

**AN EXAMINATION OF THE ABILITY OF THE HEADS OF
DEPARTMENT TO MAKE DECISIONS IN LIBYAN
UNIVERSITIES**

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ABSTRACT

The overarching purpose of this study is to discover the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in universities in Libya. This was accomplished through the examination of three main aims: firstly, to examine the level of department heads' ability to make decisions; Secondly, to determine the level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to certain fields of study including the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication; and thirdly, and finally, to examine if there are any differences in the level of department heads' ability to make decisions attributed to the variables of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization.

The data collection tools consisted of two main dimensions including one hour interviews with 11 heads of department in Libyan universities and a questionnaire distributed to heads of department in Libyan Universities. The semi-structured interviews included two phases with initial interviews carried out with 11 heads of department at Libyan Universities during the summer of 2008. The researcher then undertook further in-depth interviews that were carried out during the summer of 2009 with the same 11 heads of department at Libyan universities in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny. Over the course of reading some of the interviews, the researcher analyzed the statements that reflected the respondents' actions and views. The questionnaire distributed to heads of department in Libyan universities included a total sample of 500 heads of department and questionnaires were handed out and collected in person by the researcher. The response rate was high with 448 completed questionnaires collected in addition to 2 forms that were returned without being completed. All statistical analyses of the data were accomplished using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) software (version 16).

As will be revealed in the presentation of findings provided later in this study, the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high and the most important factor which helped the heads of department to make good decisions in Libyan universities was perceived to be the length of experience as a head of department. All heads of department felt that they

demonstrated a high level of ability to make decisions according to the fields of the study, which included the decision-making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. However, all heads believed that there were differences in decision-making ability according to such factors as gender, age group, and whether a scientific or humanities based departments.

It is suggested that the results of the study may help in developing education administration and management at universities in Libya and internationally. Recommendations for practice are provided including the suggestions that better selection and training of heads of department are crucial if the ability of heads of department to make decisions is to be improved.

It should be noted that the study relied on the perceptions of the heads of department and although respondents noted comparatively few differences in the quality of decision-making ability based on the level of qualification or training there was a strong consensus that good decision making was contingent upon level of experience. Findings suggest that more rigorous pre-service and in-service training will enable heads of department to act with confidence in their decision making from an earlier point in their career. Moreover, the researcher proposes that best practice in other developed systems of higher education suggests that heads of department in Libyan universities require more systematic training in the softer leadership and management skills relating to human resource management.

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Chapter one

Introduction

1.1 SETTING THE SCENE

The research reported in this study focuses on the ability of the heads of department to make decisions at universities in Libya. The importance of this topic is related to the fact that higher education is an instrument of change and reform in all spheres of life among nations old and new and heads of department are one the key drivers of change in modern Universities (Ibraheem, 2008; Badri, 2007).

In recent years there has been an enormous growth of interest in the activity of department management and a growing recognition that educational institutions need to be managed (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989). More specifically, the need for higher education institutions to better adapt to the demands of rapidly changing societies is recognized in many countries. This is especially true in developing countries such as Libya (Badri, 2003). Adaptation and change in higher education institutions can be facilitated by the presence of clear goals, where the assistance of higher education senior administrators can contribute enormously in developing the education (Saber, 1994). Consequently, the achievement of organizational goals in higher education institutions depends greatly on the ability of administrators to work together effectively and professionally (Gonzalez, 2004). Moreover, Ibraheem (1990) states that, in order to maximize organizational goals, higher education senior administrators must give particular attention to rational activities such as establishing systems for communicating directions to those who will implement the decisions, and constantly compare outcomes to objectives (Ibraheem, 1990).

Becher and Kogan (1992) argue that higher education systems typically comprise four distinct tiers: the central authorities; individual institutions; basic units and individuals. The central authorities include both governmental and quasi-autonomous bodies. Within individual universities are located several basic units. They are characterized as having academic responsibility for an identifiable course or group of courses, controlling their own operating budgets and exercising some element of choice in the recruitment of professional colleagues, and often also of students. The category 'individuals' incorporates both academic and non-academic staff, together with students (Becher and Trowler, 2001, p.19).

During the World Conference on Higher Education (1998), the goal of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was to create favorable conditions for a sweeping debate and to increase awareness of the principal issues in this important field (The World Conference on Higher Education, 1998). Higher Education Staff Development: A continuing mission to development staff skills was one of the themes of those debates (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1998). In addition, UNESCO (1998) noted that in businesses there is a wide recognition that staff skills need to be continually strengthened and enhanced (Gonzalez, 2004, p.20). Till (1979) suggests that higher education is one of the stages of education which assists in nation building and general societal development (Till, 1979, p.13).

The issues outlined above highlight the fact that higher education institutions such as Libyan Universities need to have effective management in order to achieve their objectives. This requires universities to prepare efficacious organizational structures to

obtain these aims. Furthermore, the researcher argues that heads of department play a crucial role in the effective operation of the work of departments, requiring not only subject knowledge and teaching expertise but also the ability to manage and lead a team (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989, p.3). Moreover, Adey and Jones (1998) confirm that there is a lack of training for heads of department and they add that such heads of department tend to be appointed on the basis of proven teaching skills, which need not be good predictors of skilled leadership (Adey and Jones, 1998).

For these reasons it is clear that the ability of leaders in education to make decisions is crucial to the further development of a high quality educational system and heads of department should be good managers as well as distinguished academics. Moreover, Eley went further to say that if an individual did not possess both attributes, then the qualities of managerial capability should be given priority in the future selection of the heads of department (Eley, 1994). One may presume, therefore, that the effectiveness of the adopted decisions is based on the individuals who manage and lead the organization (Almyheedi, 1994). Thus, heads of department in universities, as with all departments in the wider sphere, are considered to be one of the best human elements since they occupy the leading positions in their institutions and run the smallest organizational units in the universities. Therefore, it becomes necessary to improve their ability to make decisions in order to develop the mechanism of scientific and pedagogic work in all departments (Mahdi, 1988). Since this is the case, the researcher could have focused on heads of all departments but for reasons of sample size the researcher chose to select heads of department as a focus for an analysis of the extent of their ability to make decisions. It is this that researcher will investigate.

Thus, this study aims to identify the level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions in Libyan Universities through an examination of the activities that such leaders undertake in order to achieve their desired objectives. More specifically, the study focused on the ways in which such heads of department influence staff members of the department and other staff. Further, the study attempted to assess the ability to guide behaviour and motivation through use of the concept of decision-making. Crucial elements for examination include the stages of decision-making, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control and communication. All of which are measured by the tools of the study. The study employs both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny.

1.2 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN LIBYA

Gniah (2004) notes that the educational system in Libya has had a short duration of breakthrough compared to many States and other nations and did not start its development until the so-called independence in the early nineteen-fifties of the last century.

In addition, Libya was suffering from numerous physical and human constraints due to circumstances the economic and social living conditions of the country, which then influenced at all different levels of education was limited in its spread even for the country's large cities such as Tripoli and Benghazi, let alone rural countryside and villages, until the early sixties of the last century because of the weakness and lack of economic resources (Badri, 2004).

However, Mninah (1995) notes that with improved economic conditions resulting from the discovery of oil in the late 1950s the commencement of exportation, combined with the desire among members of the society to have access to educational opportunities of which they were deprived during the long periods of colonialism abhorrent begun to improve economic conditions, even as simple which is reflected in the spread of education the country (Mninah, 1995).

Altear (2004) points out that with the start of the revolution in 1969 a momentum was created to build a society based on scientific evidence that would rely heavily on education as an essential element for the development of the community that would rise out of the cycle of underdevelopment. This increased interest in education and increased numbers of students enrolled in all stages of education from the elementary to the tertiary level since it is now free of charge to all members of society through the application of the principle of equal educational opportunities (Altear, 2004). The current education system in Libya follows a 6—3—3 pattern for the general and technical, pre-university education (Badri, 2007). Moreover, the primary stage begins at age 6 and continues for 6 years, followed by 3 years of preparatory school. Secondary school follows and, after 3 years, successful candidates receive a General secondary School certificate, or in the case of technical school a diploma (Kmakem, 1985). In addition, there is a training/vocational branch that follows a preparatory cycle and lasts for 2 or 4 years (Aisawy, 2005). Those who pass with sufficiently high marks can, if they wish, advance to higher education that is provided by 16 institutions, nine universities and seven higher learning institutes (Arabsheibani and Manfor, 2001).

Almanswry (2005) notes that in the education sector studies indicate that the Libyan human development sector has about 11% of total spending on the development budget during the development plans 1973/1985, about 51.7% during the period 1986/1996 in the education aspect of human development studies indicate that 37% of Libyan society are students sitting studying at the levels and different educational stages (Almanswry, 2005).

In addition to the preparation of the education group in the education sector, and noted that about 41% of the population in Libya engrossed in the educational process in one way or another (Aldwiby, 2002). Furthermore, indicators on the evolution of balance and change improvement of the education structure of the population Libyans are escalating rates of school enrolment net in the age group of school age 6-24 years as a result of the expansion of the educational base and providing an appropriate environment where increased enrolment within each age group at rates significantly (Libya's Forum for Human Development, 2007). As a result, the number of university students has increased from 13.418 students in 1975-1976 to 269.302 during 1999-2000 academic years. There appears to be an imbalance between enrolment in humanities and arts; and basic sciences and technology (Alhwat, 2005).

Ganem (2002) maintained that approximately 35.4% of students aged 18-24 were enrolled in universities and higher vocational programmes (Ganem, 2002). The total number of students registered at different educational levels in Libya was 1.786.270 in 1996 representing 40.3% of the population (El Hawat, 2003). The university is managed by the university's people's committee, which is led by a secretary (Dean). Faculties are managed in the same way (National Documentation and Information,

1991). Furthermore, each head of department is a member in the faculty's people's committee, and each secretary of a faculty's people's committee is a member of the university's people's committee. The students are also members of people's committee (Attir, 1985). They handle many matters relating to students' lives, associations, and unions in the universities (El Hawat, 2003).

1.3 HIGHER EDUCATION IN LIBYA

The university of Libya is a state institution and is supported financially exclusively by the central government (Altear, 2004). Moreover, it is semi-independent, and a board of governors is responsible for setting down the general policies and the administration of its affairs (Azwai, 1999). However, ultimate control by the state is insured through three main devices. First, the chairman of the board of governors is the minister of education; second, the rector is appointed by the government and the recommendation of the minister of education; and third, important decisions and appointments have to be approved by the minister of education. In actual practice, however, except in the some academic cases, the university is usually left alone to administer its affairs (Qubain, 1979, p.417).

Currently, the chief executive of the university is responsible for its administration and the implementation of its policies. He also compiles the university budget and presents it to the board for approval (Elkabir, 1980). In effect; they are also responsible for the recruitment and appointment of the members of the faculty after consultation with the deans and approval by the board (Qubain, 1979). College Deans are still appointed rather than elected by the faculty. They must be Libyans; they wield considerable

influence and enjoy almost complete freedom in the administration of their respective colleges (Qubain, 1979).

Alhawwat (2003) has noted that Libya's higher education is financed by the public budget. In 1998, the budget allocated for education represented 38.2% of the national budget and was estimated to be approximately 0.4%GNP in 1992 (Alhawwat, 2003, p.2). As a result of the growing number of university students, and the resulting pressure on the public budget, Libya's higher education policy allowed the local public administration (shabiat) and the private sector to establish university colleges and higher education institutes (alhawat, 2003). Consistent with National Documentation and Information (1991) the local administration manages financial resources for its higher education institutes from local community sources, and in the case of the private sector, the state assumes no financial obligations at all (National Documentation and Information, 1991).

Private higher education institutes must be totally financed by individual or group investors (Kaufman, 2004). In addition, during the period 1997-2000, the local administration authorities established more than five private universities (Alhawwat, 2003, p.3). Clark (2004) notes that the growth in female student enrolment in higher education is a positive aspect of the Libyan educational policy (Clark, 2004). Consequently, the number of female students has increased dramatically. During the academic year 1980-2000, female students reached 51% in addition to female students enrolled in higher technical (Alhawwat, 2003, p.5). Alhawwat (1996) notes that priority is given to education in general higher education, which began in the mid-fifties of the last century some colleges such as literary arts, economics and law, which established

the city of Benghazi between colleges scientific and started the faculty of sciences 1955-1962 established the city of Tripoli in 1957 (Alhawat, 1996). Since then higher education began to expand to reach a total of fifty universities and major universities branches, departments and institutes of higher application of the philosophy of horizontal expansion in higher education to be provide for all who want without trouble (Algrad, 2004). Furthermore, discrimination and the elimination of some ancient cultural attitudes that impede movement women and relocated to a place away from the original set up headquarters (Badri, 1993; Magwri, 2004).

In accordance with the General Secretariat of Justice, 2007; Ministry of Higher Education, 2008 the administration of higher education seeks to achieve the following:

- a) Developing and strengthen the science and knowledge to serve the development and the development of Libyan society and contribute to the progress and prosperity of civilization.
- b) Activating the movement of scientific research and technological development, and expand the base of national consultations and consulting firms in all disciplines scientific, technical and humanitarian.
- c) Help educational institutions, academic and other institutions of society in the sufficiency of qualified national elements.
- d) Closer interaction and communication between academic and educational institutions on one hand, and research and development institutions and other institutions of society actors on the other.
- e) Contribute to the study of scientific and technical issues relating to developmental aspects of the society in all areas, and propose solutions to the problems facing the

plans and projects of development and hinder the implementation (The General Secretariat of Justice, 2007, p.1; Ministry of Higher Education, 2008, p.3).

Management efficiency depends on the efficiency of leaders' university administrators, so it was their choice and their numbers according to clear concepts most important in the management process (Hmamy, 1985; Alaisy, 2005). The level of such leadership and its ability to perform its functions is one of the key factors that could make the university a privileged position scientifically and administratively, or a bad scientifically (Hlwan and Alsban, 1992). Therefore, heads must look to the future and survive the present (Ramsden, 2000). If the administrative process is a fundamental aspect of the activities of the selection process of community leaders and administrators' numbers become captive philosophy society (Hassan and Younes, 1990, p.180). In addition, it is a turning point, the transition from idealism perceptions and theoretical frameworks of what must be, to the realism, and scientific vision of what could be the administrative leaders (Alsfalan, 1989). Moreover, Aocnwar (1997) suggests that the head of department must realize the nature of his or her authority, and the difference between the exercise of authority over others and the likely impact of their leadership activities (Aocnwar, 1997, p.43).

Amer and Abdel Wahab (1994) suggest that the greater the ability of the President of academic section of a University, the greater the efficiency of individuals within the department (Amer and Abdel Wahab, 1994). Therefore, each academic section chief needs to possess ability in administrative work, through the knowledge management skills necessary to function at a high level of efficiency (Mahdi 1988; Alsharify, 1988; Alshibany, 1992). As a result, institutions must choose leaders and administrators of

the type and in the numbers required to enable society to progress (Ghanam, 1984, p.84).

