department is a crucial responsibility of the HoD.

Another important thing for HoDs is recruiting and firing. This is a very important skill, recruiting the right faculty, the skill of how you know this candidate would fit with the vision of my department or not (S4).

Another senior leader emphasised how that would contribute to enhancing the departmental image and performance or activities:

There are some specific things, the programme was accredited in that time, I think what I am proud of and maybe you won't look at it as a big thing, is recruiting good people to the department. Believe it or not I recruited one guy when I was a Head; this guy, I worked with him and after I brought him to build a research centre and now it is the most successful research centre in in the Science Park in Qatar. It's called the Qatar Mobility Innovation Centre (QMIC) and then I appointed him as a Head when I was promoted to associate Dean and we continued working together, and then he left the department and now he is the director of this research centre (S3).

He added:

So I am proud of a few people that I brought them to the department (S3).

He also pointed to how he was able to achieve this:

Being active in the field will allow you to know the right people for your department, and the people who will add value to the department, and it was successful (S3).

The importance of having the right skills of recruitment was also identified by some participants from the faculty group; the following comments reflected this view:

He should have the skill to choose and recruit the right people to come and work in college (F2).

When it comes to hiring staff he should define the need and what type of people he would attract to the department to ensure that the people he brings will fit the department's needs and contribute to the vision (F9).

Interpersonal Skills

Participants referred to the importance of interpersonal skills and capabilities, building relationships and how to deal with others, which could help in achieving the work, tasks and goals of the department. There were multiple external and internal relationships to be established and developed, with diverse constituents, each requiring particular skills. Thus, as leaders, HoDs needed to be able to create and build relationships, understanding how to communicate with others. The following comments from a HoD reflect this view:

People skills and how to deal with people are important because you are in a position where you have to deal with your department's faculty and staff; you have to deal with the upper administration; you have to deal with students, whether your students and sometimes students from other departments, and you have to deal with outside industries because here we deal with government's organizations and companies. We invite them to participate and so on, so to have those communication skills and people skills, it is absolutely crucial (M4).

Similar views were expressed by a senior leader:

Actually, the most important skills people in this position need are the communication skills, because you are dealing with different types of people so you need to know how to deal with each one of them individually, even collectively; for example, teachers are different and researchers are different, so each group their needs are different .so you need to be aware how to deal with them based on positions, needs, interests and states; they need to understand how staff see themselves because most professors work and see that they are their own managers. No one can manage them and they are the decision makers for themselves, and it easy to say no to anything (S5).

Participants added some other specific skills for building relationships and understanding how to communicate with others. They suggested that leaders should have the skills of understanding different type of personalities, and a capability of reading others' minds, and understanding non-spoken communications and facial expressions. These were seen to be imperative for HoDs in this particular culture. Participants claimed that being indirect was one of the main features of the Arab communication style, and necessary to foster collaborative relationships and team building within departments. For example, a HoD discussed the importance of being able to read the minds of people and to manage different personalities:

I studied NOP²; it is way to study people's face movements; it did help me to understand facial expressions...It is not easy to understand the purpose of people's questions and actions so HoDs need to study or have knowledge about people face movements because some people are very good in hiding things (*laf we dowaran*-Arabic expression). I expect everybody to be straightforward and if someone is not straightforward with me then that's the matter for me to understand it and this is what I am learning now because not everybody is straightforward (M7).

Participants clearly believed that interpersonal skills were required for HoDs to perform effectively, given the difficulties when working with different faculty and different mentalities.

² NOP: A name of a training course for reading and understanding facial expressions of emotion and nonverbal communications to manage people at work.

Diplomacy, Political and Negotiation Skills

Being diplomatic and a good negotiator were other required skills for good leadership. It was suggested that having a level of awareness and understanding of politics and cultural norms within the university and society were key to building good relationships. Acting as a mediator between the central management and departmental members as well as with external stakeholders, the importance of having political, diplomatic and social skills was highlighted by many interviews. Participants suggested that such skills were crucial and would allow better understanding of issues and better interaction with different types of people; it was also suggested that being diplomatic was critical during negotiations when a decision was not in favour of most faculty members.

Therefore, it was important for leaders to go beyond using the right behaviour in the right situation, and to understand and read clues and signs and non-verbal communications from their people. Departmental leaders needed to possess high level communication skills combined with well-developed negotiation and diplomatic skills. Participants also referred to different skills that were important for being diplomatic, including being a good listener, open minded, flexible, confident, and welcoming others' views and ideas:

He should be able to understand others so he can get his people to do what he wants by using formal power with good manners and respect; he should show confidence as well (S6).

Another highlighted the importance of diplomacy and political skills in times of change:

You need to be diplomatic and political, so when change comes you will be able to deal with resistance in many ways...because there is always conflict in interests (M9).

Being diplomatic and political could allow leaders to build and maintain good relationships and create a favourable impression with those in senior administration and key external contacts. A member of the faculty claimed that diplomacy skills were important, particularly when dealing with faculty and students:

With some relationships you have to be careful and very diplomatic because you need to keep them...also he needs to be able to engage with staff and students in direct and indirect ways (F9).

Another interviewee who was a HoD said:

Running the department is about being diplomatic and political, it needs lots of politics and I am not a politician. I am a practical person but I am learning! (M7).

A view from a Dean:

The skill for the departmental leader is being able to meet the demands of central administration and the department while you need to be a good negotiator...and have the ability to act strategically so you can work with others in mutually beneficial ways (S8).

The challenge of leading in a multicultural context was highlighted by some interviewees. A faculty member said

He needs to have negotiation skills and to be able to negotiate, he should be able to see how others see the situation, and have good communication skills... I mean being able not only to listen to what has been said but also to listen to how it was said to understand better (F10).

Being diplomatic was also seen to allow a HoD to improve departmental climate and relationships, and to develop mutual respect among faculty, which, in turn, could lead to less conflict:

It might also help to reduce resistance among faculty when it comes to introducing or implementing new policies (M6).

A Dean argued that, for leaders, in order to encourage faculty to work towards the mission and vision of the department, they needed to be diplomatic:

When leading people to work towards the mission and vision of the department there are different ways of doing this and this depends on personal attributes; for example, some do this by being diplomatic, others do this by being persuasive, it depends on the person (S6).

Some participants stressed the importance and difficulties of developing negotiation skills for leaders. They emphasised issues related to understanding local and other cultures of different university stakeholders who they dealt with, both externally and internally. They suggested that understanding other cultures was important, whether at an individual or group level.

A faculty member said:

A good leader should be able to speak more than one language. I mean speaking directly and indirectly, verbally and non-verbally, using phrases or local expressions; sometime this can help. I think people from different culture understand your message (F8).

Overall, it was suggested that leaders needed a good understanding of how to interact with people with different personalities and from different cultural backgrounds. Important skills included listening to different views, seeing things from others' perspectives and effective negotiating with others for mutual respect and trust.

7.3.3. Knowledge

This sub-section presents findings related to what knowledge was reported as being important for the successful functioning of departmental leadership within the University. Participants from different groups were asked what HoDs needed to know, or what knowledge they needed to have. Various responses emerged:

- Understanding of the university system, its culture and its operations
- Knowledge about external stakeholders and industrial relations
- Knowledge of their role and responsibilities
- Knowledge related to new trends and pedagogies in higher education
- Knowledge of administration and management
- Knowledge and cultural awareness of country and society norms and local traditions
- Intercultural/cross-cultural knowledge and awareness

Understanding the University System and Operations

Participants identified certain aspects of university administration which HoDs needed to understand. For example, it was suggested that the HoD should have knowledge about the university system, its procedures and policies, as well as the university culture.

The Head of Department should be someone who is involved in committees at the university level, so he knows the system of the university, how it goes and who is responsible for what, in terms of policies, procedures and institutional culture...this is very important. So he should be aware of how things are done and that will help him in his job (S1).

Most HoDs and senior leaders felt that it was crucial for all HoDs, and particularly those who were appointed from outside the university, to understand how things were done and where to get any necessary information. The following comments came from different participants:

Most leaders come to this position without a clear understanding of the larger structure of the university, so they need to have the appropriate information to do their job effectively, actually learning about the university and department policies and procedures, finding out who makes decisions and who to speak to in certain issues is a must (S5).

A good leader should be familiar with the system, requirements, curricula etc. before taking up a leadership position, sometimes you make a small mistake because you don't know the system or you don't know who you are supposed to talk to. But in my case I was very well supported by the Dean and other colleagues, so that went smoothly and I didn't make disastrous mistakes (M1).

Industrial Knowledge and External Relations

Some suggested that merely understanding the internal university system was not enough; departmental leaders also needed to have knowledge about relevant external stakeholders, and about market needs and their implications for the university. A senior leader from an engineering background talked about the importance of having knowledge about the main external stakeholders for the department – that is, those who were felt to be crucial for achieving the mission of the department. He gave a detailed response that reflects the importance of this knowledge in terms of designing the curriculum, student employability and bridging the gap between the outcomes of the university and market needs:

To be a good potential Head for the department of civil engineering, I would have to establish good networks with the largest construction company in the country, and with the major players of the construction industries... Good external relationships with stakeholders are very important for achieving your department's aims, for several reasons. First you need to train your students in such companies as part of their curriculum. Secondly, you need to engage them so once those students are graduated from your department they will be potential employees; so the output of your department will become the intake for them. Also, it is very important for those companies or industries to understand their needs and what they are lacking in, as well as what are the challenges they face, so you can address these things within the curriculum or teaching for your students and pay more attention to the feedback that we receive. So it is essential for HoDs to have wide networks; indeed, it is vital for achieving the goals of your department to have strong relationships with stakeholders (S4).

A faculty member from a different background (Law) shared the same view

Heads of departments should look outside the university. They need knowledge regarding the institution's background, but also about the other organizations that you might deal with as a part of your role, because some external relationships with others firms can make our work more productive and fruitful (F4).

A HoD from an engineering background referred to the vital importance of having practical and industrial experience and knowledge in the field, something he considered as one of the main criteria to be looked at when appointing new HoDs

within the Engineering College. He shared his experience of being appointed, commenting:

When I got this position they looked at my academic background, but there was another thing I wished they had focused on but they did not, which is my industrial background. We are working in applied science; we are not theoretical sciences, but engineering. In Civil Engineering, for example, when you are teaching a design of road or bridge it would be very helpful if the professor himself has already worked in the industry and already witnessed the construction of the building of a road bridge and so on. Non-academic, or so-called industrial work experience is absolutely very important. I have lots of experience and to be honest I did not feel they focused on that, although it was mentioned (M4).

Knowledge about Central Duties and Responsibilities

The HoD also needed to have a clear understanding of their role and responsibilities in order to do their job effectively. It was pointed out that HoDs were usually a member of the profession who took their role and position without previous training or a full knowledge of what was involved in their role. Overall, HoDs seemed to deal with this problem, but most wished that they had a clear job description about their role and what it involved. Deans also emphasised the importance of having some prior knowledge about their job:

Knowledge of the role, what you have to do, what does it involve (S5).

Understanding the departmental mission and vision was also reported by a senior leader to be essential:

Understanding the mission of the department and the vision of the college. What is the strategic position that this department should have...also to understand the vision of the Deanship, I mean understand where the college is heading to and how can I be an active player to achieve the vision through academic research and community service (S4).

Knowledge of new trends and pedagogy in higher education

Knowledge of new trends in higher education in general and within their discipline in particular were also reported to be important. It was also suggested that knowing new trends would allow HoDs to gain more knowledge and information for decision making, teaching and learning methods, improving the curriculum and integrating programmes. The latest knowledge would help the department to keep ahead of competitors. One interviewee claimed:

I think without a doubt the first thing is knowledge, you should know about what you are doing, you should know a lot about education about management, so you should have knowledge about your role your field and about the general context in education. so you don't only need to be knowledgeable in your studies you need to learn about different aspects; for example, when I was in Canada and the US I learnt that, and nobody taught me. If you need to promote the name of the college or department you need to publish, you have to be active, participate in different committees. Knowledge about different education systems in the world is important because when you want to change you have to justify; for example in the UK this has been done, in the USA, this has been done. (M5).

A Vice-President referred to the importance of being up-to-date in new trends in pedagogy and higher education:

You want someone who has a vision to lead the department. Not to run it in day-to-day operation, but someone who is really aware of what's going around the world, the new trends in education, the new pedagogies (S3).

A senior leader added that knowledge of teaching and new learning methods for students was also vital:

Also you need to have broad experience in what it is related to your area, for example if you know about teaching skills and excellence that would help you when you go for a class observation even if it is not your major (S5).

However, HoDs expressed some difficulties in keeping up to date about new trends and found it to be challenging as the HE sector was growing very fast. One said:

Everything it is changing fast and you have always to be up-to-date, but that's a challenge, you need to know what's new there, students and the way they learn has changed, old methods might not work like before (M10).

Administrative and Management Knowledge

The most demanding aspect of management that was often mentioned by participants was learning how to prioritise responsibilities and personal time management. HoDs suggested that a well-organized department was essential. Several managerial aspects of leadership, including time management, organizational skills, knowledge about strategic planning and knowing how to set priorities, were important for departmental leaders in order to organize an effective unit. A HoD commented:

The HoD should know that a priority comes first, but if you concentrate on one thing other things might accumulate. To be effective is to be capable of multitasking and able to distribute work, or what we call it task sharing and follow up. They always have to look not one step ahead but at least three steps ahead; some might say one, others might say two, but I would say three because if we are prepared for three steps

ahead you can achieve at least two, but not only that, if there is any change then you know how to get it through, because you are going in one direction and something changes, so you don't have a broad look of what's going on and what changes can be done if such things happened. Some people might think that you are thinking in a direct way that could happen and might say why not look for one scenario, but you have to have different scenarios looking forward just in case something goes wrong (M7).

A senior leader shared a similar view:

Administrative knowledge; they should have at least some experience and they must be willing to build on whatever they have and fill the gaps, so they must show that they are willing to learn (S6).

Budgeting and resource management were also reported to be areas that departmental leaders should know about. In the words of a Vice-President:

They should know and have basic understanding of management, finance and budgets (S4).

A HoD shared the same view and said:

As administrators, you want to run the programme efficiently with less budget available, so you need to know about budgetary 'stuff' (M7).

Some other HoDs emphasised the need to have training courses and a better understanding of financing and budgetary issues. They were very open about areas where they were lacking, areas of weakness of which they were self-aware and where some relevant professional training was needed. especially with so many responsibilities being assigned to them on a daily basis. A Vice-President shared similar views and suggested that training in budgeting was likely to result in more efficient use of the resources and better planning:

Non-technical knowledge is crucial. HoDs should be very well organized, should have leadership skills, know how to deal with people, know how to do strategic planning, and understand finance, because now in the university we have a decentralised system, so each department should have its own strategic plan, its own budget. So a basic knowledge of those things is becoming more and more important. And, to be honest, these things can be learned by some training courses and workshops (S3).

A senior leader pointed to the need for evaluation and assessment skills, and knowledge of the faculty:

Other skills, you need to know how to evaluate and assess people's performance, how to analyse the data, how to come up with development plans, this is the type of knowledge they should have and need to know...Some people think that you might

not be very good in your major, but, if you have those managerial and leadership skills and knowledge in this case, they can manage, but in some circumstances they rely on external providers (S5).

Knowledge and Cultural Awareness

With a high proportion of expatriates working in public and private organizations in Qatar, it was found that understanding the cultural norms of the country and society was crucial for all leaders. In particular, when expatriates were leading local faculty and students, this understanding was especially important. Many interviewees from different cultural backgrounds reported that knowledge of the cultural nuances of the country was an important element of leadership for a HoD as it would allow leaders to perform better, deal with others more effectively, and help to build good external and internal relationships. One participant commented;

...it is also important to understand the political position of the University in the country, as well as the culture and traditions of the society (F12)

Similarly, a local faculty member stated;

If the HoD is not a local leader, he should know more about the country and culture, and about the traditions here (F4).

Non-local leaders in the position of a Dean or HoD discussed the importance of understanding what behavioural aspects or managerial styles might be acceptable or expected in certain situations. For example, they referred to the importance of keeping a distance between leaders and followers, and to the need to be aggressive sometimes, as being too close or very soft when leading could be considered as a sign of weakness which could lead employees to attempt to exploit the manager:

If you are a leader, you sometimes need to keep a distance between you and the faculty ...if you were close to them, it would not be easy to say no (M5).

...sometimes you will face conflicts you need to handle with aggression. Otherwise, people might think that you are weak and weakness is not acceptable for a leader (S8).

A HoD shared a similar view:

...being able to say no, forcing things by using your position, power or authority, talking indirectly and being sometimes... mm ...what you call in English “evasive”, so being evasive in some relationship ...all these behaviours. Sometimes you need to be evasive and are valued for good leadership, especially here in this part of the world (M10).

Intercultural Knowledge and Awareness

Another important aspect that emerged was inter-cultural sensitivity and diversity management, individually or within a team. It was suggested that, since many people working in the university were foreigners from many different backgrounds, the need for cultural awareness becomes an important element of university leadership in order for people to be able to work happily together. It was also important to be able to adapt to living and communication in other cultures. Participants highlighted different cultural aspects, such as understanding body language, manners, values, hospitality, gender issues and limitations of different cultures.

A non-local faculty member shared his experience and made the point that leaders must be aware of little things about others' cultures, such as non-verbal communication and what were acceptable behaviours, and what not to do in different cultures. He gave the example of shaking hands and holding the hand for a while and what it means to him, as in the Arab Gulf culture this normally means a very warm welcome or an appreciation, but in other cultures the meaning might be very different;

Not everybody is interested in shaking hands and a long greeting; simple things sometimes important to maintain good relationships for leadership in the university (F10).

Similarly, a HoD commented:

The HoD leaders have to have knowledge and cultural awareness of the people as early as they can. This is very important for dealing with faculty members. For example, you are supposed to have a good handshake because in some cultures it is rude if you don't do that. So I have to have a good firm handshake. And this is a way of showing respect: you take his hand in both your hands (M4).

Another example was provided by a local faculty member:

...it is important for leaders to note that honour and saving face is really important here in the national culture [of Qatar]. A direct style can be sometimes viewed as rude or they might get offended, which could affect relationships (F15).

A Dean offered another example of how some styles of communication might not work in specific cultures and how it was important for leaders to be aware of such aspects:

I think that to keep a healthy and respectful environment it is always important to communicate with faculty members. I have this practice of individually meeting with faculty members – for example, when we have a new project I tend to speak to all

faculty individually, because sometimes in general meetings, you find some people who are intimidated and do not like politics, so in the individual meeting I think I get more from them. I find this approach very effective and have recommended it to others (S8).

A faculty member made a point that individuals with different cultural backgrounds might vary in their conceptions and expectations of leadership, and stressed the importance for leaders to be open-minded to differences, using appropriate leadership skills to inspire and influence diverse people:

A leader needs to be sensitive and understanding of other cultures. They need to know the culture. And I think in any situation you need time to understand certain meanings of different cultures. The Lebanon, Syria, Sudan, there are a lot of different cultures here, and we all see the world differently in many ways. So a good leader has to understand that some cultural conflicts might take place. I could give you a good example. One of my leaders sat with me and I said well you really support my research and her view was 'yes I do'; I see supporting my research is that you give me time to do that and give me time off from committees, and don't give me other things, so I can do it; she sees it as I allow you to do research. That's the difference and that's the cultural conflict here. So what they do here, they cause me a problem here. So as a leader you need to be aware about the way we see the world ... so they have to understand the different cultures they are dealing with here and the different styles of people in teaching (F10).

Another example was mentioned by a senior leader and was related to people's relationships in the work environment, and how being sensitive and understanding and valuing individual differences could help to build a healthy relationship:

Each one should understand the other, where the other is coming from. We should get together, be honest, open dialogues, I believe in the saying that "iron sharpens iron, and one man sharpens another", so when we get together we talk honestly, openly, you don't get offended, I don't get offended. So if you live here do you have to be American? If I go to Saudi, do I have to be a Saudi? No. But I have to understand what it means to be Saudi, and you have to understand what it means to be American (F10).

A faculty member from a western culture spoke of something similar in a slightly different way and made a point of describing the need for a leader to engage and be culturally aware of others. He added an important element which was cultural and gender related; he also suggested that not being able to understand cultural differences could impact on performance and result in missing opportunities as a result of being isolated. He shared an example of ladies' social event that he could not join:

I'll give an example. My leader and faculty were having a party and she invited all the female faculty in department, and she came to me and invited my wife but not me. I totally understand this is their culture. But the problem here is that when they get

together they obviously will talk about some work, research projects etc., then where am I? That's the problem (F10).

A local senior leader shared a similar view and added that it was important for both leaders and staff to understand the values, behaviours and culture of others, and to adapt to the situation. His view was:

It is important for both leader and people to understand each other's cultures and sometimes they need to balance. What I mean for example is if I am task oriented and my faculty are relationships oriented which many of them are here, then I have to change the way I deal with them sometimes, not going direct to the task. However, they should also understand I am task oriented, so sometimes if I come direct to the point and not spend much time on informal talk or greeting or whatever, then they should not take it personally; do you see my point? (S10).

Understanding and respecting cultural differences among others was perceived as a critical aspect of leadership and HoDs should always take it into their consideration. Behavioural aspects, communication styles, and interpersonal and work relationships differ from one culture to another. Therefore, it was reported that leaders and faculty to have a general awareness of the differences that existed.

7.3.4. Leadership Qualities and Capabilities

Inspiring a Shared Vision and Making a Difference

The way things have worked in the past will not always guarantee success in the future since the higher education sector is facing new circumstances. It was suggested that leaders at all levels needed to recognise and identify current political, social and economic trends and issues, and needed to look at the bigger picture of the desirable future for the university and each department. The higher education leaders, particularly HoDs of the future will need to move beyond sustaining day-to-day management activities; they should be able not only to build working relationships, but also go beyond, looking to international connections, business relations, and links with any other agencies that can benefit their programmes. In other words, they need to be visionary leaders who see over and beyond, able to communicate their vision to others in an inspiring way, providing a clear picture about where the department is trying to go, and then translating it into practice. For HoD leadership, leaders need to be open to different kinds of change, taking initiatives and risks, looking beyond their academic environment, widening their scope, working with different partners and investing in new ventures; then, they need to let others get on board and contribute to that vision. This needs willingness and passion, and a belief in the value of what they are doing, as well as the ability to articulate this passion and persuade and convince others to share the vision.

Having vision and looking at the big picture and thinking globally combined with leading locally are necessary to drive the department forward. It was suggested that leaders must look ahead and over the horizon for their entire department. Vision, which means having ideas and objectives, must be combined with the ability to drive people towards this vision. From the participants' view, the HoD was not just a position where you focus only on accomplishing the day-to-day tasks; it was about looking forward and leading work to future success.

Participants highlighted some important elements of the desired visionary leadership. In particular, it was reported that departmental leaders needed first to believe in what they were doing, to have passion, and to have the ability to build a team and get people around them; finally, they need to have the ability to communicate that vision

effectively and to inspire others to work towards the achievement of that vision. The following views came from participants across all three interview groups.

Have It and Believe in It

A HoD shared his experience and stressed the importance of leaders always looking at the bigger picture, being forward thinking and being success driven:

He or she should have a vision and set higher goals, like lets go to the moon, should have a clear achievable vision and let people get excited about it, then people will stop talking about small details...always come up with big ideas so it is very important, otherwise they will be focusing on small silly things. So set higher goals, let them get excited, explain to them how and motivate them to achieve it. It is like steps; and if you are on the steps you can't just be in the middle, you've got to be moving (M5)

He further added:

Never stop! It's like Christianity or Islam when it says the day you think you are perfect then you will start declining, then you will deteriorate. I remember my supervisor in Canada sent me a card and it was written that 'if we are only looking down, we are not going to see the star, and once you will look up you will see the stars, and that's very important (M5).

A senior leader with experience of being a HoD in various universities in different countries emphasised the importance of being visionary and widening the scope of activity. He stressed that for leaders it was important to think globally, but to lead locally

Very few of them have it: to see the big picture. Many of them, they always try to concentrate only on smaller areas, and I assume the higher you go up in the leadership role, the more global you have to be in your thinking, but still leading locally. It is important to be able to see the big picture when they make their decisions (S7).

A senior leader talked about how knowing and understanding the vision was critical, but other requirements were also important;

Leaders in this position should have a vision, I mean they know where they are going and are committed to that vision. It should, of course, match with the vision of the college and the university. In a vision, there are many things, including where we are heading, what we need to do, how we can drive changes. Yeah, and indeed he has to be respected and good in his field...this cannot be acquired, you build it over years (S6).

Interestingly, almost all faculty interviewed talked about the importance for their departments to have a visionary leader. For example, a faculty member reported that a

HoD should have a vision and be willing to make a difference for the future development of the department:

The HoD should be the one who is involved in the world and in the profession itself, the one who has leadership skills. ... They should not just do paper work, scheduling, etc., or mainly focus on the administrative work ... this can be done by any administrative people. HoDs should have a vision, looking after the academic department as a whole. This means the future of the unit, what would happen in the short term and long term in terms of development, changes and introducing new courses, new programmes, assessing the current programme. All these I think would make a big difference (F7).

Others shared similar views:

You need also somebody with vision. He can see what the outcomes should be and understand how to get there (F3).

Another believed that having vision should be one of selection criteria when appointing a new HoD:

The second criterion, which I think is very important, is that a HoD should have a vision or strategic vision of the department. It is not just only for passing paperwork which we currently face in some departments (F7).

Communicate It

Most participants indicated that having vision, and being able to communicate that vision and strategy effectively, was one of the key leadership qualities that HoDs were required to demonstrate. Participants suggested that it was important for leaders to be able to communicate their vision among departmental members, engage with them and provide them with information and a clear sense of direction. It was also reported that it was important to be able to inspire departmental members by being an example, and being able to use collectively the best of each person's capabilities and interests. Thus, to turn the mission and vision into action, requires a leader who is able to communicate the vision effectively and make people work towards it:

I believe leadership is about driving change, inspiring people; it is about aligning people, and it is about vision and most of the people who are like this are transformational leaders. So you need to lead by example, show them that you believe in what you do and talk about it frequently, then people will believe that it is very important. It is important how you communicate your vision. You need to know that each one in your department has something related to your vision. You need to touch on that contribution, so you need to know the key strengths of your people, so you

motivate them based on each one of their interests in line with the vision. So if we are going to achieve this, you need to say 'you will get that' or 'you will be this', and you work with them and show them that you are active, hard-working and open (S5).

A head of department expressed a similar view:

Knowing and understanding people's interests is very important and will help a lot when you set a new role or outcomes, so you can touch upon each one's interests and take advantage of each one's strengths, and I mean we need different kinds of people to achieve our goals and vision (M1).

A further important aspect was mentioned by a faculty member with regard to working towards the department vision:

Mmm, that's a good point, I think the first thing he has to gain is their trust and he has to make sure there is team working, so he has to show them it is a team effort and not only one person working. The HoD is sometimes only the coordinator (F6).

A HoD also emphasised the importance of influencing people to work towards the vision through leading by example, inspiration and open communication, so that faculty could develop a sense of ownership for the vision. He shared his experience about an approach that had worked for him to get people to work towards the same departmental goals:

How did I achieve that? By positive attitudes, building confidence and more than that I had to believe in this change. This is very important, if you don't believe in what you are doing, if you don't believe in the change you want to do, how do you expect others to do it? Forget about it, I mean, that is the main driver, you see! ... So, by discussing, talking to people, come and see and I talk to them, it is not reminding, it is talking, sharing where we want to go. I don't talk about it in formal meetings. The composition of the human is soul and body, right, and the body is brain and heart, so when you talk to people, talk to their hearts not to their brains, then you will get what you want. Touch on them and tell them what we are doing is very valuable and say that, guys, the returns will benefit everybody. This is how we gain people's support. When we talk to them, go and talk them, say 'hello, oh I haven't seen you for a long time' etc., and this is the time to share your vision and your positive ideas. And here we are a small department so you might just meet them in the corridor, say 'hello' and talk to them (M2).

Have a Passion about it

Interviewees also suggested that, in order to communicate their vision effectively, HoDs needed to have passion in what they were doing, able to stimulate and inspire departmental members to achieve the desired outcomes. A senior leader said:

It is very important to have a passion; you need to have a passion for your work. If you love your work, you think about it all the time, then you can succeed. You can

transfer this enthusiasm; you have to inspire your team. But if you think this is just a job, then people will think the same way. So you need to be a good example for them. I have passion to do things and I like people to have passion...here we are talking about willingness and ability. HoDs should motivate their people to work and should be willing to do that. So we talk about passion for the work (S5).

Another HoD commented:

I think passion is the most important thing, because I mean if we do thing with passion then we can communicate that passion to the people who we are leading, and we kind create a kind of culture of passion and positive attitudes, what I mean also is that if you are passionate you can easily inspire others, this is what leadership is about (M1).

Building a Team

Participants also suggested that HoDs needed to make sure that they built a team with members who were fully appraised of where the department was heading. A senior leader said:

He should have people around him. I don't know, but it has been said if you have one third of people who are really effective then you can do what you want. This is a very tricky in an academic department, but you should build a team around you to achieve the vision of the department without having the others feeling that they are isolated (S3).

Although being a visionary leader was seen to be a critical aspect of leadership across all three groups, some explained that each department had its own leadership requirements and suggested that it was not always a requirement for HoDs to have a broad vision. For example, a Dean explained how a visionary leader was very important for some departments, but a more managerial HoD could work in other departments:

I want to add things here by the way that some skills are more important than others and in different departments different skills would be more important, because let's say in a college like ours what are the departments and specializations we need to focus on and what are our strengths, ok? Here we need the leaders or the HODs to be visionary, active... while in other departments who, for example, are not the strength of the college or will not have a big contribution to the society or the country, here, ok. You need people who are more managerial. I mean it is ok to have people who have better managerial skills to keep things going; of course, here you need ethics, but here vision may not be very important, you need someone who is dynamic and makes thing done, gets things submitted and delivered. In other departments which make a big contribution to the mission of the university, here you need to have special people with vision. So it depends whether the discipline has already made a contribution elsewhere or it depends on the potential. Yeah, for example if a department serves the whole university in certain courses, it is different for the department that serves its own needs (S6).

Model the Way

It was clear from different interviewees that HoDs were perceived to be leaders with special responsibilities to provide a leadership role model for carrying out the department's goals, purposes, core values and culture. Leadership behaviour and the way they interacted with others had a big role in accomplishing the University's mission and the goals of the department. The HoD played an important role enabling faculty to work towards the mission of department and university. Leaders needed to understand their actions and be aware of who they were, what they were doing and where they were going. Leading by example was needed, through their day-to-day interactions, actions and decisions.

It was found that department faculty sought strong leadership which was aware of their behaviours and actions, that would have an impact on their work and would respond to their day-to-day interactions. HoDs needed to be a good role model example for their faculty, acting with sincerity and a high level of integrity, able to motivate others and get the best out of each individual. The following comment from a faculty member reflects this view:

First of all, before anything, a leader should not be 'big headed' at all and morals come first. The boss is the example for all faculty members because we seek his help in many aspects of our academic lives. So if he was 'big headed' no one will follow him or go and consult him. He should be cheerful, smile to others, give them time to discuss things and some issues; say hi, shake hands, and be polite. Morals come before education (F2).

A HoD shared a similar view:

As a leader you need to act as a role model, you cannot ask people for something you are not doing. I remember something from my father many years back about his boss, he said his boss was from a mechanical background so whenever they had a problem with the machines, he just came and got into it with them, so now if you are the leader, what are you going to do if you see a problem here, you get involved and that's what I am trying to implement. Help yourself and others to solve problems; if your people see you doing this, you are not favouring X and you are honest, transparent; you are a hard working person, they will admire you. Unfortunately, people still want to see immediate results of change, but change won't happen overnight (M2).

Demonstrating commitment and dedication to the work and department and working hard were all qualities reported to be essential as a role model.

A senior leader shared the opinion that:

Dedication is important, they have to be willing to dedicate most of their time to their work so they can be good example for their faculty...also he has to be committed in terms of good writing skills, it is very important to communicate with others, he has to be a person who likes to work to meet objectives, he shouldn't look at the job as if it requires minimum effort. He has to have the time to commit himself, come early, leave late, you are going to send a message to your team and faculty that you are taking it seriously (S6).

A relevant comment from (M4):

Heads of department need to be hard workers and show this to our faculty and staff, and this is a way for achieving motivation and getting them to work hard too.

Participants also suggested that leading by example would result in others accepting him/her as a role model to follow, working in a team towards a common goal:

Be the model, because people, if they don't see you taking things seriously, they will do their own things, and not follow you. People want someone who is admired, respected and trusted when dealing with them (S3).

A HoD shared his experience and talked about how being hard working with positive attitudes helped him to inspire and influence others:

I think my hard work and my ethics, I mean if you work hard and all people see you are doing your best to serve them better, you are doing what you are supposed to do, you have those positive attitudes, etc. then you will get the support, so I think the Dean saw that I am serious about my position and work and I want to be the best that I could be, and the Dean was the role model for me, so it was easy (M2).

Power and Influence

Another important perception was that leading was all about influence. It was suggested that how HoDs present themselves in a leadership role affects their ability to leverage authority successfully and motivate others. A recurring theme among participants was the need for HoDs to be able to use different sources of power. Respondents suggested that, if faculty believed that their leaders had formal authority, they would permit their behaviour to be influenced; thus, HoDs needed to be aware of the potential benefits of using the power they had been given. Some referred to power relationships that reflected organizational structures and position power. Others, however, emphasized the importance of leadership by personal power, knowledge power and persuasion.

Authority and Position Power

Practicing formal authority delegated by a Dean or Vice-President was reported to be a crucial aspect of good leadership. It was suggested by several interviewees that people with certain types of formal power, like position power and power that comes from assigned authority, need to be used effectively; staff and faculty would respect and consider such sources of power as a strength, and HoDs were more likely to get their people in line. In other words, it was suggested that, when faculty perceived their leader was able to practice power and authority, they were more likely to get things done; it was assumed that the HoD would be given more serious consideration by the departmental members. The following comment from a Head reflected this view:

If you are a leader, you sometimes need to keep a distance between you and the faculty...if you were previously close to them, it would not be easy to say no. For example, if someone wants to go to a conference and you said no, if you were close to them it would not be easy to say no, and the same thing happens when you introduce something new, as it might take a long time to be done because they are your friends and might not do it. So if you smoke or drink coffee with them and there is not much distance, there would be not much respect. So it is a part of your authority to compromise, by not being too close to your faculty, and this is the case of my leader; he always keeps a distance from them. However, that way has its disadvantages, and the disadvantage is that you become authoritarian. Some people, they will feel part of the administration, part of the changes with ownership about any initiative you come up with (M5).

However, another HoD offered a different view:

What is important for the HOD is to let others feel that there are no barriers between us, to be open to all and let them feel free to come to you. It is important for the other person to feel comfortable, and how we achieve this is by being honest with each other (M4).

In practice, HoDs were equipped with some formal positional power and authority coming from the title of their position. Although, they had limited authority for decision-making, participants suggested that HoDs needed to be able to manage upwards and practice the positional power that they were given, especially bearing in mind that approval was needed for many daily activities.

One senior leader expressed his view:

They need sometimes to show they can use the authority and power given to them, so that people do not think he or she is weak leader. Because a sign of weakness in not being able to use or exercise authority, but their position power could lead some people to misuse that (S8).

Similarly, a HoD with experience of leading a department in Western universities stated:

Use the power in taking the final decision, not in the process of making the decision, but do not let them feel that we don't force anything to them. In the USA, we say I refer to their thoughts but we make the decision, but I believe democracy is a must and I am always democratic and hate being dictator (M4).