The scientific symposium organized by the Arab Center for Educational Research for the Gulf states with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education (1984) noted that the selection and training cadres leadership in the administration of university extremely important (Mohamed, 1984). Therefore, preparation and leadership development became a central objective of the in the Management Development of Universities (Hrbay and Yunus, 1984). The selection of the heads of department for the administration of universities in Libya based on the method of selection by popularity committees (Shcliah, 1980, p.18). Therefore, each section requires scientific leadership to have effective administrative capacity and investment resources needs to take place to achieve goals and objectives (Chanqer, 1990, p.129).

Ramsden (2000) stated that the development of leaders in formal positions can only be effective if the university provides the organizational conditions in which leadership can be effectively exercised at the level of head of department (Ramsden, 2000). Therefore, the researcher will examine the ability to make decisions by the heads of department at universities in Libya.

1.4 THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE UNIVERSITY: CONCEPTS AND THE PRINCIPLES

in proportion to many writers on the English and North American systems there has been a move to what Hoggett calls post-bureaucratic control (Hoggett, 1991, p.244), a form of 'new public management'. Within university institution this has meant the

development of corporate strategies, strong central management teams, and a proliferation of cross-institutional support units concerned with quality assurance, teaching and learning, staff development and so on. The result has been to shift the focus away from the academic department in terms of initiatives and to impose a greater scrutiny of the department's documents, practices and policies from the centre, including the appointment of committees to monitor departmental research activities and strategies (Patrick and Stanley, 1996). As maintained by Henkel (1997) increasingly departments and academics are expected to meet corporately determined standards. This has important impacts on the distribution of power in universities: 'A senior administrator spoke of central audit giving him the authority to "open the black box" of academic decision making and to see to it that academics could justify the procedures that they had' (Becher and Trowler, 2001, p.11).

Managing higher education institutions is considered crucial for the development of communities (Alglaly, 2004, p.344). The university administration plays a vital role in achieving the goals that the university, the faculty and the department seek to fulfill (Alfhdawy, 2001, p.38). Alsawy and Albstan (1999) point out that university management can be defined as "a purposeful and flexible leading educational activity that depends on the processes of planning, organization, direction, surveillance and appraisal in order to achieve the intended university goals with maximum efficiency and minimum effort" (Alsawy and Albstan, 1999, p. 219). In addition, the university management like other administrations is a system that includes three basic elements; the human being; the physical element and the goals to be achieved through the two previous elements (Mahmod, 1992). These elements are in interactive and dynamic state so, it is a continuous process performed by specialists who work in coordinative

and comprehensive way in order to achieve the university general goals (Alabbar, 2001).

As stated by Almaheeny (1984) in order to fulfill the competence in the university administration, the following should be stressed; the human relationships between all the employees and teaching staff members, following the democratic way in making decisions, determining eligibility and responsibilities of each individual, depending on the scientific method in every planned project, opening the way for capabilities and individual creativity, and objectivity in promotion: Indeed leaders must be objective with all employees and depend on fixed bases and standards (Almaheeny, 1984; Alsawy and Albstan, 1999). Equally, Madcor (2000) has said that, the university as an administrative institution perform its work in a societal medium with special nature and the individual who works in this medium must feel that there is mutual confidence between him and the administration of the institution in which he works as well as there is mutual interest in order to do the demanded effort for achieving the mutual goals (Madcor, 2000).

Gmaid (2004) has posited that university administration does not differ from other types of administrations in terms of key principles but it has special characteristics that makes it of special nature in its goals, activities, components, and output that centered on the preparing the human being who is capable to participate actively in the life (Gmaid, 2004). Further the U.S. Department of Labor (2007) states that education administrators hold leadership positions with significant responsibility. Most find working with students extremely rewarding, but as the responsibilities of administrators have increased in recent years, so has stress. Coordinating and

interacting with faculty, parents, students, community members, business leaders, and State and local policymakers can be fast-paced and stimulating, but also stressful and demanding. The Principals and assistant principals, have varied duties which include staff and student discipline and they are also increasingly being held accountable for ensuring that their universities meet recently imposed State and Federal guidelines for student performance and teacher qualifications (U.S. Department of Labour, 2007).

The concept of the university as a "learning organisation" is considered a key conceptual element in the study. The main emphasis will be on information about theories, insights, and procedures of modern organisational development with special focus on: (a) theory and practice of "learning organisations"; (b) acquisition and transfer of knowledge and information; (c) change as a process; (d) dealing with conflicts and opposition, and (e) synergetic leadership. As prospective decision makers at all levels in academic self-governance and administration of higher education institutions, heads should acquire skills required for leadership functions in an organisational context. Knowledge of organisational theory will be examined as well as relevant strategic skills (Alsubeeye, 1994).

Until the second half of the century, the state did not participate in the establishment of universities and decisions about which institutions to expand and which courses to maintain and develop, although their consequences are themselves held to be a reflection of the government's objectives (Becher, 1978, 1980). When governments took less of the country's resources than now, the main question was whether they should increase their role. As they have taken more and more resources, that question has been changing into one of making choices, rejecting one choice in order to be able

to do another. The more that the nature of decisions becomes that of choice, the more important it is for the government and for departments in their own interest to have their database deployed to make the implications of choices clear; and the more important it is to have the information in a form which is suitable for considering what value is obtained for the outlay (Gerald et al, 1973).

The academic landscape of most higher education institutions is one in which momentous challenges are occurring. As student populations continue to expand nation-wide, colleges and universities will continue to offer employment opportunities for those individuals who require improving their quality, so that scholarly practice is necessary for employment. Individuals involved with the institutions of higher learning must develop transformational leadership qualities with commitment, passion, vision, and integrity. Transformational leaders have the ability to change, adapt, and reinvent their own skills and abilities but more importantly, good leaders have the ability to direct and affect others which could be successfully followed by academic progress. Highly effective higher education leaders possess the ability to lead political, symbolic, structural, and human resource frameworks (Basyouni, 1995). Leaders in administrative positions should have the ability to enable and develop the academic level of faculties. Leading with vision in a constantly evolving society is the ultimate success of a higher education leader and the overall success of his or her institution.

Decision makers must have goals and objectives to guide their decision making, whether they are specific, measurable objectives or only loosely defined goals. Without some form of goals or objectives, decision makers have no criteria for evaluating alternatives or selecting a course of action (Cherrington, 1989). In

analysing organizational decision making we need to understand what kinds of decisions need to be made, who should make them, and what organizational procedures are needed to gather information, evaluate alternatives, and implement a decision (Cherrington, 1989).

In conclusion higher education institutions can dramatically improve decision making capabilities by implementing successful decision making processes that address identifiable challenges, set attainable goals and follow the framework of guiding principles and program lifecycle management. Therefore it will be interesting to see what further literature research has discovered over the period of this research project.

1.5 THE LIBYAN UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION

The changes in the higher education system worldwide have caused a growth in the strength and number of forces acting on academic cultures, enhancing the externalist rather than internal character of the influences on them (Becher and Trowler, 2001). Meanwhile changes to the higher education system, the internal character of universities and to the very meaning of higher education have resulted in a highly differentiated, more permeable, system in which close engagement with the disciplinary knowledge core through research is only one academic activity among very many (Becher and Trowler, 2001, p.19).

The first applied system in the first Libyan university was a documentary system based on the combination of bureaucratic and companionate systems and continued following this system for years after the rise of Alfatih revolution (Knaan, 1999,

p.309). The idea of the public committees in the universities as the administrative institutions that must follow the popular way in its administrating was introduced exactly in 1973 (Altawel, 1998). Since that time, the democratic system became the administrative system followed in the higher education institutions (Nseer, 1987).

With the implementation of this system the public committees became the moving tool of the administrations of the higher education institutions (Alfaneesh et al, 1998; Alarafi et al, 1996). The idea of students' administration was introduced into the Libyan universities in 1983 and the rest of the educational institutions and continued until 1987 where the idea of the binary administration between the students and teaching staff members which also continued until 1991 (Alfaneesh, 1999). Then consistent with a resolution issued by the General Public Committee of Higher Education No. 102/1992, the public committees of the universities were combined and reorganized as well as identifying the mechanism of choosing them according democratic standards match with the public administration principles (Alfaneesh et al, 1998; Alteer, 2005).

1.6 THE ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORKS OF THE LIBYAN UNIVERSITIES

Dura & Baera (1989) posits that the organizational framework is like an organizational map that expresses the relationship between the administrative units inside the university frame in order to achieve two important goals; explaining the path of the authority and communication between the different parts of the organization. Thus benefits are gained from the implementation of the principle of specialization by listing the issues related to each form of activity in every separate unit (Dura & Baera, 1989).

In order that the organizational framework of the university performs its role actively, it should have the following features; the ability to clarify all the main activities in the university which are basically represented in the following dimensions; the academic activities represented in the existence of the faculties, academic departments, centre's and units of research in different fields, the activities that represent the relations of the university with its counterpart universities abroad and with the various systems of the state. It should be expressed clearly the dominated philosophy in the society about the degree of independency given to the university from the academic and administrative point of views. The structure of the organizational framework of should enable the university to benefit from the cooperative effect resulted from the reaction of the university inputs with each other which leads to the achievement of the intended goals. Providing the Adequate flexibility to give it the ability to amend it when it is necessary and confronting the urgent changes in the various types of work in the university. It should provide a system for surveillance from inside the university on the various activities in it (Dura & Baeera, 1989).

There are various views about the explanation of the organizational framework of the university in order to show the academic units inside the university (Aladelay, 1993, p.251). As some scholars think that the university should be organized in terms of faculties, others scholars think that the university should be organized on the basis of the scientific departments whereas a third group of scholars thinks that there should be a coupling of both systems in which the faculties remain without iterating the similar departments (Saleh, 1997; Abadri, 2005) indicates that administrative work in the university is divided into two types; academic work which is handled by the academic

system only. Administrative work which is handled by the administrative and academic people.

In addition, the academic system in the university performs some of the administrative works besides the scientific investigative works and it is characterized by having the dominance in the university because it is the pillar of the university and its basic issue while the administrative system performs the administrative and technical works (Zwailef and Aladaila, 1996). It is prepares the suitable medium and the atmosphere for performing the academic work successfully (Saleh, 1997; Alnasry, 2007).

The General Secretariat of Justice (2008) states that the organizational systems at the Libyan universities varies according to the idiosyncrasy of each university, capabilities and circumstances, but in general it does not go further out of its frame that was identified in the resolution No.37 in 1977 and the two resolutions No. 102 in 1991 and No. 663 in 1992 through which the organizational framework of the Libyan universities including their administrative and academic components from higher to lower represented in departments units were clarified (The General Secretariat of Justice, 2008).

1.7 THE PURPOSE, AIMS AND TERMS USED IN THE STUDY

1.7.1 The purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to examine the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in Libyan universities.

1.7.2 The aims of the study

The study aims at identifying the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions, and this accomplished through answering the following questions:

- 1-What is the overall level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions?
- 2- What is the level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions according to the fields of study: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication?
- 3- Are there any differences of the ability of heads of department to make decisions attributed to the variables: scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization?
- 4-What key recommendations can be made for improving practice in decision making by heads of department in Libyan Universities.

1.7.3 Identifying the terms of the study

This study will employ of key terms because that are both necessary and central to the study under scrutiny. An exploration and explanation of these key will be vital for the successful completion of the study. Firstly the notion of ‘capability’ will be employed as an important conceptual element in both research and analysis. According to Youssef (1998) capability is the skill to perform required for the successful conduct of a particular position (Youssef, 1998, p.14). In addition, capability is the ability to do such the mental or physical power or skill that makes it possible to do for example, the ability to make decisions (Oxford University Press, 2006, p.2). As a result capability is the ability to perform any work and the current actual ability to perform a mental or an

intellectual effort under certain conditions. The second key term will be employed is that of 'making decision'. Cooke and Slack (1991) pointed that making a decision is part of the larger process of problem solving and making a decision is the process of choosing the best alternatives in order to achieve certain goals (Cooke and Slack, 1991, p.4). Good decision making is where the decision maker fully understands the background, objective, alternative courses of action, and range of possible consequences of a decision (Cooke and Slack, 1991, p.4). The third key term to be employed in the study is the notion of the academic 'departments'. Departments may be defined by product, market, function, or in personal terms (Bennet, 1994, p.38). Furthermore, a department is an administrative unit which includes a number of researchers and investigators and members of staff who are qualified scientifically and practically. The fourth key term that will be included in the study is the related notion of the 'head of department'. The head of department has overall responsibility for the conduct of the department in accordance with the policies of the institution and the role of the head of department is to provide academic leadership, to encourage and develop excellence in teaching and research, to manage and develop the department, its staff and its activities through the most effective and efficient use of resources within the framework of a general strategic plan (Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009). In the Libyan context the head of department is appointed by council and is responsible to his Dean, and ultimately to the Vice-chancellor, for the management of his department within the organisational, policy and strategic framework established by the university. In carrying out of their responsibilities heads have delegated authority from council (Division of Human Resources, 2006). The head of department in Libyan university is one of the staff of the department but is chosen to manage the administrative and academic affairs of the department. Finally, and crucially, in the

present study, the procedural definition of the 'ability of making decisions' is defined as the degree to which the head of department is able to respond to the positions (attitudes) that the capability tool includes in order to make decisions.

1.8 ORIGINALITY

Universities in developing countries such as Libyan universities are affected by many considerations that can have a negative impact on the University administration and efficiency. The inability of some university leaders to fully understand the fundamentals of planning, regulation and supervision and evaluation has led to a weakening of managing the possibility of objective evaluation of the performance of university administrative and lack of appreciation of the effectiveness and adequacy of accurate. Problems with people centred leadership include slow decision making, possible lack of positive direction, and the fact that certain people are not capable of contributing to decision making or working without close supervision (Bennett, 1994, p.218).

These considerations prompted the researcher to survey 450 and 11 interviews of heads of department to examine their ability to make decisions in the context of their institutions in the absence of hard data about the level of their ability. Therefore, the importance of the current study is established by examining the academic institution in the various organizational units with its administrative, educational and scientific sections of the custodians in the Libyan universities through the disclosure of reality, knowledge and ability to make decisions according to the fields of study. As a result this study may contribute to the improvement of administrative work and development within the university, because in the fact such a study has never been carried out

before in Libya. According to the finding of the study the researcher identified some recommendations for improving practice in decision making by heads of department.

When the researcher reviewed a large amount of literature, as stated earlier, the importance of the study can be summarized as the following:

1. It is necessary to study the university administration in order to identify the problems and shortcomings that it faces specially those concerning the capabilities of workers.
2. It is necessary to study the process of making decisions as they are considered the core of the administrative process and form the basic role of the administrative leader.
3. The results that researcher reached can be useful in identifying the capabilities of the heads of department in making decisions.
4. Higher education has faced the problem of budget cuts or constrained budgets for the past 30 years. Managing the process of the higher education system is, therefore, a crucial and urgent task for the decision makers of universities in order to improve their performance or competitiveness (William et al, 2006).
5. This study provided a new tool that can be used in identifying the ability to make decisions.

1.9 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

According to the aims of the study and the tools that used to collect the data, the researcher has found that the descriptive method is the best. The population of the study consisted of all the heads of the department in the Faculties of Universities in Libya who are *448 heads*. The researcher used two interviews and the questionnaire of

the ability to make decision to collection the data from the sample of the study. The data from the interviews analysed by using the approach outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994) which represent key issues, and the Forms of the questionnaire handed out in person with time allowed for individuals to answer them. Completed questionnaire collected and then all data from the questionnaire analysed via SPSS.

1.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the foundation and background of the current research and has highlighted the need for undertaking the research. Accordingly, the major research problem and gaps were identified and the research's aims and objectives were introduced. Afterwards, the justification for the research as well as the research design and methodology were explained. Subsequently, the organization of the dissertation with brief description of each chapter was portrayed. The researcher analyzed the research problem within the existing relevant literature. The literature review covered four areas: leadership, heads of department, making the administration decisions and the ability to make decisions.

Chapter two

Literature Review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers a review of the relevant literature on decision making in higher education and the ability of heads of department in universities to make such decisions. In order to address my research questions fully, I also examine some of the wider literature on leadership and management in higher education.

Heads of department are considered key human elements that play an important role in the success of university administration because they have administrative, organizational, and educational roles which can enhance organizational effectiveness (Hamami, 1996). The literature review is based around four key issues derived from my research aims, stated in the last chapter, and it is structured around addressing the questions of the study. My review deals with leadership as the core of the administrative process and the basis for success. I argue that the failure to address this issue has delayed some institutions in some communities in their development because of a deadlock in management due to the lack of efficient leadership and a concomitant inability to perform key tasks and functions. As was mentioned earlier, I would argue that leadership capabilities are especially important in the decision making process. In this thesis the issues of transformational leadership will be reviewed alongside other styles, theories and models of leadership, and discussion about educational leadership.

Higher education institutions can dramatically improve decision making capabilities by implementing successful decision making processes that address identifiable challenges, set attainable goals and follow the framework of guiding principles and programme lifecycle management. This thesis will be reviewed theories and styles of

decision making, steps and stages of decision making. Therefore, literature research has sought to examine and discuss these issues according to the nature of this research.

This review deals with the heads of department as the most prominent human elements who command smaller organizational units within the organizational structure of universities. Consequently, an improvement in their abilities and their knowledge and development, with steps and stages of decision-making, is essential for the development of administrative work within the departments. Therefore, this thesis will focus on the characteristics of the successful head, authority of the head of the department, the roles and responsibility of the head of the department, and the ability to make decisions consistent with the fields of this study: objectivity, flexibility, understanding others, using the power, and knowing the principles of communication. Decision makers must have goals and objectives to guide their decision making, whether they are specific, measurable objectives or only loosely defined goals. Without some form of goals or objectives, decision makers have no criteria for evaluating alternatives or selecting a course of action (Cherrington, 1989). The structure of administrative organization is determined by the way in which decisions work, so, the success of any organization depends on the activity and quality of the decisions taken and in accordance with organisational goals. The administrative ability of the department heads includes the ability of the head of the department to deal with workers and to analyze the administrative matters objectively. This enables them to understand well the staff's behaviour and stimulate them to increase their productivity.

2.2 LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 Introduction

Higher education in the UK and around the world has been undergoing rapid and remarkable changes over the past 20 years. These new challenges and the changing environment have put the spotlight on leadership in higher education (Knight and Trowler, 2001, p.27-28). The earliest literature on leadership was concerned almost entirely with theoretical issues as theorists sought to identify different types of leadership and relate them to the functional demands of society. In addition, they sought to account for the emergence of leadership either by examining the qualities of the leader or the elements of the situation (Stogdill, 1974, p.5).

Yukl (2006) has argued that most definitions of leadership reflect the conjecture of a process whereby intentional influence is exerted to facilitate tasks and relationships within an organisation.

“...Leadership alludes to an orientation towards human relations and organizing people by providing them with tasks, direction, support, and coherence, so that the group can fulfill its objectives...”

(Kekale et al, 2006, p.251-252)

Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, influence, relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2006, p.2). However, it is also about inspiring individuals to give of their best to achieve a desired result, gaining their commitment and motivating them to achieve defined goals (Armstrong and Stephens, 2006, p.13). Leadership is the process whereby one person influences the thoughts and behavior of others (Bennet, 1994, p.15). Leaders need vision to provide development and growth of all involved in teaching and learning (Fidler, 1997, p.23).

The individual possessing the greatest amount of formal authority is also the most influential. In some situations, however, this is not so. In such cases, we typically identify the person who actually exercises the most influence over the group as its leader. Leadership is the process whereby one individual influences other group members toward the attainment of defined group or organisational goals (Greenberg and Baron, p.501, 2008). Bennis (1959) surveyed the leadership literature and concluded:

“...Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it ... and still the concept is not sufficiently defined...”

(Bennis, 1959, p.259)

Consequently, there is no comprehensive definition of leadership because every researcher deals with the definition those accords with in his or her research.

Researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspective and the aspect of the phenomenon of most interest to them. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature and Stogdill (1974, p.259) concluded that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” Leadership has been defined in terms of individual traits, behaviour, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, occupation of an administrative position, and perception by others regarding legitimacy of influence (Yukl, 1989, p.2). Furthermore, leadership is an interpersonal interaction, through which one person presents information and convinces the others that if they behave according to the information presented, they will be able to achieve improved results (Roueche et al, 1989).

“...Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one

person (or group) over other people (or groups) to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organisation ...”
(Yukl, 1994, p.3)

In defining the phenomenon of leadership in organisations, special attention should be given to the following factors: the leader – his or her abilities, personality and sources of power; the followers – their abilities, personalities, sources of power; and the situation in which the leader- follower relationship takes place, the unique circumstances, and the tasks or goals that the leader and the group face (Yukl, 1989). In addition, influence is a necessary part of most conceptions of leadership (Bryman et al, 1996). The meaning of this, according to the above researchers, is that most of the variation in leadership concepts can be accounted for by differences in who exerts influence, the nature of the influence, the purpose for the exercise of influence and its outcomes.

“...The definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective. Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no ‘correct’ definition ...”

(Yukl, 1994, pp.45)

In conclusion, it can be said that effective leadership is increasingly regarded as a vital component of successful organizations (Bush, 2008, p.32). Consistent with Stogdill (1974) Bennett (1994) Fidler (1997) and Yukl (1994), all claim that the phenomenon of leadership is unique to situations of voluntary consent by the led members. According to this view, blind obedience cannot be linked to the area of leadership, but to other areas, such as motivation or the personal tendencies of the group members to avoid being sanctioned. McCrimmon (2000) believed that leadership is still about power, but it is now the power of knowledge creation – a much more democratic factor – rather than the power of formal authority, physical strength or the force of personality and the power of thought leadership is used to change how we think, not to

dominate us. The key move to get to this way of regarding leadership is to pursue consistently what it means to regard leadership strictly as a function that is open to anyone to perform. Everything flows from this foundation. The idea that leadership is the initiation of change rather than its implementation is a good example of this point. Thought leadership does not necessarily lead to anything being implemented beyond a change of thinking and thought leaders often do not have the power to implement their ideas in any case. This change in perspective requires us to cast aside the old idea that leadership is about achieving group goals. Crucially, leadership initiates new goals and management serves the function of implementing them (McCrimmon, 2000, p.12). The perspectives and theories of leadership are the basis for educational leadership and underpin this kind of leadership which is an important key factor of changes in all sectors of education in schools. For instance, Bollington's (1999, p.153) point of view is that outstanding leadership is important for outstanding schools. Thus, I argue that leadership is a key factor in effectiveness for educational institutions of all types.

2.2.2 Educational leadership

The term "educational leadership" refers to both areas of teaching and learning as well as expertise in human resources, budget management, etc., educational leadership is not restricted to dealing only with education, but rather concerns all of the aspects the school deals with (Coleman and Bush, 2000). We may note, however, that the traditional theories of leadership are normative, focusing on the formal aspect of organizational life and on authority, and fail to provide insight into how schools are run in everyday life (Ball, 1987; Eden, 1998).

Educational leadership is all about professionalism, educational values, and vision (Coleman, 1994; Bush and Coleman, 2000, pp. 24-25; Leithwood, 1993) and the essence of educational leadership is based on the notion of transformational leadership which views the leader's role to encourage and to empower the teachers and all those involved in educational work (Bush and Coleman, 2000; Ron and Shlayfer, 1995; Duignan and Macpherson, 1992).

“...Educative leaders should therefore, take responsible leadership actions to create organizational cultures that enhance the growth and development of all involved in teaching and learning...”

(Duignan and Macpherson, 1992, p.83)

Sergiovanni (1991, p.86) claims that educational leadership exhibits the leader as a strong instructional leader which is appropriate for new or doubtful staff whilst at other times he/she appears on an equal basis in teaching and learning with the staff. This latter appearance of the leader's role is appropriate for more mature staff. The same notion was described by Leithwood (1993) who claimed that the meaning of the term “leadership”, in the educational context, is the forming of an educational vision, the bringing of educational goals to the awareness of the educational staff, and setting the clear of objectives for the educational staff and the social environment in which the school operates. Since there is always a gap between the reality and the vision, the leader requires change and improvement strategies that help him or her in their effort to expand the staff boundaries of perception, to make them see the full picture of the school as a social system, not only satisfy the immediate needs of each individual subject (Bush and Coleman, 2000; Parker, 1990).

The American Education Policy Examination Committee defined the “leader” as: “...The crucial force that determines the school's climate and the staff” and the

students' attitudes towards the learning process..." (Drake and Roe, 1986, p.11). The leader's leadership may be described in terms of designing the school's learning climate, promoting educational changes, leading the school's educational staff; and routing the school's unique educational methods (Drake and Roe, 1986).

2.2.3 Theories and models of leadership

One may ask the question as to what extent has academic thinking about leadership offered useful theoretical models for understanding, and perhaps improving, leadership in universities? In this section the researcher will review some of the most important ones.

Hallinger (2003) suggests that the two most often used models of leadership in the past decades are instructional and transformational leaderships. Instructional leadership is more directive and focused on curriculum and instruction. Transformational leadership is more supportive and seeks to build the organisation's capacity to select its purposes and to support the development of changes to practices of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003).

As with educational management, the vast literature on leadership has generated a number of alternative, and competing, models. Some writers have sought to cluster these various conceptions into a number of broad themes or 'types' (Bush, 2003, p.33). These theories of leadership have been examined by many researchers. One of the most basic concepts is that of Bryman (1992) who analyzed leadership styles ranging between traditional and new.

“...Leadership theories can be divided into two categories: traditional leadership and new leadership. Both are important for a leader...”

(Bryman, 1992, p.116)

The traditional perspectives go back many years, and they vary in the emphasis they place on the role of leadership. They include the trait, behavior, and situational contingency approaches. The new leadership shows a range of theories emphasizing some combination of charisma (attribution of exceptional abilities to the leaders), vision or change (Schermerhorn and et al, 1995 p.160).

The behavioural theory of leadership posits that successful leaders use multiple rather than one leadership style to bring about desired results from followers in a given situation. Subsequently this leadership theory focuses on what leaders do and how they do it rather than on leader traits (Turner and Muller, 2005; Verma, 1996).

All the trait and behavioral approaches make the assumption that, in one way or another, selected personal traits or behaviors have a major impact on leadership outputs; that is, according to these theories, leadership is central, and other variables are relatively less important. Among the various approaches, however, there are differences in terms of the explanations offered for leadership results.

According to Bass (1990) the great man/ trait theory is the earliest approach used to study leadership and dates back to as early as the turn of the century. Early studies attempted to identify those traits that differentiated the “great person” in history from the masses (e.g., how did Peter the Great differ from his followers?). This approach led to a research emphasis that tried to separate leaders from non-leaders or more effective leaders from less effective leaders. The argument was that certain traits are related to

success and that, once identified, these traits could be used to select leaders. For various reasons, including inadequate theorizing, inadequate measurement of many traits, and failure to recognize possible differences in organizations and situations, the studies were not successful enough to provide a general trait theory (Bass, 1990). However, they laid the groundwork for consideration of certain traits, in combination with other leadership aspects, such as behavior, that form the basis for some of the more current theories.

Schermerhorn (1995) confirms that the behavioural theories approach assumes that leadership is central to performance and human resource maintenance. In this case, however, instead of dealing with underlying traits, behaviours or actions are considered. Two classic research programmes at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University provide useful insights into leadership behaviours.

In the late 1940s, researchers at the University of Michigan introduced a programme of research on leadership behaviour. The researchers were concerned with identifying the leadership pattern that results in effective performance. From interviews of high- and low-performing groups in different organisations, the researchers derived two basic forms of leader behaviours: employee centred and production centred. Employee-centred supervisors are those who place strong emphasis on the welfare of their subordinates. In contrast, production-centred supervisors tend to place a stronger emphasis on getting the work done than on the welfare of the employees. In general, employee-centred supervisors were found to have more productive work groups than did the production-centred supervisors (Likert, 1961). These behaviors may be viewed on a continuum, with employee-centered supervisors at one end and production-

centered supervisors at the other. Sometimes, the more general terms human relations-oriented and task-oriented are used to describe these alternative leader behaviors.

The most important contribution made by the development of behavioural leadership theories was the notion that leaders could be made and that leadership was an ability that could be developed, while earlier trait theories (Stogdill, 1974; McLean and Weitzel, 1991) posited that leaders were born. This new concept represented an important step forward in leadership theory (Jacques and et al, 2008, p. 5).

An important leadership research programme was started at Ohio State University at about the same time as the Michigan studies (Schermerhorn and et al, 1995 p.161). The Ohio studies (Stogdill, 1953) distinguished between the “initiating structure” styles, which focuses on the task and achieving the goals, and the “consideration” style, which examines the extent to which the leader’s behavior is supportive and considerate, and the leaders themselves are democratic, and tend to explain their actions. It was found that the first type, the “task-oriented” leader, would tend to emphasize the goals of the group, criticize subordinates’ work and monitor their performance. Such a leader would present his or her subordinates with a clear picture of the tasks, division of the work, timetables, etc. the second style of leadership, the “people orientated” leader would care for their subordinates’ personal needs, and be interested in their welfare and satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Analysis and classification on the range of consideration (people-oriented) to initiating structure (task-oriented) was made by Blake and Mouton (1978) who built, on the basis of the “two leadership styles”, another model, called the “Managerial Grid”. In this model, each of the style dimensions is divided into nine

levels, creating an 81-rubric grid. Five typical styles, from the repertoire of possible leadership styles, were exemplified by Blake and Mouton (1978).

Coleman (1994, pp.55-60) claims that leadership styles should be examined as a spectrum, rather than as bipolar behavioral patterns, as every leader has a repertoire of behaviors of both kinds. Furthermore, leaders in organizations can be at any point on the continuum. It is also possible to describe combinations of the two styles as different dimensions.

“...This two-dimensional grid allows the positioning of management styles along nine point axes labeled ‘concern for people’ and ‘concern for production’. It is theoretically possible to identify 81 management styles, but the analysis generally places leaders into one of five main styles ...”

(Coleman, 1994, p.57)

The style, which expresses the behavior “results rated high” and “relationship rated high”, expresses the most interest by the leader, in both the out and the subordinates’ welfare. Blake and Mouton (1978) called this style “team management”.