Another senior leader commented;

He should be the person who is respectful, humble, and able to use his personal power and never use the name of his position when dealing with people (S5).

Participants also highlighted that HoDs who were never autocratic and never used their power and authority might not have a great influence on people for big decisions that have to be implemented; this approach might well be perceived as weakness:

They sometimes need to show they can use the authority and power given to them, so that people do not think he or she is weak leader. Because a sign of weakness in not being able to use or exercise authority or their position power, but this could lead some people to misuse that power (S6).

A Dean added an important point on how to use this type of power:

They have to be ethical and don't use the position under authority to gain personal gain for themselves, but to work for the wellbeing for everyone in the department, not only themselves (S8).

Personal Power

Taking a different view, others claimed that leadership power was relational and personal rather than positional. Participants stated that a well valued and respected leader, who was perceived as open, true, honest, transparent and credible, could lead a department. This personal power could be gained with a high level of integrity and morality. HoDs were in an influential role due to the functions and activities they undertook and, therefore, leaders needed to exercise the power of influence. Some interviewees suggested that exercising personal quality would allow a HoD to build good relationships, gain faculty commitment and help to generate shared ownership of actions. (F1) shared the following view:

Leadership power is very important and you have to have the leadership power. You must use the positional power positively when it is needed, because whatever you do people would say he has been hired because of so and so, he has been hired not

necessarily because he earned it, because somebody picked you it like a privilege and not something you have earned, So I think you have to demonstrate the leadership power.

A faculty member expressed his view and highlighted the importance of being able to use a combination of different types of power and sources of influence. His comment was as follows:

It is not up to the HoD, it's up to the senior management, so she forces this or she has given the authority. We have got two options here: the first one is to have this bylaw so she can force this in one way or another - 'this is the strategy, this is the law, you can't break this law' because at the end of the day we need to implement those things. On the other hand, she needs to have some kind of ownership for those members to enhance their knowledge of critical thinking and the flexibility of education etc. so you need to convince them. And because it is hard sometimes to convince them in front of people you need to order them by force to get whatever you like, but first start by the easiest and most enjoyable way instead of starting straight away by forcing them to do things. If that does not work, then use the power. Any good management in the world has to have those two things: convincing people and using power (F8).

It seems that there was some widespread acceptance of the need for a HoD to be able to use authority. One interviewee said:

In the case of our Dean he gives an explanation of the change and listens to others, but not with the aim of stopping the change; he will force it and go ahead with it no matter what. He is tough, so that helps a lot (M5).

Knowledge Power

There is another type of influence that interviewees also talked about, where leaders could influence the behaviours of others and initiate action through rational persuasion, using their expertise, facts and logic. However, this required a high degree of respect and trust between both parties. One faculty member with previous experience of being a HoD from an engineering background, said,

Here, if you are clear, logical and always have evidence about what are you trying to do, then you can easily get people to do what you want (F12).

Similarly, a HoD from the same college said:

In my opinion, leaders need to have professional courage, because unfortunately and to be honest some of them don't have the courage to criticise an order from the upper administration, whether Deans or VP or the President. With this attitude, you can't influence anyone. Yes, I respect them, but, in some issues I may disagree with her or him respectfully, with evidence and a very good point. Talk in a very professional and polite way, and another thing which is very crucial: don't criticise on something without having a solution. Having evidence is right, but I might say a solution, because

we are engineers and you are not. When they tell you we are going to have a road from here to there and you tell them that the path of the road is not right, they say to you why and give me the alternative that could be better. You have to have the knowledge to respond. For example, using the story of the Prophet Mohammed and his friend then you can influence others. First he has the professional courage to criticise and he was polite, and he came up with a solution (M4).

Being prepared with the knowledge, skills and attitudes required also helped HoDs to influence the upper administration:

In my opinion the best way to behave or to act is to be prepared and prepare and prepare again when meeting your upper administrators and never get inside and come up with an idea that you cannot defend, so prepare yourself before and get the support of your team. My motto is never walk to the senior level without getting prepared, get ready to answer any question, that's how we can convince them and link this with the global strategy to show that this will not work to the individual interest, but it will really benefit the institution as a whole. With this procedure, we got many things for the department, this is my way of doing it and I think our background has had an impact on that. We are accountants, we like everything prepared and documented, we never throw anything away, we have archives of everything and this helps you a lot and I try my best to link what I propose to the global strategy, so we have here a micro-strategy for the department and we try to link it to the macro strategy of the university as a whole (M2).

A senior leader shared a similar view and expressed:

When you seek to influence a senior leader to get the support that you need and you want them to accept the idea that you came up with, I think you need to be well prepared for any related debate or issue, so when you are prepared and have all the detailed knowledge about it. So this is about the knowledge side. The second thing is the presentation, how you present this, because some people have great ideas, but they cannot communicate them well. So communication skills, for example some people, they get millions of dollars for a project just because they are good presenters and the other way round some people might have a great and valuable project but they don't get it because they cannot present and convince other about their idea. I don't like the word 'convince'. I like to influence people, because if you want to convince someone it is easy if you have the knowledge, but you might be lying, so start saying 'research said this' and 'another research said that'. Ok, because when you influence someone that means I believe in this, I can give you all the information I have about this idea, I present it with enthusiasm, so then you might get influenced by this and start thinking, yeah, it might be right and I will buy in this work and accept your idea. So this my way of doing this and I think it is very effective (S5).

Social Status Power

A further source of power that was recognised was the power that comes from a family name or nationality:

... a big name and nationality give you power; it could be fake power or real power when it is combined with required knowledge and leadership skills (S7).

S7 also suggested that having this type of power would help in gaining people's respect;

To me in the department, knowledge is important in this culture of course, but the family name gives you power; unfortunately, this is the truth whether we like it or dislike it. So to me, it is important first for faculty members to perceive you as a knowledgeable person and respect you, and second perceive you are able to solve problems and issues (S7).

A member of faculty from a western culture also shared the same view and explained that nationality was an important issue for leadership:

I have an advantage here others might not have because I come from '...' so people respect me and listen to me (F10).

Balance

It was repeatedly suggested that for departmental leaders to make a successful transition from faculty positions, they had to understand that they could not simply retain their faculty responsibilities. There had to be balance between the two roles, remaining current in the field as well as taking on a leadership role. HoDs needed to accept the fact that they were now both members of the academic faculty and administrators. It was suggested that to make a successful transition:

A leader has to understand you need to be able to balance between the two roles of being academic faculty and maintain current activity in the field as well as assuming a leadership role, and accept the fact that you are now both scholar and administrator, so balance is required (S8).

Additionally, the following comment from a senior leader now a Dean explained how vital it was for HoDs to be active in their academic role and that for a leader to be a good example to his colleagues he had to remain current in his academic discipline/field and maintain his own research. His view was:

HoDs as academic leaders have to continue doing their research; they cannot just push people to publish, you need to publish papers yourself and help others to publish. So you cannot stop your research and it is also good to collaborate with others, for example, if you have a junior faculty member doing research it is not a bad idea to collaborate with him or her. Be a good active example for your people. ...But the last thing you want to do is to be deadwood; deadwood means there is no intellectual capital, no currency in the field, no research, and then you try to motivate people to do creative things in teaching and research, and you are not doing so, you have to lead by example but also you need to be balanced. I know some HoDs spend 80% of their time improving themselves and others spend 80% from the time developing their faculty, so you need to have a balance, you cannot forget yourself because at the end of the day it is a stepping stone to go to the next level or whatever you want to do, so you have to continue to improve yourself (S7).

He also mentioned the importance of being able to balance between all responsibilities:

There are many qualities in my opinion for the department chair. First of all, they have to have balanced thinking, balanced activity; second, they have to balance the benefit to the faculty with the benefit to the university and the benefit to the department. Third, they have to balance the benefit to the students with the benefit to faculty; many times conflicts happen and we have so many complaints, you cannot please everyone at the end of the day, you have specific job and you have to achieve it. So the way to deal with it is to develop a reasonable and balanced approach (S7).

Taking initiatives

Being courageous, taking initiatives and encouraging new ideas and initiatives were viewed as some of the leadership qualities required by HoDs. A HoD shared his experience and provided an example of taking initiatives by a leader and the outcome.

In his words:

Taking initiatives; that is the difference between the manager and the leader. I can give you one example; in my previous job, we had a project in Morocco, I went to our office there with a specific mission. I was supposed to review prices and quantity etc. and when I was there I made an observation about something else that the project was not managed right, there were some fundamental problems. I made my own investigation, and when I came back I told my boss to forget about what I went for originally and he was very pleased that I did this. This is like when I send you to someone hungry to give him a sandwich then when I went I found him bleeding, so in this situation should I give him the sandwich or start dealing with his bleeding...? So, taking initiatives is important (M4).

These findings show that there were many different aspects of leadership that complemented each other. HoDs needed to demonstrate all those qualities and lead others, working towards success by being a role model for others in their department.

7.4. Heads of Department and Faculty Quality

Department chairs are responsible for implementing many different areas of University policy. One of the main areas where this leadership was most apparent related to the quality of academic staff and faculty affairs. The quality of faculty activity, even though most faculty worked independently, was considered a critical responsibility of the HoD.

The HoD carries out different roles in relation to faculty affairs, including recruitment; performance evaluation; promotion; facilitating professional development; discussing research ideas; assuring departmental members are informed of department, college, and institutional plans and activities; and encouraging university and community service activities. It was seen to be important for the HoD to provide appropriate opportunities for faculty to participate in department affairs. They needed to allocate and delegate responsibilities; encourage all staff to develop their teaching, research, knowledge exchange, professional practice, and administrative and technical skills as appropriate to their post. They must ensure a collegial, healthy environment; encourage a culture of excellence and collaboration; ensure that all staff had access to the necessary support to enable them to contribute fully and develop their skills and experience; make effective use of all staffing resources; deal with conflict among faculty members; and seek opportunities for collaboration and joint working with others beyond the department and beyond the faculty.

In other words, HoDs were accountable for managing faculty work assignments in a way that drew on individual strengths and maximized collective success. Given the significance of these critical tasks, it was important to pay attention to those specific skills that were perceived to be essential. It required sensitivity to individuals and support for university standards for excellence, as well as adherence to institutional procedures. In this section, the essential qualities required by HoDs in their leadership of faculty affairs will be considered. Findings will be presented from different perspectives that show contrasting perspectives on the essential components of HoD leadership.

Interviewees were asked what a HoD should be expected to do for their faculty members and what skills were required. In particular, faculty members and senior

leaders agreed that being a HoD had a major role in faculty development and that many different aspects of leadership were needed to help the personal and professional growth of academic faculty. These included specific skills, such as being a considerate and caring person, setting clear plans and expectations, facilitating resources; using a “carrot and stick” approach; building trust and a sense of community; celebrating excellence and achievements; mentoring; and delegation.

The Faculty Advocate

The skills reported by participants from different groups as essential for leading and managing academic faculty included: having communication skills, social skills, being persuasive and the ability to bring people together. From the perspective of a faculty member, an interviewee from the Business School identified different skills that he felt to be important for his leader to possess. He particularly emphasised the ability to manage people and drive them towards the vision of the department:

I think how to develop the programme itself - the academic side purely - have vision, how do you reflect market demand for example, and how to get faculty to engage in all these activities. As I told you, this is a big challenge because you are dealing with people who are mostly equal to you, not like in other institutions, and you cannot force somebody to do something he is not interested in. You might have people who are more experienced than you, but again this is to do with personal skills and interpersonal skills. To deal with this, mainly you need communication skills, social skills, how you bring your people together, he has to be convincing, reward them, let them feel they are part of this family, part of the vision. Even in preparing the class schedule, you need to ask them, do you want to do this? Do you want to do that? Here, you don't say this is the assignment and you have got to do it; here you say would you be interested in teaching this course or not? (F7).

Being Considerate

Another vital component of departmental leadership when leading their faculty was that of being considerate. This would allow a HoD to be close to their people and familiar with their needs, strengths and weaknesses, which would also result in being able to act appropriately. Participants suggested that leaders needed to pay attention to each individual and to the differences among faculty members. For example, a member of the faculty suggested that paying attention to individuals and providing help and support based on their needs, interests and maturity level was part of leadership to ensure faculty growth and development:

I think it has to do with the individual. This is not like a framework that can apply to everyone; you have more developed faculty, less developed faculty, active, non-active, research, teaching and so on, so it is a big thing, you should look to them individually based on their needs, based on their interests, set up a plan properly with their expectations and how they are going to be evaluated, you know and so on and the way they will be awarded. He should make a plan for each one (F7).

A Vice-President expressed the same view:

Effective leaders in the position of HoD should know the strengths and weaknesses of his faculty members. They should capitalise on these strengths and try to help faculty to overcome their weaknesses within the department and outside; for example, in the department I used to assign the right task to the right people who have the skills required because I think when you do that people will feel that they are contributing specially when they do it well. So, you assign those activities where you assume they are good, but at the same time you help them to improve in the things that they are not good at, not by assigning them tasks but probably by assigning a mentor to a junior faculty member. For those, for example, who are not good in research we try to send them to a conference, to attend even without presenting a paper, so each one has his own interests and we should find those needs and interests (S3).

A Dean also shared the same opinion and pointed to the need to align faculty needs with the department needs. He commented:

HoDs are responsible for them and one way is to agree with them a developmental plan, find where the gaps are for each one, identifies what needs to be done, training, conferences etc; so, they need to focus on the needs of each individual, on the needs of the department. For example, some people might be lacking in teaching skills, so they can provide them with some training opportunities, bring someone to share with them new teaching methodologies; some might be lacking in research, we can bring some big name researchers who could be a team player and help to engage people in research (S6).

A faculty member from a different department shared the same view. He referred to the level of maturity of faculty members that should be taken into consideration. He explained that, for example, if a HoD provides constant supervision or advice for a very senior faculty member that might be considered as a negative indication. He commented:

Well, scholars can tell you that there four different levels of faculty members in terms of their skills and ability and as a leader you should provide them with help and support based on their level of maturity; for example, if the leader is dealing with you as if you were in level 1 or 2 while you are in 4, that could impact on you badly and negatively (F4).

He added that one way of knowing each faculty member was the use of the open door policy and always keeping communications open:

To know more about your people, you should be close to them, apply the open door policy, provide the support they need (F4).

Another faculty member from the same department shared the same view and added that inter-personal communication and regular meetings were other ways to understand the needs of each individual:

Through interpersonal communications and through regular meetings and by looking at the differences between faculty members and figuring out what those different members needed (F8).

A senior leader saw building trust as another important factor when considering individuals' needs. He said:

But first of all the person has to be in trust with the faculty, so building trust is very important, they have to be trustworthy (S6).

Participants emphasized that professional support and sharing of information should be provided for faculty based on their needs and on the basis of full transparency and honesty. HoDs needed to assure themselves that all departmental members were informed about different activities and opportunities and had access to relevant facilities.

One HoD shared his experience;

We have a professional organization in Accounting, you see, and sometimes they require special skills to be developed by our faculty members, and we are transparent so everybody knows that he will be sent for reasons 1,2,3,4 etc. So there is no hidden agenda, no way, and this is why I told you about the characteristics of sincerity and honesty; these are very important. So, as a department of accounting, we always have consulting projects etc. which require high skills so we try to share these with our colleagues; whoever is interested we let them apply for it and if we have more than one person interested we try to come up with some kind of collective procedures, like first come first served or you took last time so let's give it to the others, and again all these take place on conditions of full transparency (M2).

A Dean also shared a similar view:

...And whenever we have a new project we form a committee to run this project so faculty won't feel this is a one-man show, and this is one of the challenges that occur when serving in this position (S8).

Participants felt that it was important for HoDs to care about faculty personally and professionally, as well as showing a level of empathy and an interest in faculty well-being.

A senior leader commented:

...I think human aspects of the job are very important, you have to show them that you are a caring person and a truly caring person, not picking on faculty mistakes; you must try to help them and solve their problems (S7).

A junior faculty member from a different college shared her experience with her leader and how he had been a caring person for their faculty:

My leader's style is ethical leadership because he works with all people and all college issues. I believe he is taking care of everyone and helps them to develop their professional careers, also dealing with them in a professional manner. He is open with us and the good thing is he communicates with each one in the way each one wants so basically he cares about our preferences (F4).

A faculty member strongly emphasised the need to provide personal care and build a sense of community, particularly for the non-local staff and faculty. He felt this was a critical aspect of leadership in QU. He said:

Good leaders are people who care about their people...faculty here need to feel they are part of the community...caring with all people in their department with respect to age, gender, nationality, etc (F11).

A HoD also confirmed:

...It's kind of creating a family atmosphere celebrating together, X person has a baby born, Y person accomplished a training course, and these things can promote a sense of community, good human relations and strong working relationships (M3).

Several interviewees from different groups agreed on the importance for leaders to celebrate excellence and achievements to show faculty that they were recognized and that their work was appreciated. A HoD suggested that:

Leaders need to publicly acknowledge and recognize their faculty achievements...Make them feel recognized...Let everyone feel as part of the department (M9).

Setting Clear Plans and Expectations

Both faculty members and senior leaders claimed that, as departmental leaders, HoDs needed to make it clear for faculty about requirements and expectations, and set clear plans and expectations for each individual faculty member. They suggested that faculty members had to be aware of what was required from them and how they were going to be evaluated. A senior leader shared this view:

They should have expectations for their faculty, clear plans for them, and then make every faculty accountable to that plan. It is very tough, by the way, and so difficult (S1).

A Dean shared the same view and mentioned the importance of ensuring faculty involvement in such activities:

We have a strategic plan for that for 3 years and we share this with the faculty members; we have committees to develop this strategic plan for faculty members to feel ownership for the plan itself. The committee was created from the faculty members and is representative of faculty members; then we discuss this in the general faculty meeting. I mean we discuss the strategic plan. We consult the faculty before we set a new role, we also ask for feedback and we show them how it is appreciated (S8).

This was confirmed by a faculty member:

If I know that my opinion is not counting, I will lose interest in participating, so the faculty has to be involved (F6).

Sending faculty to conferences, workshops and training courses was seen by several participants as one way to support faculty:

By looking at these differences between faculty members and figuring out what those different members need and trying to make some workshops to help them to enhance those skills where they are not good enough or something like this (F8).

Another faculty member commented:

Ok, let's say on your professional career, oh I see, you know, for example, it is a simple example but very important for me as a faculty member, let's say he got an email from an organisation or conference, they are asking for people to participate, so he should distribute this effectively and on time, and in this way encourage each one based on his interests (F6).

A head of department shared her experience on how to develop her faculty professionally by being a developmental as well as a supportive leader:

First of all I try to get promises from faculty members when I hire them, they don't have to be great, but they should have the seeds. If I see the seeds are there, and if they are put in the right environment, then they will excel and give more. I encourage them to work together, collaborate, apply for grants, sending them to conferences and workshops; I try to support them as much as I can, and I am genuine and honest and they know that I don't do this for some reasons but really to help and support them (M1).

However, another participant was more sceptical:

Sending them for training courses is a way to support them to grow, but the difficult point in the implementation is that you cannot force someone to eat and this is exactly like you cannot force someone to improve his attitudes, or his inner feelings; if he doesn't have the desire and motivation and you send him to a million training courses it will never ever affect him (M3).

A senior leader commented on the importance of helping faculty to improve and devolve responsibilities. However, this should be done with balance

I know some HoDs spend 80% of their time improving themselves and others spend 80% of their time developing their faculty, so you need to have balance. You cannot forget yourself because at the end of the day it is a stepping stone to go to the next level; whatever you want to do, you have to continue to improve yourself and your CV but at the same time you have to remember that you are going to be judged not as a person but as a department. Your success in moving the department and faculty to where it should be is a critical piece of your performance evaluation (S7).

“Carrot and Stick” Approach

Participants discussed a style of leadership where HoDs promoted compliance of their staff and faculty through a reward and punishment system. This was reported to be a common approach that a good leader should apply to ensure faculty quality and enhance performance, especially working with underperforming faculty. This may be seen as a ‘carrot and stick’ approach.

Another HoD proposed a different way when it came to the development of faculty with poor performance:

We set standards that we have for the annual appraisal and we have set some clear criteria for evaluation, and it is mentioned that to have exceptional performance you have to meet these standards 1,2,3,4 and you have to prove it with evidence. So for those professors who failed to meet those standards, they will get more than expected or less than expected (S8).

One HoD expressed his view that a “carrot and stick approach” was a way to create healthy professional competition among faculty;

Creating healthy competition among faculty? At least, I have to believe it is healthy, but in some cases it is nasty. Every 6 months, I send a list of publications that have been published by faculty members, showing them what their colleagues have done within the college in the last six months. So what happens if you don't publish, your name doesn't show up, and because all human beings have an ego, everyone wants their name to be shown, so in this way we create competition, so if you are a professor and you go and find your name is not there, then you try to catch up with others, so I think this way works, just like magic. Yeah, as magic! But, it also serves as a model so they see my work and publications, books and articles. (M5).

In stressing the need to use a “carrot and stick” approach with faculty, one HoD suggested:

As a head of department I have to motivate them to work; ‘carrot and stick’ is my approach. You can't tell me I am good without showing any production. I need to see and I try to reward; for example, if you do a paper I will support you to go for a conference in the US or UK (M4).

A faculty member also suggested that:

As a leader in this position you need to be able to punish and reward - the ‘carrot and stick strategy’ - to get the job done, especially with some types of people to increase their performance, their productivity (F9).

Mentoring

Participants from all three groups, senior leaders and faculty as well as HoDs, considered mentoring to be an important component of leadership. However, Deans and HoDs reported that there was no formal mentoring practice currently established to supervise faculty throughout the year, other than the annual appraisal. They emphasised the importance for a HoD to work and plan to ensure the quality of output of their faculty. Some faculty members indicated that junior colleagues often relied heavily upon their HoDs for advice and consultation. They also expressed a desire for a mentor who was not judgmental and applied an informal approach. Several HoDs emphasized the importance of mentoring to their faculty as a form of support that a good leader should provide. They suggested that regular follow-up, whether formal or informal, should take place to ensure good achievement.

One HoD shared her experience in using informal mentoring with her faculty and found that mentoring helped to give faculty the confidence to make the key moves they needed in order to progress. She also felt that mentoring was important, particularly

for junior faculty who might be reluctant to share their problems because of their lack of confidence. She claimed that, through informal mentoring, there were some areas that faculty could benefit from and, in turn, make positive changes for future success:

HoDs don't need to be judgmental when they give support to faculty. For example, I had a TA last year who had a problem in communicating ideas with students in class and students came and complained, so I started to talk to the teacher and I visited her class six times in that semester giving her my suggestions. She was open and appreciated all the support I gave her because she knows I was there to help and not to judge her performance. I evaluated her informally and now she has improved a lot and she is fine (M1).

Another HoD suggested that mentoring was an important aspect of leadership as it could contribute to both personal relationships and professional development:

One of the things that I believe in order to enhance a relationship between a manager and an employee is providing coaching or mentoring; for example, on a weekly base or monthly to follow up the achievement of the objectives. Training and career planning are also important (M3).

Importantly, providing feedback and criticism was also seen as part of mentoring that was required by a good leader. Interviewees emphasised how feedback should be given; one faculty member said:

Also a good leader should encourage his people and criticise them in a good manner (F4).

A head from a different college similarly commented:

In general, my attitude is to support and not tell them off as I do with my son. So I encourage them and guide...teach to improve ...I really care about my people; as a leader you need to criticise and give feedback, but it should be positively framed (M1).

Another HoD shared the same opinion and felt that follow-up was necessary, however, undesirable it might be:

Following up is important. It is not always possible to find the right person for the right job, but at the same time you tell the other person if this is the first time for you, it is good for you to learn, and you have our support and you can ask people around. Unfortunately, I have to keep an eye on things, mentoring and following up, and I wish I had seven glasses for that (M7).

However, views on mentoring varied. A different view was proposed by a Dean who saw that providing mentoring or supervision was not a good way for evaluation:

We don't actually mentor or supervise them, but we wait until the end of the year. Here in this university I was advised not to do what we call peer observation because it is true that you might go and pop into the class and it might be an exam or maybe it will be the best class for that professor or the worst, so you cannot very easily measure how good or bad their teaching is from one or two or even three classes you observed (S8).

A faculty member also suggested that follow-up and mentoring were not practical and should not be part of the HoD's role:

I believe that is not the chair's role, so I don't agree with that. As a faculty member it is your task to do that...I think he could follow up and ask if they need help, but I don't think it is practical because you know if you have 25 faculty members and if you are a chair you really can't keep track of your faculty like students. I think it is the responsibility of the faculty member. If you have a problem, go and seek for a solution, not the other way around (F6).

He also shared his personal experience in terms of receiving support from his leader for future success or professional development. He commented:

I don't expect help from a chair, I don't expect anything from him in this regard. Because I don't wait for him to tell me what to do and I don't also think other faculty wait for him as well in this regard. Personally, I do my own homework, but I can seek his help...I think in my personal case this would be the very minimum regarding my professional career and I don't wish more because I believe that is not the chair's role (F6).

A junior faculty member, who considered mentoring was a part of the HoD role, when asked to what extent she felt her HoD provided the support she needed, explained that there was still more that could be done for development of faculty, which in turn would contribute to the development of the department:

To a large extent, he has been very supportive, offering mentoring and direction, but I think there is more he can do, he is trying but that takes a long time (F3).

Delegation

Another vital aspect of leadership that emerged from the interviews was related to the importance of delegation. HoDs, in the view of participants, needed to be able to delegate tasks and responsibilities to staff and faculty. The importance of delegation was stressed by the faculty member group who all discussed it in a comprehensive manner. It was stated that delegation was important in assigning roles and responsibilities across a wide array of tasks and objectives. Participants also discussed how delegation should be applied and where. The process of delegation had to be pursued through effective strategies and in a planned way.

Why to Delegate

A senior leader suggested that a lack of understanding of the importance of delegation would result in negative outcomes. He stated that delegation could be a tricky process, especially when leaders were hesitant to take risks, which could result in faculty members not being aware of activities happening in the department:

Delegation in this part of the world is risky and, unfortunately, some administrators when they become a Head or Dean, they think it is time to delegate and not to do anything. This is wrong. I faced both types, I had a head of department who was non-local, he used to do everything himself and we ended up with things delayed and things were ... I mean it caused some problems. Sometimes I interact regularly with faculty and I found they are not aware of what is going on in the department because the head works on his own and submitted things to the college and it's been adopted without people knowing, and then people felt lost (S3).

He added:

Even when you want to do delegation it should be smart delegation, you should be involved, you should understand conclusions and outcomes when reached, and you should read and revise. So delegation is risky in both extremes, but it should be in the middle. And there should be a strategy for that (S3).

Other participants expressed the view that delegation was important and had a positive impact. However, good delegation required significant synergy and cooperation or else it could lead to negative outcomes. One faculty member shared the positive side for both HoDs and faculty:

Well, the positive impact is that for HODs they get a reduced work load and then they can check if the task has been done correctly; rather than do it themselves, somebody does it and then you check it. The positive impact for faculty members is that they are involved in faculty governance issues, they are involved in management, so you are

training people by doing this and you give people a sense of responsibility and maybe allow them to promote themselves eventually, and build their confidence as well. You need a HoD who can delegate responsibilities because some people take everything and do it themselves and become too busy, so you need somebody who is able to delegate effectively, then they can find a space in their time and not be overwhelmed (F3).

Another faculty member pointed to the importance of assigning the right person to the right task, and not overburdening the faculty:

I think the chair should understand the difference in being good in research and good in teaching, and he should not overload a member of the faculty if he knows that faculty have lost any of the projects they are working on, he should understand and be aware of what's going on with each faculty (F6).

A similar view was expressed by another faculty member (F2):

Also, he should not delegate too many things because as a faculty member, if you are surrounded by too many tasks, you won't have the freedom to do your job and I think in academic institutions it doesn't work this way, you should have freedom (F2).

A HoD emphasised that delegation was a mode of empowerment that helped building confidence in faculty as trusted colleagues; it might also help in completing the work on time, along with developing good relationships. Delegation needed to be applied carefully, empowering and enhancing levels of confidence, but should never be undertaken for the sake of reducing the work load:

It is extremely important. Delegation is not for the sake of reducing the workload, but delegation is for the sake of building self-confidence, that is how I see it. I delegate tasks for my assistant that later on I redo for myself, but it is just for the sake that she feels she is part of the team, so I need to build this self-confidence in my team. Yes, it is one of the advantages of delegation that it reduces the workload and I would be able to focus on more important tasks like strategic tasks, this is important, delegation is important because it gets everybody involved and this builds the sense of ownership. And, mmm, I feel that you identify yourself to the institutions, you know what is going on. I can do everything myself, but, no, I want my people to know what we are doing and what is going on in the department (M2).

How to Delegate

In terms of how to delegate successfully, one of the senior leaders stated that delegation of work should be based on offering support and clear direction for accomplishing the task, along with being fair and firm.

Well, of course, this depends on the task itself, but one of the mistakes that people do in delegation is that they don't put deadlines, so they just forward things and wait, so it should be with a timeline, and to me also it is better to be with direction. So it should be a guided, not an open delegation. It is important to follow-up, along with motivating others in the right direction. It is judicious to find out if they face challenges, need support in this way or that so they feel less pressure. To be honest, the most important thing in all of this is that people should feel comfortable working with you, they should feel that you are fair with them, that you appreciate them, which you are not taking their efforts for granted. Always try to refer the success to people in the department (S3).

Additionally, a senior leader commented:

Delegation should be supported by good strategies; lack of strategy would affect the process critically. Delegation should be based on smart choices by picking the right person for the right task. Flow of communication, regular mentoring and following up are a must and required (S2).

Similarly, a faculty member stated that being fair and equal were important for effective delegation:

They need to delegate and involve us, but they need to treat people fairly and equally. You need to give them motivation, give people some responsibilities and give them the facilities to achieve them, and look where to increase efficiency and reduce the burden of minor tasks by giving them more admin support. For example, if you need a faculty to focus on his research, try to provide him with an assistant to do his paper work in order to be more efficient. Let them enrol in activities that they are interested in (F3).

Delegation seems to be a crucial process for assigning roles and responsibilities, but should be carefully planned and required a wide range of skills; in particular, strategy needed to be well defined. Some leaders seemed to be unaware of the negative outcomes of ineffective delegation processes. Overall, delegation needed to be facilitated through effective planning and communication; faculty needed to be empowered by sharing responsibilities and should gain satisfaction. However, the key point was that the faculty should not be overburdened; and HoDs had an important role in this regard.

7.5. Training Needs and Future Development

Interviewees discussed what they saw as important aspects of management and leadership where they believed HoDs should receive training, given the complex responsibilities of the position. A significant issue, acknowledged by participants was that, although the role of HoD was critical, most were not trained either formally or informally prior to taking up the role and had little or no previous leadership and management experience. Participants highlighted specific aspects in relation to how and when such training should be provided, including the components to be included. For the first sub-theme, availability of training, an emphasis was placed on the importance of the training provided, continuity and the relevance of such training. For the second sub-theme, content, leadership training and management training were identified as areas most relevant to the role.

7.5.1. Availability, Continuity and Relevance

With regard to when HoDs should receive training, participants talked about the importance of ‘pre-preparation’ as well as continuing training opportunities throughout their time in position. An interviewee who was a faculty member, but previously a HoD, commented:

I also think leadership training should be provided before, so that he can be prepared, and also while in post so that he will be up to date with anything new related to the position (F6).

One HoD said:

I would set up a leadership training programme for any new HoD to go through before he or she comes to the position (M3).

Another HoD stated that learning or any relevant professional development should be ongoing:

...learning never stops and the more you learn, the more you learn that you know less...learning is continuous...the most important thing is learning when to say I need help...knowing what the gap in your knowledge is and the skills you need. This goes hand in hand with time management so when you can manage your time correctly then you can make time to gain more experience...I think that comes through sharing with people in the same field (M7).

Participants placed an emphasis on the relevance of context specific training:

...first of all we require organizational skills...a basic understanding of management and finance...the problem is when you go and take a finance training course, you find that the balance sheet they explain is for a commercial company; it isn't related to or reflecting the needs of higher education (S4).

One HoD added that all aspects of training should be aligned with the goals, mission and vision of the department and the university:

I think training should vary depending on institutional goals and on the individual as well, but mainly on institutional goals...but the individual has to be trained in a way that suits his personality and is based on the position requirements (M5).

A senior leader stated:

...studying about HoDs and what type of training they need is very important. We have everything for faculty members' professional development, but not for HoDs. Unfortunately, they are not trained for the post, but chosen as the most respected individual in the department. This institution has its own culture because it is apart from society and that also reflects on how things are done (S1).

Similarly, a HoD revealed that he had received no training prior to taking up the role:

No, not in this university, but I had training in other places in leadership skills...but I think it is important because when you go to those training workshops you learn new ideas and then you can encourage your faculty to go for it as well (M5).

Another senior leader, now a Dean, talked about why it was important that such training be available:

I didn't study management, but I believe management is a skill and also a science in its own right...you need to know more about management so that you will be better able to delegate, able to manage people and able to prioritise. I deal with all these issues on a daily basis and I would not have been able to do so if I had not read about management...Academic leaders should have well developed skills in management and leadership (S8).

7.5.2. Training needs

Given the importance and relevance of training and development for HoDs, participants stated that some aspects were especially crucial. The following sub-theme, divided into management-based training and leadership-based training, considers these elements. The following comment was made by a senior leader and provides an overview of these specific components:

I think what would be necessary is how to communicate with faculty, how to have plans for staff development, how to follow that plan and how to make every faculty member accountable...bring new initiatives, develop the department in terms of teaching and research and how to develop helping students. In some parts of the world, faculty members are given the freedom to do what they want, but here it is different...but even if they're given the chance they don't, either because they think it won't happen or because of personality. I think another responsibility is how to solve problems within the department and also how to develop a research agenda for the department...this is very important as well (S1).

Management-Based Staff Development

Several interviewees suggested that, given the complexity and overwhelming responsibilities that came with the role, it was important for the leader in the department to be able to manage and undertake essential management skills training. These included: time management, organizational skills, running effective meetings, project management skills, budgeting and finance, programme accreditation processes, faculty evaluation and assessment, planning and setting goals for faculty, stress management and managing the work-life balance.

One senior leader referred to the importance of management training:

For me, management is management in any organization - public, private, academic, non-academic...I am not only managing faculty members, I am managing the whole college so I am managing the services provided to the students, new projects in the college ...and internal and external relationships with other organizations, nationally and internationally. So I think in management in general you use the same principles...I myself have read many books on management and they helped a lot (S8).

Given their busy schedules and multiple roles, time management was considered to be crucial. One HoD saw time management as the most important skill to acquire, allowing HoDs to be more efficient:

...time management...we spend a lot of time on administrative work which takes us away from our research...how to manage time to produce more efficient committee work is important (M1).

Other organizational skills, for example prioritizing, finance and budgeting, running effective meetings and writing effective emails were also reported to be essential aspects for training. For example, it was reported by a faculty member that it was important for a leader to learn how to prioritize and that this could have a significant impact:

I think sometimes our leader takes on too many projects at the same time and then he gets frazzled. I told him to his face - you are taking on too much and now you are losing, so I think he needs to prioritise things and try to consult people who are going to be involved in the project, not just dump the project on them...yes they can do it, but they might be working on another project that you gave them too. So just talk to people about what you want them to do...he should check if they have too much on their table, before he says 'yes' we can do it when something comes from upper administration. If you take on too many projects, you might forget who you assigned them to...someone might end up with ten projects while other people have no projects. He should aim for a balanced distribution of tasks, because if you just focus on some people then how they can they do their research? (F1).