“...The basic aim is to promote the conditions that integrate creativity, high productivity and high morale through concerted team action ...”

(Blake and Mouton. 1978, p.142)

Leaders with this style of leadership combine in their behavior and attitude different sources of power: expertise, authority, rewarding, and identification, in order to achieve the highest possible outcomes, whilst still being as attentive as possible to their employees and their needs. The common agreement between the leader and his or her subordinates regarding the goals of the organization, as well as the leader’s sensitivity to personal needs, should lead to the development of trust and mutual respect (Cohen, 2003, p.110).

At the other end of the spectrum of leadership styles, is the “impoverished” style. This style is characterized by “results rated low and relationships rated low”. A leader with such a leadership style would only live up to the minimum requirements of output and human needs in his or her organization (Cohen, 2003, p.111).

“...This approach indicates a passive approach which may apply ‘to those that have accepted defeat’...”

(Blake and Mouton. 1978, p.85)

The “middle road” leadership style is defined as “results rated moderate and relationship rated moderate”.

“...This middle range approach means that ‘satisfactory’...solutions are found through equilibrium or compromise processes...”

(Blake and Mouton. 1978, p.110)

The two remaining styles are “results rated low/high and relationship related high/low”. According to Cohen (2003) the style of leadership that is “results rated low and relationship rated high” expresses only a minor tendency towards achieving the organisation’s goals, and on the other hand, a strong tendency towards fulfilling organisational needs and expectations. Such a leader would focus most of his or her attention on the employees, and would make every effort to please them. Blake and Mouton (1978) called this leadership style “country club management”. Leaders with this style of leadership would focus on creating a pleasant, friendly atmosphere in the workplace.

“...Leaders encourage their workers, ‘the group’, not the individual, is the key unit of the organization...”

(Blake and Mouton. 1978, p.80)

The last main style is the “results rated high and relationships rated low”. According to Bass (1985) this style of leadership shows a maximum tendency towards achieving the organization’s goals, and minimum interest in tending to the human problems and

needs of the organization. A leader with such a leadership style would demand obedience, and would focus on the achievement of the organization as the measure of the group's behavior. To this end, the leader would create the working conditions that would enable efficient work.

“...This type of leadership is identified as ‘achievement oriented’ and as personifying ‘the entrepreneurial’ spirit...”

(Blake and Mouton. 1978, p.18)

As Coleman (1994, p.58) argues, the point of view that the researchers emphasized was that the leadership styles can change. Moreover, they are determined by a range of factors, meaning that they can be subject to modification through formal instruction or self-training.

From the late 1940s, an immediate reaction to some of the perceived problems of the style approach was a systematic series of efforts to catalogue the situational factors determining appropriate leader behaviour. These efforts identified four main types of contingency variables that have generally stood the test of time: leader personality or characteristics; task requirements of leader and subordinates; subordinates attitudes, needs, and expectations; and organisational and physical environment (Filley et al, 1976).

In the situational contingency theories, leader traits and behaviors act in conjunction with situational contingencies to determine outputs (Schermerhorn and et al, 1995 p.164).

The first situational contingency approach we consider is Fiedler's since his work essentially started the situational contingency era in the mid-1960s. Fiedler's (1984) approach predicts work group effectiveness. His theory holds that group effectiveness depends on an appropriate match between a leader's style and the demands of the situation. Specifically, Fiedler considers the amount of control the situation allows the leader. Situational control is the extent to which a leader can determine what his or her group is going to do as well as the outcomes of the group's actions and decisions.

Fiedler (1984) uses an instrument called the least preferred coworker scale to measure a person's leadership style. Fiedler was mostly interested in the efficiency of the group in which the leader operates.

“...High least preferred coworker leaders have a relationship-motivated style, while low least preferred coworker leaders have a task-motivated style...”

(Fiedler, 1984)

In other words, relationship-motivated leaders describe more favorably the person with whom they were least able to work than do task-motivated leaders. Fiedler measures high, moderate, and low control with the following three variables arranged in the situational combinations indicated:

1. Leaders-member relations “good/poor” Member support for the leader.
2. Task-structure “high/low” Spelling-out of the leader's task goals, procedures, and guidelines in the group.
3. Position power “strong/weak” The leader's task expertise and reward/punishment authority.

Fiedler moved beyond his contingency theory by developing the cognitive resource theory. Cognitive resources are abilities or competencies. According to this approach, whether a leader should use directive or nondirective behavior depends on the following situational contingencies: the leader's or subordinates group members' ability/competency; stress; experience; and group support of the leader. Basically, cognitive resource theory is most useful because it directs us to leader or subordinate group member ability, an aspect not typically considered in other leadership approaches (Fiedler, 1987).

The theory views performance as being best when the leader is competent, relaxed, and supported. In this case, the group is ready, and communication is a high priority. According to Fiedler (1987) when the leader feels stressed, he or she is diverted. In this case, experience is more important than is ability. If support is low, then the group is less receptive, and the leader has less impact. In addition, group-member ability becomes most important when the leader is nondirective and there is strong support from group members. If support is weak, then task difficulty or other factors have more impact than do either the leaders or the subordinates.

Another somewhat complex framework is that of Path-Goal Theory (House and Mitchell 1977). Path-goal theory is used because of its emphasis on how a leader influences subordinates' perceptions of both work goals and personal goals and the links or paths found between these two sets of goals. The theory assumes that a leader's key function is to adjust his or her behaviours to complement situational contingencies, such as those found in the work setting.

House (1977) argues that when the leader is able to compensate for things lacking in the setting, subordinates are likely to be satisfied with the leader. According to House (1977) there are four types of leader behaviours directive, supportive, achievement-oriented, and participative and two categories of situational contingency variables subordinate attributes and work-setting attributes. The leader behaviours are adjusted to complement the situational contingency variables in order to influence subordinate satisfaction, acceptance of the leader, and motivation for task performance. Directive leadership is predicted to have a positive impact on subordinates when the task is ambiguous; it is predicted to have just the opposite effect for clear tasks. That is, when task demands are ambiguous, leader directiveness is needed to compensate for the lack of structure. When task clarification is otherwise available, directiveness is seen as a hindrance by subordinates. In addition, the theory predicts that when ambiguous tasks are being performed by highly authoritarian and close-minded subordinates, even more directive leadership is called for. Supportive leadership is predicted to increase the satisfaction of subordinates who work on highly repetitive tasks; the leader's supportive behaviour helps compensate for these adverse conditions. Achievement-oriented leadership is predicted to encourage subordinates to strive for higher performance standards and to have more confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals. Finally, participative leadership is predicted to promote satisfaction on non-repetitive tasks that allow for the ego involvement of subordinates.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) developed a particular form of contingency theory which has become well known as situational leadership. Making the point that the appropriateness of a leadership style is a function of the situation, they focused attention on 'subordinate maturity' as a contingent variable, by which they meant the ability and willingness of a subordinate to work without direction. Where subordinate

maturity is high, a relationship-oriented style is appropriate, but where maturity is lacking a more task-oriented style will prove more effective (Sadler, 1997, p.85).

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988) the terms task behaviour and relationship behaviour are used to describe concepts similar to consideration and initiating structure of the Ohio State studies.

“...The four basic leader behaviour quadrants are labeled: high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task...”

(Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p.95)

These four basic styles depict essentially different leadership styles. The leadership style of an individual is the behaviour pattern that person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of other as perceived by those others. This may be very different from how the leader perceives his or her own behaviour, which we shall define as self-perception rather than style. A person's leadership style involves some combination of either task behaviour or relationship behaviour.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988) the two types of behaviour, task and relationship, which are central to the concept of leadership style. In this model task behaviour is the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. Such behaviour is characterized by endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationship between themselves and member of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, “psychological strokes, “ and facilitating behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p.96).

McGregor (1960, 1966) postulated two types of organizational leadership which have come to be known as theory X and theory Y. The former based on the assumption that people are passive and resistant to organizational needs, attempts to direct and motivate people to fit these needs. Theory Y, based on the assumption that people already possess motivation and desire for responsibility, attempts to arrange organizational conditions in such a manner as to make possible fulfillment of their needs while directing their efforts to achieve organizational objectives (Stogdill, 1974, p.22; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988, p.48).

Vroom and Yetton (1973) concentrate upon decision-making in their studies of leadership. They argue that leaders should be flexible and change their styles to match situations. This, of course, is the reverse of Fiedler’s argument, who proposed that leadership style was less amenable to change than the situation (Vroom and Yetton, 1973).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1985) present a decision tree method for deciding when and how far a leader should involve subordinates in work unit decisions. Five styles are described, with leaders supposedly able and prepared to change styles according to the situation. In the A1 (autocratic) style, a leader solves the problem or makes the decision using available information. An A11 (autocratic) style means a leader decides

after obtaining necessary information from subordinates. C1 (consultative) leadership involves the leader deciding after sharing the problem with relevant subordinates individually and getting their ideas. A C11 (consultative) approach entails a leader deciding once the whole group has pondered the problem and inputted collectively their ideas. The G11 (group) style allows the group to decide by consensus following a normative process of discussing the problem, generating solutions and evaluating these, with the leader acting only as a facilitator. Interestingly, although not identical in all respects, these styles remind us of a number of the leader behaviours defined by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1985).

When each style is appropriate is determined by eight situational variables. These are decision technical quality; subordinate commitment; leader information; problem structure; subordinate acceptance; goal congruence; subordinate conflict; and subordinate information. Many decision paths are generated according to the nature of the requirement for each of these variables. One formulation of the model illustrates 23 separate paths for concluding which style to adopt (Vroom and Jago, 1988). For example, if the decision needs to be of high rather than low technical quality, a different path is followed to conclude which leadership style is appropriate. Then, if subordinate commitment is important, the path branches differently to that followed if it is unimportant, and so on (Muldoon, 2003, p.33).

Furthermore, Martinko (1995) said that attribution theory describes how individuals develop causal explanations for behaviours and outcomes, and how their causal explanations influence subsequent reactions. Consistent with VandeWalle (2001) Although there are many variations of attribution theory, research on attributions has

primarily focused on two conceptual approaches; (1) achievement motivation models (Weiner, 1987) which emphasize how individuals explain their own successes and failures; and (2) observer models (Kelly, 1973) which emphasize how individuals explain the behaviours and outcomes of others.

Attribution theory has played a prominent role in the development of the attributional leadership model (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Mitchell, Green, & Wood, 1981). The attributional leadership model is grounded in the concept of responsibility assignment. The leader makes observations to determine which causal factors are responsible for the subordinate's behaviour and outcomes. These attributions about causality then influence the leader's reactions to the subordinate (VandeWalle, 2001, p.3). Therefore, as VandeWalle (2001) noted, there are two primary conceptual approaches to attributions theory, attributions about the self and attributions about others.

Consistent with McElroy (1982) attribution theory requires a cognitive, rational view of man predicated on the following set of assumptions: (1) Although errors are possible, individuals have an inherent desire truthfully to comprehend their environment and will, if necessary, seek information that will enable them to do so. (2) Individuals will assign "causes" to explain observed phenomena in a systematic manner. (3) The particular cause that an individual attributes to an event will have important consequences for his or her subsequent feelings and behaviour (Jones et al, 1972).

It is clear, despite the many models of leadership and associated research canvassed in the preceding generally recognised approaches, there is substantially more leadership

literature with different concerns (Muldoon, 2003p.42). For this reason I shall now proceed to examine another influential contemporary conception of leadership.

2.2.4 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership stems from decades of theory and research (e.g. Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1993). As articulated by Bass (1985), and based on Burns' model, transformational leaders are generally said to transform their followers to higher levels of performance and other positive work-related outcomes through four dimensions: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leaders communicate a collective vision that inspires followers to look beyond their self-interests for the good of the group. Meta-analytic evidence strongly supports the relationship between transformational leadership and positively-oriented work-related outcomes such as performance and job satisfaction (Lowe et al, 1996; Avey et al, 2008, p.114).

Supporters of this model suggest that the concept of transformational leadership is more complex and more potent than other approaches:

“...The transforming leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower ...The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full person of the followers. The result is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders...”

(Burns, 1978, p.4)

Transformational leadership is considered as a philosophy and approach for a leader to employ for developing followers, transforming these followers into leaders and fostering the performance of followers that transcends expected or established standards (Yammarino, 1994, p.26).

“...Transformational leadership is the process of engaging the commitment of employees in the context of shared values and a shared vision. It is particularly relevant in the context of managing change. It involves relationship of mutual trust between leaders and led...”

(Sadler, 1997, p.42)

According to Yukl (1989, p.271) transformational leadership is viewed as both micro-level influence process between individuals and a macro-level process of mobilizing power to change social systems and reform institutions. Daft's (2008) definition is that transformational leadership is characterized by the ability to bring about significant change in both followers and the organization (Daft, 2008, p.356). Transformational leaders:

“...personally evolve while also helping their followers and organizations evolve. They build strong relationships with others while supporting and encouraging each individual's development...”

(Bennett et al., 2002, p. 32)

Transformational leaders succeed in gaining the commitment of followers to such a degree that higher levels of accomplishment become virtually a moral imperative, in our view a powerful capacity for transformational leadership is required for the successful transition to a system of self-managing schools (Bush, 2003, p.77). There are leaders that are only able not to adapt to different situations and be effective, but also to form other people's self-expectations, and create new expectations that did not exist at the beginning of the interaction with the leader. Such leaders can excite people and stimulate them to make the effort and transcend beyond their perceived self-imposed limits.

“...Leadership over human being is exercised when persons with certain motive and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, and psychological and other resources so as to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers... This is done in order to realize mutually held by leaders and followers...”

(Burns, 1978, p.18)

According to Leithwood (1992, p.69) a transformational leader is opposed to the transactional leader. The leader desires to change the situation and the direction of the system's development, and takes actions without always considering the followers' immediate gains from their response to his or her demands. The leader wishes to stir a new spirit in his followers, a spirit of motivation, willingness and high expectations for organisational achievements, beyond what is perceived possible in the organisation. In other words, Burns (1978) describes transformational leadership as being concerned with exploring conventional relationships and organisational understandings through involvement and participation.

“...In the case of transforming leadership, the leader/followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality...”

(Burns, 1978, p.20)

The transformational leader seeks new working methods, whilst weighing new opportunities and risks. He or she is interested in effective solutions (that emphasize achieving the goal regardless of the price), not only efficient solutions (according to cost/utility analyses). Moreover, according to Bollington (1999, p.171), transformational leadership is appropriate at a time of change.

Based on Leithwood's studies, a transformational leaders are in a continuous pursuit of three goals: helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; fostering teacher development; and helping teachers solve problems together more effectively systematically (Stewart, 2006, p.17).

According to Burns (1978) Transformational leadership is concerned with developing a vision that informs and expresses the organization's mission and lays the foundation for the organization's strategies, policies and procedures. The transformation leader

uses influence strategies and techniques that empower the followers, enhance their self-efficacy and change their values, norms, and attitudes, consistent with the vision developed by the leaders (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). It is often defined in terms of the leader's effect on followers, who feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl, 1997; Victor, et al, 2005, p.25).