With regards to running effective meetings, a senior leader added:

...you know what will be good? How to run an effective meeting. It is very important not to waste time. Meetings should serve the vision of the department, but they should not feel bad about cancelling a meeting if there is not much to discuss...meetings are to discuss things and reach conclusions so meeting follow-up...how to document and initiate action, and working with the registry are important skills for HoDs and others (S3).

A faculty member added:

...how to deal with competing issues; time efficiency, successful delegation, project management skills, interpersonal skills like communication skills, clear communications with emails - how to write clear, concise and effective emails...I think they should get trained on that because academic people tend to talk a lot, but for emails they shouldn't talk too much (F3).

Another Vice-President added budget and finance:

...there are the basic skills like strategic planning, skills, finance and budgeting: time management (S3).

Another important aspect was the programme accreditation process. A Vice-President who was previously a HoD stated:

...he needs to understand how to accredit his programme...I would strongly invest in this and get them join accreditation programmes (S4).

Faculty evaluation and assessment were other important skills:

How to evaluate faculty over three elements, setting outcomes for each course and mapping them all together...they should understand these mapping processes...make sure that when students graduate they will be well rounded engineers...this also applies for any department (S4).

Setting goals and planning were important managerial tasks for HoDs to learn. Strategic planning, which involves environment scanning, the formulation of strategies and the allocation of scarce resources, was perceived as an important part of goal setting. However, mid-level and senior leaders indicated that HoDs tended to lose focus and put pressure on others. This kind of situation was perceived to require attention. For example, one HoD stated that HoDs needed to be trained in setting goals along with guiding others to achieve them in a planned manner. He also stated that, at times, HoDs were very interested and enthusiastic regarding goal setting programmes, but failed to motivate others:

Also, I think you have to be trained about setting goals for you and for your people, and how to achieve them, because sometimes some HoDs are very enthusiastic but they put too much pressure...that generates hostility and low morale in staff because they are stressed and they cannot perform well (M5).

Another HoD commented:

Skills are key for any training...believe me, some leaders need time management skills...strategic planning and thinking (M3).

Strategic planning was key towards accomplishing a wide array of objectives. However, a systematic approach was required to make planning effective.

Training in problem solving and conflict resolution were seen to be useful as leaders faced such issues regularly:

Conflict resolution, how to solve problems within the department - this is really important because something comes up every day...everybody thinks he is the right person to solve it (F1).

Training in anger and stress management was also regarded as vital. One HoD talked about the importance of balancing professional life and private/family life, wanting to learn about how to achieve this:

Maybe it would be anger management and stress management that I would wish to learn. I can manage the stress, but the problem is that I cannot separate my professional life from my family life...that causes problems...just two days ago I turned off my email on my mobile...I need to learn how to separate my professional life from my family life (M2).

Similarly, another HoD raised another point about work-life balance:

I am a very well organized person. I always have a to do list. I believe in the balance of the three components of the self: the body, the mind and the soul. I don't want to push myself or anyone else to do too much work to the point of getting exhausted...we need to have fun...we don't want to make the atmosphere dry and boring. I don't want to overload my staff because this will negatively impact upon productivity quality and quantity (M4).

M2 (HoD) gave a long list of important elements that he felt leaders lacked and were expected to improve in:

...there are two levels: one level related to administrative skills and planning - planning is very important - time management, organizational skills, communication skills - this is also very important at the admin level especially how to organize and plan, because from what I see, people are lacking these skills...they don't have a plan for the next six months because they don't use this in academia...they tend to think 'oh, we are academics so we cannot plan (M2).

Leadership-Based Staff Development

Participants felt that leadership training was important because ultimately that was what distinguished the HoD from faculty. One HoD differentiated between leadership and management needs, but recognised the need for both:

Well, this should cover a lot of issues about leadership, not management, because there is a big difference between them...this has a lot to do with motivation; how to motivate and encourage people, probably things to do with team work, coaching and mentoring, and differentiating between them. What else to be included? ...Oh yes ... communication skills, time management skills, believe me some leaders need time management skills, believe me also, planning and thinking (M3).

People skills, emotional intelligence and team building were other areas where there was a need for training:

Management and leadership including my favourite: emotional intelligence, people skills, communication skills...it is not **what** it's **how**. For example, I can say something that might upset you but I can say the same thing in a way that does not upset you. Those are factors that can harmonise and help to synergise...They should have this kind of training before they come to the position. So building a team and emotional intelligence, a little bit of psychology - that can be good but not too much, so they can understand people's needs...for example when you see that a faculty

member has a personal problem...maybe her daughter had an accident...you need to understand those kinds of things (M2).

A Dean of a college suggested:

...secondly, people skills...the ability to encourage staff to buy into the mission of the institution and then to work towards realising that mission (S6).

One faculty member also referred to the importance for HoDs to learn about how to lead their people:

Learn how to lead and make people feel they are recognized...being celebrated for excellence and hard work...that will encourage people to work harder (F1).

Another interviewee shared a similar view and added that it was important to learn how to bring staff together to work as a team because people in academia tended to work individually:

... not human resource management, but I would call it people management or change management, cultural diversity...all these are important. I know some people who don't believe in team work...they think that it is a waste of time. Maybe at the beginning it will be a waste of time because you are working with people you don't know, but it is your job to teach them how to behave in a team, how to build a team because the rewards come later...a few years back I just started to sow the seeds - now, it's just beginning to fruit right now; you have to be patient and look forward, you have to plan, and you have to believe, that's what we need (M2).

7.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, research findings were presented under four broad headings. The first section presented findings in relation to the experience of HoDs, their role and responsibilities, and method of appointment. The next section dealt with findings in relation to the skills and competences necessary to lead an academic department. The third section discussed the role of the HoD as a Faculty advocate. Finally, findings in relation to the future development and training needs required for HoDs were discussed.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

8.1. Introduction

This chapter draws together analysis of the research findings and relates them to the overall research objectives. The findings are also compared with evidence reported in the literature to reach some conclusions on the following areas that relate to the main research question: how is leadership in the academic department viewed by different university stakeholders in the Arabian Gulf States?

Three domains are used to explore departmental leadership:

- 1 Departmental leadership profiling: to explore heads of department as academic professionals, looking at the selection criteria and training needs, and identifying the main challenges and opportunities that impact on their performance.
- 2 Essential/effective leadership: to explore what are the essential characteristics, competencies, knowledge and skills required by departmental leaders to lead effectively within the university.
- 3 The challenge of context: to investigate factors that might impact on individual perceptions of leadership, such as regional culture, academic disciplines, seniority level, and social and institutional context, and how these factors affect the practice of leadership.

8.2. Practice and Experience of being a Head of Department

In this section, findings will be discussed related to the first research objective. The aim was to explore the position of HoDs, especially their experiences in taking up the role, challenges and opportunities in leading an academic department, methods of appointment and whether there was any training needed for future development.

8.2.1. Role Challenges and Difficulties

Respondents discussed many challenges and difficulties of being a HoD. Although the difficulties differed from one leader to another, the most frequent challenges included: managing workloads, managing people, little authority and power, leading within diversity, delays in personal academic achievement and keeping a balance between work, family and personal life. Most findings confirmed previous studies on stress and change facing departmental leaders in universities (Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Cipriano, 2011; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011; Gmelch and Buller, 2015). Most of these challenges were also found in recent work by Cipriano and Riccardi (2016) on difficulties faced by academic department chairs within universities.

Administrative tasks

One of the main challenges identified by participants was to manage workloads. Many HoDs complained about the burden of day-to-day administration and the long hours required to fulfil requirements. Administrative tasks were perceived to use most of their time, hours that could have been spent on academic and more formative leadership activities. It was suggested such work needed to be done by secretaries or office assistants, or could be delegated to colleagues; research and leadership activities were seen to be more important than managerial and administrative tasks for developing an academic career. HoDs struggled struggling to keep a balance between these multiple roles and found it challenging to maintain a full range of work activities, particularly keeping their identity as academic faculty and staying current in their discipline. This finding confirms similar struggles faced by department chairs identified by Cipriano and Riccardi (2016, p. 19), where the “lack of time to devote to individual research” was ranked as one of the top five challenges, and by Gmelch and Miskin (2011, p. 121) who identified one of the main stresses as “having insufficient time to stay current in my academic field”. All HoDs described the

excessive day-to-day administrative tasks as a source of tension, preventing them from moving forward. Others suggested that this load had an adverse impact on family and personal life as they had to work long hours to get so much paper work done. One such response was from a senior leader who shared experiences from when he had been a HoD;

The administrators want you to run the programme efficiently with a reduced budget, students want you to change the timetable, faculty want less of a teaching load and so on...at the end of the day you are human and have your life. I remember when I was a head I didn't see my kids during weekdays, only at the weekend (S4).

This finding resonates with previous studies investigating the role and challenges of departmental leadership in universities (McCarty and Reyes, 1987; Gmelch and Burns, 1993; Gmelch *et al.*, 1999; Smith and Wolverton, 2010). For example, in McCarty and Reyes (1987), most chairs reported that they disliked administrative work, and saw the position as too stressful, time-consuming, political, difficult, and disassociated from their disciplines. Gmelch and Burns (1993) noted that the overload of administrative tasks and its impact on personal life was a major form of stress: “chairs are trapped between the pressures and demands of performing not only as an administrator, but also as a productive faculty member” (1993, p. 264). Similar experiences were described in this study by a senior leader who had previous experience of being a Head of Department “stuck in the middle and stretched between all levels” (S4).

Managing people

Another role difficulty identified by participants was managing people and conflict. This was found to require a different set of skills and abilities that had not been required when they were faculty members. Different aspects were considered to be a key challenge when leading people in an academic department. These included managing your colleagues, hiring and firing, managing professionals and dealing with difficult people. These were similar issues to the challenges reported by academic leaders in the literature (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Peters and Ryan, 2015; Bolman and Gallos, 2016). A further challenge found in this study was how to manage diversity, especially different people from different educational and cultural backgrounds.

Many Heads of Department were concerned with the problems of leading academic staff who were professionally orientated and highly independent. Managing academics to work towards one goal and mission or to let them work on something that did not match their interests was a challenge and never an easy task.

One participant, with previous experience in business, emphasised how different it was in higher education: “It is different. Leading, especially in the private sector ... your staff are employees and you give them direction and there is very limited room for having their own discretion ... but in an academic organisation, the faculty members, especially the senior ones, they feel they have academic freedom, so they feel independent...managing them is like herding cats” (S8). Another described the challenge of dealing with some faculty as similar to dealing with children; a Head put it as follows: “...every time you are involved in managing people, there are always unpleasant duties especially when you say ‘no’ to people. We are in an academic institution...everyone is educated and mature, but sometimes you find people like children - they want chocolate when it is not good for them...you can take the horse to the river side but you cannot force him to drink water, so you create opportunities, encourage them - but if they don’t produce, you cannot force them...some of them, they don’t produce no matter what you do, so that is the challenge.” (M5) Management of staff issues has also been shown to be one of the major causes of stress for HoDs by other researchers (Smith, 2002; Bryman, 2007a; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Buller, 2013; Gmelch and Buller, 2015). This study confirms the importance of these issues within an Arabic context.

Several HoDs discussed the problems of leading staff who had previously been “equals” and colleagues. As they started to build a power distance, exercise different sources of power and evaluate their performance, all of which were sources of tension, the HoD needed a high level of interpersonal skills. This was specifically reported by those who had moved from a faculty position to become head of their department. Managing colleagues and friends, and the responsibilities for evaluation, were found by King (1997) to be a sources of frustration, sometimes resulting in issues for interpersonal relationships.

Managing within diversity, bringing people together from different cultural or educational backgrounds, was perceived to be a very hard job. People shared different values, perspectives and expectations; to bring all these differences into one streamlined strategy to meet the objectives of the university was a challenge. They further discussed the importance for a HoD to have people skills and intercultural awareness to be able to bring out the best of their people. Managing faculty members who were on both temporary and permanent contracts emerged as another major challenge. Faculty members who were locals were employed on a permanent basis, whereas foreigners were on short-term, three year fixed-term renewable contracts. The interviewees referred specifically to certain issues around managing the fixed-term contract system, including levels of commitment and motivation, loyalty to the organization, job performance, low job security, relationships and collegiality, any of which could lead to increased anxiety and frustration. The challenge for a Head was to assure stability in faculty job performance and create a less fearful working environment within the department.

Another issue reported related to leading through cultural mis-matches, including issues related to bureaucracy, values and norms, management systems, equity, gender, nationality and favouritism. These were considered as barriers to leadership and change. Some HoDs had experience leading in Western universities with different managerial and institutional systems, and found it difficult to adapt to a centralised system. Managing external relationships and dealing with people from different educational and cultural backgrounds were also seen as problems; some also identified problems dealing with students from high status families or class.

Recruitment of faculty and retention was a major challenge, particularly when a HoD had to make decisions that would have an effect on someone's life, such as terminating a contract. This was also found by Gmelch and Burns (1993) who noted that more than 45% of respondents reported confrontations with staff and faculty, particularly when making decisions that would affect their lives; this was also a major source of stress for HoDs in the Arabic university.

8.2.2. Enjoyable Aspects and Motivations

Notwithstanding the perceived challenges, interviewees still reported substantial interest in taking up the academic leadership role. The most common anticipated areas of satisfaction and positive experiences reflected a desire to progress to a more senior managerial role and an opportunity for self-fulfilment. There were also more personal reasons which included enjoying the challenge and a feeling of doing something valuable for others; an opportunity to gain management and leadership experience; the desire to make a change or difference; and taking advantage of the opportunity to build important external relationships with stakeholders. Some found that they had enjoyed helping faculty to grow and succeed. One Head said: “what I like, and what I enjoy most, is the challenge; by nature, I like challenges” (M2). Another Head believed that serving in the department would be an ideal opportunity to achieve personal self-satisfaction: “basically, it means satisfying my own needs and interests” (M4). For some, personal growth and self-fulfilment were crucial factors in undertaking their leadership role. Some identified clear opportunities for personal advancement. Often, “leadership” was defined less in terms of contributing to institutional change, and more in terms of creating the right conditions for others to fulfil their potential. One Head of Department said: “this chair I am sitting on always makes me feel I am doing something valuable for others, which makes me feel better about myself”. Personal growth and self-fulfilment were crucial factors for many HoDs in undertaking their leadership roles.

These findings are in line with similar research conclusions on the advantages of department leadership reported by Gmelch and Miskin (2011) that revealed six distinct areas of reward: financial reward, personal sense of achievement, personal sense of power, altruistic satisfaction, departmental success, and personal growth. Deem (2001) also found three routes into management for academics. The first was the career track route, where an early career decision was taken to pursue a management role. Second, was a desire to progress to more senior managerial levels; and an enjoyment of supporting, facilitating and leading activities within their area of influence. Similar aspects were also reported by Bolden (2011). In the study by Rowley and Sherman (2003, p. 1063) it was found that most faculty members found the opportunity of serving in a leadership position and making a difference in the department was enticing. Cipriano and Riccardi (2016) found that the main reasons for remaining as

chair were to make a difference, to shape the direction of the department, to advance their careers and because no one else would do it.

8.2.3. Training and Future Professional Development

Findings from this study also indicated that training and professional development were needed for HoDs to be able to perform their role effectively. Given the challenges faced and the nature and complexity of the role, participants discussed the importance of receiving training to be able to understand and perform their role better. Some HoDs spoke very openly about the “shock” of their appointment and how they felt ill-prepared for a leadership role; some saw themselves mainly as teachers or researchers and were “reluctant leaders”. Much of the research on department chairs and HoDs has reported that most appointees were not trained, either formally or informally, prior to taking up the role and had no previous leadership and management experience. The same phenomenon was revealed in this study where almost all HoDs had never received any type of role related training. Rather, some had worked independently to improve themselves and understood the practice of leadership and management by reading relevant books and from other sources found to be useful (Gmelch and Miskin 2011; Gmelch and Buller 2016; Hecht *et al.*, 1999; Bryman 2007; Buller 2013). Although there was significant emphasis on the importance of the availability of help and support for HoDs, it was reported that there was an absence of any kind of professional support. It was suggested that this situation would result in negative outcomes for departments and colleges given the critical role that HoDs played. Possible negative consequences were also reported by other researchers (Yielder and Codling, 2004; Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt, 2005; Gmelch and Buller, 2016).

Respondents revealed that there was a need for training development for HoDs that addressed leadership-based skills including: people management, emotional intelligence and team building, delegation, negotiation, strategic planning and thinking; and management-based skills including: time management, organizational skills, running effective meetings, project management skills, budgets and finance, programme accreditation processes, faculty evaluation and assessment, planning and setting goals for faculty, stress management and work-life balance; and role-specific skills including: understanding of the role and responsibilities and knowledge of the university system and culture. This finding confirms the importance of the first two

areas reported by Gmelch and Miskin (2011) as critical to the development of effective academic department chairs: conceptual understanding of the unique responsibilities of academic leadership, and necessary skills to achieve results through working with faculty, staff, students, other administrators, and reflective practice.

Participants highlighted specific aspects in relation to how and when such training should be provided and the components to be included. An emphasis was placed on the importance of ‘pre-preparation’, availability, and continuity, as well as the relevance of such training. In particular, it was important to identify the specific needs for each department and individual leaders in order to provide the most relevant support to develop their performance and the ability to lead effectively, and to achieve long term sustainable development. This was also suggested in the literature (Strathe and Wilson, 2006; Gmelch and Miskin, 2011; Riley and Russell, 2013; Gmelch and Buller, 2016). Gmelch and Buller (2016) wrote that “an effective personal development plan often starts with an assessment of the types of skills a person brings to his or her position and the specific needs of the institution”.

8.2.4. Method of Appointment and Years of Service

A further aspect of understanding the experience and practice of the HoD related to the method of appointment. In the case study institution, HoDs were appointed by senior university management, rather than being elected. This was seen to be important in maintaining stability within the university. HoDs generally supported this approach. One stated: “If you are a leader, sometimes you need to appoint from your team; it is not a matter of election” (M2). In their view, elections could be biased and problematic if applied in a small university. At the same time, there was a strong view that leaders should be appointed from within the institution and not from outside; further, leaders should be natives of the country rather than “ex-pats” working in the university. The idea of having someone appointed externally was not favoured by many participants, but the benefit of having different experience brought to the department was recognised as one of the main reasons to bring in someone externally. In terms of years of service in the position, the majority believed that a period of six years maximum was optimal. Requisite skills for the position included leadership skills, motivational skills, problem solving skills and interpersonal skills; willingness to take on the role was also a key factor.

These conclusions are similar to Wheeler et al. (2016) who observed how different practices have developed in the criteria for selection over the last thirty five years:

Today, there seems to be no clear pattern. Institutions may have heads; rotating chairs; all professorial ranks as chairs; those who serve one term, others who serve multiple terms; internal and external chairs; experienced and inexperienced people even in the same university. If there is a pattern, serving a three- to five-year term with a possibility of renewal is common. Without a clear picture of why chairs are successful and with institutions often looking for new chairs because of difficult circumstances, chairs are often tossed into the environment with hope and little else of success (p. 24).

8.3. Essential/Effective Leadership

This section discusses findings related to the second research objective - what are the characteristics, skills, knowledge and qualities needed for HoDs in Qatar University (QU)?. The results suggest certain themes that inform perceptions about the competencies that HoDs need in order to pursue their roles successfully.

8.3.1. Personal Characteristics

While several of the participants were able to identify some personal characteristics perceived as desirably, they were cautious about generalizing about what precise personal traits were needed. Although, no single factor emerged as especially prominent, the following received somewhat greater emphasis. Leaders needed to stand out as being of high moral character, at the same time having warmth and a cheerful nature, with a sense of humour. Emphasis was also placed on the importance of being confident and assertive, but not arrogant. These characteristics are broadly consistent with those derived from the literature including Kouzes and Posner, (2003, 2012); Bryman, (2007); Yukl, (2010). This suggests little variation in preferred personal characteristics for effective leadership across universities worldwide. The emphasis on particular personal attributes that distinguish a leader from others, therefore, reflects the continuous relevance of the 'Great Man' approach in helping to understand leadership (Kim Peters and Ryan, 2015).

Being a Moral Person

HoDs are expected to exhibit a variety of facets which identify them as a highly moral person. These include being firm but fair, trustworthy, transparent, having integrity and being honest, being direct and straightforward, acting without a hidden agenda, and being sincere. These qualities were identified by almost all respondents as core characteristics that represented ethical behaviour for effective higher education leadership. Most recognized having high morals as a core characteristic of departmental leaders as they were viewed to be, by the nature of their status, influential role models. They were expected to set an example for their departmental members by proactively promoting ethical behaviours and preventing unethical behaviour in departments (F2, F6).

Perceptions of the importance of morality were seen to be positively associated with different outcomes at individual, group or departmental levels. For example, some reported that ethical behaviour would encourage departmental members to feel safe and openly share problems and concerns with their HoD. One person (F6) claimed that this sense of security would lead people to make extra effort.

The positive impact of ethical and moral leadership on job performance in Arab universities confirms previous results in studies by Randeree,(2008); Judge, Piccolo and Kosalka (2009) and Randeree and Ghaffar Chaudhry (2012). They found that ethical and moral leadership had a positive impact on followers and their performance, expressed as a willingness to make extra efforts, in task performance and the creation of a collegial climate. It was also found to be the main component in building trusted relationships. Yukl (2013) stated that integrity was an important behavioural trait associated with trust building. The perceived importance of these characteristics in this case study appear to confirm the findings in the literature (Carroll and Wolverton, 2004; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Kouzes and Posner, 2012; Kim Peters and Ryan, 2015).

Transparency

Transparency was discussed in several interviews where participants suggested that ensuring transparency, openness and honesty must be clear in every action taken by HoDs whether in the regulatory process, faculty development, decision making or in evaluating outcomes of departments. Participants discussed the need for a transparent culture, with clear and consistent communications and a commitment to creating an open, honest, workplace, with trust at the core of departmental culture. However, there was considerable concern expressed about a lack of transparency; this was associated with conflict, misunderstanding and poor task performance. One Dean reported that creating a transparent culture was not easy, particularly in cultures where admitting mistakes was not encouraged. This was a feature of HoD leadership to be constantly appraised by all (S8) in order to develop transparent communication across the entire university. HoDs discussed how being transparent in all contexts had enabled him to lead effectively and to reduce departmental conflict by being sensitive to the need for transparency in resource allocation and workload distribution (M2) and in the hiring process (M10). Another two interviewees saw transparency as essential to establish trusting relationships, to gain respect and to create a friendly collegial environment. This confirms previous work about the importance of being a transparent leader in all actions (Buller, 2013; Riley and Russell, 2013). Grusec (2004, p. 4) suggested:

Departmental heads need to be sensitive to transparency, consistency, fairness, and equity in resource allocation and workload distribution, including teaching assignments, teaching loads, supervisory responsibilities, class sizes, and allocation of teaching assistants. There need to be clear procedures for raising questions of equity and for resolving these matters when problems arise. When teaching relief is given, best practice requires that there be a standard set of guidelines for the granting of such relief and that these guidelines be applied consistently.

Being Assertive/Confident

Being assertive and highly confident were further important characteristics identified as necessary for effective leadership. These were especially emphasised by senior leaders and by HoDs themselves, who suggested that a leader in a formal position should have a high level of confidence in order to influence others, particularly in times of change, and when making decisions. Participants also associated the importance of being assertive and possessing high levels of self-confidence with the ability of a HoD to implement new policy and to influence upper administration. Considerable

importance was attached to the status of position power, especially when facing complex situations. Faculty emphasised HoDs being self-confident specifically when making decisions, such that they will be able to avoid being influenced by others after having done the necessary consultation. They suggested that a lack of self-confidence could be serious as faculty would start doubting their leaders' capabilities.

Other interviewees associated confidence with being strong, tough and practical, and direct and straightforward in the way HoDs communicated with their departmental members. Senior leaders claimed that assertiveness and self-confidence enabled leaders to manage complex situations in times of change or conflict; staff were more likely to follow a confident leader than a hesitant one. This point was also linked to vision; one said that "great vision with no confidence would never work" (M5). In general, it was found that what faculty meant by being assertive was that HoDs needed to have confidence in their own abilities when interacting with faculty or with senior administrators. Participants from senior and middle-level groups also associated confidence with being well prepared, allowing leaders to influence upper administration. The importance of being assertive was also found to be important for effective leadership in HEIs in Peters and Ryan's Leading Higher Education survey (2015).

Being confident without being arrogant was also reported by junior faculty to be associated with motivation. A crisis of confidence in the academy was discussed by Macfarlane and Chan (2012); Macfarlane (2013) and Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) in their consideration of the personalities of effective leaders. They found many bright, hard-working, ambitious, and technically competent managers failed, or were in danger of failing, simply because they were perceived as being arrogant. A senior leader and a junior faculty stressed that leadership should be assertive, but that leaders must understand the negativity of shifting from confidence to arrogance.

Warmth and Welcoming

Another characteristic perceived to be essential for leaders was personal warmth, including being cheerful, humble, possessing a positive attitude, welcoming others' ideas, smiling, shaking hands and sharing mutual respect with departmental members (S5, S2, F2, F9, and M 3). Especially important was the need for faculty to feel

comfortable when interacting with their leaders, as well as making people more enthusiastic for their work, introducing new ideas and taking the initiative (F2, F9). The emphasis on these aspects of leadership may be a reflection of the cultural heritage of Arab people which includes a reputation for warmth and hospitality (Baumann, 2006). This finding is consistent with Knight and Holen (1985) who found that an environment of warmth, friendliness and mutual respect facilitated a positive atmosphere to work in.

8.3.2. Skills

Regarding skills, respondents held varying views on which were important. In the academic world, most universities seek institutional and departmental leaders who have, at minimum, a credible academic reputation. However, it is also vital that they exhibit managerial, leadership and entrepreneurial competence (Middlehurst, 1993). Bowman (2002, p. 161) indicates that:

Departmental performance is the product of capabilities and management actions. The real work of academic chairs demands a diverse set of leadership capabilities: well-honed communication skills, problem-solving skills, conflict-resolution skills, cultural-management skills, coaching skills, and transition-management skills.

In this study, interviewees tended to classify skills into two main categories: technical skills and people/human skills. The importance of these categories was the focus of work by Hunt and Baruch (2003) and Buller (2013) who identified three types of skills required for leadership: technical skills, human relations and interpersonal skills, and conceptual skills.

Technical and Managerial Skills

Technical skills mainly refer to special skills necessary to perform certain activities and administrative tasks. Participants assumed that HoDs should have specific managerial skills, such as conflict resolution, resource management, performance evaluation and assessment, recruitment skills, organizational skills, time management skills, problem solving, and budget and project management skills.

The importance of time management skills was reported by senior leaders and HoDs themselves, bearing in mind that a HoD was expected to perform many roles in addition to their current teaching and research. However, most HoDs confessed to

weaknesses in time management and the need to engage in extra training in order to survive in the position and be more productive and effective (Buller, 2013). This finding confirms the importance of time management and prioritization as key skills for success as reported by Gmelch and Buller (2015) and Gmelch and Miskin (2011).

Conflict management skills were also reported as important given the range of situations from which conflict can arise. Interviewees pointed to student dissatisfaction and complaints; faculty who disagreed with departmental matters, or who became political and trouble makers; and central administration problems and changes in policy or structure that required good conflict management skills.

Participants from different groups within the university shared similar views about the importance of recruitment skills. A HoD must ensure that they select the right people as they will be accountable for their decisions. One senior leader said that bringing in the right people will contribute to departmental vision and enhance and develop the department (M4, S3).

Chairing meetings and having good presentation skills in order to influence upper management were also found to be essential for HoDs. This was strongly expressed by faculty and senior leaders who indicated that most meetings tended to be ineffective or a waste of time, with no clear agenda and outcomes; it was also suggested that sometimes a HoD was not well prepared.

Budgeting and resource allocation skills were also reported to be essential, participants suggesting that HoDs learn how to administer the budget relevant to their department. These skills have been identified by others including Buller (Buller, 2013, 2014); Hecht et al. (1999), and Middlehurst (1993). Middlehurst (1993, p. 172) focused on budgeting, personnel management, fund raising, an understanding of statistics, the use of information technology and general managerial skills (such as planning, prioritizing, problem solving, time management, delegation, negotiation skills, appraisal and evaluation), much the same as those identified by Yulk (2013), Sirkis (2011) and Knight and Trowler (2001) who also included reference to strategic planning. In addition, Middlehurst (1993) suggested that it was necessary to understand the shape of these functions in the particular context of a university.

Human Relations Skills

Considering the nature of their role, acting as a mediator between central management and departmental members, as well as with external stakeholders, was highlighted by many interviewees. These human relations skills included interpersonal and intercultural skills, political and negotiation skills, psychological and human behavior skills, communication skills and conflict resolution skills. The importance of these skills is consistent with the findings of Hecht, (2004); Bryman, (2007); Kouzes and Posner, (2010) and Buller, (2013).

Looking further at relationship skills, interpersonal skills were identified as an important requirement when working with different faculty members. Participants suggested that effective interpersonal skills, including building relationships and dealing with others, helped achieve the work, tasks and goals of the department. As mentioned above, given the need to establish multiple external and internal relationships, balancing the needs of different groups was particularly important. This is confirmed by findings by Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt, (2005, p. 229) who stated that given the nature of the position of chairing an academic department, the ability to communicate and the willingness to respond rapidly to a variety of situations were essential to being an effective department chair.

Intercultural Skills

What seems to lie at the heart of this list is the need for intercultural skills as part of a range of interpersonal skills, as well as the need for political skills, since most HoDs were leading diverse departments in terms of gender, ethnicity, cultures and educational backgrounds. Respondents indicated that one of the greatest challenges for leaders was leading within diversity, implying that effective leaders required a clear understanding of each individual's orientation, the ability to recognize differences and to communicate accordingly and effectively to avoid negative outcomes and misunderstandings. This was often raised by non-local respondents across all levels (F, S, and M). This resonates with the work of Bowman (2002) who found that communication skills, conflict management skills and cultural management skills were required of effective academic leaders. Matching the appropriate communication style with the culture of the recipient when conveying an important message was seen as critical to success. Buller (2013, p 49) argued that:

The essential department chair does not send veiled messages but states openly what he or she means...indirect communication can be disastrous. If they (HoD's) are dissatisfied with someone's work they send that message clearly and distinctly through regular procedures as well as through candid, constructive, and private conversations with the faculty member. They never try to communicate indirectly through body language, by how warmly (or not) they acknowledge different members of the department, or by offering and withholding special favour.

However, the findings in the current study offered a different emphasis from that of Buller, (2013) who stressed directness in communication. The current research has emphasised the need to be diplomatic and political, matching the style of communication with the recipient. The exceptions to this position were some interviewees who were non-Arab and mainly from a Western cultural background, who expected their leaders to ask direct, explicit questions and expected direct, explicit answers in return.

Clearly, using one way of communication for all can result in a negative outcome as a result of the message not being fully understood, this reflecting the importance of the cultural context in which leaders operate. Buller's research context was from a Western perspective, mainly the US, where the communication style is direct and straightforward (Hofstede, 1980). In the Arab context and in other collectivistic societies, the communication style is more indirect where the way things are said and the context itself are more meaningful and more important than the content. As a result, in interactions between a boss and a subordinate or between colleagues, confrontation is not seen as something good; harmony should be maintained at all times and neither party ever made to lose face (Hofstede, 1980). Even in the case of Arabs who had worked for many years in western universities, it was found that they retained a belief in traditional Arab styles of communication. This can explain the statement made by Wursten, commenting on findings from Hofstede's (1980) research, that:

Culture is a very fundamental factor in human nature. It operates at deep, even unconscious, levels within societies and their individual members. It influences the latter from the minute they are born, and conditions the very way they perceive reality. Its effects cannot be erased by more superficial factors such as education or economic development. Cultural differences, with potentially negative consequences for cooperation, can be found even between two neighbouring countries in Europe like Belgium and the Netherlands (Wursten, 2008, p. 5).

The overall finding here confirms the view that societal values influence actions and behaviours, including organizational practices, and those of the individual (Currie and Vidovich, 2009).

Diplomatic, Political and Negotiation Skills

Participants emphasized that the university campus was a political environment where departments compete for finite resources (M, F) and where leaders needed to possess political, diplomatic and negotiation skills. This finding was also supported by the view that politics, how you manage your resources and your relationships to make sure you are making a positive contribution, were not unique to higher education, but may be amplified on college campuses with so much competition for attention and resources (Tierney, 1988; Birnbaum and Edelson, 1989). Therefore, the department chair needs to be aware of the politics of a situation, and display a certain level of political skill.

Being diplomatic and a good negotiator requires a level of awareness and understanding of the politics of a situation; knowing the cultural norms within the university and wider society were seen as key to being able to build good relationships and influence others to achieve specific objectives. It was also suggested that being diplomatic was critical across different situations, but specifically during negotiations when decisions are not favourable towards faculty members (F, S, M). The importance of these skills for leading in organizations is found in the work of Mintzberg, (1985, 2009); Pfeffer, (1989) and Ferris, Davidson and Perrewe, (2005). Both Pfeffer (1989) and Mintzberg (2009) suggested that, to be effective in political environments, individuals needed to possess political skills.

The challenge of leadership in a multicultural context was highlighted by some interviewees who stressed the importance of diplomacy and negotiation skills for HoDs to be able to manage diversity (F). Being diplomatic was also seen to be the skill that would allow a HoD to improve the departmental climate and relationships, and to develop mutual respect among faculty which, in turn, could lead to less conflict. In this study, it was found that incoming leaders needed a good understanding of how to interact with a range of people, the ability to listen to different opinions and see alternative points of view, and a capacity to build mutual respect and build trust by

being diplomatic while understanding departmental politics. Ferris *et al.*, (2007) also suggested a similar range of skills including how to communicate effectively within the political arena of the institution. Pfeffer (1992) referred to political skills as being sensitive to others and having the ability to identify in others what is critical in order to obtain things for oneself across a variety of situations.

Participants also referred to a range of diplomatic skills including being a good listener, open minded, flexible, confident and welcoming to others' views and ideas. As noted by Jones (1990), attempts to influence others will be successful when actors are perceived to possess no ulterior motives. Individuals who display high levels of sincerity inspire trust and confidence from those around them, because their actions are not interpreted as manipulative or coercive. In this way, leaders are perceived as able to influence and maintain good relationships with those in senior administration and with key external constituents.

Overall, it is clear that political and diplomatic skills were seen as a source of influence that HoDs could use to achieve results. This finding is consistent with the value of political influence that was seen by House (1991) as a source of power for leaders, where a leader can display political skills and influence others indirectly, for example by the mobilisation of resources to accomplish a goal. Political skills are seen as crucial in the effectiveness of leaders in organizations (Ammeter *et al.*, 2002). Similarly, it is important to understand others at work and use what is known about others to influence their actions, and thereby enhance personal or organizational objectives (Ferris, Davidson and Perrewe, 2005, p. 127). This could also be seen as a feature of the type of indirect communication style that is common in Arab societies.

Psychological and Human Behaviour Skills /Communication Skills

Participants added other specific skills associated with human relations, including the ability to understand different types of personality, to read others' minds and understanding non-spoken communications and facial expressions in order to be able to communicate effectively. These skills were seen to be imperative for interactions in an Arab culture, as being indirect was one of the main features of Arab communication styles. Deresky (2011) found that a highly politicised environment could lead to indirect, veiled and coded speech where the intended message was hidden.