Bass and Avolio (1994) state that transformational leadership occurs when leaders; stimulate others to see new perspectives; articulate the vision of the organisation; develop others to higher levels of ability; and motivate others to put organisational interests before self interests. Therefore, a leader that is within an organisation that is employing the transformational approach will be encouraged to demonstrate their support for the vision and exhibit the behaviours that support that vision (Terry, 2007, p.4).

A major drawback of the conceptual framework developed by Bass and his colleagues lies in their statement of transactional leadership as a kind of operant conditioning in contrast to transformational leadership as grandly meaningful interaction (Bass 1985; Bass 1998). Bass (1998) focused his research on business, and educational organizations. He delved into, what was considered at the time, the new paradigm of transformational leadership. Most of his research stems from the inadequacies and deficiencies that were documented from Burns' earlier work. He found evidence that transformational leadership was particularly powerful and had the foundation to move followers beyond what was expected. Bass believes that transformational leaders did more than set up exchanges and agreements and that leaders behave in certain ways in

order to raise the level of commitment from followers. Transformational leadership is classified as the Full Range of Leadership (FRL) and this permits further exploration into the effects of its application to specific conditions (Bass, 1998). The identification and training of potential leaders is also investigated more systematically (Stewart, 2006, p.11).

Bass (1985) claims that, the transformational leader would attempt to change the environmental limitations, rather than accept its limitations and cling to the status-quo. Bar-Haym (1997, p.45) argues that transformational leaders often use transactional techniques; however, they tend more towards using symbolic means, metaphors and visions in order to evoke willingness to make an extra effort in their people. The leaders, according to Bar-Haym, do this on both the intellectual level, by emphasizing the future utility and advantages of the goals they set, for the individuals and for the organisation – long-term goals that set especially high standards; and on the emotional level, by creating objects of identification, and by boosting the followers' self-esteem and their desire to take part in the collective experience (Bar-Haym, 1997, p.45).

As noted by Bass (1998), the following four components of transformational leadership were developed. Firstly, charismatic leadership, or idealized influence, sees transformational leaders as role models; they are respected and admired by their followers. Followers recognize with leaders and they desire to imitate them. Leaders have a clear vision and sense of purpose and they are willing to take risks. Secondly, inspirational motivation, suggests that transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate others, generate enthusiasm and challenge people. These leaders obviously converse expectations and they demonstrate a commitment to goals and a shared

vision. Thirdly, intellectual stimulation is a term used to convey that transformational leaders actively solicit new ideas and new ways of doing things. They rouse others to be original and they never overtly correct or criticize others. Fourthly, individualized consideration, is posited as was in which transformational leaders pay attention to the needs and the potential for developing others. These leaders found a helpful climate where individual differences are appreciated. Connections with followers are confident and the leaders are conscious of individual concerns (Stewart, 2006, p.12).

Transformational leaders are charismatic, inspiring, intellectually stimulating, and individually considerate of their followers; but transactional leaders are mundane, provide only contingent rewards, and manage-by-exception (actively or passively). Despite some contrary indications, (Avolio and Bass 1988), this is implied strongly across their numerous publications. Operational measures are thus conceptually guaranteed to show the augmentation effect at the cost of assuming transactional leaders do not interact meaningfully with followers (Muldoon, 2003, p.39).

This does not dispute conceptual distinctions as the necessary basis of operationalisation, but rather queries the logical guarantee of an empirical outcome instead of allowing for evidentiary testing, although this is not the only criticism of the instrument developed by Bass and his colleagues (Yukl 1999; Parry and Proctor 2000; Tejeda et al. 2001), a number of which are acknowledged by (Bass 1999), it is one of the most significant. Smith and Peterson (1988) charge that:

“...Some of the transactional items are written in a manner which already implies that the leader is ineffective...”

(Smith and Peterson, 1988, p.116)

The underlying assumption here is a common tautological flaw in theories and models developed from Burns (1978) seminal work - for instance, Bennis and Nanus (1985); and Kouzes and Posner (1995). There is accordingly a point of convergence with Trait Theory in these approaches that often suggests an unnecessary elitism, albeit unintended, and even when transformational leader skills are deemed both learnable and organisationally widespread (Avolio and Bass, 1988). Moreover, Bryman (1992, p.100) points out, Bass:

“...Treats transformational leadership both as exhibiting elements of a cluster of personal traits and as pointing to transferable skills...”

According to Muldoon (2003) this is despite contrary indications to be found on the MLQ/FRL model of leadership (Avolio and Bass 1988). This goes to the heart of the question of whether or how far:

“...Transformational leadership is the product of personal predisposition or whether it can be developed in leaders...”

(Bryman 1992, p.100)

Kark et al (2003) recommended that transformational leadership is related to empowerment in followers (Masi, 1994). Moreover, transformational leaders transform followers into leaders, thus making meaning out of work, providing autonomy. Bono and Judge (2003) established that followers of transformational leaders viewed their work as more important and as more self-congruent. This lends support to the concept that followers of transformational leaders would believe that they are more empowered, perhaps through greater autonomy, meaning, and ownership. Further, Bono and Judge (2003) supported the relationship between a self-concept-based theory (Shamir et al., 1993) and motivational aspects such as goal-directed effort and goal attainment, which are integral components of Snyder's hope

theory (Snyder, 2000, 2002). In addition, Shamir et al. (1993) support the concept that transformational leaders motivate followers in three key ways: by increasing follower self-efficacy, by facilitating followers' social identification with their group or organization, and by linking the organization's work values to follower values. This connection allows followers to sense greater levels of self-determination in their work and increases their level of perceived empowerment. In more thorough tests of the association between transformational leadership and employee empowerment, Dvir et al. (2002) conducted an intervention study and found evidence that follower's perceptions of transformational leadership in their commander led to a greater sense of follower empowerment. Furthermore, Avolio et al (2004) found that transformational leadership was directly connected to follower perceptions of empowerment (Avey et al, 2008, pp.114-115).

Transformational leadership has been found to be constantly related to organizational and leadership effectiveness (Bryman, 1992; Lowe et al, 1996). Transformational leaders believe in the need for a change. They, subsequently, eloquent a vision of the future of the organization, and provide a model that is consistent with that vision. Afterwards, they foster the acceptance of group goals, and provide individualized support (Podsakoff et al, 1996). As a result, followers of transformational leaders often feel trust and respect towards the leader and are motivated to do more than they are expected to do. In this way, transformational leaders alter the viewpoint and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization (Abd aziz et al, 2009, p.60).

2.2.5 Developing administrative leadership

Recent years have witnessed the imposition of a new direction in administrative leadership since it has become necessary to search for qualifications and the technical and administrative competences in addition to the competence of directing others. There has, therefore, been a change from a focus on merely choosing the right administrative leader to a period of interest in training and preparing them (Hassan and Younis, 1984, p.79).

Programmes for training administrative leaders depend basically on developing the competences of the leaders in practicing the administrative work in such a way as to make them able to affect others and stimulating them in the direction of achieving a maximum competence within the changing attitudes of the organization (Almuamen et al, 1997, p.130).

Developing the leadership should be carried out according objective bases that depend on programme planning within a competent organization. The purpose of the administrative development is to improve the capabilities of the leaders and the employees in presenting the competent among them and who are able to meet the future needs (Almuamen et al, 1997, p.130).

Consistent with what has been preceded, the development of the administrative leaderships depends basically on providing them with competences and developing their competences in order to raise their leading capabilities and according to the following:

1. Developing and enlightening the leaderships with the moral traditions and administrative work behaviours that require practicing the administrative work with all its sides and dimensions on the basis of scientific and objective standards not according to the individual mood.
2. Training the administrators to accommodate with the environment and to retroact with the frequent changes that ensures the ability to accommodate with the new matters on the basis of preferences in the changing positions.
3. Enlightening and training the leaders on practicing the authority and power according to the responsibility given to them and be aware of practicing power in a different direction to the traditions and behaviours the administrative work.
4. Training the administrators to practice human relationships within their work in such a way as to help them in raising their positive reaction level with the employees and developing their way of dealing in order that they will be able to influence the group behaviours.
5. Training and developing administrative leaders in using proper communication's technologies in such a way that makes them able to understand and convey information and ideas in addition to using the most effective frames and ways in conveying the ideas to the others.
6. Training and developing administrative leaders to practice making decisions in order to enlighten them about the stages of making a decision and the time of issuing the decision and how to implement and follow up such decisions according to the steps of a scientific method in order to guarantee its safety and acceptability.

Generally, it can be said that the skills that should be available in the administrative leadership are the keystone in estimating what is demanded to be explained. The changes that the societies witness requires from the educational systems including the

university to recheck their goals and framework in a way suits the nature of these changes and this development which calls for the university to re-examine its organization and to try to develop their leaders in a way that fits these changes and developments .

2.2.6 Summary

The concept of leadership may be considered as the most important and most relevant of all behavioral science concepts (Yukl, 1989). Whitaker (1998, p.147) sums up leadership, and claims that:

“...Leadership might have as much to do with making helpful suggestions as to do with issuing strategic directives, as much about listening to other people’s ideas as about expounding your own and as much about gentleness as about toughness...”

Models and theories of leadership include the trait analysis of Stogdill (1948) and his followers, the situational view of Hershey and Blanchard (1988), and the transactional and transformational leaders. According to Wright (2001, p.275), strong leadership helps schools to improve. Moreover, in the field of education, leaders are faced with the major issues of leadership on a day-to-day basis, such as responsibility and authority, delegation, target setting, control, performance evaluation, team building and the management of conflicts. In fact, leadership is central to education.

Educational leadership is not restricted to dealing only with education, but rather concerns all the aspects that the organization, namely the school, deals with. It depends on creating a culture, in which the teaching and learning activities thrive (Bush and Coleman, 2000).

The educational leader should have the ability to set the goals and direction for the people in the department, as individuals and as groups. The leader is seen as forming the department's culture, and helping the staff develop a strategic vision that guides them in their work.

2.3 DECISION MAKING

2.3.1 *Interdiction*

Every day people in organizations make decisions of varying importance, so the idea that decision making can be a rather sophisticated art may at first seem strange. On the other hand, studies have shown that most people are much poorer at decision making than they think. A consideration of what decision making involves, together with a few effective techniques, will help produce better decisions (Harris, 2009).

Decision making is the study of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values and preferences of the decision maker. Decision making is the process of sufficiently reducing uncertainty and doubt about alternatives to allow a reasonable choice to be made from among them (Harris, 2009). Lawson & Shen (1998) noted that decision-making is the process of choosing among alternatives, implementing a decision and using the subsequent outcome data to shape any further decisions associated with the earlier one. Meanwhile, Kittisarn (2003) said that decision-making involves choosing between alternative courses of action with the aid of a systematic and structured set of criteria (Kittisarn, 2003, p.11).

There are some views that support this practice of political control over the administrative and decision-making affairs of the institutions of higher education. These views are based on the argument that the organizations with some type of political control can progress more easily toward the achievement of their goals (Livingstone, 1974; Khati, 1969, p.1).

Today's fast changing and global environment dictates that a successful enterprise has a rich decision-making process. This means not only gathering and processing data, but also making decisions with the support of state-of-the-art decision methods. Decision-making is the very foundation of an enterprise, and sound decision-making is absolutely necessary for gaining and maintaining a competitive advantage (Forman, 2001, p.1).

Higher education has profoundly changed in the past half century. One of the most marked changes has been a vast expansion in numbers of students. Around the world, higher education is less and less the domain of the elite, but is being transformed into a mass system which, in some cases, is almost a universal phenomenon. Other changes have included increased demands for accountability, changes in composition and work of faculty, privatization, and the impact of new technologies. Although academic systems function primarily in a national environment, these changes are occurring worldwide and have had significant impacts on the participation of higher education teaching staff in decision-making (Vere, 2007, p.5).

“...Much contemporary theorising on educational decision-making starts from the premise that the process of decision-making is a deeply embedded social practice, which is inextricably linked to behaviours, attitudes and dispositions which hold sway within an individual's social Network...”

(Heath, Fuller and Paton, 2008, p. 219)

As modern organizations seek flexibility in response to the exponential growth in technology and globalisation, they view greater employee participation in decision making as a means of gaining more from an educated, technologically oriented workforce (Connell, 1998); defined as the act of sharing decision making with others to achieve organisational objectives (Knoop, 1991).

Many theorists attempt to understand the mechanics of individual decisions or evaluate their effectiveness as single discrete determinations. Garvin and Roberto (2001) recognize decisions as processes occurring over time and across cultures. Not only should one resist viewing decisions as single events, it is also helpful to distinguish between strategic decision-making and operational decision-making. Strategic decision-making defines purpose and operational decision-making implements purpose (Simon 1976; Timberlake, 2004).

“...Most discussions of decision making believe that only senior executives make decisions or that only senior executives' decisions matter. This is a dangerous mistake...”

(Drucker, 2006)

Leaders, whether full-time managers or temporary team leaders, need to involve others in decision making for a number of reasons: to obtain needed information; to come up with creative alternatives; to gain commitment; to train future generations of decision makers in a sound process. In each case, the individuals whom the leader decides to involve, the degree to which they are involved, and the timing of the involvement will vary (Schwarber, 2005p.1088). As Pejza (1985) indicated:

“...A principle has to learn that he or she can't do it all. The old style of one-man leadership doesn't work in this day and age...People who participate in and help formulate a decision will support it...they will work hard to make it go because it is their idea and has become part of their life. They have been empowered to become leaders themselves. The task of the major is to unleash and channel the talent which exists in the faculty...”

(Pejza, 1985, p.16)

Hagar and Scarr (1983) suggested that future department principals will have to work with the staff, as well as other interested parties, in identifying needs and establishing high expectations if departments are to be effective (Hagar and Scarr, 1983 p. 39).

Power and sharing are significant factors in determining the efficiency of decision making in organizations. In the fifties and sixties most psychologists thought that participation in decision making could increase job satisfaction which would in turn facilitate the implementation of decisions so as to enhance the efficiency of decision making and the effectiveness of the organization as a whole (Miles,1965).

While there is broad support for participation in decision-making, there are also perceived problems including reduced decision-making speed (Daft & Marcic, 2001; Timberlake, 2004) and the dangers of groupthink (Janis, 1972). Eisenhardt (1999) on the other hand, believes a cohesive group with the ability to consider multiple viewpoints and the ability to resolve conflict has the potential to develop group intuition. The researcher posits such intuition as an element in successful leadership teams, one which may allow a group to move through decision-making processes more quickly.

Participation in decision making can be operationalised in a number of different ways. Participation can offer employees various levels of influence in the decision making process, ranging from formally established consultative committees through to development of good relations with managers or supervisors (Cotton et al, 1988; Locke and Schweiger, 1979; Scully et al., 1995).

Larger departments are more likely to require decision makers to adhere to formal decision policies than smaller departments (Scott, 1992). Thus, we would expect that decision makers in larger departments will rely more heavily on prescribed criteria and less on ad hoc criteria than decision makers in smaller departments that are less concerned with formal rules and procedures. Since institutions are structured so that administrators control information, it is important that other constituents, including faculty, have a voice that is distinct from the administration (Welsh, Nunez, & Petrosko, 2005). Thus, institutions vary by the extent to which the decision making is participatory or autocratic (Garmon, 1984; Kukalis, 1991; Waters, 1996).

Decision makers are faced daily with making important and pervasive decisions. This is especially significant in higher education, where decisions about academics will have considerable impact on the next generation of leaders (Sellers, 2005, p.265).

If faculty members' participation is so central to the managerial and leadership process in academic department, what constrains the more active involvement of faculty members? Scholars have identified a host of factors ranging from, for instance, department size (Scott, 1992; Constantinople, Corneilius, & Gray, 1988), chairpersons' authority, gender (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993), or faculty emotions such as confidence or fear (Collins, 1984).

Carroll & Wolverton (2004) said that the department heads role begins with the challenging statement that up to 80 per cent of all administrative decisions made in colleges and universities are made by department heads. The head plays a central role in the governance and productivity of postsecondary institutions (Wolverton, 1999). Bowman (2002) suggests that the real work of academic chairpersons 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. Therefore, results of this study have important implications for department chairs and faculty members.

Perceived participation in university decision making is influenced by a number of factors. According to the human capital theory (Becker, 1975), employers make rational decisions in choosing their employees, and only those candidates with the best education and experience for the job are considered. In universities, those faculty members possessing the highest degree (a doctorate), tenure, and extensive work experience gained through years of teaching would be most likely to be selected to participate in decision-making committees. Thus, according to the human capital model, faculty members' perceived participation in decision making should be influenced by their level of education and their work experience. Organizational structure can influence the choice and direction of faculty members' participation in decision-making (Scott, 1992). This suggests that department organization plays a key role in participation in decision-making. In this study I argue that the department, like any other workplace, is a social organization where power is asserted, tasks are assigned and negotiated, and work is accomplished through the interplay of formal and informal social structures. We may note the words of Useem:

“...Making decisions is what most managers do much of their day. Hundreds are minor, but some are significant: commencing a project or hiring a staff. A few are momentous: blowing a whistle or redirecting a career—or even launching an enterprise or saving a firm. Made well, good decisions become the foundation of personal advancement; made poorly, they can end an otherwise promising career...”

(Useem et al, 2005, p.462)

Decisions take on special significance when made by those in leadership positions because they impact the fate of many others and possibly even the enterprise itself. We

define leadership decisions to be those moments when an individual with organizational responsibility faces a discrete, tangible, and realistic opportunity to commit enterprise resources to one course or another on behalf of the enterprise's objectives (Useem et al, 2005, p.462).

The point that school administrative decision making requires more than the mechanical application of existing rules, regulations and various levels of school and school-related policy has been well established (Hoy and Miskel, 2005).

Rausch (1996) said that enhancing suitable participation could be measured the easy way to improve the climate of an organization. Honesty and ability in seeking the contribution and participation of staff members leads to better communications, greater collaboration and more cohesive teamwork. These in turn guide to higher levels of confidence and that reinforces the openness of the climate. The great thing about participation is that it does not need sanction of higher level management. Every head of a department can practise suitable participation separately. It is improved, of course, if top management leads the way by instance and support (Rausch, 1996, p. 34).

2.3.2 Theories, models, styles and types of decision making

As with leadership, decision making has been studied from multiple perspectives, and there is no universally accepted classification of decision making styles (Tatum et al, 2003, p.1007).

Educational and career decision-making has attracted a great deal of research interest in the last two decades. As a result of the influence of economic rationalism, students have been constructed as 'autonomous choosers' in the policy literature (Peter and Marshall, 1996) who make active and conscious decisions about their post-16 transitions. But it is important to note that research challenges this idea. Educational and employment decision-making is a complex process. Studies show an array of multiple factors, stages and influences impinging on the "choice" process (Payne, 2003).

Major decisions are not necessarily more in number, but unlike many routine ones, these decisions are highly consequential and have widespread and long-term impact. Such decision types have been said to have three main features: 1) rare: strategic decisions are unusual and typically have no precedent to follow. 2) consequential: strategic decisions commit significant resources and demand a great deal of commitment. 3) percussive: strategic decisions set precedents for lesser decisions and future actions during the organization (Basi, 1998, p.235).

Decision-making model should consist of some optimum number of variables which will explain the real-world phenomenon being modelled. Such a model should enable the decision maker to predict real-world phenomena with valuable consistency and accuracy (Harrison, 1993, p.27). There is practically no limit to the number of models of decision-making which can be developed to serve the purposes and advance the discipline of the model builder (Harrison, 1993, p.27).

As said by Greenberg and Baron (2008) decision-making is so fundamental to organizations; decisions themselves tend to be of many different kinds. Firstly, programmed decisions, highly routine decisions made according to reestablished organizational routines and procedures. Furthermore, non-programmed decisions, decisions made about a highly novel problem for which there is no pre-specified course of action. In addition, strategic decisions, nonprogrammed decisions typically made by high-level executives regarding the direction their organization should take to achieve its mission (Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p.384; Cherrington, 1989, p.628; Simon, 1997).

In general, research has shown that there are meaningful differences between people with respect to their orientation toward decisions—that is, their decision style. Whereas some people are primarily concerned with achieving success at any cost, others are more concerned about the effects of their decisions on others. Furthermore, some individuals tend to be more logical and analytical in their approach to problem, whereas others are more intuitive and creative. Clearly, important differences exist in the approaches decision makers take to problems (Greenberg and Baron, 2008, pp.388-389).

Greenberg and Baron (2008) classify the style model of individual decision to four major decision styles as following: firstly, directive style—characterized by people who prefer simple, clear solutions to problems. Individuals with this style tend to make decisions rapidly because they use little information and do not consider many alternatives. They tend to rely on existing rules to make their decisions and aggressively use their status to achieve results. Secondly, analytical style—individuals

who are willing to consider complex solutions based on ambiguous information. People with this style carefully analyze their decisions using as much data as possible. Such individuals tend to enjoy solving problems, they want the best possible answers and are willing to use innovative methods to achieve them and after that they adopt a conceptual style which relates to people who are socially oriented in their approach to problems. Within such an approach leaders are humanistic and artistic in style. Such individuals tend to consider many broad alternatives when dealing with problems and to solve them creatively. They have a strong future orientation and enjoy initiating new ideas; finally, behavioral style - people who have a deep concern for the organizations in which they work and the personal development of their co-workers. They are highly supportive of other and very concerned about others' achievements, frequently helping them meet their goals. Such individuals tend to be open to suggestions from others, and therefore tend to rely on meetings for making decisions (Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p. 389). As will be outlined later, according to the results of this study the heads of department in Libyan universities are using the behavioral style when they are making decisions in their departments.

Kolbe & Boos (2009) defined theory of group decision-making, this theory demonstrated that during the decision process, the group should fulfil the following critical functions, which are essential for feasible decision quality: the group should develop a thorough and correct understanding of the problem; the group must recognise the requirements that the decision must satisfy in order to be judged acceptable; the group should develop realistic and eligible decision alternatives and evaluate their possible positive and negative consequences; and lastly, the group should choose the alternative with the best trade-off of advantages and disadvantages

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Situational awareness provides decision-makers with scenario specific information that is necessary for effective decision-making. Mental models of the domain provide them with a schema to organize the situational information and create a situational model. The close relationship of situational models to situational awareness merits a discussion of situational awareness (Watkins and Mukherjee, 2009, p.179). Some researchers at the interface of decision-making and situational awareness have asserted That Situational models allow decision-makers to organize situational information using domain specific knowledge, thus helping them prioritize trade-offs that lead to effective decisions. Other researchers have likened situation assessment to situational awareness. However, there are opposing opinions among researchers who assert that it is quite possible to have good situational awareness and not be an expert decision-maker (Watkins and Mukherjee, 2009).

Harrison (1993) points out that there are four decision models, these models are, the rationality, bounded-rationality, political models and process models, (see Table 2.2).

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The political model proposes that decisions result from bargaining by individuals or coalitions, rather than from the operation of routine organisational information gathering and processing (Harrison, 1993, p. 30).

Use of the process-oriented approach to managerial decision-making is definitely increasing. Simon (1977); Witte (1972); Schrenk (1969); Janis (1968); Fredrikson (1971) noted that the components of the decision-making process are the functions of decision making which include:

- Setting managerial objectives.
- Searching for alternatives.
- Comparing and evaluating alternatives.
- The act of choice.
- Implementing the decision.
- Following up and controlling the decision.

Each of the models is planned to acquire the personal and social impacts of decision-making and process them into stages such that each can be independently analysed. The models on the other hand are based on general societal characteristics rather than specific situations. As a result, they cannot be readily applied where the personal and social forces are inconsistent with the models assumptions.

Decision-making theories abound that explain important aspects of human interactivity, such as entrepreneurialism, subject probability, utility, interpersonal decisions, political problem definition and more (Beach 1997). Axioms that many of those who study decision making agree upon include:

1. Information overload or poor quality of information hinders good decisions.

2. It is better to have more information than less.

3. Those that gather or who make information available are not often themselves decision makers.

4. Information that is gathered, even if left unused, makes a decision seem more legitimate (Henry 2004).

Whether these axioms are true in all cases or not, the literature identifies a number of decision-making methods, some mentioned more often than others.

Beach (1997) mentioned that one of the five approaches to decision making it focus on is the rational approach. This form of decision making assumes there is one main goal, that decision makers have access to unlimited information and possess the cognitive qualities to sift through and use this information, that at some point a comparison can be made of all possible decision alternatives and that a least-cost alternative can be chosen on the basis of measurable costs (Beach 1997). The rational approach assumes that a rational decision alternative can be found regardless of costs, an alternative that will answer the needs of the problem at hand (Hoy and Tarter 1995).

Another approach to decision making is the incremental approach. Simon (1997) and Lindblom (1959) assert that for many reasons, decision makers act in a 'satisfying' way. This means that in nearly all cases where a decision alternative must be reached, decision makers do not have access to all possible facts and information; they cannot measure in any equitable way the costs and benefits of alternatives. Very often no single alternative seems to fit the problem or issue at any given time. Satisfying routinely is referred to as bounded rationality (Beach 1997; Henry 2004, Simon 1997). What often occurs is that the decision maker will enact a previous alternative that has

been used under similar circumstances that can, when modified, fit the current problem's conditions. Otherwise, a reasonable alternative will be created or chosen that seems to satisfy the needs of the problem. Generally, decision makers that are affected by time constraints and costs will choose an incremental alternative rather than a fundamentally newly designed approach (Hoy and Tarter 1995).

A third way of looking at decision-making is that decision makers utilize a combination of rational and incremental approaches: mixed scanning (Etzioni 1964, Beach 1997, Henry 2004, Hoy and Tarter 1995). In this approach, new problems or problems that require a fundamentally different response (one that may be costly and require a wholesale change in the allocation of resources) will receive different attention than day-to-day operational kinds of decisions. Decision makers will monitor their organizations through two different lenses: a long-range lens to identify the need for using a rational approach to determine the appropriate alternative to use; and a short-range lens, for choosing incremental ways of satisfying day-to-day problems: "Incremental decisions are made within a framework of existing mission and policy. Mixed scanning is an adaptive strategy that unites the rational model with the incremental model (Hoy and Tarter 1995).

Another approach to decision making is the interpretive approach, or deciding by virtue of 'gut feelings'. In interpretative decision making, a decision maker feels an inner intensity about choosing a particular alternative. The decision maker's choice has to do with acting or not acting upon local or distant, internal or external decision factors. Often, the decision factors are subliminal or subconscious memories or knowledge. They may be real, limited or deep-impact experiences that the decision

maker accounts for, each impact or decision factor not easily separated from others or recognized by itself. As a whole, decision factors act upon the decision maker as what he or she might refer to as a 'gut feeling' (Sellers 1996).

Lastly, an often-discussed decision-making approach is 'garbage can' decision making (Cohen et al, 1972). Sometimes referred to as organized anarchy, decisions are made when significant differences of opinion exist. 'Garbage can' decision making will happen when policies and goals are not precise, when the organization's mission is not clear or agreed upon, and when participation in the decision is fluid and or erratic (Henry 2004). At some point there is a coming together of problems, people to fix them, and solutions—as though a decision emerges from a garbage can of information, decisions and problems. Sometimes 'garbage can' decision making is said to be where solutions are waiting for problems to happen.

Cooke and Slack (1991) mention that all management decisions are not the same. It is clear, in practice, those occupying different positions within the organization, and therefore performing a different set of management tasks, is confronted with very different types of decision. For example, a personnel manager, whose major task is to manage a programme on ongoing and regular recruitment, will face very different decisions from one whose job it is to advise the company's top management on a large-scale and traumatic redundancy programme. Consequently, we need some kind of classification of decision types, in order that we can differentiate one decision from another. The problem with doing this is that it would involve us in the specific management content of, for example, quality controllers, brand managers, personnel managers and all the other people who have responsibility for specific areas of the

organization's activity. According to that, there are three dimensions are particularly useful in differentiating management decisions: 1. How much of the organization the decision encompasses, for example, whether the decision is strategic or operational. 2. How well defined the decision is, for example, whether the decision is structured or unstructured. 3. How connected the decision is with others, for example, whether the decision is dependent or independent (Cooke and Slack, 1991, p.21).

Consistent with Harris (2009) there are several basic kinds of decisions. Firstly, we must consider decisions whether this is a yes/no, either/or decision that must be made before we proceed with the selection of an alternative. Decisions whether are made by weighing reasons for and against a decision. It is important to be aware of having made a decision whether assuming that the decision to choose one has already been made. Secondly we must examine whether these decisions involve a choice of one or more alternatives from among a set of possibilities, the choice being based on how well each alternative measures up to a set of predefined criteria. Finally, we must consider contingent decisions, which are decisions that have been made but put on hold until some condition is met.

There also seems to be a consensus in much recent literature that decision-making is a process which is not necessarily linear in nature. The education and training system focuses on particular decisions at particular points of time. However, the decisions taken at these particular points are part of an ongoing process of identity formation which begins before and continues after these decisions. Furthermore, as Hodkinson, Sparkes and Hodkinson (1996) emphasise, decisions can be temporary and reversed. The existing models of educational and employment decision-making is valuable in

demonstrating the broad socio-cultural spheres which interact to shape a person's decision or choice. However, they have tended to focus on the key institutional transitions experienced by young people from school to further and higher education and to work (Hodkinson et al. 1996; Ball et al, 2000; Brooks, 2005). Comparatively less attention has been given to education and employment decision-making over the life course.

There is association between the effect a decision is expected to have on an institution's personnel and the amount of attention paid to the decision; and, of course, what people expect is based largely on what has been experienced in the past. Decisions that have had clearly perceptible and relatively immediate effects on personnel typically receive much attention. Decisions that have had no effects, nebulous effects or substantially delayed effects on personnel typically receive considerably less attention. With this surveillance in mind, institutional decisions can be usefully classified into three broad categories: (1) decisions that are expected to impact employee job convenience, comfort or status; (2) decisions that are expected to impact institution, programme or individual security or survival; and, (3) decisions which are not expected to significantly impact the lives of personnel (Choban et al, p.2-3).