Leading on from this, participants discussed the importance of leaders using the appropriate behaviour in specific situations, being able to understand and read clues and signs or non-verbal communications. These skills, as described by Hunt (1992, p158), may be classified as interpersonal skills. Jones (2011) found that this “self-monitoring”, as defined by Snyder (1979), is the ability and willingness to read the verbal and non-verbal social cues of others and make modifications to one’s behavior accordingly. Thus, HoDs need to have a keen sense of what others might be thinking and display a great deal of emotional intelligence.

In summary, it is clear that a HoD requires a blend of different managerial and leadership skills and capabilities, illustrating that the reality of leadership practice requires experience in both leadership and management (Middlehurst and Elton, 1992; Kotterman, 2006; Kotter, 2008).

8.3.3. Knowledge

Before discussing the knowledge required by HoDs, participants talked about a common issue when moving to the position of HoD frequently found in the literature. Most HoDs emerge from faculty ranks, but the knowledge they need as a chair is very different from that of a faculty member. Faculty members will ‘know’ the institution to a certain extent, but, as HoD, the knowledge required is more complex inviting reflective thought (Hecht, 2004). In response to the question about knowledge, various themes emerged: understanding the university system, its culture and operations; awareness of external stakeholders and industrial relations; knowledge of the role and responsibilities; understanding of new trends and pedagogies in higher education; administrative and management expertise; awareness of cultural and societal norms and local traditions; intercultural/cross-cultural knowledge; and familiarity with people working in the department.

Know Your University

Different types of knowledge were perceived as crucial for effective HoDs. First was an understanding of the university system, its culture and operations, by knowing how the university operates, its policies, procedures, systems and organizational culture. The majority of HoDs and senior leaders felt this was a critical aspect, particularly for those who were appointed from outside the university. One Dean stated:

Most leaders come to this position without a clear understanding of the larger structure of the university, so they need to have the appropriate information to do their job effectively, actually learning about the university and department policies and procedures, finding out who makes decisions and whom to speak to on certain issues is a must (S5).

Know Your Task

Also important was knowledge about what the role entailed, its tasks and responsibilities, as HoDs usually came to the position without prior knowledge, clear expectations and understanding of what the job involved. The majority of HoDs complained of role ambiguity and how this affected their professional growth, as well as preventing them from moving the department forward. This lack of clarification was found across departments (Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt, 2005).

Know Your People

It was suggested that HoDs needed to know the people they and their departments depended on and with whom their departments interacted, both internally and externally, something which was also identified by Hecht (2004). Interviewees emphasised the importance of being externally focused, with a working knowledge of organizations and key stakeholders. This was reported to be especially crucial for HoDs working in Engineering, Law and Business colleges (S4).

Gmelch and Buller (2015, p. 10) suggested that it was important to be aware of the politics within an organization and where power lies. This was also found to be important in this study, but in the Arab university power could also reflect family name, nationality and social status; having good relations with a superior could provide a strong source of power. It was important for a HoD to determine what the governing attitude was within an institution (Hecht, 2004).

What is New in Teaching and Research

Knowledge related to new trends and pedagogies in higher education was perceived to be another important area for HoDs. Senior leaders (S3 and S5) and some HoDs (M2, M10, and M5) suggested that, as HoDs, they were expected to continue as academics, aware of new trends in research in their field and in the pedagogy of higher education. This was seen as essential, allowing HoDs to gain more knowledge in the field and information for decision making on teaching and learning methods, and to improve

curricula and programmes. However, HoDs expressed some difficulties in keeping up to date as the HE sector was growing so quickly.

Most of the knowledge reported by participants to be essential for leadership had been identified in the Western literature. For example, in Gmelch and Buller (2015), the conceptual understanding necessary for effective academic leadership involved knowledge of organisational structures, management culture, symbolic power and operational methods, and an awareness of external and internal constituencies and their relationship with departments. It also involved an understanding of the unique role and responsibilities that are associated with being a leader manager in an academic department. Bolman and Gallos (2011) explained that understanding the university structure and culture involved knowing key stakeholders, awareness of formal authority and knowing how, when and to what extent authority may be practiced; understanding policies, procedures and traditions; and recognising the values and norms that shaped the leadership practice in a particular context. Gmelch and Buller state that:

As faculty members move from teaching and research positions of administrative leadership, their understanding of their relationship to institution, their work, and their colleagues will change in ways they may not anticipate. They need to be better prepared for what their new assignments, responsibilities, and relationships will entail (2015, p. 10).

With regard to knowledge of what the role involves, Gmelch and Wolverton (2002) emphasised the need for academic leaders to gain an understanding of the conceptual knowledge that relates to the unique roles and responsibilities included in academic leadership, and the institutional context within which they will be carried out. Middlehurst (1993) suggested that, in order for academic leadership to fulfil its role and associated responsibilities, it is necessary to understand the day-to-day operations of the institution, sources of information, control mechanisms, points of leverage, key stakeholders and the purpose of their interventions, organisational culture, and organisational design. Knowledge of managing projects, teams and budgets, and of dealing with crises were also important experience necessary for leadership. A broad knowledge of how an institution, department or unit operated was essential for the HoD.

Know What Is Outside

Another aspect of knowledge suggested by two interviewees was that an academic leader should be active in other subjects and activities outside their specific role in order to inspire their staff. This finding is in line with work of Green and McDade (1991) who suggested that:

... leaders who nurture their intellectual vitality by maintaining an active interest in range of subjects and activities outside their managerial responsibilities can encourage their own and other's creativity, since a fertile and active mind, a finger on the pulse of the institution and the larger community, and the deliberate pursuit of new ideas and information are the underpinning of vision (cited in Middlehurst, 1993, p. 171).

Know the Local Culture and Traditions

Given the large number of expatriates working in public and private organizations in Qatar, it is not surprising that an understanding of the cultural norms of the country and society was seen to be crucial for non-Qatari leaders, specifically when expatriates were leading local faculty and students. Many interviewees from different cultural backgrounds stated that such knowledge of the country and its cultural nuances would allow leaders to perform better, deal with others more effectively, and build good external and internal relationships. Leaders could also benefit greatly in terms of taking opportunities and in deciding how to plan, manage and bring change to their department. One Dean (S6) provided an example of having a good HoD in his college, but, because he was new to the country with no knowledge of local culture, many opportunities had been missed. Another HoD (M5) said “think globally but lead locally”. Participants further pointed to the influence of social behaviour and national culture and traditions on daily life and the workplace. Non-local leaders in positions of Dean and HoD discussed the importance for them to understand what behavioural aspects or managerial styles might be acceptable or expected in certain situations by local society. For example, they referred to the importance of power distance, the tribal culture and social behaviours which were important in their relationship with local people. This finding is related to the idea of ‘cultural savvy’ identified by Deresky (2013, p. 93) as a critical skill. He argues that an awareness of cultural dimensions and adaptation to the environment enables foreign managers to develop appropriate policies and determine how to plan, organize, lead, and control

Know Others' Cultures (Intercultural/Cross Cultural Knowledge)

Cultural sensitivity refers to an “awareness and an honest caring about another individual’s culture” (Deresky, 2013, p. 93) and was found to be of key importance to the role of HoD. Given the diversity of people working in the university and the central role of the HoD to be able to lead and manage at individual and group levels, they should understand the perspectives of others and be willing to adapt and act accordingly. Participants highlighted different cultural aspects, such as understanding body language, manners, the values of others, hospitality, gender issues and the limitations of different cultures. Two non-local faculty (F10, F13) and one senior local leader (S3) shared their experiences, making the point that leaders in an Arabic university must be aware of things such as non-verbal communication and of what are acceptable/unacceptable behaviours. S3 gave the example of shaking hands and holding it for a while. In Arab Gulf culture, this normally means a very warm welcome or a sign of appreciation, but may mean something different elsewhere. A Western participant (F10) shared the same example, explaining that he felt uncomfortable with this and that it would affect the way he received the message from his leader.

This confirms findings that in Western cultures people tend to pay attention to physical actions when communicating with others, while in the Middle East the opposite is true. Gregersen and Black (1999) and Molinsky (2007) also found that cross cultural differences can be the cause of failed negotiations and interactions in the workplace as a result of a lack of the relevant skills necessary for interaction in a foreign culture, such is their importance.

8.3.4. Qualities

Model the Way

Another important aspect of leadership as an advocate for faculty was in providing a model for the way forward. When participants described the qualities that people look for and admire in their leaders, an important criterion was the HoD's credibility and the ability to lead by example; leaders must be clear about what they do, how they do it, where they do it, and who they lead (F2, F9, F3 S6, S3).

The idea of being a role model was mentioned by many interviewees as a means of developing common aspirations within the department. To influence faculty and earn their commitment to the workplace, senior leaders (S6, S3, and S1) pointed to the importance for HoDs to demonstrate commitment, dedication and hard work as well as being current in research, teaching and pedagogy. In this way, leaders could set an example and build commitment through simple, daily acts that create a sense of progress and momentum within the department. However, in order for a HoD to be effective in their role as a leader, participants also stressed the importance of demonstrating morality by being fair, firm, honest, respectful, trustworthy and transparent, respecting all members and treating them with respect and dignity. By so doing, a leader would create positive relationships and send a message to others that the department was a place where everyone should feel equal, and thereby model the way for others (F1, F4, M4, M2, and S6).

This aspect of leadership was discussed in the study by Kouzes and Posner (2012) as one of the most important and valued qualities that people looked for and admired in their leaders. In their words "people have to believe in the messenger or they won't pay attention to the message. They first follow the person, then the plan." (p.13). This is similar to Cipriano's (2011) finding where more than 81% of chairs surveyed stressed the importance of leading by example to establish the required positive culture, by exhibiting the characteristics that they wished faculty and staff to demonstrate, including integrity, trustworthiness and credibility.

Power and Influence

Another important aspect of the quality of leadership was how effectively departmental leaders used different sources of power. Participants defined leading as all about influence and how HoDs presented themselves in the role. This impacted on their ability to leverage authority and other sources of power and to motivate others. Some suggested that HoDs needed to be able to use the legitimate power that was attached to their position, given to them by higher authority, while others referred to interpersonal power and knowledge and expert power.

Authority and power assigned to them from their position and title were found to be important for dealing with poor performance, managing conflicts and taking the final decision. Respondents suggested that, if faculty members believed that their leaders had formal, legitimate authority, they could permit their behaviour to be influenced, meaning that HoDs needed to be aware of the benefits of using the power given them. From the viewpoint of senior leaders, HoDs had limited decision-making authority; participants suggested that they needed to be able to manage upwards and practice the positional power they were given as higher approval was needed for many daily activities.

For a leader to be able to exercise such power effectively, it was important for a leader to keep their distance from his/her people in order to keep things going in the right direction and not lose authoritarian power. Several participants from all three groups (S, M, and F) indicated that being too close to followers in a culture that recognised status and hierarchy could sometimes be considered as a sign of weakness, leading to exploitation. In contrast, others claimed that leadership power was more relational and personal than positional. Having personal influence was a source of power based on respect, trust, and faculty commitment, and never to be used for personal gain. Furthermore, it was suggested that, especially in a university, knowledge and experience were important sources of power that HoDs could exercise mainly to influence senior and upper administration.

Another source of power came from family name and nationality. An interviewee stated that a “big name and nationality give you power, it would be fake power or real power when it is combined with required knowledge and leadership skills” (M 9). He

also claimed that having this type of power would help in gaining people's respect. A faculty member from a Western culture also shared the same view and explained that nationality mattered for successful leadership.

Clearly, HoDs need to be able to use a combination of different types of power and sources of influence depending on different contexts and situations. This finding confirms a view of leadership and power expressed by Middlehurst (1993, p. 42);

Power of various kinds (expert, referent, legitimate and so on) provides a resource for leadership, while leadership itself is the medium through which such power is exercised. The shape of leadership then takes different forms according to the nature of the power source and the nature of the circumstances and context in which it is exercised. In this way leadership and power are inextricably linked to but none the less distinct.

It is also clear that there is an acceptance of the need to be able to use authority which contradicts some claims from the literature that the most likely effective source of power is knowledge and expertise (Middlehurst, 1993) and the suggestion made by Goffee and Jones (2007) that a command-and-control approach is particularly unsuitable and counter-productive when managing academic colleagues. This can be attributed to culture and traditions in the Gulf region where power distance is high, and status hierarchy is well recognized, in society, family and workplace. In addition, it was seen as important to exercise knowledge power when influencing higher authority as it seemed that this was the most acceptable source of power in a traditional top-down institution (Hofstede, 2001a).

Visionary Leader

Participants understood that the way things worked in the past would not always guarantee success in the future because the higher education sector was facing new challenges. For HoDs, there was a need to be open to different kinds of change, willing to take initiatives and risks, able to look beyond the immediate academic environment, widen their scope, work with different partners, invest in new ventures and let others get on board and contribute to that vision. This presupposes a willingness and passion, and a strong belief in the value of what they are doing, the ability to articulate this passion and persuade and convince others to join the vision.

Higher education leaders, and, in particular, HoDs of the future will need to move beyond day-to-day management activities. They should be able not only to build working relationships, but also to go beyond, building international connections, business relations and links with any other agencies that can benefit their programmes. Having vision and looking at the bigger picture, “thinking globally but leading locally”, would help to drive the department forward.

Such vision, combining foresight and ambition, coupled with the ability to drive people towards this vision, has been found to be very important for any leaders to enhance the department and the university as a whole. Today, universities want leaders to be visionary, working together with people towards achieving long-term goals.

Participants believed that it was important for leaders to be able to communicate their vision effectively among departmental members, by providing information and a clear sense of direction, and by leading by example, with inspiration and open communication, so that faculty could develop a sense of ownership for the vision. Interviewees additionally suggested that HoDs as leaders needed to have a passion in what they were doing, and be able to set a good example to stimulate and inspire departmental member to achieve the desired outcomes. However, although being a visionary leader was a critical aspect of leadership mentioned by different interviewees from different groups, some stated that each department had its own leadership requirements. In some departments, visionary leadership was a must; in others, a more managerial HoD was needed.

This aspect of leadership behaviour implies that effective departmental leaders are those who have a vision and provide clear guidance concerning the specific routes their departments should be taking (Creswell, 1990; Middlehurst, 1993; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Middlehurst, Kennie and Woodfield, 2010). Kouzes and Posner (2001, 2012) have concluded that leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices. The first characteristic is that effective leaders help to establish a vision. The second characteristic is that effective leaders have a commitment to a vision and the ability to communicate that vision to others with passion. The third characteristic is that effective leaders have the ability to inspire trust and build relationships within the organization. These characteristics may all be seen in this case of a Gulf university.

8.4. Faculty Advocate

An emphasis was placed on the role of HoDs as leaders in relation to faculty members. Respondents suggested that departmental chairs were ultimately responsible for most areas of activity within the university, one of which was ensuring faculty quality and shaping faculty behaviour. Respondents considered it important for departmental leaders to treat their faculty as the primary departmental asset. As one said “your people in the department are your assets; invest in them because without them you can’t do the work” (F7), a perception in line with Hecht (2004, p 29) who also commented on departmental staff as the major resource at hand. This is also consistent with the work of Gmelch and Miskin (1993) who found that faculty development is perceived by department heads to be “their most important responsibility” (p. 5). Recruiting, selecting, and evaluating faculty, as well as mentoring them and creating high morale and professional development opportunities, were priorities for the department heads surveyed.

For many respondents, being an advocate for the faculty meant being a considerate leader. Two main aspects emerged associated with considerate leadership. Some referred to professional growth and development, while others stressed personal care and the well-being of faculty. Interviewees emphasised the importance of the HoD’s role to invest in their departmental members and work towards their professional growth and development. This included the facilitation of personal growth and task achievements which would result in increased productivity, quality, commitment and loyalty of faculty members, suggesting that this might be achieved by mentoring, delegation, following up, being supportive, facilitating, being directive and providing feedback. Buller (2013, p. 128) goes further stating that “positive academic leaders look for opportunities people can use to develop their skills and pursue activities they find interesting and rewarding”.

However, the work of HoDs goes far beyond pure faculty roles including: departmental affairs, academic affairs, faculty affairs, student affairs, external communications, budgetary affairs, office management and personal professional performance (Hecht, 2004). Given this diversity, HoDs are in a difficult position in that they cannot always simultaneously please all three of their major stakeholder

groups - faculty, students and administration - because the expectations and demands of these groups often conflict. Given a choice, however, the HoD's advocacy should be with their faculty (Wolverton, Ackerman and Holt, 2005).

8.4.1. Being a Considerate Professional

For many respondents, HoDs were expected to engage in faculty performance and professional development in order to be effective departmental leaders. As described above, they should provide a high level of support to their faculty to enhance the outcome of departments and overall university performance. Being a considerate HoD involved acting as a facilitator, setting clear plans and expectations for each faculty member, facilitating the acquisition of resources, sending them to seminars, workshops and conferences, and collaborating to encourage ongoing development. Mention was also made of the importance of acting as a mentor, using a "carrot and stick" approach and by delegation. Most importantly, HoDs should understand their role and influence in this process (Hecht, 2004).

Mentoring

Mentoring was seen as a significant role for the HoD. Participants from different groups emphasised that HoDs should ensure the quality of faculty members' work by following up on discussions, offering formative feedback and working towards their professional growth and future development. New faculty members considered mentoring to be an important component of workplace satisfaction and future success, and relied upon their department chairs for continuing advice and consultation. Junior staff seemed to rely heavily upon their leaders for advice and consultation, expecting them to act like a mentor using an informal approach and never being judgmental. Agreeing with this approach, HoDs and senior leaders suggested that mentoring and follow-up should take place informally as this was more effective than formal methods of assessment. Similar conclusions were reached by Gmelch and Buller (2016).

The departmental chair is in a critical position regarding the success and ultimate retention of all departmental members. For example, a department secretary unable to keep up with administrative demands might need additional training on the latest technology. Bass (1985) suggested that providing support for academic administrators demonstrated that people mattered. However, this study found that there was no formal

system for mentoring and supervising or evaluating faculty performance other than through annual appraisal.

Bearing this in mind, significant emphasis was placed on how, when, and to what extent HoDs should provide support based on the maturity level and needs of each faculty member. Senior leaders and HoDs also discussed the importance of considering the departmental conditions, situations and levels of maturity when applying different leadership styles with faculty members, ensuring that investing in faculty development should be in line with departmental and university strategies and goals. This finding is in line with the Situational Leadership model put forward by Hersey and Blanchard (1984), which focused on the maturity, ability and willingness of subordinates to engage with tasks in question. This topic was of importance to participants from different groups (S6, M4, 6 and F4, F7); one faculty member said:

... to know more about your people you should be close to them, apply the open door policy, provide the support they need, there are different levels of faculty members in terms of their skills and ability and you should as a leader provide them help and support based on their level of maturity and for example if the leader is dealing with you as if you were in level 1 or 2 while you are in 4 that could impact on you badly and negatively (F4).

“Carrot and Stick” Approach/Exchange Approach

There were occasional references to an exchange approach among leaders (M 5, M4, M2, M3, S8), particularly using a “carrot and stick” to manage faculty performance and behaviour. This strategy was said to be effective mainly when dealing with poor performance, creating healthy professional competition, motivation, increasing performance productivity and challenging people, used as a component of contingent reward within a wider transactional leadership model (Bass, 1999).

Some HoDs reported that it was important to use an approach where leaders could promote compliance of faculty and staff through a reward and punishment system to ensure quality and enhance their performance, and to “punish” under-performance. This approach sometimes took the form of public recognition to create professional competition and to push individuals towards the desired goal. Political visibility and social approval, and administrative or psychological support were also reported as forms of reward. “Sticks” could take the form of using the regulatory process to deal with poor performance or undesirable behaviours, or using their authority to take

matters further following university procedures. Surprisingly, it was also suggested by one faculty member to be an effective approach to increase productivity:

As a leader in this position you need to be able to punish and reward using a 'carrot and stick strategy' to get the job done, especially with some types of people it is needed to increase their performance (F9).

However, others argued that, if this did increase productivity, it might not necessarily increase efficiency and the quality of the work produced. Birnbaum (1992) and Bryman (2007, p15) argue that most of the time, senior leaders in higher education are transactional rather than transformational leaders, because a great deal of damage can be inflicted on faculty support if transformation is too regular or so deep that it disrupts existing cultural patterns within institutions. This was found to be more central to the senior management group, where some time was required to exert power by assessing faculty. Leadership based on exchange between leaders and followers could be utilized if linked with underperforming faculty and applied to increase productivity. Social exchange theory was found to be particularly useful when a leader's discretionary control of organizational activity started to reduce due to the increasing effect of other sources of power. However, leaders need to be familiar with their people, institutional history and culture, and the expectations of followers before proclaiming changes they plan to introduce (Bensimon, Neumann and Birnbaum, 1989, p. 216). Findings from this study also support the view of Bryman in his work on departmental leadership in higher education;

The inference that different situations call for a different leadership style, and the belief that approaches such as transformational leadership are likely not to be effective in some situations, are gaining increasing support within the higher education literature (Bryman, 2007a, p. 15).

It was clear from the interviews that, in the Arab context, the social exchange approach was seen to be preferable in normal circumstances, where leadership took account of the characteristics of each individual, as an individual, in the provision of different levels of support.

Recognition and Appreciation

Interviewees suggested that an important part of the leader's job was to show appreciation for people's contributions and to create a climate of celebration when success occurred. This was seen as a way of motivating, building good working relationships and increasing productivity among faculty, confirming the importance of developing an attitude of gratitude in the academic department by making an individual's actions and success clear (Buller, 2013). Kouzes and Posner (2012, p. 16) identify as one of five effective practices of an exemplary leadership model:

Encouragement can come from dramatic gestures or simple actions. It's part of the leader's job to recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence.

Wergin (2003) also identified symbols of recognition as one important incentive driver for faculty in his research on faculty motivation. He noted that "recognition is public validation and it is exceedingly powerful" (Wergin, 2003, p. 17).

Giving Feedback

Effective HoDs were seen by their faculty and senior leaders as providing helpful feedback on performance, thus enhancing faculty performance and encouraging ongoing development. This is in agreement with Creswell (1990) and Ambrose, Huston and Norman, (2005) who found that giving feedback was a critical element of effective department leadership. What was most apparent from the present study was a broad uncertainty about how to do it effectively. Different phrases indicating how to go about this process emerged during the interviews including being constructive, politeness, good manners, positively framed, and sensitivity to others. Leaders were also expected to be culturally sensitive when they gave feedback specifically regarding language and non-verbal communication, such as eye contact, verbal style and people's expectations. Participants emphasized that criticism should be carefully given by using indirect speech, hints and subtle suggestions to convey the message. One HoD said, "as a leader you need to criticize and give feedback but it should be positively framed" (M1).

In the Arab context, it is important to avoid losing face, as this involves issues with self-worth or self-esteem, especially in the eyes of others. For example, Arab people

will not usually accept direct criticism or negative feedback, even if they are the one who asked for it. This suggests the importance of the symbolic meaning of the face in Arab daily life, as reported by Suwaidi, (2008, p. 19):

The human face represents honour and dignity in Arab culture. Such symbolic meanings are illustrated in common conversation where one describes experiences or incidents with reference to its effect on their face. For example, a description of a positive and proud experience may include that it “whitened their face.” If the experience was negative and one felt humiliated, language could note that the experience “blackened their face.

Delegation

Why Delegate?

Delegation was seen as good leadership practice to help faculty grow and develop their skills and knowledge, respondents tending to provide detailed explanations when discussing the topic. They stressed aspects of how, why, when and to whom to delegate. Participants from the senior group agreed that HoDs must acknowledge that they cannot do everything alone (S3 S6), suggesting that trust and delegation were essential to strengthening capacity and to fostering a culture of collaboration in their department. Senior leaders also reported the negative outcomes of not being able to delegate, such as faculty were unaware of what was happening in their departments.

From a faculty point of view, delegation was seen as a way of empowerment and of building trust and confidence among staff. Most faculty members believed delegation made them do their best, showing that their abilities were valued, they were trusted and they had a sense of ownership. For example, (F4) said “if I am not involved, I will not be interested to do it”. Such delegation was found to be a successful strategy in work by Nadler and Tushman (1990) who suggested that, through delegation, a leader conveyed confidence in the abilities of his or her staff to perform effectively.

Some HoDs and senior leaders saw delegation as a learning opportunity to support and develop skills, particularly for junior faculty, to help them advance their career as well as providing a benefit to the HoD who would be able to undertake fewer tasks, more effectively (S, S, M, M.). This was also found in work by Nadler and Tushman, (1990) Lussier and Achua, (2007) and Buller, (2013) who found that effective leaders facilitated and encouraged the personal development of their staff through delegating

tasks and responsibilities to facilitate the development of new skills and to provide challenging opportunities. Lussier and Achua (2010) added that leaders, as a consequence, will improve their management and leadership potential, while training others to succeed them.

Involvement and delegation have been found to be a major predictor of effective utilization of competencies and of the maximization of the value of employees as intellectual assets (Al-Yahya and Vengroff, 2005). It has also been found that delegating is good for the organisation as it makes people feel that they are valued (Gmelch and Buller, 2016). These findings are confirmed in this study of an Arabic university.

How to Delegate

It was also found that, through careful, strategic and appropriate delegation, HoDs could create an environment that provides appropriate learning opportunities for faculty members. Different aspects were reported for successful delegation. Most important, the HoD should know or learn how to delegate appropriately, carefully and strategically by considering moral aspects, assignation of the right person to the right task, follow up and the provision of clear direction and relevant resources needed to achieve the task, as well as showing appreciation and recognition.

Considering moral aspects, participants suggested that HoDs should delegate with honesty, integrity and appreciation, and should consider these points as the most significant components of the delegation process. (F6) explained that a leader should appreciate and recognize the work and contributions of others, and should never present work to upper administration as a “one man job”. Other participants (M2, F3, F2, and S3) suggested that delegation should never be in place simply for the purpose of reducing the workload of the HoD and should not overwhelm faculty with tasks and responsibilities.

Buller suggested that a key aspect of positive academic leadership was showing appreciation and recognition of others’ work, stressing the importance of the HoD’s gratitude and thanks given publicly in meetings (Buller, 2013, p. 128):.

Saying, “thank you for all you’ve done,” or “Thanks for another great year,” is far too vague to provide the person who hears it with a particular warm and fuzzy feeling. Be sure to mention exactly what the person did, and do so in a manner that makes it clear how important you regard this person to institution’s overall operation.

Assigning the right person to the right task was another aspect that emerged from interviews as essential for appropriate delegation. (F6) explained that HoDs should match tasks to faculty members by determining which assignments would be best suited to each individual while being aware of what commitments were already being undertaken by each. This required HoDs to have a solid understanding of the skills and knowledge of their people. Interviewees S6, S4 and M2 suggested that trust occurs when HoDs know their people’s strengths, weaknesses and interests and, that to do so, it was necessary to be close, open to others and accepting of differences in culture and ability. It also required a willingness to accept the results of the delegation, even if these results were not seen as extraordinary or as good as those they might have achieved themselves.

Further, M2 argued that good delegation implies that leaders understand this aspect of their role as HoD and that a certain task does not end once the task has been delegated. Rather, it requires direction, support, follow-up, evaluation, checking and sometimes endorsement. M2 shared her experiences of delegation and how it resulted in increasing faculty motivation, improved performance and the development of trusting relationships. It also resulted in faculty starting to welcome the opportunity to contribute to the department by assuming some delegated responsibility. The main reason for this positive outcome, she suggested, was that the delegation was done through a clear process involving, as mentioned above, direction, support, follow up and checking. This finding is in line with Palmberg (2009) who highlighted the need for a strong follow-up system in order to have effective delegation of responsibility

Why HoDs do not Delegate

The results revealed that, although many respondents considered delegation a major factor in supporting faculty growth and productivity, many HoDs seemed reluctant to delegate. Some HoDs simply felt that this was not easy to do. M4 said “I wish I could learn how to delegate”. This view was associated with a desire to avoid blame for making mistakes or a lack of confidence in their faculty and staff. Senior leaders also emphasised the importance for HoDs to ensure that tasks were undertaken effectively

and strategically as they would be ultimately accountable for the management of their departments. This may explain their reluctance and unwillingness to delegate to others, or at least to junior faculty, to avoid negative outcomes.

This finding may be related to the work of Hofstede (2001) who found that Arab countries scored high on uncertainty avoidance, referring to the extent to which people in society feel threatened by ambiguous situations. The findings also confirm the results of Hammoud, (2011) and Al-Yahya and Vengroff (2005), where the general culture in the Middle East is seen to be relatively high in responsibility avoidance, reflecting the uncertainties facing leaders related to empowerment and the unwillingness of employees to accept further tasks and responsibilities.

In summary, it was found that, by strategic, careful delegation, a HoD could support the learning and growth of faculty members and of the department in general. The HoD should ensure that instructions are clear and precise for the delegated task, while being careful not to overload faculty with too many tasks and responsibilities, ensuring the right person is assigned to the right task.

Leadership Style

Findings about demonstrating and using different leadership styles when providing support and mentoring and when delegating are consistent with Contingency Leadership. This, in turn, includes the Situational Leadership model (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) which focuses on the maturity, ability and willingness of subordinates to engage with tasks; Fiedler's Contingency model (Fiedler, 1996) which suggests that leaders are either task or relationship oriented, depending on situational factors (quality of relationship, nature of task and their position within the organization); and the Path Goal model (House, 1984) which involves making the path clear for followers by clarifying tasks and removing barriers along the pathway towards goal attainment. This suggests that leaders should be flexible in their style and behaviour towards individuals (Middlehurst, 1993; Middlehurst, Kennie and Woodfield, 2010).

In terms of which approach is most effective, no single choice of style is perfect as leadership depends on many different factors and acting accordingly. However, participants emphasised directing and supporting, and facilitating and being

relationship-oriented. Some senior leaders felt that HoDs should be primarily task-oriented, to get the task done efficiently and sufficiently; only sometimes might they exercise a more relationship style. Conversely, Bass (1990) suggested that department chairs must be able to display a caring nature and give proper consideration to the individual needs of department personnel and other constituents, as well as being considerate of the root causes of personnel behaviour. That aside, the chair must measure performance and handle day-to-day administrative duties by being task oriented.

Birnbaum (1992) argued that a directive leadership style might not be ideal in the context of higher education given the characteristics of people and the nature of working processes in academic institutions, such as faculty autonomy, reward systems, the role of academic disciplines and traditions of peer-reviewing. Findings from the current study, however, offer a different conclusion. Instead, respondents suggested that a directive or facilitator style of leadership can be effective when leading junior faculty, reflecting the importance of the maturity level of followers (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). This is consistent with earlier research on the impact of Arab tribal traditions and the nature of relationships between leaders and subordinates in the work environment. It might also be a result of an authoritarian management style and employee attitudes in a hierarchical organization, where leaders are expected to act like fathers, caring and protective, while holding authority and expecting compliance from employees (Al-Faleh, 1987; Barakat, 1993, 2004; Ali and Azim, 1996). In turn, employees project similar attitudes towards their leaders as they do towards their fathers (Hofstede, 1991), and wait for directions from their managers (Barakat, 1993, 2004). Therefore, it is clear that in an Arabic university, it is not only the relationship between leaders and followers that determines the most suited leadership style, but a mix of individual and contextual characteristics directing the style of leadership appropriate in such settings.

8.4.2. Being Personally Considerate

With regard to the importance of being considerate, faculty members were of the view that their leader should be the one who cares about and considers their personal and social needs, showing a level of empathy regarding personal interests and well-being. They emphasised the need to build close interpersonal relationships, show kindness, celebrate social events (such as having a new baby, showing empathy and sympathy, asking about families, pursuing conversation not related to work and tasks) and be an interpersonal - oriented leader. These characteristics were seen to improve work motivation and satisfaction. One faculty member suggested that “effective HoDs show personal care to each individual and not only all about the job” (F11).

Faculty members further discussed the role of their leader in building a sense of community, making them feel a part of a family; some referred to issues experienced by some non-local faculty about being socially isolated, impacting negatively on their loyalty and performance. Although, building a sense of community academically within a department was a key component of job satisfaction for academic faculty (Wergin, 2003; Bryman, 2007a; Buller, 2013), the sense of community identified in the current study referred to social interaction outside the workplace. This was found to be important for expatriates and may explain the social divisions in some GCC countries where social interaction outside the workplace is limited (Naithani and Jha, 2010). Although many expatriates working in the GCC report that Arab Gulf nations were some of the friendliest and easiest places to build relationships as reported by The InterNations Survey (2016) there was a strong emphasis on the impact of national cultural characteristics of collectivism and group relationships, where priority was given first to family, relatives, tribe and friends (Naithani and Jha, 2010).

The findings regarding care for people, understanding individual needs and concerns, showing genuine compassion and making interpersonal connect with faculty, appear to support the views in the literature on transformational leadership behaviours, particularly the importance of individual consideration. However, in an Arabic university, this emphasis on personal relationships was often external to the department; some members of the department were excluded as a result.

8.5. Leadership and Context; Does It Matter?

Many factors have been identified in the literature as shaping the development and practice of effective leadership in higher education. In this section, findings related to the third research objective (the challenge of context) will be discussed

- To investigate factors that may impact on individual practice and perception of leadership, such as regional culture, social norms within the region, institutional culture, academic disciplines and seniority level.

Findings from the data provided by the interviewees revealed a range of contextual variations that were perceived to have an impact on the practice of leadership and what was perceived to be effective in the selected case institution. Some factors were related to the university as a unique context; others were associated with national culture and social norms, and with behaviours in the region. Among the participants there was considerable emphasis on the prospects for understanding the needs and requirements of leadership considering the organizational and cultural context, type and size of department, and discipline bearing in mind the specific forms and approaches of leadership required. The context of higher education was found to be unique in terms of the people in HE, disciplines, roles and responsibilities of academic leaders, and some other factors that were associated with the system and institutional culture and the role played in society of the case investigated. National culture and diversity in the workplace were other factors that were found to shape the practice of leadership and the perceptions about what to look for in HoDs leading within the university. Major aspects that emerged from the interviews associated with social behaviour and cultural norms were the power distance, culture of collectivism, and communication styles. The university offered a unique context and the impact of national culture and diversity will be discussed together with their relevance to the literature.

8.5.1. The University as a Unique Context

Characteristics of Academic Staff

An aspect of leadership effectiveness in relation to the context of HE that was mentioned by several interviewees was the need to recognise that higher education was itself a distinctive context and, therefore, that many of the leadership principles that were known to work in other spheres could not be transplanted into universities. One example was a characteristic of people working in an academic department, that ‘people here are PhD holders’, an ‘elite club’, ‘professional’, ‘independent’, ‘individualistic’, and ‘they don’t do what they are not interested in’. The clear implication was that academic staff tended to work for themselves, or wanted to, rather than for the institution. Another factor that was the tendency of academics to be trained to be highly questioning or argumentative, especially academics from humanities and social science backgrounds where debate was specifically encouraged in their disciplines. One interviewee, for example, offered a detailed view describing the characteristics of academics which required attention in terms of leadership style:

You have actually touched on a very important and sensitive area, and this is what makes managing and leading within higher education different from any other type of organization. They are all PhD holders, here in the university there is no difference between presidents or any other professor, even a TA, there is no difference in the level of respect, because they have joined the elite club, they all have the same respect in the society. When for example you sit with them in a meeting each one considers himself as a unique person on his own, so you need to convince each one when you talk. It is not like if you are in a company with your employees and giving orders. So, you only can get things done by convincing, sharing decisions, so it is very important to understand you are dealing with people from the elite club and you are all peers for each other. It is not like in the police or army, there you can be better if you were an employer one day before me. So I can give order and you do it, you take the order and you do it without asking (S3)

S (8) also expressed the following view when he was asked whether leading in a university differed from leading in other organizations; he contrasted working in public and private sectors:

It’s a very good question... yes absolutely, it is different. Leading, especially in private sectors...your staff are employees and you give them direction and they have to implement it so there is very limited room for having their own discretion...but in an academic organization, the faculty members, especially the senior ones, they feel they have academic freedom, so they feel independent, I have my own work ... I teach I do my research

This finding is supported by similar findings from previous studies in the literature (e.g. Andreason, 2006; Bolman and Gallos, 2016; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Peters and Ryan, 2015). For example, Peters and Ryan found that there were unique characteristics among academic people that required different responses, skills and attributes for leadership. These characteristics included: independence, uncooperativeness, and the expertise of academics, as well as the wider HE culture. They also found that leading within HEIs was different from any other sector. The main reasons were the structure of institutions and the type of people working within them (Peters and Ryan 2015, p.30) This finding also confirms the claim made by Bolman and Gallos (2016) when describing leading academic people in a university that “even if academe has no more than its fair share of challenging personalities, its employees have more autonomy and room to bring their full personal package to the workplace than do workers elsewhere”.

Managing academic performance (“Herding Cats”)

An important issue raised by almost all participants as a key feature of leadership in an academic context, and specifically as a problem for HoDs, was the task of managing academic faculty who were professionally oriented and highly independent, including dealing with poor or under-performance, and working with difficult senior faculty. Almost all HoDs felt that bringing faculty members together, working towards the department’s vision and related activities, was one of their biggest challenges. Some Deans and HoDs suggested that one of the main difficulties faced was managing academic faculty members who were often unwilling to do what the HoD wanted them to do; it was emphasized that in other sectors such behaviour would not be tolerated. Participants also claimed that confronting such behaviour often deterred many potential leaders from taking up the role of HoD. They pointed to the difficulties of bringing people together as most of the academic faculty members have little sense of working as a team or following the direction of the HoD if it does not match their personal interests. The expression used by several interviewees was that leadership was like “herding cats”. A Dean also explained:

Managing an academic faculty involves a great deal of independence and that is why Deans usually give them this independence to some extent. Of course, at the end of the year we do the appraisal for their teaching and research and very much I can say this is the only way that we can influence faculty members. We cannot very much

mandate how a professor should teach. It is difficult to tell them you must use this technique or that method ... managing them is like herding cats (S8).

These conclusions confirm other research findings (Ramsden, 1998; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Bolman and Gallos, 2016). They suggest that one way in which leadership in higher education was felt to be distinctive was that the context made it very difficult for heads of department to deal with poor performance or with difficult people. These researchers also described the process of managing academics as like “herding cats”. They also found that leading academic staff was considered to be a source of some tension because most faculty were highly individualistic, with no strong sense of working as a team or commitment to a cooperative identity, either within the department or the university. It is clearly difficult to make staff work towards the vision of the department and university if this does not match their interests or external trends in their field, because the loyalties of academics were often not to their institutions but rather more to their disciplines. Bolman and Gallos (2010, p. 163) wrote that

There are fewer guard rails to keep individuals from going off the road or crashing head-on into someone else. Most academic administrators have to deal with at least a few unusually difficult or prickly people who cause a disproportionate share of their headache.

8.5.2. Departments and Disciplines

One Size Does Not Fit All

The impact and influence of different disciplinary contexts and of the nature and size of department were evident in both leadership expectations, and style and effectiveness. There was considerable emphasis among interviewees from all three groups on the prospects for understanding the needs and requirements of leadership bearing in mind different types of department and contrasting disciplines. Senior leaders (S3, S4, and S6), for example, placed an emphasis on maturity, needs and the nature of a department. Others stressed the context of discipline: faculty and HoDs (F8, F6, and M4). Participants tended to use metaphors to describe the importance of context as a critical factor when understanding leadership; the most common comment was that “one size does not fit all”. Participants felt that what was required to be effective leaders was context bound, where some people who were effective in one

area, would be ineffective in another. Some HoDs were required to manage a department; others needed to have a vision and lead a department effectively. This confirmed different claims and arguments made in the literature concerning academic discipline as a contextual factor (Del Favero, 2006; Bryman and Lilley, 2009; Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2009; Middlehurst, 2012).

Leadership qualities and competencies identified in this study were not equally stressed or reported by all interviewees from different group levels or from different departments or colleges; rather, sub-sets were combined in different ways in different contexts. In particular, the academic discipline and type or size of departments were found to influence what kinds of leadership, forms of behaviour and knowledge were required to lead each department. For instance, managing people and negotiation skills were more likely to be emphasised by interviewees from the social sciences and law departments; these skills were less emphasised by participants from engineering departments. However, the ability to build and maintain good external relationships with key stakeholders, being a good negotiator and diplomatic, and being a visionary leader were repeatedly seen to be critical aspects and skills of department leadership by participants from the Engineering College and Business School. This might be because new trends and the role of some scientific programmes and departments in universities are dependent heavily upon some external actors (e.g. private businesses) for the university to contribute to society and market needs. Such pressures are not felt equally across the university.

Some participants clarified this argument, emphasising that each department has its own leadership requirements. For example, a Dean (S6) discussed the nature and maturity of department and discipline, and whether they needed a leader or a manager, or both. Some departments required a leader who would look to the future, have vision and think strategically; others might only need to maintain the *status quo* and maintain the current level of performance requiring emphasis more on the managerial skills and knowledge. This finding agreed with some studies that point to the importance of disciplines as a contextual factor that should not be ignored when examining leadership requirements and effectiveness (Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2009).

Discipline as a contextual factor was also found to have an impact on selection and the appointment of a new HoD. Some participants reported that, given the nature of

Applied Science disciplines, it was important to appoint someone with industrial experience as well as a strong academic background (M4, S3) as the activities and the way programmes were organised were different and required previous knowledge of business. Furthermore, with regard to appointing procedures (election or appointment), it was also suggested that the decision should be based on the maturity of the department and college. For example, an election could work in a big and mature department, whereas this would not be the case in small departments where lobbying and political games could be very influential (S4, F1, M3). Moreover, training and development opportunities might also be influenced by disciplinary context; interviewees suggested that any training and professional development should be context related, considering what each department needed from their Head. Traditional ways of common training for all leaders (if they existed at all) were considered as ineffective and a waste of valuable time and money (M7, M5, F3, S4).

A review of literature on leadership in higher education (Bryman, 2007a) pointed out that the characteristics of department heads associated with research excellence appear to be different, or even the reverse, of leadership characteristics associated with teaching excellence. For example, consultation and discussion of department strategy appears to be helpful for teaching, but unhelpful for research. Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin (2009, p. 3) suggest that disciplinary differences involve differences in activity systems and in the way work is organised that have profound implications for the way leadership does, or could, operate. The authors state that “any advice about leadership of teaching should take into account these disciplinary characteristics and cultures or it is likely to risk being not just irrelevant but wrong. Heads should be very wary of generic conclusions about leadership of teaching”.

8.5.3. Institutional Culture

The Role of the University in Society

Organizational culture, as well as the role of the university as the national public university, were also found to have a significant role in shaping ideas of the qualities desirable for a suitable HoD. This finding is in line with other researchers (Kouzes and Posner, 2003, 2012). They found that the exercise of leadership seemed to centre on the issue of context, and, in particular, the role that higher education plays in society. This was especially true of the case study university, as the national public university,

with a particular mission and vision. This context would have an impact, for example, on selection criteria, training and professional requirements, levels of autonomy and the discretion available for the Head to allow academic freedom and/or to adopt different styles of decision-making and change management. For example, in considering who would be best suited to be a departmental leader, it was found that most participants suggested that managerial and leadership positions should be taken by natives; even those non-locals who were currently in the position of HoD shared this view. This might explain the difficulties for expatriot workers leading native faculty. It also reflects the difficulty for some non-locals in adjusting to life within the university system, particularly if they were from a different cultural background, especially Western, or had experience working in a decentralised organization.

The role that the university plays in society as the national public university was also found to be a factor influencing the leadership required from a HoD. QU is committed to contribute to the National Human Capital plan and to investment in activities to fulfil the policy of Qatarization that is a part of employment strategy in the Qatar National Vision 2030 (S1). In this study, there were differences in the criteria identified for selecting HoDs as leaders between natives and expatriates. For example, educational background and the willingness to take up the role were found to be the most important qualities if the Head was local. However, the criteria for a non-local HoD were slightly different, based on higher qualifications and good personal qualities, and especially the best level of familiarity with the local culture. Levels of motivation, willingness, positivity and friendly attitudes were similarly crucial aspects when selecting non-Qataris to lead an academic department. Additional criteria, such as previous experience of managerial and leadership positions, whether within a university context or in any other type of organization, were required if an appointment was made from outside the university. As most organizations in the GCC tend to hire non-local workers when they cannot find locals with necessary expertise, looking for someone to bring new experience, knowledge and skills to the department can be crucial. The differences in criteria reflect the role of the university in investing in National Human Capital and contributing to the achievement of the *Qatarization* strategy. This aims to encourage national people to take up managerial roles and provide them with on-the-job training to support their performance. It also reflects the strategy of attracting many Qataris to work in academia. This is because most people

prefer to work in other types of organization that do not require a PhD degree; relatively few Qataris are interested in doing a PhD (S1). It could also reflect the social welfare state of the nation; many graduates can get a well-paid job without requiring higher qualifications and many graduates from high school can get a good job without requiring further study. There is therefore a disconnect between the desire to appoint more locals to senior positions and the supply of qualified individuals.

Top-Down Management and Employment System

It was clear from the interviews how the University's hierarchical and top down management system impacted upon the decision making process, change, delegation, working relationships, co-ordinating activities and hiring new workers. In terms of how decisions were taken and by whom, it was common practice for HoDs to meet and consult with their staff and faculty to obtain different inputs and make them feel involved. However, in most cases, ideas still had to go through the central administration who would also consult senior leaders before making a final decision. It was also common for decisions to be made by higher authority with little explanation or reasoning. Faculty members accepted this way of making decisions as they were aware of the hierarchical structure of the university and they recognised that sometimes decisions were made at a level outside the influence of the HoD. These arrangements resulted in a slow process for making decisions, including routine decisions. This finding confirmed the work of Hofstede (2001; 2005) on the impact of national and institutional culture on management and leadership practice, particularly in relation to the power distance dimension and the acceptance of an unequal distribution of power within society and organizations.

Delegation was another leadership practice that was influenced by national and institutional culture. Delegation was perceived as a required ability for effective leadership in academic departments given the overwhelming nature of the role of HoD and the importance of delegation to support faculty professional development. However, it was found that delegation of tasks or responsibilities was not commonly adopted within departments. Many HoDs were reluctant or unwilling to delegate. One reason was culturally related, making them hesitant to implement such strategies. As a hierarchal, top down organisation that expected work to be done following specific procedures and with specific results, there was limited room for unexpected results or

opportunities to learn from experience or mistakes. This was linked to a culture of uncertainty avoidance, shame in making mistakes and intense accountability. This confirms the high score in the national culture dimension related to uncertainty avoidance in Arab countries (including Qatar) reported by Hofstede (2001). Qatar also scored high on these measures in a study of the UAI by Dulaimi and Sailan (2011).

The system of permanent jobs and short-term contracts for non-Qataris working also had an important impact on which leadership style to implement, and how to motivate and manage faculty performance. For example, it was reported that it was important for HoDs to apply a relationship oriented style and be considerate to those who worked on short-term contracts to assure stability within the department, and to guarantee that faculty continued to perform in their role until the contract end.

8.5.4. National and Regional Culture

The impact of national culture on how leadership was perceived and practiced was evident in findings from this study, especially through cultural aspects related to power distance, tribal loyalties, an emphasis on collectivism and the presence of a relationship-oriented society.

Power and Influence

Power distance (PD) is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations within a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2005). While Arabic countries, including Qatar, have a high score in Hofstede's (2001) study, other research examining the national culture of Qatar showed a medium power distance (Dulaimi and Sailan, 2011). However, the impact of how power and influence is practiced and perceived in this study also reflects the large number of non-Qatari Arab faculty working in the university whose home countries also scored high in PD in Hofstede's (2001) study.

An effective leader was perceived as one who was able to exercise different sources of power and keep their distance from their people; this included position power that was assigned by upper authority. For some, a leader who was not able to use authority or legitimate power was a weak leader. This reflected the impact of power distance as a cultural norm and represented a perspective of the relationship between a superior

and a follower in a hierarchical organization and society. It was also perceived that exchange power and transactional style had a positive impact on managing performance and motivation for effective leadership in an academic department. The approach of using the “carrot and stick”/reward and punishment method was frequently mentioned among HoDs to be effective for motivation, performance management, and conflict resolution. Political visibility and status gained through the job were found to be rewarding, which confirms the importance of this approach to staff motivation in the Arab region; this might also reflect the work attitude for some cultures where staff are not self-motivated and recognise the power of superiors.

Relationship Oriented Culture

The interviews placed a significant emphasis on the need for successful HoDs to be effective in relationship-oriented leadership: caring about interpersonal relations; showing a warm personality, greetings and courtesy; conducting a short conversation to greet a person before assigning any task; asking, for example, about the welfare of each other's families; and interacting socially. Such aspects of building relationships were important for those from a collectivist culture and were felt to be important to loyalty, performance quality and productivity, commitment and motivation. This reflects the impact of relationship oriented societies in the workplace (House *et al.*, 2004 and Hofstede, 2005) and confirms the impact of society on work and individuals within the organisation.

Communication Styles

Language and physical space when communicating with others were seen to be important cultural aspects that helped to shape leadership practice. HoDs were expected to understand the social norms and aspects of communication in order to be able to perform the role effectively. For example, as part of their role was to evaluate faculty performance and give feedback, it was essential that the delivery of feedback and criticism was polite, delicate, and offered some positives when critiquing work and performance. These findings reflected the dominance of indirect cultural communication characteristics; being too directive in a conversation was seen as rude and it was important to save face and protect a person's ego.

Another aspect of leadership style evident in this study was the importance of physical space during inter-personal communications. This could have either a positive or negative impact. People from an Arab culture emphasised that, when communicating with the same gender, physical space was not usually maintained; shaking hands, touching each other when speaking or holding hands when walking were all considered as signs of friendship, warmth and respect. Such gestures were seen by a faculty member from a western background to have a negative impact, causing an uncomfortable feeling that impacted upon the message being sent. This confirms the result reported by Hofstede (2005) about the differences in communication style between the Arab and Western societies and their impact on the workplace. Therefore, understanding these cultural dimensions was crucial for leadership within a diverse environment.

Gender

Gender and gender stereotypes were another factor found to have an impact on leadership practice. Social interaction between males and females was limited outside the work place. It was also clear that some males felt uncomfortable being led by a female, some males felt uncomfortable leading women and some women felt uncomfortable being led by a male. There were important practical consequences, especially for non-natives who were not familiar with social norms. One faculty member from the west felt isolated and this impacted upon his loyalty to the department because his leader was a female and he could not join the social interaction outside the university. He also felt it was unfair on him as he might lose some work related opportunities that would be discussed at all-female social gatherings.

Stereotypes

It is common in the Gulf States for Western cultures to be held in high esteem. They are viewed as highly developed and advanced, and sometimes staff with a western background are given priority in the workplace. These particular stereotypes and generalizations made by many Arabs were found to have both positive and negative outcomes for faculty performance and for perspectives on the length of serving in leadership positions. Adler discussed:

Stereotyping involves a form of categorization that organizes our experience and guides our behaviour towards ethnic and national groups. Stereotypes never describe individual behaviour; rather, they describe the behavioural norm for members of a particular group...Stereotypes, like other forms of categories, can be helpful or harmful depending on how we use them. Effective stereotyping allows people to understand and act appropriately in new situations (Adler, 1991, pp. 5–6).

Stereotyping was openly discussed by a western participant who found that the lack of knowledge about western culture could sometimes be negative for the organization. He stated that “as faculty I would be confident that I will have the priority, for example in applying for a grant or renewing my contract etc. It is good for me but not fair on others, it will also can make me less motivated, not fully committed to producing good work because my work is viewed as quality and advanced even if it was not” (F10). To be effective, international managers must therefore be aware of cultural stereotypes and learn to set them aside when faced with contradictory evidence. They cannot pretend not to stereotype (Adler, 1991).

Collectivism Culture

Aspects of group-oriented culture were found to impact upon the practice of leadership. From the perspective of non-local faculty and HoDs, it was important for effective leadership to show genuine care and build a sense of social community among departmental members by interacting with them socially and showing compassion and empathy. This was reported by a number of non-local participants who reflected on some of the issues reported in the literature faced by expatriots in the GCC and concluded that social division between local and non-locals was apparent and that interaction was limited. These characteristics had to be understood by the HoD.

The decision to take on the role was also influenced by the collectivist culture. Some HoDs openly discussed their reluctance to take on the role, but they were conscious of cultural norms of respecting the superior and they did not want to let down their Deans. They also discussed their experiences of performing the role and how they were still not happy to carry on, but they felt obliged to honour and maintain the personal relationships. These feelings were common, but could have an adverse impact on departmental outcomes and quality, especially if they were not the right people to undertake the role in the first place.

To conclude

The essential premise of the contingency approach is that effectiveness can be achieved in more than one way. Research results show that ‘one size does not fit all’ and emphasizes the importance of focusing attention on context in considering who is viewed as a good leader. These findings confirm the application of contingency approach of leadership in the context of higher education and indicate the importance of this theory for leadership studies in HE (Middlehurst, 2012; Kezar et al., 2009). Furthermore, results show that the best course of leadership action reflects both micro- and macro-contextual conditions or circumstances. This is in line with the proposed assumption of situational and contingency approaches that no single leadership style is appropriate in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including leadership style, qualities of followers and situational features (Charry, 2012). Thus, a leader's effectiveness is linked to the nature of the situation. It is important to acknowledge that individual needs and problems vary, requiring HoDs to match their leadership styles and actions based on individual characteristics as well as the organizational context within which a particular university operates.

CHAPTER 9: REFLECTION ON FIELD WORK EXPERIENCE

9.1. Introduction

Before reaching some final conclusions, it is important to reflect on the research process undertaken for this study. In particular, it is necessary to consider the position of the researcher, as an early career, *khaleeji*³ female, Muslim researcher, undertaking a series of interviews with predominantly male participants. Through reflexive analysis and discussion, this chapter considers how gender, positionality, cultural context and the social 'I' location influences the research process when conducting face-to-face interviews in the Arab Gulf. Reflexivity is used to explain the significance of these factors and their potential impact on the research process and how they shaped the quality of the interview situation. Other factors, such as time, confidentiality and social desirability bias, will also be discussed.

9.2. On Reflexivity

“Reflexivity is an invaluable tool to promote understanding of the phenomenon under study and the researcher’s role. The relationship between, and influence of, the researcher and participants should be made explicit” (Jootun, McGhee and Marland, 2009, p. 42). From a broader perspective, the process of interviewing is a complex process (Bryman and Cassell, 2006). Two people interacting in a particular context bring many factors to that situation which influences their interaction. This is why reflexivity has often been referred to as one of the key aspects of the interview since it allows the researcher to identify all the factors that influence the interaction, including the characteristics of the interviewer (Broom, Hand and Tovey, 2009). Denzin (2001) points out that, amongst many potential sources of prejudice and stereotyping, the race of the person who conducts the interview may be considered as one of the factors that can influence the outcome. In addition, he suggests that the relationship between participants and researcher can be influenced by the role that the researcher assumes

³ *khaleeji*: The term refers to nationals of the six GCC countries and to the people, culture, and heritage..

in a particular setting; his/her social identity and personality can also affect the research outcomes (Jootun, McGhee and Marland, 2009)

Williams and Heikes (1993) argue that respondents always pay attention to the gender of the interviewer and that this shapes the interaction. For example, Arendell (1997) showed that, when men are interviewed by women, the former are well aware of their dominant place in the social hierarchy and are likely to exhibit superiority in the conversation. Likewise, Pini (2005) identified situations where men try to exert power while interacting with female interviewers, in an attempt to impress them, promoting themselves as masculine, powerful, and possessing all the characteristics of a successful man. Given this potential situation, Herod (1993) insists that researchers should not be prisoners of gender relationships. Instead, Herod encourages people to violate the accepted patterns of male-female interaction in order to free women from the shackles of gender relationship limitations. Oakley (1998) shows that the latter can be broadly identified as "malestream". It is regarded as one of the major targets for feminism in terms of the development of research practice: female interviewers are expected to reject the old norms and promote new, objective relationships with their respondents. Data may be collected using semi-structured interviews for the purpose of producing an account of how participants perceive the situation or phenomenon in enquiry, which requires the analysis to transcend the meanings of the participants (Jootun, McGhee and Marland, 2009).

In this research, a whole range of factors, including those described above, came into play during the research process. Drawing from the fieldwork experience, issues related to gender, power and positionality will be explored, in addition to specific cultural and social factors.

9.2.1. The Impact of Gender and Power Relationships

A lengthy list of scholars (e.g., Williams and Heikes, 1993; Lee, 1997; Gill and Maclean, 2002; Warren, 2002; Pini, 2005) have written about the ways that opposite-gender researcher interactions (typically the female researcher with male participants) can challenge and alter the research process. Gender is also one of the factors that impact upon power relations between the interviewer and the interviewee (Belur, 2013), the implication being that it is necessary to understand how power relations

manifest themselves in particular cultures and research contexts, and how they inform the ethics and politics of data collection and knowledge formation (Elwood and Martin, 2000). Those who adhere to the position of method in feminist research argue that the interaction between the researched and the researcher should be, figuratively speaking, seen as a one-way street. The latter has the power over the former. This is one reason why the researched are often manipulated at the personal or intellectual level (Belur, 2013). Thus, feminists try to improve the position of those who are interviewed by promoting the idea that there should be equity between the two parties (Oakley, 1998).

In this research, gender was a hugely influential factor. In the following section, consideration will be given to how this factor shaped the way interviews were conducted and the interactions between the researcher and the participants, specifically previous experience of interviewing males of the same cultural background.

Cultural constraints in Arab Gulf society mean that social interactions with the opposite sex are carefully controlled. Prior to undertaking the fieldwork, the researcher anticipated and understood that she would face gender-related issues and challenges, but it was not the intention to exclude male participants or to see this as an obstacle for the research process. Instead, the researcher was more inclined to the views of Back (1993, p. 218) who suggested that: "...gender difference is a source of knowledge within the field and the exploration of gender identity is tightly intertwined with the process of knowing".

Some would argue that this is a particular issue if it is planned to research sensitive topics. However, in this case, positional issues were expected to arise in opposite-gender qualitative interviews regardless of the nature of the topic. This would be especially pertinent if interviewing a male participant who shared the same cultural background as the researcher. Therefore, the researcher had to anticipate potential problems that would arise during the interview discourse and be able to adjust accordingly.

There are some important factors that should be taken into consideration when doing opposite gender interviews in highly gendered contexts. In a situation where the gender context involves gender differences rather than gender similarities, it is important to

adhere to the conventional model of female-male social and verbal methods of communication. As a *Khaleeji* female, regardless of whether conservative or not, men prefer women to display and practice traditional social rules when interacting socially with them. This is, firstly, to avoid or minimize the likelihood of inappropriate social interactions and, secondly, to be viewed as a mature and respectful woman. This is not to suggest that it is impossible to display character and personality, but rather to respect and follow the common, dominant, traditional social norms.

For example, in the course of conventional social gendered interactions, men often tend to be in the position of the “power holder” or “power broker”. As a result, in this study, the researcher encouraged her interviewees to take charge and feel that they were in the position of the ‘power holder’, regardless of their age and hierarchical status. This was not to claim or suggest that power was always retained by men over women; rather, this was a method of social interaction which respected a shared culture and their gender identity.

In the first two interviews conducted with male participants with whom the researcher shared a similar social cultural background, she unconsciously displayed the culturally expected, traditional feminist role of women in conversation; specifically, to be a good listener and initiate narratives by men. She also tried to let them feel that they were in the position of the power holder; for example, she let them initiate the conversation after spending some time greeting each other. The researcher waited until they initiated discussion. Consequently, she followed the same pattern of interaction with other participants to develop a comfortable relationship and thus achieve an easy rapport. However, this was not as effective for everyone as not all interviewees tried to take charge of or control the interviews. At times, interactions were smooth, fluid and dynamic, and power was divided between interviewer and interviewee, continuing through the interview situation. On occasions, however, the male interviewee was less confident and slower to initiate discussion. In these cases, the researcher felt able to take the lead. It was therefore important for the researcher to be aware of changes in dynamics, to pay attention to this and act accordingly.

The situations described above reflect the issue identified by Winchester (1996) in her study of lone fathers where she notes that a female researcher’s interviews with men may reinforce a stereotypical gender discourse where the woman’s role in

conversation was to be an empathic listener and facilitator for men's narratives. There is no doubt that, when women interview men, they contribute to the emergence of patriarchal roles in the relationship through the use of gendered language. It often happens that such an interview takes the conventional model of male-female communication, when a woman simply follows the flow of men's speech. That is why it may be difficult for an interviewer to share a personal political position or beliefs within this pattern (Winchester, 1996, p. 123).

One interview conducted for the present study was with a local, conservative male, much older than the researcher, and was a good example of this issue. The interview was conducted in his office where the researcher used the traditional female approach to interaction that she had used previously, meaning that he was in the position of 'power holder'. After spending some time engaging in introductions and greetings, the researcher became aware of a potential threat in the interview situation arising from her gender. While a good rapport was easily achieved, from the beginning she noticed that he tried to exercise his power and take control of the whole interview process. This was first evidenced when he asked some non-relevant, personal questions. The researcher tried to keep her answers very short or to re-direct the conversation, but throughout she felt that he was smarter and stronger and very insistent about getting personal. This was a real power struggle; the researcher felt that the interviewee believed that participating in the research involved an obligation on her behalf to reveal personal information. This was almost his expectation. This put the researcher in a position where she had to work hard to maintain power over the research agenda as a means of resolving both the problem of unequal power relations and the 'hi-jacking' of the interview.

Winchester (1996, p. 122) states that: "...the relations between interviewer and interviewee can be very unequal. It is generally assumed that an unequal power relationship exists with interviewers more powerful than their 'subjects'". However, inequality can work both ways. This inequality was clearly demonstrated in the interview described above. One comment was: "...you are a naïve young female researcher, but you are a very strong ambitious woman". At this point, the researcher was experiencing a strong sense of vulnerability and wished to end the conversation, but he was giving rich, detailed answers with good, relevant examples from his

experience of working as a faculty member and HoD in the university. Pini (2005, p. 203) also stated that:

...this demonstrates why it can be problematic for women to interview men, as the availability to men of masculinity discourses presents them with greater opportunities to exert power when interacting with a female interviewer.

Issues around self-disclosure also had significance in this case, since the interviewee started asking personal questions that were not relevant at all. Moreover, he was persistent in these questions. For example, he asked the researcher how old she was, where she was staying and how long she was staying, and who she came with. The researcher believes that these questions were conditioned by her conservative background in a culture where a woman was only expected to travel accompanied by a man. This particular interview felt as if the roles had been reversed and that the interviewee was the one carrying out the interview. Although this event resulted in a negative, but temporary, personal impact, it had been anticipated before entering the research field and the researcher had recognised the need to be ready and able to cope with all eventualities.

In contrast, in other interviews, there were indications of mutual understanding, and positive facial expressions and verbal phrases were exchanged with some male participants of a similar background. This established the presence of similar assumptions about social interactions with the opposite sex. For example, some asked if it was acceptable to leave the door of their office open so that it would not feel that they were alone with the researcher. One participant from a western country asked: "Is it okay for you if I close the door so that I can be more comfortable and nobody will disturb us?"; the researcher replied that this was absolutely fine. He smiled and said: "Well I know this culture very well and I know it is stricter in Saudi Arabia because I have been there and I know that I have to be very careful when dealing with women. This is why I asked you".

The interview process itself has long been acknowledged as complex. Rapley (2001, p. 310) states that: "underlying all research interviews is the tension between an extra-local need to collect data on a topic and a here-and-now interactional event in which these data are collected and through talk-in-interaction". This quotation encapsulates the experience detailed above and the impact of the situation on the behaviour of both

the researcher and the participant. The researcher entered the fieldwork with certain beliefs and assumptions about women mixing with men in a gender segregating society, where the interaction will always be carefully controlled and related to traditional cultural norms. For a woman to be alone with a male in any social setting is unacceptable in some sub-cultures and would cause issues. In other cultures, this is acceptable in business and professional situations, while for other cultures, it is acceptable in all contexts. However, these beliefs are also influenced by the assumptions held on an individual basis and which reflect the family environment.

For the researcher, being alone with a male from the same cultural background created quite uncomfortable feelings prior to every interview regardless of the location. It also resulted in some disruption to her ability to pay attention at the beginning of the interview because of uncertainty whether to focus initially on obtaining the information needed or on the interactional event. However, because she believed this was a very natural feeling due to her background, she accepted it and did not allow it to take over the situation. She noticed that, as soon as the conversation started and they engaged in discussion, this feeling wore off. The researcher would suggest that it was not only her gender identity, but also her cultural/familial norms and expectations of social interaction between males and females which were at play here.

Leaving doors open and having distance is required social behaviour when interacting with the opposite gender from a *khaleeji* culture, showing respect and politeness to the female as well as avoiding any types of misunderstanding. Sometimes, male participants left the door open to be more respectful. In another interview situation, one male participant moved the chair to allow some distance between him and the researcher; as a result, some outside noise was recorded and subsequent transcribing was more difficult.

9.2.2. Interviewing Academics

Interviewing other researchers or those highly qualified in the same field can raise different issues that influence the interview process (Bryman and Cassell, 2006). One issue related to confidence and certainty about being an interviewer. Roulston and Lewis (2003) argued that, although social science often depends on interviewing, the number of researchers with appropriate training is low. The lack of necessary skills is one reason why some might feel stressed when interviewing. Another difficulty may arise when an inexperienced researcher has to interview an expert researcher, increasing the chances of a power or status imbalance (Bryman and Cassell, 2006). The researcher acknowledged from the outset that she appeared too young professionally to some participants, especially senior leaders and researchers, and that this might generate an impression of incompetence. Therefore, it was crucial that she shaped the understanding of different senses of competence that characterize a researcher and an expert, as well as understanding their potential consequences. On reflection, the researcher believes that her confidence, the training she had on how to conduct qualitative interviews and handle issues that may arise, the way she presented herself and the appropriate behaviour and social responses from most participants reflected a non-hierarchical research process.

That said, in one interview, the researcher came across an expert in a similar research field with an in-depth understanding who tried to question her competence by taking control of the conversation and interview agenda. Reflecting on this particular interview situation, the researcher felt that small differences were maximised. He was keen to present himself as the ultimate expert, rushing impatiently through the introductory stages, and interrupting questions, thus implying that he understood what the researcher wanted to know. This, in turn, did not provide an opportunity to clarify the purpose of the research. For example, he advised the researcher to focus on particular areas of research that he was interested in and not to explore other topics. This made the researcher feel that she was not designing her own agenda and topics. Given this situation, the researcher felt that the interests of both the researcher and the interviewee had to be kept in mind and that, ultimately, the researcher needed to stick to the research agenda and interview topics. To achieve this in an acceptable manner, she initially gave him the space to talk about whatever area of interest he wanted to discuss. Following this, the balance was redressed in that he then asked about the

topics that the researcher wanted to discuss. Contrary to the demands of the interview and perhaps also a function of his ‘rushing’ the introductory stages, he spoke mainly in theoretical terms rather than seeking to share and explore actual practices and opinions. This caused some difficulty in attempting to gain real insight into his practical experience, but some valuable, relevant information was provided. During the interview, he not only overlooked the main subject under consideration, but was preoccupied with his own topic and ideas of interest.

Another participant was a recent PhD graduate from a well-known, highly ranked, “world-class” university, recently appointed as a faculty member. Throughout the interview, it felt as if he was looking at the researcher as a very ‘young’ researcher and he tried to advise on how to go about the research process. This included how the information should be reported, what framework should be used for data analysis and so on. Although he was very helpful at the time of the interview, it felt to the researcher like a training course rather than an interview.

9.2.3. Positionality

Insider/outsider status is a factor that is central to the research under discussion. The researcher can be an insider while conducting the research, meaning that one belongs to the group that is the object of investigation (Kanuha, 2000). In this case, the researcher shared a similar identity, language, cultural background, ethnicity, and national and religious heritage to the participants (Asselin, 2003). The researcher can also be an outsider. There are considerable advantages associated with a mainly insider position. For example, from the outset, an insider can enjoy easier access to the research site (Paechter, 2013, p. 75); it can also allow easier access to the real perspectives of participants (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009) and ensure that researchers are less liable to being misled by participants (Hodkinson, 2005). Hodkinson (2005, p. 136) states that “holding some degree of insider status can offer important additional benefits and possibilities, most notably with respect to generating a relaxed atmosphere conducive to open conversation and willingness to disclose”. However, it is important to be aware of potential risks and disadvantages. Hodkinson (2005, p. 139) writes that “of course, there are also potential difficulties that, if not recognised and counterbalanced, may affect the conduction of interviews by insider researchers”.

However, by awareness of someone's bias and perspectives during the research process, potential issues and concerns can be reduced (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009).

In this study, it should be noted that the researcher's position changed with the object of research. This is quite natural since positionality is a flexible concept (Rose, 1997). In this case, the researcher's position was a combination of insider and outsider. This was partly due to the context of the research and the cultural background of the participants. However, it was not only culture that can define whether a person will be perceived as an insider or an outsider (Trainor and Graue, 2013). The researcher was acutely aware of some of the differences between the interviewees and herself as "these differences can arise around attributes such as race or ethnicity, seniority, sub-discipline, gender or political views" (Acker, 2000, p. 153). For example, when she interviewed participants from a different cultural background, she felt that she was positioned as both an insider and outsider at the same time. The researcher was an academic researcher in the context of higher education, so in that sense there were situations when she felt herself to be an insider even when talking to a person of a different cultural background since they shared an academic background.

As an insider, the researcher felt that she was at an advantage by having a connection to the social world of most of the participants. At times, this status allowed her to read and understand non-verbal communication, local expressions or metaphors, and non-detailed answers; for example, when participants said: "I am sure you know exactly what I mean by this here" or "You know how it is in our culture so no need to explain more (smiling)". Therefore, as an insider researcher, she could construct meaning that would not be apparent to an outsider. However, this was not always the case, as suggested by Dwyer and Buckle (2009, p. 59):

... one does not have to be a member of the group being studied to appreciate and adequately represent the experience of the participants. Instead, we posit that the core ingredient is not insider or outsider status but an ability to be open, authentic, honest, deeply interested in the experience of one's research participants, and committed to accurately and adequately representing their experience.

Conversely, with some of the non-local participants, the researcher felt that her initial position was as an outsider gradually becoming a relative insider as conversation developed. Sharing the commonality of being researchers and a sense of belonging to the academic world positioned the researcher as a professional insider. Although she

often felt that she was holding some degree of insider status for those who were from a different cultural background, it was important for her continually to assess the way she was positioned by respondents and adjust her behaviour appropriately. Being able to present herself appropriately in every interview situation, helped the researcher gradually to become a relative insider; participants became more relaxed and spoke more openly about their feelings and experiences. The researcher's ability to share some sub-cultural aspects and to present herself as an insider to non-local respondents further facilitated the flow of conversation while also developing trust, and offered an invaluable and effective additional stimulus for open and honest conversation.