Janis and Mann (1977) have identified five dominant "styles" of decision making, unconflicted inertia, unconflicted change, defensive avoidance, hypervigilance and vigilance. Vigilance is that decision style of looking deeply enough at an issue, logically evaluating alternatives and payoffs, and so on. This is the style the successful manager uses more of the time than the unsuccessful manager. The other four decision

styles represent the actions we take when we are not at our best. Janis and Mann suggest they may be thought of as "four traps" of faulty decision making. These alternatives include:

- 1) Unconflicted acceptance, in this decision-making style, the person just accepts an alternative without really thinking about it and without experiencing any internal conflict in the process of accepting it, typically because the action may have "worked" for the person in the past (Larry, 1987, p.9).
- 2). Unconflicted change, in this decision-making style, the person makes a change (typically an abrupt change) from what he or she has done before, also without giving it much thought and without experiencing any noticeable conflict in making the change (Larry, 1987, p.11).
- 3) Defensive avoidance. This style is the most common and the most problematic for the unsuccessful manager. Curiously, this is also the style that can most easily be avoided by understanding the probability element. Defensive avoidance is the circumstance where the individual is truly "stuck" and unable to decide between the alternatives (Larry, 1987, p.11).
- 4) Hypervigilance. In this decision style, the person is actually attempting to be vigilant, but time pressures prevent vigilance and, inevitably, this style reduces the decision maker's level of effectiveness (Larry, 1987, p.11).

Therefore, the "four traps" of ineffective decision making are:

- (1) Accepting a course of action without giving it enough thought (unconflicted acceptance);
- (2) Changing to a different course of action without giving it enough thought (unconflicted change);
- (3) Being "stuck" and unable to decide between alternatives (defensive avoidance);

(4) Having insufficient time for vigilance (hypervigilance) (Larry, 1987, p.11).

Decisions related to programme outcomes have typically had little effect on the lives of faculty and staff. Thus, consideration of programme outcome quality as a factor in strategic planning tends to be neglected. While there is currently considerable time and attention devoted to assessment issues, observations suggest that the focus of attention is usually more about developing strategies for satisfying accrediting agencies than about improving learning outcomes (Choban et al, p.3).

“...Not all leaders achieve the desired results when they face situations that require a variety of decisions and responses. All too often, managers rely on common leadership approaches that work well in one set of circumstances but fall short in others...”

(Snowden et al, 2007, p.1)

Snowden et al (2007, p.1-2) believed that the time has come to broaden the traditional approach to leadership and decision making and form a new perspective based on complexity science. Over the past ten years, we have applied the principles of that science to governments and a broad range of industries. Using this approach, leaders learn to define the framework with examples from their own organization's history and scenarios of its possible future. This enhances communication and helps executives rapidly understand the context in which they are operating.

Decisions can be easily delegated, and functions are automated. Adhering to best practices or process reengineering makes sense. Exhaustive communication among managers and employees is not usually required because disagreement about what needs to be done is rare. Nevertheless, problems can arise in simple contexts. First, issues may be incorrectly classified within this domain because they have been oversimplified. Leaders who constantly ask for condensed information, regardless of

the complexity of the situation, particularly run this risk. Second, leaders are susceptible to entrained thinking, a conditioned response that occurs when people are blinded to new ways of thinking by the perspectives they acquired through past experience, training, and success. Third, when things appear to be going smoothly, leaders often become complacent. If the context changes at that point, a leader is likely to miss what is happening and react too late (Snowden and Boone, 2007, p. 2; Saber, 1994; Ibraheem, 2008).

These various decision-making styles are connected to leadership. Transformational and transactional leadership gravitate to various decision styles. As noted previous, transformational leaders are magnetic, intelligent, and inspire their followers to question the status quo and seek new possibilities. Transformational leaders try to manufacture and integrate as much information as possible in order to form their vision and galvanize their followers. Consequently, transformational leaders adopt a more integrative or complete decision style. Transactional leaders, alternatively, tend to focus on the task at hand and try to solve immediate problems (see figure 2.3 which mentions the relationship between leadership and decision styles) (Tatum and Eberlin, 2007, pp. 304-205).

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alternatives; and, risks. Drucker argues that a good decision process never begins with alternatives but starts with objectives and with asking:

What are we trying to accomplish? And,

What are the results we are trying to achieve?

This paves the way for honest, open discussion and eliminates jumping to alternatives. Only after a clear, specific set of objectives has been decided upon are alternatives discussed. At this point, each alternative can be evaluated beside the objectives, and the most suitable ones can be explored further. These possible choices are then evaluated in terms of risk. The final option is made only after all three elements have been considered, in the right order (Schwarber, 2005, p.1087).

According to Cherrington (1989) the basic elements of the decision making process involves establishing goals and objective, identifying a problem, developing and evaluating alternatives, choosing an alternative and implementing it, and evaluating its results. This model is somewhat misleading, since it implies that decision making follows a fixed series of logical steps. Actual decision making is not so organized or systematic. Nevertheless, this diagram allows us to examine the elements in the normal decision making process and identify some of the obstacles inhibiting effective decision making (Cherrington, 1989, p.609).

As Cooke and Slack (1991) stated that when considering the uncontrollable factors within a decision, it is useful to take the three following steps:

1. Identify the factors which will influence the final consequence of a decision
2. Identify the states or levels which each uncontrollable factor could take.

3. Attempt to predict the likelihood of these states or levels occurring for each of the uncontrollable factors (Cooke and Slack, 1991, p.13).

In contrast, Thomas (1994) suggests six steps for achieving problem solving success:

1. defining and selecting the problem View the problem as a gap or difference between the current condition (as is) and some future condition (what should be). Have the group brainstorm for 'as is' conditions that might be viewed as problems. Brainstorming and simple voting tools can be helpful here. More elaborate methodologies such as control, importance, difficulty, time, return on investment, resources can be useful to prioritize the as is conditions.
2. analyzing the problem Identify, collect, and analyze data to confirm the problem is real. Identify and prioritize possible causes for what exists.
3. generating potential solutions this can be done many ways, including brainstorming, research (secondary and/or primary), and design activities. What 'should be", expressed as objectives, should guide the generation of potential solutions. Creativity is important in this step. Never stop with only one solution two or hopefully more potential solutions should be generated.
4. selecting and planning the solution deciding which solution to select should be based on the achievement of objectives.
5. implementing the solution this step often leads to an embedded decision process-generating potential ways to implement the solution and selecting an implementation alternative based on the achievement of objectives.
6. evaluating the solution was the problem solved'? If so, was the problem solving process effective? If the problem was not solved, was it due to a deficiency in the problem solving process or to the occurrence of an unforeseen event? In retrospect, was the unforeseen event unlikely to have happened or should it have been considered in the problem solving process? (Thomas, 1994, pp. 223-226).

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(such as new markets, organisational processes or technology) rather than focus on problems defined by historical or forecast data sets. Thereafter, the organisational member or decision-making group needs to determine if the focal situation is an important opportunity or problem that requires attention and action.

Steps three and four can be concluded quickly or slowly, depending on the decision maker's level of tolerance for risk. A high tolerance allows for speedier decision-making. In considering different alternatives, decision-makers have focused on implementation issues, so there is a clear linkage between the process and outcome components.

In steps five and six there is a jump to what may be called right-to-left thinking in that the goal or anticipated outcome of the decision is now clearly stated and attention is given to plans of action that outline what specifically needs to be done, working backward from the goal to the present. This right-to-left thinking increases the anticipation of barriers and the development of strategies to deal with them. Once a decision is implemented, it is important to monitor the outcome measures (improved quality, reduced expense and shorter delivery time) carefully, for without systematic feedback it is impossible to determine the overall effectiveness of decision-making.

2.3.4 Summary

According to Dawson (1984) decision making is a fundamental process in any organization. The importance of decision making in educational organizations has been recognized as a key function necessary by administrators (Dawson, 1984).

Decision making process needs to heads that have the ability to make fast decisions with lowest cost, and understanding the staff members in their departments. Some people are born with good decision-making skills. Their minds naturally go from objectives to alternatives to risks, gathering and processing the relevant information in the right order. Many leaders achieve their position because they have excellent critical-thinking skills, and they have trouble understanding that not everyone starts out with the same innate talent. Impatient with colleagues whose skills are not as finely honed, they insist on making many important decisions themselves or second-guess those to whom they have supposedly given decision-making authority (Schwarber, 2005p.1090). However, as stated by Ward and Pascarelli (1987), the department should understand that the entire system benefits when people exert substantial control over their work environment. Department must believe and support a participatory style that affords decision making and work, because the quality of leadership by the heads of department is necessary for effective staff participation in decision making.

In judging the quality of a decision, in addition to the concerns of logic, use of information and alternatives, three other considerations come into play. Firstly, the decision must meet the stated objectives most thoroughly and completely. How well does the alternative chosen meet the goals identified? Secondly, the decision must meet the stated objectives most efficiently, with concern over cost, energy, side effects. Are there negative consequences to the alternative that make that choice less desirable? We sometimes overlook this consideration in our search for thrills. Thirdly, the decision must take into account valuable by-products or indirect advantages. In addition, a new employee candidate may also have extra abilities not directly related to

the job but valuable to the company nonetheless. These should be taken into account (Harris, 2009, p.5).

When the leaders making decisions should be flexible and change their styles to match situations. This, of course, is the reverse of Fiedler's argument, who proposed that leadership style was less amenable to change than the situation (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Higher education institutions can dramatically improve decision making capabilities by implementing successful data warehousing initiatives that address identifiable challenges, set attainable goals and follow the framework of guiding principles and programme lifecycle management (Data Driven Decision Making in Higher Education, 2004).

2.4 THE ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT

2.4.1 Background

Academic departments are the main units of education and administration in the academic organization of the university. Normally the colleges are organized with departments when judged to be supportive academically and administratively of the effective functioning of the unit (University of North Carolina, 1983).

Hecht et al. (1999, p.271) inform us that "departments are the heart and soul of our post-secondary institutions" and "serve as the home of disciplinary knowledge and as the intellectual and social base for faculty." The head has the intricate challenge of connecting the basic organizational unit to the larger institution, requiring leadership

that builds bridges, creates connections, and defuses tensions (Hecht et al., 1999; Craig, 2005, p. 82).

Gwany (1995) stated that the department is administrative unit that includes a number of researchers, scholars and members of the teaching body which is responsible for the graduation of qualified cadres scientifically and practically (Gwany, 1995). In addition, the department is a section in university entity is scientific, administrative, and it is responsible on its study and scientific research organization and repeaters affairs, students and members of the teaching body within the framework of the general policy of the University (Scientific Symposium of the Department of the University, 1977). Thus the department is the basic organizational unit of the higher education institutions whether they are universities or institutes (Marsy, 1992).

During the development of the educational structure in Libya the department is considered as a comprehensive administrative and academic unit in the structure of university education. This is because is the basic nucleus of the university which may contain a group of specialized scientific sections that form a group of educational programmes covers most of the careers and positions that answer the needs of the society and at the same time helps to get one of the university degrees (Alhawwat,1996).

Departments were originated as a result of the development of knowledge and increase of the students' number as well as the scientific and technological development that made the establishment of these departments an important necessity (Anderson, 1977). Anderson (1977) has explained this idea saying that the establishment and development of the departments and may have certain reasons in a particular country

or there may be cultural factors and societal forces as well as the huge intellectual blow up. This idea implies putting a specialized group in a certain intellectual field in a certain department (Anderson, 1977).

The efficiency of the academic department and its ability to achieve its goals, and objectives of the university depends to a large extent on the efficiency of administrative and academic head, The quality and efficiency of the academic department is determined by the capabilities and readiness department head, he or she is a leader and manager, is guided by others towards achieving the goals section, a supervisor of the events and activities section, planned, and the supervisor and a resident of the levels of performance, both for students or researchers or faculty members, administrators, and shepherd them, and described their responsibilities, and generally is responsible for managing the affairs of the department.

2.4.2 The importance of department

The importance of department lies in that it is the authorized board responsible for all what is related to the scientific and educational issues (Salamy, 1978, p.12). As a result, it is the first active power responsible for identifying the features of the university and its productivity in its field of specialization and there is no administrative unit in the university or in the faculty more important than the department (Hamamy, 1996). Mutar (1987) notes that all those who have studied it agreed upon that it perform the greater role in establishing and developing the higher education (Mutar, 1987, p.138).

Academic departments play a critical role in influencing decisions relative to the nature of the institution, course content, major needs, and faculty salaries (Hoyt & Spangler, 1977). Departments present for the growth, conservation, and transmission of knowledge and have a clearly defined pecking order of authority. As such, it has been argued that the achievement of an institution of higher learning is measured mainly by the success of its academic departments (Bennett & Figuli, 1990; Knight & Holen, 1985). Bennett (1988) has claimed that the quality of an institution's educational programme depends almost entirely on the effectiveness of its department heads (Coats, 2000, p. 774).

Moreover, Zaher (1990) in light of the features of the department and the roles it performs as an organizational unit, referred to the tendency of the planners in most of the states of the world towards the implementation of departments (Zaher, 1990). Zaher (1990) stressed that the studies performed on the activity of this system in contrast with the rest of the organizational structures have proved that establishing the multi-department university is not the only leader of the scientific research but it is the leader of more efficient and more productive research (Zaher, 1990).

The job of a head of department is not just administrative tasks (Torrington and Weightman, 1990, p.163). As argued at the start of this section of the thesis, heads of department are considered the key human elements that play an important role in the university administration success because they have administrative, organizational, and educational capabilities (Hamami, 1996). Heads of department are involved in a mixture of managing and being managed, so it is necessary to operate differently with different people at any time (Gold, 1998. P.77). Good interpersonal skills are highly

relevant for heads of department. Theories about adult learning are described, in order to inform the way people work together, and an effective head of department pays a great deal of attention to acquiring effective interpersonal skills. Working with other people is the most creative interaction, one which requires care and thought and planning. Strategies are offered to find ways of developing objectivity, especially when strong feelings such as conflict threaten to cloud important issues (Gold, 1998. P.111). Thus, in accordance with this perspective, the researcher will examine a group of standards related to capability of the head of department in making decisions which will show us the real capability of these heads.

2.4.3 Specializations of the department board

Article 40 of the code of organizing Libyan universities No. 37 in 1977 indicates that the department consists of a board which in turn is comprised of teaching staff members. The board of the department has the authority to call for its meeting everyone who teaches the subjects that fall in his specialization (Garyounis University, 1992). Article 41 of the same code and article 61 of the resolution No.53 identified the authorities of the board of the department; paying attention to all the scientific, academic and social works in the department, identifying the references and academic courses in the department, distributing the subjects, lectures, exercises and the academic works to teaching staff members, postgraduates and all the employees in the department; organizing the scientific researches of the teaching staff members in the department (The General Secretariat of Justice, 1997; Garyounis University, 1997).

Consistent with the decision of Ministry of Higher Education (2008) No. 22 about the organizational structure of universities and higher education institutions in Libya, the

department gives an opinion on the acceptance of applications of members teaching and readers, in addition to express an opinion on requests for leave time scientific and leave without pay made by the members teaching (Ministry of Higher Education No. 22, 2008).

Pursuant on this, the departments in the universities is the executive administration (controlling task) that implement certain tasks and administrative activities which accord with the administrative and educational medium they exist in the department as an administrative, executive and educational unit is found to achieve certain goals through a group of individuals who need a person capable of affecting, dealing with and guide them to achieve these goals (Kmakem, 1985; Alhrfa, 1980).