However, Hodkinson (2005, p. 139) advised that "insider complacency may also lead to problems if the amount of perceived familiarity between respondent and interviewer results in too much being taken as given, whether in terms of questions not asked or information not volunteered". Lummis(1987) suggests the distanced interrogator may, in the course of asking basic level questions, gain access to important insights and information (cited in Hodkinson, 2005, p. 139)

In the interviews with some local participants, it was relatively straightforward to invite respondents to go into detail even if they thought it might be too basic. One interviewee said: "You know how it is in our culture so there is no need to explain more". However, following up on questions helped the researcher to get him to go into detail that resulted in rich, relevant data. Insider researchers should also be aware that, although their status may often improve rapport in a general sense, it may sometimes cause respondents to feel threatened, or pressured into giving particular kinds of responses (Hodkinson, 2005, p. 140). On one occasion, the researcher was interviewing a male Qatari interviewee who was very open in discussion. However, at one point, when he was sharing some of his negative experiences, he asked: "Did you interview (this person) or are you going to interview him? What was his opening etc.?" The researcher answered: "Well not yet." Then he said he did not want the information just given to be used (recorded or reported), but that he thought it was good to mention it. This comment made the researcher think that he was trusting her and positioned her as an insider, but, at the same time, he thought that, because they shared a similar culture, the researcher might tell the other person what had been said, so he needed to make sure that this particular information would not be reported.

9.2.4. Age

Age was another factor mediating power relations and negotiation in the interview situation. The researcher's age was used by participants in their attempts to take control of the interview situation. One of the comments was that an interviewee thought she had been sent by another researcher to conduct their interviews; another said quite seriously that he thought the researcher was still in high school. A third person apologised saying that the researcher looked very young to be conducting a PhD and that he would therefore help all the way through the interview and would structure his answers to make it easy when it came to data analysis. So, even though the interviews were conducted confidently and skilfully, and kept on topic, this did not stop interviewees attempting to raise points about the researcher's ability. It should be noted that these events did not impact on the quality of the data which was gathered from these individuals.

9.3. Culturally Specific Factors

There are some specific cultural factors that, if not well managed, could impact on the quality of the data. These include the interview location (where and when), level of emphasis on confidentiality, social desirability biased responses and factors related to traditional cultural norms, such as invitations, courtesy and hospitality.

9.3.1. Interview Location

Krueger and Casey (2014) suggested that researchers should seek to conduct interview in a 'neutral' location. Seidman (2006, p. 40) also suggested that:

...the location, date and time of an interview should be equity. The interviewer is the "taker" and the participant is the "giver"; hence, the interviewer must be flexible and willing to adapt him or herself to the preferences of the participant. At the same time, however, the constraints of the interviewer must also be taken into account.

Elwood and Martin (2000) suggested that interview sites and situations affect social relations between the researcher and the researched, implying that the choice of interview site has implications for the power and positionality of the researcher and participants.

In this study, interviews were carried out in different places and at various times of the day, including evenings. In the Arab Gulf, cultural norms define the spaces in which males and females may socially and professionally interact. When and where always matters in this society, especially if it is a mixed gender meeting. The researcher felt that, despite the cultural norms relating to appropriate locations for mixed gender interactions, being flexible about time and location was more important. Some participants chose their interview place and time at an early stage in the process, which made the researcher think that it was essential for her to be available throughout the day and evening. The downside of such flexibility was that, at times, she felt overwhelmed. For example, carrying out one interview that took place in a restaurant and finished quite late meant that it was quite difficult for the researcher to be fully prepared for the next interview scheduled at 7:30am the next morning, the time when most people start work in Qatar.

Although the majority of interviews with male participants who shared a similar cultural background with the researcher were conducted in their offices at the university (the most appropriate place for professional interaction), there were some instances where other public locations were chosen. This was because, in recent years, it has become popular practice that *Khaleeji* men and women socialise and conduct business in restaurants and coffee houses while still observing strict rules of engagement. One interview was conducted over a dinner in a restaurant, while another in a hotel lobby. Although the researcher made sure that all participants' preferences with regard to place and time were met, this was not always easy for her to manage and accept. According to Warren (2002, p. 90):

...the interview location is not the result of a 'well-defined methods procedure' but is affected by temporary circumstances as well as the fact that the participant who consents to being interviewed is raced, gendered and classed.

Interview time and location can also be problematic due to culturally sensitivities as it is not usual practice for a married woman to be out late or to be with a male in a social, non-professional public place. This can also impact on ethics and power imbalances as, for example: "...participants who are given a choice about where they will be interviewed may feel more empowered in their interaction with the researcher" (Elwood and Martin, 2000, p. 656). Although such challenges and implications were anticipated in advance, the researcher decided not to attempt to control the time or

place of interview because her main aim was for participants to feel comfortable in the interview situation. Elwood and Martin (2000) advise that balancing the needs of the research with the interests of the participant is a pre-requisite. They also suggest that it is always important to take into consideration and understand:

What is the role of a particular site in the community? How space matter and affect us, and how will participants' and researchers' roles, identities, and positions be constructed in a particular place (Elwood and Martin, 2000, p. 656).

Therefore, when considering the place of interview, the researcher believes that it is important to allow a personally acceptable level of negotiation about possible locations between researcher and participants.

9.3.2. Hospitality

Cultural norms around time and hospitality are another factor that needs to be considered when conducting research in the Arab Gulf. As courtesy and hospitality towards guests are important in the Arab world, guests will be received with enormous generosity. This applies to both social and professional contexts, with strangers or newcomers, but applies especially when welcoming others from the same cultural background. Hosts may insist that a visitor joins them for a drink or meal outside the workplace or even take you to their home. This invitation (to the family home) was offered to the researcher on many occasions, and being open and willing to accept such an invitation is essential to building good relationships and trust, particularly with local people. The emphasis placed on hospitality was closely connected with the importance of relationships. Researchers need to show their gratitude and dedicate time to cultivating relationships with their *Khaleeji* participants. It is also important to take time when greeting someone; in the Arab Gulf, people appreciate interest and genuineness. Arab people also have a relaxed approach to time keeping so making a strict appointment can sometimes be useless. Delays in arriving at meetings are not taken as seriously in *Khaleeji* society as in western cultures. This is not something considered careless or disrespectful. People tend to arrive quite late, for example arriving at 11.20 for an 11.00am start, but this does not mean they are disrespectful. This is especially true if they hold a very senior position; waiting times can be very long. Arab Gulf people will also interrupt a meeting to answer phones or queries from

other colleagues and when it is prayer time; this should not be taken as a sign of rudeness

For a researcher conducting research in the Arab Gulf, it should not be surprising to be invited to share dinner with their family at their home or any other informal setting. Researchers need to be prepared to accept invitations courteously as Arabs are generous and value generosity in others. For this study, the researcher met some people who were very hospitable and very welcoming, and who insisted on inviting her to dinner before going on to the main purpose of the visit. For example, a Qatari female participant asked her to join her family and meet her daughters, and came to her hotel and took the researcher back to her home for a huge dinner before conducting the interview. The participant believed that it was important to host the researcher before going on to the interview. Another Qatari male participant who was a Dean of a college invited the researcher to a very luxurious restaurant at a time that was quite late for women in culture, as he preferred to do the interview over dinner. The researcher admitted that it was difficult to undertake the interview in this setting (because it was very noisy and it was around Christmas, and, also, he had invited one of his friends to join the meeting). The researcher did not gather as much information from this interview, but it was important to accept the tradition politely. As a result, he helped the researcher to interview three other, different people from his college. Another example was an interviewee who was from a very conservative background. He insisted on inviting the researcher to dinner, his wife took the researcher instead, thereby avoiding gender social interaction outside the professional setting. Social interaction with the opposite sex is not as open as in some other societies and is carefully controlled in the most conservative parts of society. The researcher herself comes from a similar background and could tell how conservative the person would be from their family name.

9.3.3. Assuring Confidentiality and Anonymity

Another methodological aspect of importance to participants involved ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. A perceived lack of confidentiality could impact upon the interview resulting in a series of socially desirable answers, a lack of detailed answers and concealing potentially important and relevant information. In order to reassure participants, confidentiality was fully explained in the participants' information sheet and informed consent was sought prior to each interview. Some did not want to spend time reading the consent form so the researcher read it out aloud to make sure that they were happy to start. Some participants seemed not to pay attention to the emphasis on confidentiality and did not take the informed consent seriously, while others were quite the opposite. Some felt it was not important to know how the data would be used. One local participant smiled and said: "Come on, well, then do you want me to be careful here in sharing some information or any bad experience?" Then he laughed and said: "Don't worry - let's start". Such behaviour is common in the local culture. What was important was to build trust, a good rapport and good relationships; confidentiality and anonymity then become less important to the majority of *Khaleeji* people.

Interestingly, the researcher found that overstressing and reassuring confidentiality during the interview was inclined to arouse suspicion or concern for some participants, but, for others, this level of reiteration was essential. That said, most participants openly discussed and shared their thoughts and experiences. However, this was not always the case. On some occasions, participants appreciated an opportunity to talk about something that mattered to them; constant reassurances of confidentiality and anonymity were required throughout the interview. For example, one interviewee was very engaging throughout the interview and shared valuable and relevant information. He kept asking for reassurances on confidentiality: "Will this information - I think it is important to talk about it here, but really I don't want anybody know that it was me who said it, I don't want anything to affect my job here please". Such concerns reflect the political and bureaucratic environment within most public institutions in Gulf Countries. Also, many participants working on temporary contracts were concerned about their jobs. The people who raised most concerns were non-local and on temporary contracts. It could be also because the level of freedom in speech in Middle

East culture causes people to conceal or avoid sharing information that would lead to negative consequences for them.

9.3.4. Socially Desirable Responses

Socially desirable bias, as described by Ganster, Hennessey and Luthans (2013, p. 322), is a phenomenon where there is "... a tendency for an individual to present him or herself... in a way that makes the person look positive with regard to culturally derived norms and standards. One interpretation of this tendency is that it represents one's propensity for faking, specially, 'faking to look good'".

This is important to consider with regard to the validity of qualitative data. In social interactions, people attempt to construct favourable images of themselves in the eyes of others (Goffman, 1959). Crowne and Marlowe (1960; 1964) claimed that certain people were especially likely to create favourable impressions of themselves in social interactions by claiming that they had socially-desirable traits and denying that they had any socially-undesirable ones (Ross and Mirowsky, 1984, p. 190). Various aspects are open to socially desirable bias, including gender, socio-economic status, culture and age (Johnson and Van de Vijver, 2003), as well as personal levels of psychological adjustment and self-knowledge (Daniel *et al.*, 1983; Ganster, Hennessey and Luthans, 2013). Ross and Mirowsky (1984) identified other cultural and social factors:

We expect that the tendencies to give socially-approved and acquiescent responses may characterise powerless people and people on the edges, i.e., those not well-integrated into the dominant culture; those not secure in their positions; those concerned with economic rejection, such as losing one's job or not being hired for a job; or those concerned with psychological rejection, such as prejudice. These tendencies may also characterize people in cultures that emphasize the importance of presenting good face to the outside world (1984, p. 190).

The tendency to answer in a socially acceptable manner is more common in some socio-cultural situations than others. Presenting a good face and image about oneself and the environment around them is one of the features of social interaction in Arab Gulf society. To agree with what is presented to them and give positive feedback, and to be polite, friendly and respectful is at the core of Arab culture. For example, Lipson and Meleis (1989) found that social desirability was inherent in this culture, reporting that some participants admitted to not being truthful during interviews. Hawamdeh and Raigangar (2014), referring to the United Arab Emirates, found that some Arab

participants gave different answers in the focus group compared with their individual interviews because, during the group interview, they presented themselves as they thought they should appear to one another, reflecting:

...a common Middle Eastern distinction between the public self and the private self, where interactional and inter-subjectivity are mediated by different concepts of modesty, authority, self-disclosure, and the role of 'faking' or giving socially desirable responses (Hawamdeh and Raigangar, 2014, p. 29).

This bias is most likely to happen in an environment where levels of freedom for self-disclosure or expressing oneself freely are limited. Reflecting on experience in this study, although this is common behaviour in Arab Gulf culture, the researcher did not find much evidence of socially desirable answers during the research process. However, there were still instances where the researcher noticed a tendency for some participants to adjust the truth so that they sounded more professional and socially desirable. One young, local woman provided answers consistent with the dominant thinking within the group or 'socially desirable answers' to some questions. She asked, smiling: "Do you hear what is supposed to be said or do you want the actual true experience and practice?". Another interviewee, who was non-local, felt it was important to share his own views and opinions, and emphasised that it was not appropriate to adjust his answers. However, he was reluctant to be more open in conversation saying "Are you sure 100% that this is confidential, I don't want to lose my job! But I believe this is a chance for me to talk about something related to my job that I live with on a daily basis". This could indicate that people who are in a relatively powerless position or in an authoritarian environment might be more likely to create socially desirable answers or present a good impression to avoid negative consequences. These examples are drawn from those in a relatively powerless position as most were non local, working on temporary contracts. In comparison, those in senior positions were very open and honest, sharing their negative experiences, problems and weaknesses. However, self-presentation (Denzin, 2001); establishing trust, rapport (Patton, 2002); and good relationships (Oakley, 1998) can all put participants at ease, and reduce the risk of the likelihood of providing socially desirable answers.

9.4. Conclusion

Through reflexivity, this chapter has reflected on the researcher's fieldwork experience. The chapter focused on the impact of different factors that could influence the quality of the data collection and production. These include: the impact of gender, interview site, positionality, age, and some other social factors, such as desirable answers, time, and hospitality. The next chapter will present the final conclusions of this research, contributions and limitations, and make some recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1. Introduction

This chapter provides conclusions arising from the research project. It highlights key findings and the contribution made to knowledge. The chapter further discusses limitations of this study and finally offers recommendations for practice and possible future research.

10.2. Initial Research Settings

There has been very little research into leadership at departmental level (HoD) in higher education generally, and in Arabian Gulf countries in particular. This research aimed to fill this gap and investigated aspects of leadership (characteristics, knowledge, skills and qualities) needed to lead effectively within the case university. Leadership styles and behaviours in various organizational contexts and how leading in HE differs from other sectors have been subject of research and debate. Literature is scarce, however, on the issue of departmental leadership in the context of higher education. Moreover, there are no studies of how academic departments are led and by whom in GCC HE, particularly in Qatar. The relatively poor understanding of requirements for effective leadership within HEIs at the level of the academic department has driven forward this research. The importance of leadership at this level is widely understood, yet little researched. What little literature exists is almost exclusively based on western models, from Europe or North America. This research sought to test the relevance of such work in a very different cultural setting, thereby contributing to theory of leadership in higher education, both relating to middle-level leadership and to the impact of culture. Further, answering such questions is especially relevant if the ambitious aspirations of Arab countries in the Gulf to expand the provision of higher education are to be fulfilled successfully. There is a need to understand the prevailing leadership behaviours, characteristics and styles for HoDs in HE, how these are perceived by colleagues and what contextual factors should be considered that influence and shape leadership practice within the particular context of the Arabian Gulf.

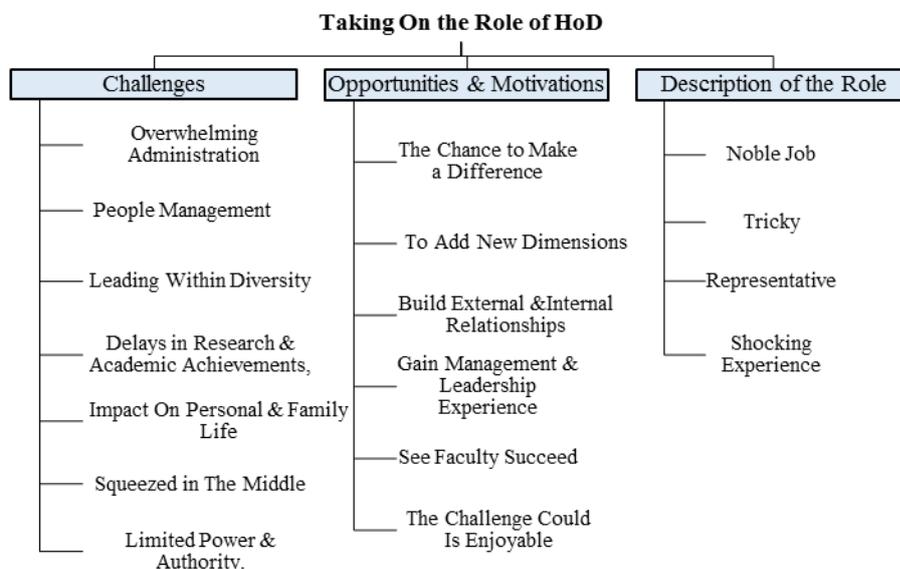
To address the study, aims and objectives, the researcher adopted an interpretive paradigm, in line with social constructivism, and used a detailed case study approach through semi-structured qualitative interviews. Both the methodology and approach were justified by the nature of the research questions, specifically, to understand leadership of HoDs in HE. In total, interviews were undertaken with 39 participants from a range of the university stakeholder groups (President, 3 Vice-Presidents, 5 Deans, 10 HoDs and 20 faculty members). Data from interviews were analyzed using coding and thematic techniques, manually and through NVIVO10 software. This analysis allowed the key aims of the study to be met and helped the researcher to describe, understand and interpret information associated with departmental leadership.

10.3. Summary of Key Findings

10.3.1. Experience on Taking on the Role of HoD

HoDs were widely perceived to be the most significant academic leadership group on campus, occupying a critical position within the university hierarchy. Further, the position of the HoD was perceived to present a number of substantial challenges and negative effects, as well as opportunities that might benefit their subsequent careers or provide an enjoyable and learning experience. Participants also defined their experience in taking on the role. Main themes are summarized in (Figure 13):

Figure 13: Experience on Taking on the Role of HoD



Source: Author

10.3.2. Leadership Development

Findings also revealed the absence of preparation or prior experience in leadership and management before assuming the position of HoD; Heads seldom had relevant prior experience or formal preparation, as most were promoted or came from the ranks of faculty. Some had experience in leadership positions, but in non-educational sectors. Most felt unprepared for the tasks; as a result, they were leading and managing by trial-and-error, learning on the job. This was found to add to the strains and stresses of their experience in taking on the role. Therefore, interviewees emphasized the importance of relevant and ongoing in-job training and professional development for HoDs.

Career development for HoDs should be recognized as an important matter for HR practice. Respondents suggested that HoD leadership in higher education could be improved through a range of institutional and HR practices, and a greater attention to the role of specific training and professional development. Major themes on training needs and better HR practice that respondents believed would improve departmental leadership in HEIs are summarized in (Figure 14):

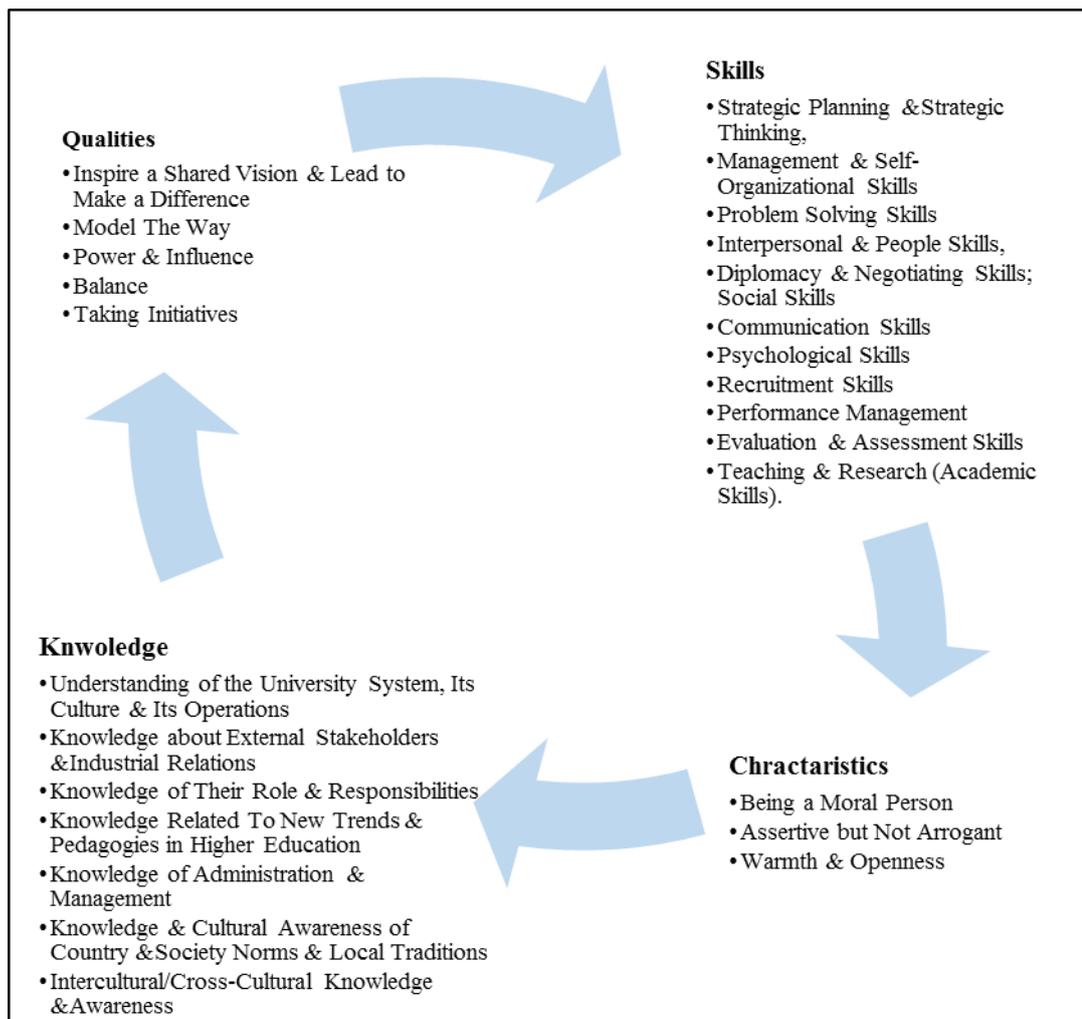
Figure 14 Leadership Development



10.3.3. Perceptions on Required Personal Characteristics, Skills, Knowledge and Qualities

The research has also identified various desired qualities for effective departmental leadership. Respondents identified aspects of leadership related to specific characteristics, skills, knowledge and qualities that were required for leading an academic department. Qualities of the HODs, as perceived by stakeholders, whether leadership or managerial competencies, were all strongly linked to the roles they performed and the context within which they operated. There were also some unique attributes that HoDs needed to demonstrate, which were associated specifically with the role of leading academic faculty. Figure 15 summarizes the most common sub-themes under each category:

Figure 15: Perceptions on the Required Competences of HoD Leadership

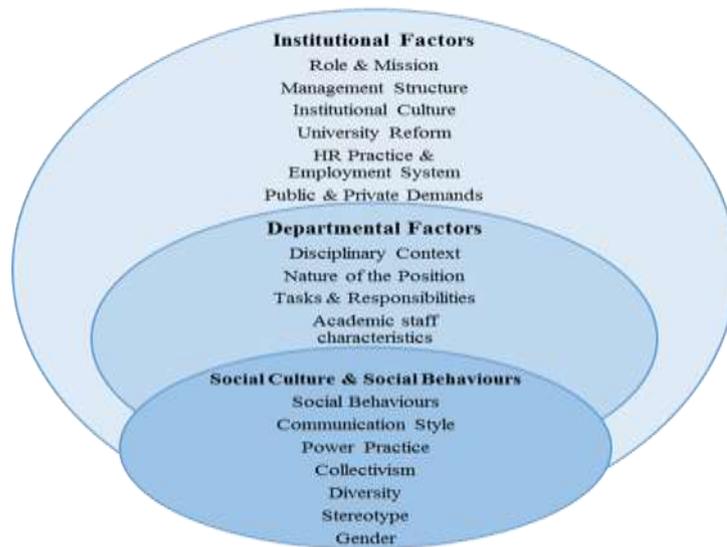


Source: Author

10.3.4. Leadership and Context

Finally, with regard to what makes leadership effective, findings suggest that the effect of environment is strongly influenced by the social context. Although the study has identified a list of leadership characteristics, skills, knowledge and attributes that are essential for HoDs to lead effectively within a university, there were different emphases placed on certain skills and qualities or knowledge needed. These emphases can be related to how participants with varying social, cultural and professional backgrounds, as well as academic disciplines, perceive somewhat differently what effective leadership skills and behaviours HoDs need to possess. Distinctions were also drawn on the basis of departmental needs, university role and mission, and institutional culture and structure. Those factors as shown in (Figure 16) also influenced how a Head should be appointed and who should take on the role of HoD. In short, findings showed that leadership is context-specific situated.

Figure 16: Factors Found to Influence Leadership Practice & Requirements



Source: Author

Findings from this study suggest that requirements for effective departmental leadership are to some extent associated with different social contextual factors. In particular, it was found that some skills and attributes needed for HoD leadership in HE differ from those required in leading in other sectors. It was suggested by participants that leadership is dependent on institutional and departmental culture and

needs. In justifying this response, participants pointed to the nature of HE culture and structure, the characteristics of academic staff, the mission and role of the university in society, and the balancing demand of different university stakeholders, including public and private demands. These issues were seen to present challenges and, thereby, require the relevant capacity to lead within HE.

The departmental leadership requirements were found to vary according to the nature and needs of disciplinary context. There were also discipline differences in that HoDs were required to possess different types of skills and attributes; participants from humanities and social sciences were more likely to focus on personal attributes; engineering, science and law departments required different discipline-specific skills and experience. For instance, managing people and negotiation skills were more likely to be emphasised by interviewees from the social sciences and law departments; these skills were less emphasised by participants from engineering departments. However, the ability to build and maintain good external relationships with key stakeholders, being a good negotiator and diplomatic, and being a visionary leader were repeatedly seen to be critical aspects and skills of department leadership by participants from the Engineering College and Business School.

There were also differences in perceptions among different groups holding different positions on their expectations from effective HoDs. Participants holding senior positions were likely to conceptualize the requirements more broadly and pointed to the importance of particular aspects of departmental leadership, such as a deep knowledge of the sector internally and externally, vision, operational and management knowledge, and the ability to present their department effectively and efficiently; they were more inclined to look for leaders who embody some particular ideal leadership type based on the institutional culture and culture. Academic faculty, in contrast, were much more concerned that their leaders had the right personal relational style, were advocates and mentors, possessed the characteristics of a caring person, and showed considerate behaviour and concern for professional growth. These “softer” skills were seen as more important than having the conceptual knowledge and skills prioritised by senior leaders and by the HoDs themselves.

There were also variations in the perceptions of what were seen to be desired and effective and what were seen to be based on national culture and social behaviours.

For example, those participants who come from an Arab background or from GCC countries accepted some practice of social behaviour (communication styles, power distance, collectivism and the importance of personal relationship in work environment). However, those from a western culture were more likely to point to the importance of intercultural and cross cultural skills and awareness in order to be able to lead effectively. Given the cultural diversity within departments, participants also pointed to the need to adopt a different approach of leadership, more focused on intercultural/cross cultural skills and a mixed approach rather than applying one single method.

10.4. Contribution to Knowledge

The research aim was to understand and interpret experience and practice of HoDs as leaders in HE in the Arabian Gulf context. The contribution of this research project to conceptual knowledge can be demonstrated as follows;

10.4.1. To the General Body of Literature

There is still insufficient research on what makes a HoD effective in leading in HE, especially possible differences between the impact of different cultures. This study has contributed to the general body of leadership literature and theory on higher education by increasing the understanding of leadership at departmental level (Bryman and Lilly 2009, Dopson *et al.*, 2016). The study has provided additional empirical evidence contributing to the limited existing literature and research on HoDs and to the general body of literature on the leadership of higher education in general and in the context of Arab Gulf countries in particular. First, the work helps in understanding what is needed to lead effectively in academic departments in universities, especially the qualities (skills, characteristics, knowledge and behaviours) that are required. Second, the work contributes to knowledge and literature of understanding the role of HoDs as leaders, the challenges and opportunities that the position presents, and what types of professional and training development are needed for better performance. Third, the work helps to contextualize leadership within a particular setting.

In looking at the core leadership skills, characteristics and knowledge needed by HoDs as leaders, and considering the contextual factors where the leadership occurs, the

study has attempted to advance knowledge on how leadership should be examined in its particular context and to identify how an academic department should be led and managed effectively. In using both literature on contextual factors and a comprehensive review of leadership theories and approaches with their implications in the HE context, the study has attempted to link existing literature with empirical data and to suggest that leadership at departmental level within a university is an area worthy of further research and deeper analysis.

While it is difficult to identify the most relevant model, styles and approaches for effective leadership within HEIs, the present study has attempted to understand leadership at departmental level through a comprehensive review of literature and in-depth qualitative interviews. This extends the existing theoretical understanding of leadership by HoDs and offers a conceptual road map of the role of Heads as leaders, which incorporates institutional policies and factors critical to departmental leadership. This study has established what skills, styles, knowledge and characteristics HoDs need to acquire and possess to lead effectively in HEIs. The study has also looked at how HoDs are appointed and what training and professional development is needed to perform their role effectively. This research therefore advances the knowledge and current understanding of departmental leadership behaviours, skills, knowledge and attributes that are needed to lead successfully within HEIs in general and within the Arabian Gulf in particular. An important aspect of this approach is an understanding of how institutional and discipline factors shape leadership practice within academic departments and influence how effective leadership is perceived.

Findings from the present study confirm that the applicability of leadership theories cannot be universal and that what is assumed to be effective behaviour in a particular setting would not necessarily be effective in another context, even within a single institution. The results also indicate the need for a deeper understanding of the specific role and expectations of HoDs as leaders, thus advancing the discussion of those skills and attributes needed in academic departments.

Lastly, understanding departmental leadership in HE and how it is practiced, viewed and described from a non-western context is another contribution to existing research on departmental leadership in HE.

10.4.2. Understanding Leadership in Context.

The research has also examined the wider context within which leadership occurs and where the institution operates, bearing in mind social and contextual factors and their implications on what aspects of leadership are required and seen to be effective. Such factors included political environment, social traditions, economic, cultural and educational background, rules and regulations, role of the organization in society, discipline and institutional structure. The research outlines what is perceived as good and effective departmental leadership based on those factors.

It has been acknowledged in the literature, as discussed in Chapter (3), that contextual factors, including cultural background and institutional structure and culture, help to create a unique environment, and that all such factors influence the practice of leadership, which then impacts on leadership requirements and development, and on what is perceived to be essential or effective in each setting. For example, participants were cautious about generalizing the personal characteristics, skills, styles and attributes needed to be successful HoDs within HEIs, but they did identify some common aspects of leadership that were discussed in Chapter (8).

There is a relationship between discipline and the leadership skills and styles required. Findings contribute to an understanding of how leadership practice is influenced by institutional culture and how disciplinary characteristics, for example, shape leadership requirements (Gibbs, Knapper and Piccinin, 2008). The results imply that HoDs who exhibit leadership based on institutional and departmental culture and needs are perceived to be effective leaders. Similarly, institutional setting and structure have a strong impact on leadership practice and requirements, in that necessary aspects of effective HoD leadership should be based on the nature of institutional and social culture as well as the disciplinary background. The reality of context is crucial. While the influence of institutional culture and structure is an area that is under-investigated, the results of this study confirm the outcomes from other research that have suggested that leadership in HE is different from leading in other organizational settings.

While leadership literature shows that leading in HE is different from leading in other organizational settings, this research partly confirms this claim. Certainly, findings suggest that HEIs and people working in this sector have some unique characteristics

that make leading in HE different from any other sectors. However, it is apparent that contextual social factors, such as social culture and tradition, political environment, rules and regulations and organizational structure, have more impact on shaping the practice of leadership. In considering how effective leadership is perceived, those characteristics that make leading in HE different are less regarded compared with social factors. Therefore, these findings still contribute to the existing position that suggests that leading in HE is different and that leadership practice in higher education is different from leadership in other sectors given the features of HE as a knowledge organization and the professional characteristics of its people. However, the impact of political position as part of social culture was found to have a greater influence on the practice of leadership compared with those factors facing HEIs in Western countries.

This finding also adds to the claim in the literature suggesting that HEIs have distinctive features which make leadership in this setting different from leading in other organizational settings. It was found that similar characteristics, as identified by other researchers, notably social factors and institutional management structure, were the most widely regarded factors that shaped the requirements for leadership in the HE context. This research provides a critical understanding of some internal and external social and institutional factors, and discusses their influence on leadership practice and requirements from a real life situation.

Although the present study did not attempt to measure the influence of those factors in other institutions, and the internal and external environment where the case university operates may appear unique and different in its history, role and evolution, the impact of context is evident in this study. A possible explanation of these findings indicates that varying perceptions among participants' responses of what make leadership effective may be attributed to societal culture, disciplinary context, followers' professional orientations, the cultural background of followers and institutional managerial structure and culture. By contextualising leadership, therefore, this research also contributes to understanding the differences and variations on how leadership is perceived, bearing in mind the impact of internal and external environment where leadership is practiced.

10.4.3. Contribution to the Region

There appears to have been no research published in the area of departmental leadership in the state of Qatar as a member of GCC. The study therefore makes an original contribution to the existing literature on understanding the role and practice of HoDs in HE in the region, and in Qatar in particular. The study represents a solid foundation which may be used for understanding and developing the practice of leadership in HE in the GCC, providing a better understanding of the contextual reality of HoD as leaders in HE in the GCC; no similar research has been done in the field of departmental leadership in HEIs. The study setting and sample focuses on a single case of a public higher education institution in the state of Qatar. Whilst it is important not to generalise from one case, findings can be used to understand, test and analyse leadership in similar contexts in the GCC; it is possible that these findings may, therefore, have a wider application in other public sectors in the Arab Gulf region. The findings further identify some internal and external factors that influence and shape the practice of leadership in organizations in the Arab context; some of those factors have also been discussed in other public sectors in the GCC context, such as the police force in Abu Dhabi (Al-Nuaimi, 2013; Alshehhi, 2014).

In short

This research project provides an understanding of the leadership style(s) required for a HoD in HEIs, and presents the context and identifies the needs and challenges facing leaders, thus providing a contribution to the wider knowledge of leadership, but from the perspective of the specific context of the GCC. While the research project focuses on the level of HoD in a single institution in the state of Qatar, the findings can be used to understand leadership in some other public organizations in the region. Overall, findings from this study in relation to examining the social and cultural context where leadership occurs have added to understanding diverse factors and their implications for leadership approaches and practice requirements.

10.5. Methodological Contribution

This study used a qualitative interview approach to help understanding different perspectives and individual experiences, reflecting on cultural background, seniority level and gender, throughout the organizational structure within the case university. Through personal reflection on the field work experience, the researcher offers an account of the research process, issues and practicalities of conducting qualitative face-to-face interviews in management and leadership studies. The field work was undertaken as a conservative female conducting face-to-face interviews with males from similar cultural backgrounds in an Arab Gulf country. Reflecting researcher identity, positionality, subjectivity and embodiment in this case, the researcher was able to provide critical understanding of the impact of different social and cultural factors that should be considered when conducting qualitative interviewing in Arabian Gulf organizations. Therefore, given the scarcity of reflexive research in this context, various issues and considerations are identified which make important methodological contributions to qualitative interview studies and current knowledge of work on females interviewing males in a non-western cultural context.

10.6. Practical Implications

This study offers empirical evidence that can be used to understand and assist leadership practice and development. It will increase awareness of leadership and people and performance management, helping to understand different social and contextual factors that influence the practice of leaderships in a diverse HE work place. The findings offer a way to encourage leadership training and development, impacting ultimately on the success of the HoD and the affiliated department.

This research reaches several significant conclusions that could be presented to the case university to inform future career development strategies for leaders at departmental level. These concern HoD development, governing bodies and rules and policies. This study has generated a profile of skills, characteristics, knowledge and attributes for HoDs to lead effectively within HEIs, profiles that could be used as a foundation underlining leadership requirements in HE academic departments.

Given the complexity of the skills, characteristics and competencies required by HoDs, all concerned should recognize the need to ensure potential and current HoDs have access to relevant development opportunities to acquire the required skills. Training and development includes management and organizational skills, leadership and interpersonal skills, and social and effective communication skills. Demands vary according to different disciplinary contexts. The preparation and availability of training and development should therefore balance generic skills and specific elements based on the needs of each department/college. Preparation should be concerned not only with becoming a Head, but should be an ongoing process, allowing learning and skills development throughout the appointment, and offering preparation for life after the appointment has ended.

Effective leadership at departmental level not only depends on exhibiting the right skills and knowledge, but also on a clearly defined role and expectations, the HR recruitment and selection policy, and how these are implemented. Clear understanding of institutional and social culture is critical to good leadership practice in its specific context. Through understanding the practice, experience, role challenges and opportunities, there are practical implications for HR practice. To bridge the gap between current and desired practice, HR departments could develop clearly defined selection criteria based on the department/college needs and vision; re-define the role of HoD with a clear job description to improve understanding of role expectations and essential competencies, provided prior to appointment; and develop practical guidelines on university structure and systems and on working processes within the college/institution for use by a HoD prior to at the start of their appointment. This would help to provide new appointees with a better understanding of university structure, operations and culture.

The University should also understand the critical role of departmental leaders and their influence on faculty and department activities, and take actions for improvement. Leaders are required to provide extensive opportunities for learning by developing activities such as in-house training programmes which can benefit human capital development, leadership skills and practices, and, ultimately, better organizational performance. HoDs should understand their role and what it entails, especially in relation to faculty members.

Another implication is for policy makers, managers and HR to consider changes in recruitment policies. For example, the findings suggest that Qataris should occupy leadership positions within the university given the significant influence of social culture, the university's core mission and its role in society. Reflecting the employment system for non-Qatari staff (3 year renewable contracts), and issues such as high turnover of non-native academic staff, it is necessary to establish a pool of talented potential leaders; a succession plan should be in place to encourage potential Qatari faculty to take on the role. However, since, at present, there are insufficient potential Qataris to become HoDs, the University needs to find ways to encourage and motivate current postgraduate students to work as faculty after finishing their degrees. Issues around 3 year contracts for non-native faculty should be also considered to provide more stability and long-term commitment for staff.

Training and career development needs for potential HoDs require consideration. Most respondents commented on the present absence of relevant training, suggesting that the university needs to take action. Participants suggested that, in designing such a training programme, it is important to consider the relevance and needs of each department/college and to ensure that training and development is an ongoing process. As well as an understanding of the role, new Heads need to be aware of how the system works, the University structure and key stakeholders: a combination of leadership and management skills. For Heads who are already in the position, formal and practical training should be ongoing process.

In order to enhance HoD performance and leadership role, the University should consider their HRM policies as identifying training needs and providing sufficient support and resources. Investing in the right people would increase work commitment, quality and productivity. It is important that such HR policies/ practices are aligned with the overall University's development needs.

Findings from the research suggest different factors that should be considered when practicing leadership in an academic context, including regional culture, organizational type and size, people's cultural background and social context, and their position within the organization. The study provides a critical awareness of the importance of understanding those factors influencing leadership and management practice in the context of higher education. This awareness of the context in which

organizations and leadership operate will help to define suitable leadership practices required in the HE context, and will improve leadership readiness to change, face challenges, use opportunities and perform well.

Finally, given that HoDs must maintain their academic credentials while in their leadership role, it may also be necessary to provide a means of supporting their academic profile, and thus achieve a better balance between both roles.

Overall, this research has significant implications for leadership practice in Gulf universities. A combination of different approaches should be considered in developing a management and leadership programme for HODs; professional learning should be an ongoing process. More attention should be given to improving recruitment and selection processes; clearly defined criteria should be in place. Similarly, clearly defined job descriptions, providing and designing a related training programme, identifying a talent pool, developing a full HR policy, succession planning, incentives and opportunities to provide for academic “catch up”, and motivating and encouraging local talent are all needed to underpin the position of HoD.

These recommendations must be strategically employed. By responding to leadership needs for development, the University can develop a group of departmental leaders who possess necessary skills, knowledge and competence, and offer each other mutual support. As a result, this group could contribute to dynamic change and transformation, helping both QU and Qatar to achieve long term sustainable success.

10.7. Limitations

In broad terms, this project met its objectives. However, there were also some limitations. It was important for the researcher to focus on the research scope, time and resources available. A case study design was used because of the nature of the research problem, aims and objectives. The limitations of this study were predominantly methodological. First, the approach used may have its own limitations; a single case strategy is often a source of limitation in qualitative research and this research is no exception. The researcher selected the only public national institution in the country which is not necessarily representative of other foreign universities working in Qatar. Whereas the original plan was to use multiple case studies, with three public universities from different GCC countries, it soon became clear that this would require massive effort and time; resources were therefore the main issue. As a result, the data was collected from one country in the Arab Gulf and from a single institution. However, a single case study design is not necessarily a negative limitation, as the aim is to generalize results to set of theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes (Yin, 2003).

Although this research contributes to existing knowledge of what make HoDs effective leaders, the sample size limits the likelihood and extent to which research findings can be generalized to all HE departmental leadership in the region or further field. This is because the sample is from a single case university. Given that a key conclusion is that leadership is context dependent, it is not surprising that findings cannot be generalized. However, despite this limitation, the value of the present study should not be underestimated; the aim was to examine and analyse views and perceptions of different groups using a single detailed case study in a specific context. Moreover, it is expected that these findings will provide insights and understandings into the phenomenon of HoD leadership and enable researchers in similar contexts to use it as a basic foundation to gain a general understanding of their own roles and contexts. Despite the possibility that a certain degree of generalization to similar settings and contexts may be contemplated, any attempt to generalize the findings to other contexts should be made with caution and prudence.

Second, time and access to participants were crucial, requiring the researcher to manage time and resources effectively. Throughout the course of conducting the empirical study, tasks such as travelling to Qatar and conducting face-to-face interviews with male and female participants in their own environments were a top priority. Although this was an effective approach, it placed pressure on the researcher, as the task needed to be completed within a short period of time at minimum cost. Nevertheless, the project was successfully achieved.

Another limitation was that the study provided insights from three university stakeholder groups (senior leadership, HoDs and faculty members). This resulted in limited insight from other university stakeholders (including students and board members). Involving other university key stakeholders would have provided a more holistic view and understanding of the role of HoDs as leaders in HE given the role they play with students, and the perception of board members that they are the main decision and policy makers. Hence, the emphasis pursued was on the role of the HoD in providing strategic leadership, as a departmental leader/manager and as a leader of academic colleagues.

A further limitation in relation to sampling was that not all participants involved in this study were originally from the same cultural background. This may limit their understanding of cultural perspectives of leadership in the Arabian Gulf culture.

Finally, the researcher and interviewees may have introduced bias when conducting semi-structured interviews. However, the researcher tried to minimize this through a reflexive approach, considering different factors and aspects in relation to interviewees and the researcher.

However, such limitations represent an opportunity for future research in order to minimize the gap in understanding and provide new insights for better understanding and development.

10.8. Future Research and Recommendations

Findings and insights from this research offer different opportunities for future research including leadership studies, theories and practice, cross cultural studies, human resource management, management and organizational studies. In addition, a contribution can be made to research methodology, in particular in the practice of conducting qualitative interviews in highly gendered societies. The following are some possible areas for future study;

- Future research might consider replicating this study using multiple-case design to enhance and validate results. It would be possible to investigate the position of HoDs across a wider range of HEIs in GCC countries to see whether the findings from this study are indicative of experience across different HEIs.
- Future studies are advised to include perceptions of different university stakeholders (policy makers, board members and students), which could add different perspectives and a wider holistic understanding of the phenomenon.
- Future research could also extend to the role of the HoD in other HEIs. Private, foreign run universities in the Gulf would be interesting cases, because operational systems and institutional culture must be different, and research could identify whether there are similarities given the social and political environment of the host country in which those institutions operate.
- Further investigations might also be directed to understand distinctive features of social behaviour (power, collectivism, *wasta*, obeying, communication styles, hierarchy structure and politics) in the Arab Gulf countries, particularly to what extent such features are profoundly instilled within the social system of an organization, attitudes of its members, and their influence on leadership practice and perceptions of HEIs. This would help to advance theoretical understanding of organizational culture in the GCC with respect to comprehending human relationships and how a model of practice can be developed. It would also be interesting to separate views and perceptions from native and non-native participants within the same institution.
- The understanding of the Qatar context requires further examination into its social, cultural, environmental, economic and political factors, and the way in

which these factors constructed the foundation of the country and the future of its people.

- Further research could focus on examining different leadership requirements and developments at different levels within the university hierarchy (Dean, VP, and President) in GCC countries. This could help for a holistic understanding and in developing the practice of leadership in HEIs in the region.
- Findings also prove that academic disciplines have an impact on leadership requirements relating to necessary knowledge, skills, qualities and behaviours. Larger sampling could contribute to the development of this profile. For example, further research could conduct in-depth case studies and analysis on the disciplinary context, and outline the leadership requirements, treating each discipline as an embedded case and comparing across departments/colleges.
- Further research could be replicated and only examine perceptions from native participants (Qatari, Saudi, Bahraini...) and participants from across different HEIs in GCC, taking into account type and age of institution, its core mission and the role they play in the country and society. It would be possible to make a comparison to find differences and similarities that would help universities in the region learn how to make the work of HoDs more effective.
- The role of the university HR department in recruiting and understanding the selection process from the HR perspective might be investigated and updated over time so that significant trend analyses can be identified.
- Studies of changing characteristics, roles and core competencies of HoDs in the university, with comparisons over time, would also be useful.

References

- Abdalla, I. A. and Al-Homoud, M. a. (2001) 'Exploring the Implicit Leadership Theory in the Arabian Gulf States', *Applied Psychology*, 50(4), pp. 506–531.
- Acker, S. (2000) 'In/out/side: Positioning the researcher in feminist qualitative research', *Resources for Feminist Research*. 28(1/2), p. 189.
- Adler, N. J. (1991) 'Communicating across Cultural Barriers', in *International Dimensions of Organizational behavior (2nd ed.)*. Boston, MA: PWS-KENT Publishing Company, pp. 63–91.
- Adler, N. J. and Gundersen, A. (2007) *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Cengage Learning.
- Ahearn, K. K., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Douglas, C. and Ammeter, A. P. (2004) 'Leader political skill and team performance', *Journal of Management*, 30(3), pp. 309–327.
- Al-Faleh, M. (1987) 'Cultural influences on Arab management development: a case study of Jordan', *Journal of Management Development*, 6(3), pp. 19–33.
- Al-Hummadi, B. A. (2013) *Leadership, Employee Satisfaction and Turnover in the UAE Public Sector*. (Dissertation, The British University in Dubai (BUiD)). Available at: <http://bspace.buid.ac.ae/bitstream/1234/357/1/100097.pdf>.
- Al-Jafary, A., Hollingsworth, A. T. (1983) 'An Exploratory Study of Managerial Practices in the Arabian Gulf Region', *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), pp. 143–152.
- Al-Mailam, F. F. (2004) 'Transactional versus transformational style of leadership—employee perception of leadership efficacy in public and private hospitals in Kuwait', *Quality Management in Healthcare*, 13(4), pp. 278–284.
- Al-Nuaimi, S. S. (2013) *Effective leadership in implementing change in Arab culture: the case of the Abu Dhabi police*. (Doctoral dissertation, Manchester Metropolitan University). Available at: <https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/324755/>.
- Al-Omari, A. A. (2010) *Leadership Styles and Style Adaptability of Deans and Department Chairs At Three Public Research Universities*. (Doctoral dissertation, Washington State University). Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Aieman_Al-Omari2/publication/33999491_Leadership_styles_and_style_adaptability_of_deans_and_department_chairs_at_three_public_research_universities_electronic_resource/links/0deec52618a86b5eca000000.pdf.
- Al-Ramahi, A. (2008) 'Wasta in Jordan: A distinct feature of (and benefit for) Middle Eastern society', *Arab Law Quarterly*, 22(1), pp. 35–62.
- Al-Twajjri, M. I. and Al-Muhaiza, I. A. (1996) 'Hofstede's cultural dimensions in the GCC countries: An empirical investigation', *International Journal of Value-Based Management*, 9(2), pp. 121–131.
- Al-Yahya, K. and Vengroff, R. (2005) 'Organizational culture and participatory management in non-democratic regimes: the case of Saudi Arabia', in *Annual meeting of the American Political Science Association*, pp. 1–4.
- Alexander Jr, C. N. and Knight, G. W. (1971) 'Situated identities and social psychological experimentation', *Sociometry*, pp. 65–82.
- Ali, A. (2011) 'Leadership and Islam', in *Metcalf, B., & Mimouni, F. (Eds.) Leadership Development in the Middle East*, pp. 86–103.
- Ali, A. J. (1989) 'Decision Style and Work Satisfaction of Arab Gulf Executives: A Cross-national Study.', *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 19(2), pp. 22–37.

- Ali, A. J. (1995) 'Cultural discontinuity and Arab management thought', *International Studies of Management & Organization*, Taylor & Francis, 25(3), pp. 7–30.
- Ali, A. J. and Al-Owaidan, A. (2008) 'Islamic work ethic: a critical review', *Cross cultural management: An international Journal*, 15(1), pp. 5–19.
- Ali, A. J. and Azim, A. (1996) 'A cross-national perspective on managerial problems in a non-western country', *Journal of Social Psychology*, 136(2), pp. 165–172.
- Ali, A. J., Azim, A. a. and Krishnan, K. S. (1995) 'Expatriates and host country nationals: managerial values and decision styles', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 16(6), pp. 27–34.
- Ali, A. J., Taqi, A. A. and Krishnan, K. (1997) 'Individualism, Collectivism, and Decision Styles of Managers in Kuwait', *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(5), pp. 629–637.
- Alpen Capital (2016) *GCC Education Industry, Alpen Capital Report*. Available at: <http://www.alpencapital.com/industry-reports.html>.
- Alshehhi, O. R. S. M. H. (2014) *Enhancing successful organisational change through institutionalisation: the case of the Abu Dhabi Police*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Manchester). Available at: <https://www.escholar.manchester.ac.uk/uk-ac-man-scw:233648>.
- Altbach, P. G. (2011) *Leadership for world-class universities: Challenges for developing countries*. Routledge.
- Altbach, P. G. and Salmi, J. (2011) *The road to academic excellence: The making of world-class research universities*. World Bank Publications.
- Ambrose, S., Huston, T. and Norman, M. (2005) 'A qualitative method for assessing faculty satisfaction', *Research in Higher Education*, 46(7), pp. 803–830.
- Ammeter, A. P., Douglas, C., Gardner, W. L., Hochwarter, W. A. and Ferris, G. R. (2002) 'Toward a political theory of leadership', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(6), pp. 751–796.
- Andreason, N. (2006) 'The creative brain: The science of genius', *New York: Plume*.
- Arendell, T. (1997) 'Reflections on the Researcher-Researched Relationship : A Woman Interviewing Men', *Qualitative Sociology*, 20(3), pp. 341–368.
- Aseri, M. M. (2015) *Leadership: A Study of Global and Cultural Context In Saudi Arabian Organisations*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Manchester).
- Asselin, M. E. (2003) 'Insider research: Issues to consider when doing qualitative research in your own setting', *Journal for Nurses in Professional Development*, 19(2), pp. 99–103.
- Avolio, B. J. (2005) *Leadership development in balance: Made/born*. Psychology Press.
- Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O. and Weber, T. J. (2009) 'Leadership: current theories, research, and future directions.', *Annual review of psychology*, 60(1), pp. 421–449.
- Aziz, S., Mullins, M. E., Balzer, W. K., Grauer, E., Burnfield, J. L., Lodato, M. A. and Cohen-Powless, M. A. (2005) 'Understanding the training needs of department chairs', *Studies in Higher Education*, 30(5), pp. 571–593.
- Babar, Z., Ridge, N., Shami, S., Kippels, S., Taylor, A., Soudy, N., Martin, S., Jamal, M. A., Newson, M. and Roque, D. (2015) *Arab Migrant Communities in the GCC: Summary Report*. Georgetown University, School of Foreign Service in Qatar, Center for International and Regional Studies.
- Back, L. (1993) 'Gendered participation: Masculinity and fieldwork in a south London adolescent community', in D. Bell, P. Caplan and W.J. Karim (eds) *Gendered Fields: Women, Men and Ethnography*. London: Routledge, p. 215–23.
- Baker, S. E., Edwards, R. and Doidge, M. (2012) *How many qualitative interviews is*

enough? Expert voices and early career reflections on sampling and cases in qualitative research. Discussion paper, National Centre for Research Methods. Available at: <http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/2273/>.

Barakat, H. (1993) *The Arab world: Society, culture, and state*. University of California Press.

Barakat, H. (2004) 'The contemporary Arab society: An exploratory research'. Beirut, Lebanon: Center for Arab unity studies.

Barbour, R. (2013) *Introducing qualitative research: a student's guide*. Sage.

Barnett, A., Yandle, B. and Naufal, G. (2013) 'Regulation, trust, and cronyism in Middle Eastern societies: The simple economics of "wasta"', *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 44(7201), pp. 41–46.

Bass, B. M. (1985) *Leadership and performance beyond expectation*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990) 'From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision', *Organizational dynamics*, 18(3), pp. 19–31.

Bass, B. M. (1999) 'Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership', *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), pp. 9–32.

Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. (1990) 'Developing Transformational Leadership: 1992 and Beyond', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5), pp. 21–27.

Bass, B. M. and Bass, R. (2009) *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.

Bass, B. M. and Riggio, R. E. (2006) *Transformational leadership*. Psychology Press.

Bass, B. M. and Stogdill, R. M. (1990) *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.

Bass, B. M., Waldman, D. A., Avolio, B. J. and Bebb, M. (1987) 'Transformational leadership and the falling dominoes effect', *Group & Organization Management*, 12(1), pp. 73–87.

Baumann, A. (2006) *Influences of culture on the style of business behavior between Western and Arab managers*. Norderstedt: GRIN Verlag.

Becher, T. (1981) 'Towards a definition of disciplinary cultures', *Studies in Higher Education*, 6(2), pp. 109–122.

Becher, T. and Trowler, P. R. (2001) *Academic tribes and territories: intellectual enquiry and the culture of disciplines*. Buckingham: SHRE & Open University Press.

Belur, J. (2013) 'Status, gender and geography: power negotiations in police research', *Qualitative Research*, 14(2), pp. 184–200.

Bennett, D., Dunford, J. and Fawcett, R. (2013) *School leadership: National and international perspectives*. Routledge.

Bennett, J. B. (1982) 'Ambiguity and Abrupt Transitions in the Department Chairperson's Role.', *Educational Record*, 63(4), pp. 53–56.

Bennis, W. (2009) *On becoming a leader*. Basic Books.

Bennis, W. G. (1989) 'Managing the dream: Leadership in the 21st century', *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 2(1), pp. 6–10.

Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. (1985) *The strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper. Row.

Bensimon, E. M. and Neumann, A. (1992) *Redesigning Collegiate Leadership: Teams and*

Teamwork in Higher Education. ERIC.

Bensimon, E. M., Neumann, A. and Birnbaum, R. (1989) *Making sense of administrative leadership: the 'L' word in higher education*. ASHE ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1. Washington, D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, The George Washington University.

Bernard, H. R. and Ryan, G. W. (2009) *Analyzing qualitative data: Systematic approaches*. SAGE publications.

Birnbaum, R. (1992) *How academic leadership works: Understanding success and failure in the college presidency*. ERIC.

Birnbaum, R., Bensimon, E. M. and Neumann, A. (1989) 'Leadership in higher education: A multi-dimensional approach to research', *The Review of Higher Education*, 12(2), p. 101.

Birnbaum, R. and Edelson, P. J. (1989) *How colleges work: The cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Birnbaum, R. and Umbach, P. D. (2001) 'Scholar, steward, spanner, stranger: The four career paths of college presidents', *The Review of Higher Education*, 24(3), pp. 203–217.

Blake, R. R., Mouton, J. S., Barnes, L. B. and Greiner, L. E. (1964) 'Breakthrough in organization development', *Harvard Business Review*, 42(6), pp. 133–155.

Blanchard, C. M. (2014) *Qatar: Background and U.S. Relations*. Library of Congress Washington DC Congressional Research Service.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. and Dennison, P. (2003) 'A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks', Centre for Leadership Studies, pp. 1–44.

Bolden, R. (2004) *What is leadership?* Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter.

Bolden, R. (2011) 'Distributed leadership in organizations: A review of theory and research', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(3), pp. 251–269.

Bolden, R., Jones, S., Davis, H. and Gentle, P. (2015) *Developing and sustaining shared leadership in higher education*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.

Bolden, R., Petrov, G. and Gosling, J. (2008a) *Developing collective leadership in higher education - final report* London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.

Bolden, R., Petrov, G. and Gosling, J. (2008b) 'Distributed Leadership in Higher Education: Rhetoric and Reality', *Leadership*, 37, pp. 1–27.

Bolden, R., Petrov, G., Gosling, J. and Bryman, A. (2009) 'Leadership in Higher Education: Facts, Fictions and Futures - Introduction to the Special Issue', *Leadership*, 5(3), pp. 291–298.

Bolman, L. G. and Gallos, J. V (2010) *Reframing academic leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.

Bolman, L. G. and Gallos, J. V (2011) 'Leading from the middle', in *Reframing academic leadership [electronic resource]*. Wiley Online Library, pp. 143–162.

Bolman, L. G. and Gallos, J. V. (2016) 'Leading Difficult People', *Department Chair*, 26(4), pp. 1–3.

Booth, D. B. (1982) 'The Department Chair: Professional Development and Role Conflict. AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Research Report No. 10' ERIC.

Bowman, R. F. (2002) 'The Real Work of Department Chair', *The Clearing House*, 75(November), pp. 158–162.

Brandt, C. and Dixon, C. (2010) 'Culture Matters: Issues in the Adaptation of Expatriate Academics to GCC Host Societies', *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 3(17), pp. 347–361.

- Brannen, J. and Nilsen, A. (2011) 'Comparative biographies in case-based cross-national research: Methodological considerations', *Sociology*, 45(4), pp. 603–618.
- Bratton, J. and Gold, J. (2012) *Human resource management: theory and practice*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Breakwell, G. M. and Tytherleigh, M. Y. (2008) *The characteristics, roles and selection of vice-chancellors*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Briggs, A. R. J., Morrison, M. and Coleman, M. (2012) *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. Sage Publications.
- Broom, A., Hand, K. and Tovey, P. (2009) 'The role of gender, environment and Individual biography in shaping qualitative interview data', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 12(1), pp. 51–65.
- Brundrett, M. and Terrell, I. (2004) *Learning to lead in the secondary school: Becoming an effective head of department*. Edited by (Eds.). Routledge.
- Bryman, A. (1988) *Quantity and quality in social research*. Routledge.
- Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. Sage Pubns.
- Bryman, A. (2004) 'Qualitative research on leadership: A critical but appreciative review', *The leadership quarterly*, 15(6), pp. 729–769.
- Bryman, A. (2007a) 'Effective leadership in higher education :a literature review', *Studies in Higher Education*, 32(6), pp. 693–710.
- Bryman, A. (2007b) *Effective Leadership in Higher Education: Summary of findings*. Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Bryman, A. (2009) *Effective leadership in higher education: Final report*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Bryman, A. (2012) *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A. (2015) *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A. and Cassell, C. (2006) 'The researcher interview: a reflexive perspective', *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: an International Journal*, 1(1), pp. 41–55.
- Bryman, A. and Lilley, S. (2009) 'Leadership Researchers on Leadership in Higher Education', *Leadership*, 5(3), pp. 331–346.
- Bryman, A., Stephens, M. and Campo, C. (1996) 'The importance of context: Qualitative research and the study of leadership', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), pp. 353–370.
- BTI, B. S. (2016) '*BTI 2016 | Qatar Country Report*'.
- Bucolo, S., Wrigley, C. and Matthews, J. (2012) 'Gaps in organizational leadership: Linking strategic and operational activities through design-led propositions', *Design Management Journal*, 7(1), pp. 18–28.
- Buller, J. L. (2011) *The essential department chair: A comprehensive desk reference*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Buller, J. L. (2013) *Positive Academic Leadership: How to Stop Putting Out Fires and Start Making a Difference*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Buller, J. L. (2014) *Change leadership in higher education: A practical guide to academic transformation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Burns, J. M. (1978) *Leadership*. Oxford.
- Cacioppe, R. (1997) 'Leadership moment by moment!', *Leadership & Organization*

Development Journal, 18(7), pp. 335–345.

Carroll, J. B. and Gmelch, W. H. (1992) 'The Relationship of Department Chair Roles to Importance of Chair Duties', in *Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education*.

Carroll, J. B. and Wolverton, M. (2004) 'Who becomes a chair?', *New Directions for Higher Education*, (126), pp. 3–10.

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E. and Marrone, J. a (2007) 'Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance', *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5), pp. 1217–1234.

Chen, M. (2004) *Asian management systems: Chinese, Japanese and Korean styles of business*. Cengage Learning EMEA.

Cipriano, R. E. (2011) *Facilitating a collegial department in higher education: Strategies for success*. John Wiley & Sons.

Cipriano, R. E. and Buller, J. L. (2013) 'The symbiosis of collegiality and positive academic leadership', *Department Chair*, (Winter), pp. 6–7.

Cipriano, R. E. and Riccardi, R. L. (2016) 'The Chair: A Singularly Distinctive Position', *Department Chair*, 26(4), pp. 18–19.

Clark, N. (2013) *Qatar, Building a National and Regional Knowledge Economy*, *World Education News & Reviews*. Available at: <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/04/wenr-april-2013-qatar-building-a-national-and-regional-knowledge-economy> (Accessed: 15 May 2014).

Coate, K., Kandiko Howson, C. B., de St Croix, T., de St Croix King, T. and London, C. (2015) *Mid-career academic women: Strategies, choices and motivation*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.

Coffin, A. (1979) 'The role of the chairman, the state of the discipline: 1970s-1980s', *A Special Issue of the ADE Bulletin*, (62), September/November, Association of Departments of English, pp. 81–88.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2011) *Research Methods in Education (7th Edition)*, *Bioscience Education e-Journal*.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2013) *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

Collinson, D., Bryman, A., Collinson, D. and Grint, K. (2011) *The Sage handbook of leadership*. SAGE Publications London.

Conger, J. A. (1992) *Learning to lead*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Crandall, R. and Diener, E. (1978) *Ethics in social and behavioral research*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Creswell, J. W. (1990) *The academic chairperson's handbook*. University of Nebraska Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2012) *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2014) *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Clark Plano, V. L. and Morales, A. (2007) 'Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation', *The counseling psychologist*, 35(2), pp. 236–264.

Cunningham, R. B., Sarayrah, Y. K. and Sarayrah, Y. E. (1994) 'Taming "Wasta" to Achieve Development', *Arab Studies Quarterly*. JSTOR, pp. 29–41.

Currie, J. and Vidovich, L. (2009) 'The changing nature of academic work', *The Routledge*

- international handbook of higher education*. Routledge New York, pp. 441–452.
- Daft, R. L. (2014) *The leadership experience*. Cengage Learning.
- Daniel C. Ganster, Harry W. Hennessey, F. L. (1983) ‘Social Desirability Response Effects: Three Alternative Models’, *The Academy of Management Journal*, 26(2), pp. 321–331.
- Day, D. V., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E. and McKee, R. A. (2014) ‘Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory’, *Leadership Quarterly*. Elsevier Inc., 25(1), pp. 63–82.
- Day, D. V., Gronn, P. and Salas, E. (2004) ‘Leadership capacity in teams’, *Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), pp. 857–880.
- Debrowski, S. (2015) ‘Developing Excellent Academic Leaders in Turbulent Times’, *AISHE-J: The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 7(1).
- Deem, R. (2001) ‘Globalisation, New Managerialism, Academic Capitalism and Entrepreneurialism in Universities: is the local dimension still important?’, *Comparative Education*, 37(1), pp. 7–20.
- Deem, R., Hillyard, S. and Reed, M. (2007) *New Managerialism and Public Services Reform: From Regulated Autonomy to Institutionalized Distrust*. Oxford University Press.
- Denzin, N. K. (2001) ‘The reflexive interview and a performative social science’, *Qualitative Research*, 1(1), pp. 23–46.
- Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994) *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.
- Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2011) *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.
- Deresky, H. (2013) *International Management, Global Edition: Managing cultural diversity*. Pearson Education.
- Deresky, H. and Christopher, E. (2011) *International management: Managing cultural diversity*. Pearson Higher Education AU.
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N. E. D. and Humphrey, S. E. (2011) ‘Trait and Behavioral Theories of Leadership : an Integration and Meta-Analytic Test of Their Relative Validity’, *Personnel psychology*, 64(1), pp. 7–52.
- Dimmock, C. and Lam, M. (2000) *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. Sage.
- Dopson, S., Ferlie, E., McGivern, G., Fischer, M. D., Ledger, J., Behrens, S. and Wilson, S. (2016) ‘*The impact of leadership and leadership development in higher education : a review of the literature and evidence*’ London, Leadership Foundation in Higher Education Research and Development.
- Drew, G. M. (2006) ‘Balancing academic advancement with business effectiveness? The dual role for senior university leaders’, *International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*, 6(4), pp. 117–125.
- Dul, J. and Hak, T. (2007) *Case study methodology in business research*. Routledge.
- Dulaimi, H. Al and Sailan, S. Bin (2011) ‘Examining National Culture Of Qatar’, *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(10), pp. 727–735.
- Dulewicz, V. and Higgs, M. (2003) ‘Leadership at the top: The need for emotional intelligence in organizations’, *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*. MCB UP Ltd, 11(3), pp. 193–210.
- Dwyer, S. C. and Buckle, J. L. (2009) ‘The Space Between: On Being an Insider-Outsider in Qualitative Research’, *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), pp. 54–63.
- Dyer, C. (1995) *Beginning research in psychology: A practical guide to research methods*

and statistics. Wiley-Blackwell.

Elwood, S. A. and Martin, D. G. (2000) ‘“Placing” interviews: Location and scales of power in qualitative research’, *The Professional Geographer*. Wiley Online Library, 52(4), pp. 649–657.

Enshassi, A. and Burgess, R. (1991) ‘Managerial effectiveness and the style of management in the Middle East: An empirical analysis’, *Construction Management and Economics*, 9(1), pp. 79–92.

Evans, W. A., Hau, K. C. and Sculli, D. (1989) ‘A cross-cultural comparison of managerial styles’, *Journal of Management Development*. MCB UP Ltd, 8(3), pp. 5–13.

Expat Insider 2016: Three Years of Insights (2016). Available at: <https://www.internations.org/expat-insider/>.

Del Favero, M. (2006) ‘Disciplinary variation in preparation for the academic dean role’, *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25(3), pp. 277–292.

Ferris, G. R., Davidson, S. L. and Perrewe, P. L. (2005) *Political skill at work: Impact on work effectiveness*. Davies-Black Publishing.

Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewe, P. L., Brouer, R. L., Douglas, C. and Lux, S. (2007) ‘Political Skill in Organizations’, *Journal of Management*, 33(3), pp. 290–320.

Fiedler, F. E. (1978) ‘The Contingency Model and the Dynamics of the Leadership Process’, *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 11(C), pp. 59–112.

Fiedler, F. E. (1996) ‘Research on Leadership Selection and Training: One View of the Future’, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(2), pp. 241–250.

Filan, G. L. (1999) ‘The Need for Leadership Training: The Evolution of the Chair Academy’, *New Directions For Community Colleges*. ERIC, 1999(105), p. 47.

Filan, G. L. and Seagren, A. T. (2003) ‘Six critical issues for midlevel leadership in postsecondary settings’, *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2003(124), pp. 21–31.

Fisher, J. L. (1984) *Power of the Presidency*. ERIC.

Fisher, J. L. and Tack, M. W. (1990) ‘The Effective College President.’, *Educational Record*, 71(1), pp. 6–10.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006) ‘Five misunderstandings about case-study research’, *Qualitative inquiry*. Sage publications, 12(2), pp. 219–245.

Fontana, A. and Frey, J. H. (2000) ‘The interview: From structured questions to negotiated text’, *Handbook of qualitative research*, 2(6), pp. 645–672.

Fullan, M. and Scott, G. (2009) *Turnaround leadership for higher education*. John Wiley & Sons.

Ganster, D. C., Hennessey, H. W. and Luthans, F. (2013) ‘Desirability Response Effects’, *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(2), pp. 321–331.

García-Horta, J. B. and Guerra-Ramos, M. T. (2009) ‘The use of CAQDAS in educational research: some advantages, limitations and potential risks’, *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 32(2), pp. 151–165.

Gardner, H. (2006) *Changing minds: The art and science of changing our own and other people’s minds*. Harvard Business Review Press.

Gerson, K. and Horowitz, R. (2002) ‘Observation and interviewing: Options and choices in qualitative research’, in T. May (ed.) *Qualitative research in action*. London: Sage, pp. 199–224.

Gibbs, G., Knapper, C. and Piccinin, S. (2008) ‘Disciplinary and contextually appropriate

- approaches to leadership of teaching in research-intensive academic departments in higher education', *Higher Education Quarterly*, 62(4), pp. 416–436.
- Gibbs, G., Knapper, C. and Piccinin, S. (2009) *Departmental Leadership of Teaching in Research-intensive Environments: Final Report*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Gill, F. and Maclean, C. (2002) 'Knowing your place: Gender and reflexivity in two ethnographies', *Sociological Research Online*, 7(2).
- Giosa, V. De and De Giosa, V. (2009) 'The Cultural Management of Leadership', *In Anales de estudios económicos y empresariales*, 19, pp. 167–191. Available at: <http://dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/3291663.pdf>.
- Glueck, W. F. and Thorp, C. D. (1974) 'The role of the academic administrator in research professors' satisfaction and productivity', *Educational Administration Quarterly*. Sage Publications, 10(1), pp. 72–90.
- Gmelch, W. H. (1991) 'Paying the price for academic leadership: Department chair tradeoffs.', *Educational Record*, 72, p. 45. Available at: <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=9109300686&site=ehost-live>.
- Gmelch, W. H. (2002) '*The Call for Department Leaders.*' ERIC.
- Gmelch, W. H. (2004) 'The department chair's balancing acts', *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2004(126), pp. 69–84.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Buller, J. L. (2015) *Building academic leadership capacity: A guide to best practices*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Buller, J. L. . (2016) 'Skill Development for Academic Leaders', *Department Chair*, 26(4), pp. 25–27.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Burns, J. S. (1993) 'The cost of academic leadership: Department Chair Stress', *Innovative Higher Education*, 17(4), pp. 259–270.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Burns, J. S. (1994) 'Sources of stress for academic department chairpersons', *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32(1), pp. 79–94.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Miskin, V. D. (1993) 'Understanding the Challenges of Department Chairs', *Leadership Skills for Department Chairs*, Bolton, MA, pp. 3–18. Available at: <http://eu.wiley.com/WileyCDA/Brand/id-17.html>.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Miskin, V. D. (2011) *Department chair leadership skills*. Atwood Pub.
- Gmelch, W. H. and Wolverton, M. (2002) '*An Investigation of Dean Leadership.*' ERIC.
- Gmelch, W. H., Wolverton, M., Wolverton, M. and Sarros, J. C. (1999) 'The Academic Dean: An Imperiled Species Searching for Balance', *Research in Higher Education*, 40(6), pp. 717–740.
- Goffee, R. and Jones, G. (2007) 'Leading clever people', *Harvard Business Review*, 85(3), p. 72.
- Goffman, E. (1959) '*The presentation of self in everyday society*', Garden City.
- Gomes, R. and Knowles, P. A. (1999) 'Marketing department leadership: An analysis of a team transformation', *Journal of Marketing Education*, 21(3), pp. 164–174.
- Gonzalez, G. (2008) *Facing Human Capital Challenges of the 21st Century Education and Labor Market Initiatives in Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates Gabriella*, Rand Monographs (MG-786).
- Gosling, J. and Mintzberg, H. (2006) 'Management education as if both matter',

Management Learning, 37(4), pp. 419–428.

Graen, G., Novak, M. A. and Sommerkamp, P. (1982) 'The effects of leader—member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model', *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 30(1), pp. 109–131.

Green, M. F. and McDade, S. A. (1991) '*Investing in Higher Education: A Handbook of Leadership Development.*' ERIC.

Greene, M. F. (1988) *Leaders for a New Era: Strategies for Higher Education. American Council on Education/Macmillan Series on Higher Education.* ERIC.

Gregersen, H. B. and Black, J. S. (1999) 'The right way to manage expats', *Harvard business review*. Harvard Business School Publishing, 77(2), pp. 52–59.

Gruber, H. E. and Wallace, D. B. (1989) *Creative people at work: Twelve cognitive case studies.* Oxford University Press.

Grusec, J. (2004) 'Task Force On Openness, Transparency, And Consultation in Departmental Decision-Making', *Faculty of Arts and Science University of Toronto*, (February), pp. 1–18.

GSDP (2012) 'Qatar's Third National Human Development Report Expanding the Capacities of Qatari Youth Mainstreaming Young People in Development', *General Secretariat for Development Planning*, (January). Available at: <http://www.gsdp.gov.qa>.

Gudykunst, W. B., Matsumoto, Y., Ting-Toomey, S., Nishida, T., Kim, K. and Heyman, S. (1996) 'The influence of cultural individualism-collectivism, self construals, and individual values on communication styles across cultures', *Human communication research*, 22(4), pp. 510–543.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M. and Namey, E. E. (2011) *Applied thematic analysis.* Sage.

Haddon, A., Loughlin, C. and McNally, C. (2015) 'Leadership in a time of financial crisis: what do we want from our leaders?', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 36(5), pp. 612–627.

Hamlin, R. G. and Patel, T. (2015) 'Perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness within higher education in France', *Studies in Higher Education*, 24(2), pp. 292–314.

Hammoud, J. (2011) 'Consultative authority decision making: On the development and characterization of Arab corporate culture', *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9).

Handy, C. (1984) *Education for management outside business.* Education for the Professions.

Hansen, C. K. (2011) *Time management for department chairs.* John Wiley & Sons.

Harkin, D. G. and Healy, A. H. (2013) 'Redefining & Leading the Academic Discipline in Australian Universities.', *Australian Universities' Review*, 55(2), pp. 80–92.

Hawamdeh, S. and Raigangar, V. (2014) 'Qualitative interviewing: Methodological challenges in Arab settings', *Nurse Researcher*, 21(3), pp. 27–31. doi: 10.7748/nr2014.01.21.3.27.e357.

Hecht, I. W. D. (2004) 'The Professional Development of Department Chairs', *New Directions For Higher Education*, 2004(126), pp. 27–44.

Hecht, I. W. D., Higgerson, M. Lou, Gmelch, W. H. and Roles, A. T. (1999) 'Roles and Responsibilities of Department Chairs', *The Department Chair as Academic Leader*, pp. 21–38.

Henn, M., Weinstein, M. and Foard, N. (2009) *A critical introduction to social research.* Sage Publications.

- Hernandez, M., Eberly, M. B., Avolio, B. J. and Johnson, M. D. (2011) 'The loci and mechanisms of leadership: Exploring a more comprehensive view of leadership theory', *Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), pp. 1165–1185.
- Herod, A. (1993) 'Gender Issues in the Use of Interviewing as a Research Method*', *The Professional Geographer*, 45(3), pp. 305–317.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1982) *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources*. Englewood Cliffs (N.J.): Prentice-Hall.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1993) *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources*. Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Hinkin, T. R. and Schriesheim, C. A. (1990) 'Relationships between subordinate perceptions of supervisor influence tactics and attributed bases of supervisory power', *Human Relations*, 43(3), pp. 221–237.
- Hodkinson, P. (2005) "'Insider Research" in the Study of Youth Cultures', *Journal of Youth Studies*, 8(2), pp. 131–149.
- Hofstede, G. (1980) 'Motivation, leadership, and organization: do American theories apply abroad?', *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(1), pp. 42–63.
- Hofstede, G. (2001a) *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2001b) *Hofstede Masculinity / Femininity Traits, Culture's Consequence*. Available at: <http://www.andrews.edu/~tidwell/bsad560/HofstedeMasculinity.html>.
- Hofstede, G. (2005) *Cultures and organizations Software of the mind*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G. (2009) 'Geert Hofstede Cultural Dimensions', *Itim International*, 122, pp. 3–5.
- Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J. and Hogan, J. (1994) 'What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality.', *American Psychologist*, 49(6), p. 493.
- Holstein, J. A. and Gubrium, J. F. (1995) *The active interview. [electronic book]*. Thousand Oaks, Calif. ; SAGE.
- House, R. J. (1991) 'The distribution and exercise of power in complex organizations: A MESO theory', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), pp. 23–58.
- House, R. J. (1996) 'Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), pp. 323–352.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. and Gupta, V. (2004) *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage.
- Hunt, J. W. and Baruch, Y. (2003) 'Developing top managers: the impact of interpersonal skills training', *Journal of Management Development*, 22(8), pp. 729–752.
- Hussein, H. B. (2011) 'Attitudes of Saudi universities faculty members towards using learning management system (JUSUR)', *TOJET: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 10(2).
- Hutchings, K. and Weir, D. (2006) 'Guanxi and wasta: A comparison', *Thunderbird International Business Review*. Wiley Online Library, 48(1), pp. 141–156.
- Ibnouf, A., Dou, L. and Knight, J. (2014) 'The evolution of Qatar as an education hub: Moving to a knowledge-based economy', in *International education hubs*. Springer, pp. 43–61.
- Johnson, T. P. and Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2003) 'Social desirability in cross-cultural research', *Cross-Cultural Survey Methods*. Wiley Hoboken, NJ, 325, pp. 195–204.

- Jones, E. E. (1990) *Interpersonal perception*. WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.
- Jones, F. R. (2011) *The Future Competencies of Department Chairs: A Human Resources Perspective*. ProQuest LLC, Ph.D. Dissertation, The Florida State University.
- Jootun, D., McGhee, G. and Marland, G. R. (2009) 'Reflexivity: promoting rigour in qualitative research.', *Nursing standard: official newspaper of the Royal College of Nursing*, 23(23), pp. 42–46.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F. and Kosalka, T. (2009) 'The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(6), pp. 855–875.
- Kabasakal, H. and Bodur, M. (2002) 'Arabic cluster: A bridge between east and west', *Journal of World Business*, 37(1), pp. 40–54.
- Kallenberg, T. (2007) 'Strategic innovation in HE: The roles of academic middle managers', *Tertiary Education Management*. Taylor & Francis, 13(1), pp. 19–33.
- Kanuha, V. K. (2000) "'Being" native versus "going native": Conducting social work research as an insider', *Social work*, 45(5), pp. 439–447.
- Kapiszewski, A. (2006) 'Arab Versus Asian Migrant Workers in The GCC Countries', *Department of Economic and Social Affairs United Nations Secretariat*, (May), pp. 1–21.
- Kassem, M. S. and Habib, G. M. (1989) *Strategic management of services in the Arab Gulf states: company and industry cases*. Walter de Gruyter.
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R. L. (1978) *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R. L. (1979) *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Kerry, T. (2012) *Meeting the Challenges of Change in Postgraduate Education*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R. and Contreras-McGavin, M. (2006) *Rethinking the 'L' word in higher education: The revolution of research on leadership: ASHE higher education report*. John Wiley & Sons.
- King, P. E. (1997) 'Surviving an Appointment as Departemnt Chair', *Journal of Association for Communication Administration*, 3(September), pp. 211–217.
- Klenke, K. (2008) *Qualitative research in the study of leadership*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Klenke, K. (2016) *Qualitative research in the study of leadership*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Knight, W. & Holen, M. (1985) 'Leadership and the Perceived Effectiveness of Department Chairpersons', *The Journal of Higher Education*, 56(6), pp. 677–690. doi: 10.2307/1981074.
- Knight, P. and Trowler, P. (2001) *Departmental leadership in higher education*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Koch, C. and Stenberg, L. (Eds.). (2010) *The EU and the GCC: Challenges and Prospects under the Swedish EU Presidency*.
- Kotter, J. P. (2001) *What leaders really do*. Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation.
- Kotter, J. P. (2008) *Force for change: How leadership differs from management*. Simon and Schuster.
- Kotterman, J. (2006) 'Leadership versus management: what's the difference?', *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 29(2), p. 13.

- Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (1995) *The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations*. San Francisco JosseyBass.
- Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (2003) *The Jossey-Bass academic administrator's guide to exemplary leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (2010) *The five practices of exemplary leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (2012) *LPI: Leadership practices inventory development planner*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Krueger, R. A. and Casey, M. A. (2014) *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Sage publications.
- Kvale, S. (1996) *An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Sage.
- Kvale, S. (2008) *Doing interviews*. Sage.
- Law, S. and Glover, D. (2000) *Educational Leadership & Learning: Practice, Policy and Research*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Lee, D. (1997) 'Interviewing men: vulnerabilities and dilemmas', in *Women's Studies International Forum*. Elsevier, pp. 553–564.
- Lees, N. D., J. Malik, D. and Vemuri, G. (2009) 'The Essentials of Chairing Academic Departments', *Department Chair*, 20(2), pp. 1–3.
- Leithwood, K., Mascall, B. and Strauss, T. (2009) *Distributed leadership according to the evidence*. Routledge.
- Lewis, J. and Ritchie, J. (2003) *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage publications.
- Lindholm, J. (1999) *Preparing Department Chairs for Their Leadership Roles*. ERIC.
- Lipson, J. G. and Meleis, A. I. (1989) 'Methodological issues in research with immigrants', *Medical Anthropology*, 12(1), pp. 103–115.
- Liu, M. (2016) 'Verbal Communication Styles and Culture', *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Communication*, 1(January), pp. 1–18.
- Lucas, A. F. (2000) *Leading Academic Change: Essential Roles for Department Chairs. The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. ERIC.
- Lumby, J. (2012) *What do we know about leadership in higher education? The Leadership Foundation for Higher Education's research*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Lummis, T. (1987) *Listening to history: The authenticity of oral history*, London: Hutchinson.
- Lumpkin, A. (2004) 'Enhancing the Effectiveness of Department Chairs', *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 75(9), pp. 44–48.
- Lussier, R. N. and Achua, C. (2010) *Leadership: Theory, Application & Skill Development*. Nelson Education.
- Macfarlane, B. (2013) *Intellectual leadership in higher education: Renewing the role of the university professor*. Routledge.
- Macfarlane, B. and Chan, R. Y. (2012) 'The last judgement: exploring intellectual leadership in higher education through academic obituaries', *Studies in Higher Education*, (July 2015), pp. 1–13.
- Marshall, S. (2007) *Strategic Leadership of Change in Higher Education: What's New?*

Routledge.

Martin, E., Trigwell, K., Prosser, M. and Ramsden, P. (2003) 'Variation in the experience of leadership of teaching in higher education', *Studies in Higher Education*, 28(3), pp. 247–259.

Mason, H. P. (1998) 'A persistence model for African American male urban community college students', *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 22(8), pp. 751–760.

Mason, J. (2002) *Qualitative researching*. Sage.

McCarty, D. J. and Reyes, P. (1987) 'Organizational Models of Donald J. McCarty Governance: Academic Deans' Pedro Reyes Decision Making Styles', *Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(5), pp. 2–8.

McDaniel, E. A. (2002) 'Senior Leadership in Higher Education: An Outcomes Approach', *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9(2), pp. 80–88.

McNay, I. (1995) 'From the Collegial Academy to Corporate Enterprise: The Changing Cultures of Universities', in *The changing university? The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Pres.* Available at: <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED415725.pdf>.

MDPS (2015) 'Qatar Economic Outlook 2015-2017', *Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, Qatar*, p. 46. Available at: www.mdps.gov.qa.

MDPS (2016) 'Qatar Economic Outlook 2016–2018', *Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics, Qatar*, (10). Available at: http://www.mdps.gov.qa/en/knowledge/Doc/QEO/Qatar_Economic_Outlook_2016_2018_EN.pdf.

MEHEQ (2016) *Ministry of Education and Higher Education Qatar*. Available at: www.edu.gov.qa/en (Accessed: 10 May 2016).

Metz, H. C. (1993) 'Area Handbook Series: Persian Gulf States Country Studies', in *DTIC Document*.

Middlehurst, R. (1989) 'Leadership and Higher Education', *Higher Education*, 18(3), pp. 353–360. Available at: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3447263>.

Middlehurst, R. (1993) *Leading academics*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Middlehurst, R. (2004) 'Changing internal governance: A discussion of leadership roles and management structures in UK universities', *Higher Education Quarterly*, 58(4), pp. 258–279.

Middlehurst, R. (2008) 'Not enough science or not enough learning? Exploring the gaps between leadership theory and practice', *Higher Education Quarterly*, 62(4), pp. 322–339.

Middlehurst, R. (2012) *Leadership and Management in Higher Education: A Research Perspective*. Available at: <ftp://ftp.repec.org/opt/ReDIF/RePEc/msm/wpaper/MSM-WP2012-47.pdf>.

Middlehurst, R. and Elton, L. (1992) 'Leadership and management in higher education', *Studies in Higher Education*, 17(3), pp. 251–264.

Middlehurst, R., Goreham, H. and Woodfield, S. (2009) 'Why Research Leadership in Higher Education? Exploring Contributions from the UK's Leadership Foundation for Higher Education', *Leadership*, 5(3), pp. 311–329.

Middlehurst, R., Kennie, T. and Woodfield, S. (2010) 'Leading and managing the university - presidents and their senior management team', in *International Encyclopedia of Education*, pp. 238–244.

- Mintzberg, H. (1983) *Power in and around organizations*. Prentice-Hall Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Mintzberg, H. (1985) 'The organization as political arena', *Journal of management studies*, 22(2), pp. 133–154.
- Mintzberg, H. (2009) *Managing*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- MOF (2016) *Ministry of Finance Qatar*. Available at: <https://www.mof.gov.qa/en/Pages/defaultHome.aspx> (Accessed: 2 March 2017).
- Moini, J. S., Bikson, T. K., Neu, C. R. and DeSisto, L. (2009) *The Reform of Qatar University*. Monograph. RAND Corporation.
- Molinsky, A. (2007) 'Cross-Cultural Code-Switching: The Psychological Challenges of Adapting Behavior in Foreign Cultural Interactions', *The Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), pp. 622–640.
- Moran, R. T., Harris, P. R. and Moran, S. V. (2011) *Managing cultural differences: global leadership strategies for cross-cultural business success*. Routledge.
- Morse, J. M. (1991) 'Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation.', *Nursing Research*, 40(2), pp. 120–123.
- Mostafa, M. M. and El-Masry, A. (2008) 'Perceived barriers to organizational creativity: A cross-cultural study of British and Egyptian future marketing managers', *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 15(1), pp. 81–93.
- Muna, F. A. (1980) *The Arab Executive*. St. Martin's Press.
- Muna, F. A. (2003) *Seven metaphors on management: Tools for managers in the Arab world*. Gower Publishing Company.
- Nadler, D. A. and Tushman, M. L. (1990) 'Beyond the charismatic leader: Leadership and organization change', *California Management Review*, 32(2), pp. 77–97.
- Naithani, P. and Jha, a. N. (2010) 'Challenges Faced by Expatriate Workers in Gulf Cooperation Council Countries', *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(1), p. P98.
- Najat, B.-S., Robert, M., Scott, O. and William, S.-J. (2016) *Qatar Employment Report Insights for 2016*. Oxford Strategic Consulting. Available at: <http://www.oxfordstrategicconsulting.com>.
- Nguyen, T. L. H. (2013) 'Barriers to and facilitators of female Deans' career advancement in higher education: An exploratory study in Vietnam', *Higher Education*, 66(1), pp. 123–138.
- Northouse, P. G. (2013) *Leadership : theory and practice, Leadership theory and practice*. Sage.
- Northouse, P. G. (2016) *Leadership : theory and practice, Leadership theory and practice*. Sage.
- Oakley, A. (1998) 'Gender, methodology and people's ways of knowing: Some problems with feminism and the paradigm debate in social science', *Sociology*, 32(4), pp. 707–731.
- OBG (2016) *The Report: Qatar 2016*. Oxford Business Group. Available at: <http://www.oxfordbusinessgroup.com/qatar-2016/country-profile>.
- Oliver, P. (2003) *The student's guide to research ethics*. Maidenhead, Philadelphia, Open University Press.
- Orazi, D., Good, L., Robin, M., Van Wanrooy, B., Butar, I. B., Olsen, J. and Gahan, P. (2014) *Workplace leadership*. The University of Melbourne and Centre for Workplace Leadership Review of Research.

- Paechter, C. (2013) 'Researching sensitive issues online: implications of a hybrid insider/outsider position in a retrospective ethnographic study', *Qualitative Research*, 13(1), pp. 71–86.
- Palmberg, K. (2009) *Beyond process management: exploring organizational applications and complex adaptive systems*. Doctoral dissertation, Luleå tekniska universitet.
- Parry, K. W. and Bryman, A. (2006) 'Leadership in Organizations', in *The SAGE handbook of organization studies*. Sage, p. 447.
- Parry, K. W. and Bryman, A. (2013) 'Leadership in Organisations', in *The Sage Handbook of Organisational Studies*. Sage, pp. 447–468.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002) 'Qualitative interviewing', *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Sage Thousand Oaks, CA, 3, pp. 344–347.
- Patton, R. D. (1961) 'Editorial: The department chairman', *Journal of Higher Education*, 32(8), pp. 459–461.
- Peters, K. and Ryan, M. K. (2015) *Higher Education Leadership and Management Survey (HELMs)*, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Peters, K. and Ryan, M. K. (2015) 'Motivating and developing leaders'.
- Pfeffer, J. (1989) 'A political perspective on careers: interests, networks, and environments, M. G. Arthur, D. T. Hall & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.) Handbook', in *Handbook of career theory*. 1st ed. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press., pp. 380–396.
- Pfeffer, J. (1992) *Managing with power: Politics and influence in organizations*. Harvard Business Press.
- Pini, B. (2005) 'Interviewing men: Gender and the collection and interpretation of qualitative data', *Journal of Sociology*, 41(2), pp. 201–216.
- Pounder, J. S. (2001) "'New leadership" and university organisational effectiveness: exploring the relationship', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(6), pp. 281–290.
- Qatar Supreme Education Council (2011) *Education and Training Sector Strategy 2011 - 2016 Executive Summary*.
- QU (2014) *Qatar University Human Resources Strategy and Work plan 2011 - 2014*.
Qatar University <http://www.qu.edu.qa/>
- Rahim, M. A. and Afza, M. (1993) 'Leader power, commitment, satisfaction, compliance, and propensity to leave a job among US accountants', *The journal of social psychology*, 133(5), pp. 611–625.
- Rahman, H. (2005) *The Emergence of Qatar: The Turbulent Years, 1627-1916*. Routledge.
- Raines, S. C. (2003) 'The Role of Professional Development in Preparing Academic Leaders', *New Directions for Higher Education*, (124), pp. 33–39.
- Ramsden, P. (1998) *Influences on academic work: learning to lead in higher education*. London: Routledge.
- Randeree, K. (2008) 'Ethical Leadership from Islamic Perspectives: A Model for Social and Organisational Justice', *The International Journal of the Humanities*, 6(4), pp. 49–53.
- Randeree, K. and Ghaffar Chaudhry, A. (2012) 'Leadership–style, satisfaction and commitment: An exploration in the United Arab Emirates' construction sector', *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 19(1), pp. 61–85.
- Rapley, T. J. (2001) 'The art (fulness) of open-ended interviewing: Some considerations on analysing interviews', *Qualitative Research*, 1(3), pp. 303–323.

- Rees, C. and Althakhri, R. (2008) 'Organizational change strategies in the Arab region: A review of critical factors', *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 9(February 2014), pp. 37–41.
- Rhoads, R. A. and Tierney, W. G. (1992) *Cultural Leadership in Higher Education*. ERIC.
- Riley, T. A. and Russell, C. (2013) 'Leadership in Higher Education Examining Professional Development Needs for Department Chairs', *Intellectbase International Consortium*, 6(21), pp. 38–57.
- Robbins, S. P. and Judge, T. A. (1993) *Organization behaviour*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Robson, C. (2002) *Real world research. 2nd Edition*. Blackwell Publishing. Malden.
- Rose, G. (1997) 'Situating knowledges: positionality, reflexivities and other tactics', *Progress in Human Geography*. Sage Publications, 21(3), pp. 305–320.
- Ross, C. E. and Mirowsky, J. (1984) 'Socially-Desirable Response and Acquiescence in a Cross-Cultural Survey of Mental Health', *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 25(2), pp. 189–197.
- Roulston, K. and Lewis, J. B. (2003) 'Learning to interview in the social sciences', *Qualitative Inquiry*. Sage Publications, 9(4), pp. 643–668.
- Rowley, D. J. and Sherman, H. (2003) "The special challenges of academic leadership", *Management Decision*, 41(3), pp. 1058–1063.
- Rowley, J. (1997) 'Academic leaders: made or born?', *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 29(3), pp. 78–84.
- Rubin, H. J. and Rubin, I. S. (2011) *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Sage.
- Sala, F. (2003) 'Leadership in education: Effective UK college principals', *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 14(2), pp. 171–189.
- Sarros, J. C., Wolverton, M., Gmelch, W. H. and Wolverton, M. L. (1999) 'Stress in academic leadership: US and Australian department chairs/heads', *The Review of Higher Education*, 22(2), pp. 165–185.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012) *Research Methods for Business Students*. Prentice Hall.
- Schein, E. H. (2010) *Organizational culture and leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Schuler, T. (1995) *The changing university ?* Edited by T. Schuler. The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Pres.
- Scott-Jackson, W. (2012) *The Gulf Arab Leadership Style A source of global competitive advantage*. Oxford Strategic Consulting.
- Scott, D. and Usher, R. (2010) *Researching education: Data, methods and theory in educational enquiry*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Scott, G., Bell, S., Coates, H. and Grebennikov, L. (2010) 'Australian higher education leaders in times of change: the role of Pro Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor', *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 32(4), pp. 401–418.
- Scott, G., Coates, H. and Anderson, M. (2008) *Learning leadership in times of change: Academic Leadership Capabilities for Australian Higher Education*. The Carrick Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education Ltd.
- Seagren, A. T. (1993) *The Department Chair: New Roles, Responsibilities and Challenges*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1. ERIC.
- Seedorf, R. G. (1993) 'Department Level Leadership: Where Does the Time Go?.', *Journal for Higher Education Management*, 9(1), pp. 53–63.

- Seidman, I. (2006) *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York, NY: The Teacher College Press.
- Shahmandi, E., Silong, A. D., Ismail, I. A., Samah, B. B. A. and Othman, J. (2011) 'Competencies, roles and effective academic leadership in world class university', *International Journal of Business Administration*, 2(1), p. 44.
- Sirkis, J. E. (2011) 'Development of leadership skills in community college department chairs', *The Community College Enterprise*, 17(2), p. 46.
- Smith, J. A. (1995) 'Semi-Structured Interviewing and Qualitative Analysis' In J.. A Smith; R. Harré and L. Van Langenhove: *Rethinking Methods in Psychology*, pp. 9-26'. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Smith, P., Achoui, M. and Harb, C. (2007) 'Unity and diversity in Arab managerial styles', *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 7(3), pp. 275–289.
- Smith, R. (2002) 'The Role of the University Head of Department: A Survey of Two British Universities', *Educational Management & Administration*, 30(3), pp. 293–312.
- Smith, Z. A. and Wolverton, M. (2010) 'Higher education leadership competencies: Quantitatively refining a qualitative model', *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 17(1), pp. 61–70.
- Snyder, M. (1979) 'Self-monitoring processes', *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 12, pp. 85–128.
- Spendlove, M. (2007) 'Competencies for effective leadership in higher education', *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(5), pp. 407–417.
- Spillane, J. P. and Sherer, J. Z. (2004) 'A distributed perspective on school leadership: Leadership practice as stretched over people and place', in *Annual meeting of the American education association*, San Diego, CA.
- Stake, R. E. (1995) *The art of case study research*. Sage.
- Stewart, G. L., Courtright, S. H. and Manz, C. C. (2011) 'Self-leadership: A multilevel review', *Journal of Management*, 37(1), pp. 185–222.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1950) 'Leadership, membership and organization.', *Psychological Bulletin*, 47(1), pp. 1–14.
- Strathe, M. I. and Wilson, V. W. (2006) 'Academic leadership: The pathway to and from', *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2006(134), pp. 5–13.
- Suwaidi, M. Al (2008) 'When An Arab Executive Says "Yes": Identifying Different Collectivistic Values That Influence The Arabian Decision-Making Process'. Available at: http://repository.upenn.edu/od_theses_msod/19.
- Taylor, J. and De Lourdes Machado, M. (2006) 'Higher education leadership and management: From conflict to interdependence through strategic planning', *Tertiary Education and Management*, 12(2), pp. 137–160.
- Taylor, J. S. and Machado-Taylor, M. D. L. (2010) 'Leading Strategic Change in Higher Education: The need for a paradigm shift toward visionary leadership', *At the Interface / Probing the Boundaries*, 72, pp. 167–194.
- Tellis, W. M. (1997) 'Application of a case study methodology', *The qualitative report*, 3(3), pp. 1–19.
- Thomas, G., Martin, R. and Riggio, R. E. (2013) 'Leading groups: Leadership as a group process', *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 16, pp. 3–16.
- Tierney, W. G. (1988) 'Organizational culture in higher education: Defining the essentials', *The Journal of Higher Education*, 59(1), pp. 2–21.

- Tourish, D. (2012) *Leadership development within the UK higher education system: Its impact on organisational performance, and the role of evaluation*. London, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.
- Trainor, A. A. and Graue, E. (2013) *Reviewing qualitative research in the social sciences*. Routledge.
- Tucker, A. (1981) *Chairing the academic department: Leadership among peers*. American Council on Education.
- Tucker, A. (1984) 'Chairing the Academic Department'. New York: American Council on Education'. MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Tucker, A. and Bryan, R. A. (1991) *The academic dean: Dove, dragon, and diplomat*. ERIC.
- Turnbull, S. and Edwards, G. (2005) 'Leadership development for organizational change in a new UK university', *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(3), pp. 396–413.
- Vroom, V. H. and Jago, A. G. (2007) 'The role of the situation in leadership.', *The American Psychologist*, 62(1), pp. 17-24–7.
- Walker, L. (2014) *Unemployed Qataris Cite Lack of Job Opportunities*, *Doha News*. Available at: <https://dohanews.co/job-seeking-qataris-cite-lack-job-opportunities/> (Accessed: 2 May 2016).
- Warren, C. A. B. (2002) 'Qualitative interviewing in J. F. Gubrium and J. A. Holstein (eds)', in *Handbook of Interview Research, Context and Method*. London: Sage Publications.
- Webb, K. S. (2008) 'Creating satisfied employees in Christian higher education: Research on leadership competencies', *Christian Higher Education*, 8(1), pp. 18–31.
- Wergin, J. F. (2003) *Departments That Work: Building and Sustaining Cultures of Excellence in Academic Programs*. ERIC.
- Wheeler, D. W. (2016) 'Academics as Chairs: Succeeding in the Position', *Department Chair*, 26(4), pp. 24–25.
- Whitaker, B. (2011) *What's really wrong with the Middle East*. Saqi.
- Wild, L. L., Ebbers, L. H., Shelley, M. C. and Gmelch, W. H. (2003) 'Stress factors and community college deans: The stresses of their role identified', *Community College Review*, 31(3), pp. 1–23.
- Williams, C. L. and Heikes, E. J. (1993) 'The importance of researcher's gender in the in-depth interview: Evidence from two case studies of male nurses', *Gender & Society*, 7(2), pp. 280–291.
- Winchester, H. P. M. (1996) 'Ethical Issues in Interviewing as a Research Method in Human Geography', *Australian Geographer*, 27(1), pp. 117–131.
- Wolverton, M., Ackerman, R. and Holt, S. (2005) 'Preparing for Leadership: What Academic Department Chairs Need to Know', *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 27(2), pp. 227–238.
- Wursten, H. (2008) 'Intercultural Issues in Outsourcing', *Intercultural Management*, pp. 1–12.
- Yielder, J. and Codling, A. (2004) 'Management and Leadership in the Contemporary University', *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 26(3), pp. 315–328.
- Yin, R. K. (1984) *Case study research: Design and methods*. Beverley Hills Ca: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2003) *Case Study Research. Design and Methods*. SAGE Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2013) *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage publications.

- Yousef, D. A. (1998) 'Predictors of decision-making styles in a non-western country', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 19(7), pp. 366–373.
- Yukl, G. (1994) *Leadership in organizations (3rd ed.)*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G. (2010) *Leadership in Organizations*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Yukl, G. (2013) *Leadership in Organizations Global Edition*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Yukl, G. and Falbe, C. M. (1991) 'Importance of different power sources in downward and lateral relations.', *Journal of Applied Psychology*. American Psychological Association, 76(3), p. 416.
- Zhang, L. and Wu, Z. (2010) 'Chairing academic departments: Disciplinary cultures and communication strategies', in *2010 International Conference on Education and Management Technology (ICEMT 2010)* .

Appendix A

Appendix A.1: Topic Guide and Initiating Questions

The interview is to cover the following areas:

Taking on the role Head of Department in the case university:

Questions in this area were intended to obtain information about the methods of appointment, selection criteria and years of service in the position, and individual experience on taking on the role of HoD; opportunities, challenges and motivations were also considered. For faculty who did not have a previous experience as a HoD, questions in this area were phrased in a slightly different way (for example, participants were asked what they thought their head was struggling with, what were the main challenges they faced, did they think there were some advantages or opportunities in taking on the role and did they think a HoD should be appointed and how long should they serve in the position).

Essentials elements of leadership:

The researcher aimed to obtain information about the essential characteristics, skills, knowledge and abilities that HoDs should possess to lead effectively in HE, as perceived by different participants. The same questions were posed in each interview.

Heads as Faculty advocate:

Questions in this area guided participants to discuss his/her views about the role of HoDs in relation to academic faculty. The participants were expected to share his/her views of how they were being led and to discuss their experiences; they discussed whether things should be changed (faculty group), or how they are leading the department in terms of their role a faculty advocate (HoD group), and how they should lead the academic department considering their role in relation to academic faculty (senior group).

Training and future developments are needed for Heads of Department:

The participants were questioned about the training needs required for departmental leaders to perform effectively in the case university and whether there were some developments taking place or areas where improvement was needed.

Appendix A.2: Examples of questions to be asked; for all participants but phrased differently according to status and experience:

To HoD

Taking on the role Head of Department in the case university

- How did you get appointed to the position? What were the criteria when you were selected? Were you nominated or appointed or elected?
- How long have you been holding the post? How long have you been serving in this position?
- Leadership in the University setting has been described as “influencing and/or monitoring others towards the accomplishment of departmental goals” (Bryman, 2007). How does this fit in with your own experience of leading in Qatar University?
- Serving as a HOD, what are the pleasant and unpleasant duties that you perform? Or what do you enjoy most as a HOD?
- What do you think are the main challenges facing leadership today in HEIs?
- In preparing for a leadership position, what knowledge, skills and attitudes do you think are fundamental to being successful?

Training and development

- What training needs would you consider to be absolutely necessary for HODs before they are appointed to their position?
- Have you received or do you receive any formal leadership training that is relevant to your role?
- Are there any areas that you may want to get more training to enhance the overall performance?

Heads as a Faculty advocate

- How do you build a relationship with your staff?
- What is the main challenge you face in managing and leading your people, particularly to achieve the University’s goals?
- How do you improve your faculty quality?
- How do you care about your staff as individuals? How do you encourage learning and professional developments for your staff?
- Do you have formal performance targets and measures that apply to your staff?
- What strategies have you found effective to promote good communications with your faculty members?
- How do you keep your staff informed about what is happening in your department?
- When a problem occurs; what problem-solving steps have you found effective?
- What strategies do you use that make you gain the commitment of staff?
- When you delegate an important task to one of your faculty members, how do you usually ensure that the task will be completed successfully?
- How do you usually try to convince and persuade others? Would you think of a time when you had to convince a member of your staff to accept a new task? How did you do that?
- How would you show trust and confidence in the others’ abilities to undertake the task?

Management

- How do you manage change and how do you deal with resistance?
- What do you think are the main factors to sustain a healthy collegial environment and to ensure that conflict is less likely to occur?
- When you set new roles for developing and implementing strategy, do you think your staff should be involved?
- How do you seek to influence senior University leaders in support of your Department?
- Think about the most effective leader that you have ever encountered; what are the characteristics of that person that are relevant to his or her effectiveness?
- When you look for potential leadership talent in those faculty who report to you, what are the characteristics that you have found most predictive of success?
- What is the most significant change you have brought to your staff or department? And how did you achieve that?
- How would you describe your style of leadership?
-

To Senior Leaders and Deans:

- When HODs are appointed to their position, what are the main criteria for selecting them?
- Do you believe the HOD should be elected or appointed? If they are appointed, should it be internal or external to the department? What other criteria do you believe are important in selecting a new HOD?
- How long should a HOD normally serve in that role?
- What do you think are the main challenges facing leadership in higher education institutions? And which are particularly faced by HODs?
- In what ways do you think that HODs can be more effective in leading departments? What strengths do you think they should bring to their leadership role?

Traits

- In preparing for a leadership position, what knowledge, skills and abilities do you think are fundamental in being an effective and successful leader?

Training

- What training needs would you consider to be absolutely necessary for HODs before they are appointed to their position?
- If I was designing a training leadership programme for the HODs within your College to develop their skills, what content would you want to include in this programme?

Knowledge and skills

- What kind of behaviours and skills have you found that distinguish the most effective or successful HOD in your College from the less successful?
- What skills, knowledge and attitudes do you think are needed for the success of HOD leadership?

Faculty development

- How should a Head of Department help to develop the quality of their faculty?
- What role do you think HODs should play in supporting staff for their academic and professional development?
- If you were introducing a new policy for your HODs and you knew it would face some opposition from their staff, what do think would be the best way for the HOD to handle it? What skills and abilities should they demonstrate to ensure

implementation?

- In your opinion, what are the most effective ways that a HOD can use to communicate goals and expectations with their faculty members?

To Faculty:

- How would you describe the leadership style of your HOD? Do you think there are other styles or practices that she/he could adopt to be more effective in her/his role?
- As a faculty member; what kind of care do you wish to receive from your HOD that could impact positively on you serving in this department?
- What type of care and encouragement do you wish to receive from your HOD? Why this type in particular?
- What methods does your HOD use to communicate with you (for example, face- to - face telephone, email, textsetc.) and what do you think is the most effective way?
- In preparing for leadership positions, what knowledge, skills and abilities do you think are fundamental in being an effective and successful leader?
- In what ways, do you think, a HOD can be more effective in leading their department?
- What do you think are the main challenges facing leadership in higher education institutions?
- To what extent do you think that your HOD has provided you with what you need for your academic professional career?