2.5 HEADS OF DEPARTMENT

2.5.1 Introduction

The term heads of department are appointed by council and are responsible to their dean, and ultimately to the Vice-Chancellor, for the management of their department within organizational, policy and strategic framework established by the university. For the carrying out of their responsibilities heads have delegated authority from council (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 1; Human Resources Committee, 1999).

The term of head is the person who has daily contact with faculty, students, and administrators and has the responsibility of assuring quality for the academic unit (Byrne, 1997; Hecht et al., 1999; Seagren, Miller, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1994; Tucker, 1992; Craig, 2005).

Brown & Rutherford (1998) argue that heads of department are the key to developing successful departments and successful schools (Brown & Rutherford, 1998, p. 75). Heads must be effective departmental (Lees et al, 2009, p. 2). Earley & Fletcher-Campbell (1989) accepted that effective leadership at all levels was important however, for many respondents, department and faculty heads were seen as the driving force behind any school and the key to improving the quality of the learning process.

The position of the heads of department is vital to the effective administration of both the academic department and the entire college (Miller, 1999, p. 739). Both Stanley & Algert (2007) and Feeney (2009, p. 216) demonstrated that leaders spend more than 40% of their time managing conflict. Department heads are in an exclusive position—they meet conflict from individuals they manage and from others to whom they report such as a senior administrator in the position of dean. The satisfaction and success of faculty members depends a great deal on the department head (Gappa, 2002). There are very small number of researches that seek to ascertain the conflict management styles of department heads and how these impact leadership and professional development (Stanley & Algert, 2007, p. 49).

The prime role of the head of department is to provide strong academic leadership. The head of department is necessary to guide, manage and develop the department to ensure it achieves the highest possible standards of excellence in all its activities. They will often be supported by the Pro-Vice Chancellor Faculty, and by colleagues from within the department, Faculty, and central services (see, for instance, The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 1).

All heads of department are necessary to use leadership, demonstrate vision, and empower others in order to deliver the agreed departmental strategy within the faculty. It is documented that the methods by which heads of department take out their duties and the degree of allocation, will depend on such factors as the size and nature of the departments and the personal approach of the individual head of department (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 1).

Heads of department should delegate functions appropriately and develop a management structure and departmental ethos which will promote the participation of other members of staff in the management or administration of the department (Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009). Buller (2009) believed that the head of department who can meld practical experience with a vision of future possibilities that will lead the university to the next level of excellence (Buller, 2009, p. 10).

Moses (1985) defined the tasks of the heads of department as following: 1) Report departmental accomplishments to his dean or immediate superior. 2) Include faculty members in the decision making process of the department. 3) Participate in the recruitment of all full-time department faculty members. 4) Develop and review long range department goals and objectives (Moses, 1985, p. 340). However, overall, the role of the head of the department is achieving the highest performance and understanding inside the department itself and between the department and other departments. Thus leaders should possess the necessary competences in order to be able to take the initiative role in the social situations. He should also organize and plan the work, create an atmosphere of cooperation, build good relations with the others and work with the other people to make clear communicative ways between him, the

teaching staff members and all the employees working with him available in order to guarantee the easy flow of information from and to the concerned authorities (Saleh, 1997, p.150). The heads of the departments' possession of certain range of competences for leading and managing their departments provides them with the ability of leading and stimulating the work groups (Saleh, 1997, p.150).

According to Stanley & Algert (2007) academic departments are not unlike many organizations. Many claim to be a "community." nevertheless, a confront that department heads face is how to create a climate where individuals who have different viewpoints can agree to disagree with each other and still feel that they are a part of the community (Stanley & Algert, 2007, p. 51). Bowman (2002) argued that the real work of the department head is learning how to "invite and orchestrate the very penetrating, perceptive, probing questions that can often give rise to the tension, dissent, and constructive stress that are absolutely essential to both defining reality and creating positive organizational change" (Bowman, 2002, p.160).

Murphy (1992) argues that heads of department need to lead not from the apex of the traditional pyramid but from the nexus of a web of interpersonal relationships, with people rather than through them. Their base of influence must be professional expertise rather than line authority. The most important challenge for heads of department is to lead not by controlling teachers but by empowering them to release their latent, creative abilities. Murphy (1992) goes on to argue that heads of department need to create new organic forms of departmental structure. These flatter structures, where leadership is widely shared, promote a greater degree of ownership and hence the development of a more committed workforce in the department.

The way in which people make decisions is heavily influenced by factors such as their culture, economic and political events, the interpersonal roles that they have assumed throughout life and their basic self-structure. These environmental and personal factors help determine their perceptions and ultimately the decisions that people make (Rogoff & Lave, 1984).

One of the major determining contexts is that of culture. The influence of culture is apparent when we consider a factor such as the role of significant others in decision making. In many cultures, making career decisions is not primarily an individual event but rather an expression of the family group (Westwood & Ishiyama, 1991). From this perspective, a career decision can only be considered with reference to the collective needs and wishes of the group in which the individual is embedded.

The influence of economic and political events can also be considerable and long lasting (Herr, Amundson, & Borgen, 1990). In our current economic and political context, cutbacks in education and a difficult labour market have helped to make young people and others more uncertain and anxious about their long-term career future. For many, this has led to a sense of helplessness and alienation and has served to undermine effective career decision making (Borgen & Amundson, 1987). It seems to be the nature of information professionals in organizations to want to provide heads with as much high-quality information as possible. We may find it surprising, therefore, that heads of department do not necessarily want all the information that is available. Rather, they often want just enough information to make effective decisions, the primary task in managerial work (Katopol, 2007, p. 233-234).

Murphy (1992) argues that as moral educators, heads of department need to be motivated by a set of deep personal values and beliefs. They must demonstrate the ethic of care to all. They do this by concentrating on people first, by valuing each member of their department and by responding to their unique qualities and needs. All of these pressures have unavoidably led to changes in the role and function of academic heads of department (Greene et al, 1996).

While department heads play an important role in the success of a college, comparatively little attention has been given to the selection of department heads or to their development over time. The department head position at many institutions is a reward for achieving some academic respect or maintaining longevity of service. Rarely, if ever, do experience and leadership abilities play a significant role in the selection process (McHenry & Associates, 1977). Moreover, department heads usually receive very little, if any, guidance regarding how to carry out their duties and responsibilities (Bennett, 1988; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993). This adds to the complexity in determining the characteristics of successful department heads and the appropriate ways for them to engage in training activities (Coats, 2000, p. 774).

The position of the heads of department was seen as an interlude in that person's academic life and a competing command for time. Furthermore, a head was selected not so much for his or her professional skills but for his or her academic reputation. Consequently a head could find an important proportion of time having to be spent in acquiring and exercising an ambiguous managerial function and a decreasing proportion of time on the very academic work which led to his or her appointment in the first place. The head having relinquished the temporary managerial role may then

find himself or herself feeling less in touch with academic developments in his or her field (Mathios, 1991, P. 73).

2.5.2 The concept of the head of department in Libyan universities

The head of department in Libyan universities is a member in the public committee of the faculty and he or she completes the circle between the department and the teaching staff members, the students and the employees on the one hand and with the public committee of the faculty on the other. He or she is to be chosen from among the teaching staff members who meet to choose a secretary (head of the department) from among them who manage and the department's affairs and control and regulate the work in the department (Ministry of Higher Education, 2008).

2.5.3 Characteristics of the successful head of the department

Tucker (1986, 1992) identified the characteristics that should be available in the head of the department as follows:

- The competences related to the individual relationships and the ability to work actively with the teaching staff members, employees' students and the dean of the faculty;
- The individual characteristics related to seriousness and commitment to the rules of the collective work and opening new channels of communication;
- Ability to search for and discover optimum power available to them as heads; the ability to expect and identify the problems when they occur and trying to solve them in such ways that satisfy most of the individuals and the official bodies he deals with;

- The ability to adopt and use different leading methods in the various matters he faces;
- The ability to identify and achieve the goals of the department to fulfil a satisfactory progress;
- Respect of their professional colleagues; and finally,
- The continuous search for power factors that he has and how to use them in order to stimulate the teaching faculty members and the employees towards the goals that the department seeks to fulfil (Tucker, 1986, 1992, p. 11).

Yuki (1989) points out the prescriptions for heads that are deals with the groups' leadership; the head should listen attentively and observe nonverbal cues to be aware of member needs, feelings, interactions, and conflict. In doing so, the leader should view the group as a collective entity or social system rather than as merely a collection of individuals. The role of the head should be to serve as a consultant, advisor, teacher, and facilitator, rather than as a director or manager of the group. In addition, the head should model appropriate leadership behaviours and encourage members to learn to perform these behaviours themselves by imitation. Furthermore, the head should establish a climate of approval for expression of feelings as well as ideas. Moreover, the head should encourage the group to deal with any maintenance needs and process problems within the context of the regular group meetings. However, the head should not try to move too quickly in encouraging group self-evaluation. Finally, the head should relinquish control to the group and allow the group to make the final choice in all appropriate kinds of decisions (Yuki, 1989, pp. 243-244).

The head of the department authorizes the following: 1) Educational specializations and authorities:

- Raising the level of the teaching courses and putting a programme for the scientific researches.
- Controlling the process teaching and examination besides the periodical assessment of the content of the scientific courses and teaching methods.
- Controlling the laboratories of the department.
- The periodical evaluating the teaching staff members and according to the standards issued by the faculty board, showing the opinions about the requests of contracting and developing the teaching staff members in terms of quantity and quality.

2. Administrative specializations and authorities.

- Managing the work of the department in an efficient way.
- Allocating a balance for the department and supplying it with the necessary needs of equipments and teaching tools.
- Determining the needs of the department of teaching members and employees and notifying the faculty about their starting and leaving the department.
- Informing all the members in the department about the important information to minimize the misunderstanding and implementing the constitutions and regulations followed in the university concerning his specialization.
- Imposing the administrative punishment whether blaming or warning the teaching staff members and all the employees in the department (Alawy, 1980, p.70; Ministry of Higher Education, 2008).

The head of department should have the ability to engage constructively with people; excellent communication skills; very good ambassadorial and diplomatic skill; the ability to manage a number of competing demands; excellent delegation skills; be flexible and adapt to changing circumstances; be able to develop their skills and seek

advice from a variety of sources; and be willing and able to exercise judgement and take risks (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 3-4).

2.5.4 Authority of the head of the department in Libyan universities

According to the article 63 of the resolution 53 (1977) and The General Secretariat of Justice (2007; 2008) concerning reorganizing the internal organization of the universities and faculties implied an explanation of the authority of the head of the department according to the following:

1. Controlling the scientific and administrative affairs in the department and within the limits of the policy drawn by the public committee of the faculty and the board of the department according to the provisions of the laws and regulations and decisions in effect.
2. Conveying the proposed decisions of the secretariat of the department to the secretariat of the public committee of the faculty to be discussed by the committee and explain the department point of view when looking at the matters presented.
3. Continuation the implementation of the policy of the public committee of the faculty concerning the departments' affairs specially the two stages in the university, the scientific researches, and other affairs.
4. Suggesting the distribution of the courses and classes and other tasks during the meeting of the department.
5. Keeping the order inside the department and informing the secretariat of the public committee of the faculty about anything that may affect good flow of work in the department.
6. Receiving the reports of the teaching staff members about their scientific work and the researches they have done and published annually.

7. Controlling the administrative secretariat of the department and the laboratories.

8. Preparing a report at the end of every year about the scientific, educational and administrative affairs which includes all the activities in the department, the level of performance, affairs of studying and results of examinations, the obstacles appeared during the course of study, viewing the suggested solutions for these obstacles, and presenting this report at the meeting of the department before delivering it to the dean of the public committee of the faculty (University of Garyounis, 1977; The General Secretariat of Justice, 2007).

In accordance with what has been mentioned before it becomes clear that the authority of the head of department at a Libyan universities resembles to some extent with the authorities of the head of department in the other universities in which it stresses the educational and administrative sides and what each side includes of these authorities which determine its nature in order to achieve the general goals of the department.

2.5.5 The leading, administrative and educational role and responsibility of the head of the department

The role of head of the department's role is complex and difficult to put a definition of a firm and specific, with different definitions of the role and different dimensions, different subsidiary entities of the university, characterized by their own culture and practices of the dominant, then it is necessary when you define the role of head of the department taking into account the needs and specific circumstances of the cultures of multi-disciplinary practices.

The positions of head of department are probably best described as academic leadership roles (Middlehurst, 1989). Chairing, heading or leading an academic department effectively demands a wide range of skills from the head and through role ambiguity may cause considerable role conflict for him (Moses, 1985, p. 338).

This role is represented in directing the process of decision making, distributing the various resources on all the activities, coordinating between them and the external activities and managing and controlling the department towards achieving the desired goals that contribute in achieving the goals of the university. Therefore, the head of department must distinguish between being an administrative person and a leader of the department. According to the first perspective he concentrates on accomplishing the procedural and official matters whereas from the second perspective he concentrates on sharing the others in a vocational view that pushes them towards the development and progress (Mursy, 1992, p. 221).

Cipriano and Riccardi (2005) believed that the responsibility of evaluating faculty performance most often falls on the shoulders of the department head. If there is incongruence between the head and a faculty member in determining how effective the professor is in role performance, then the vitality of the department can be compromised (Cipriano and Riccardi, 2005, p. 3).

According to Basi (1998) the managerial roles entail a complex process; firstly, establishing working relationships with relevant functionaries in the environment as well as within the organization at different levels to assure smooth flows of various organizational streams of action. Secondly, developing alternative plans about the organizational nexus to meet not only the ongoing needs of the organization, but also

contingencies as they may arise; thirdly, developing organizational capabilities in terms of people, structures, processes, and other resources to cope effectively with the nexus demands; fourthly, monitoring the functioning of internal organizational subsystems in sync with workings of necessary inter-organizational streams of action in the task environment. Fifth, and finally, managers must coordinate the workings of the various parts of the organization into a smoothly functioning whole (Basi, 1998, p. 234).

The role of the heads of department is often characterized as “ambiguous” because of the differing roles and responsibilities inherent in the position. For example, McLaughlin et al (1975) described three roles that department heads play in colleges and universities: academic, administrative, and leadership. Academic duties include teaching, advising, facilitating research, and developing the curriculum. Administrative duties include managing the budget, managing faculty and staff, keeping records, and advocating and representing the department in the college and the institution as a whole. Leadership duties include supporting, motivating, and developing the faculty (Wilson, 1999).

Bowman (2002) argues that:

“...In the broadest sense, are they expected to function as managers or leaders, or both? In a narrower sense, are they expected to serve in roles as diverse as resource manager, instant problem solver, spokesperson, deep listener, motivator, enabler, meaning maker, systems designer, and cultural rainmaker?...”

(Bowman, 2002, p. 158)

Bowman (2002) noted that, Faculty members recognized more than fifty separate roles and leadership demands central to key aspects of the department’s daily operations (p.

158). Given these daunting and comprehensive expectations, it seems safe to presume that department heads not only play a critical leadership role within the academic setting; they are also expected to fulfil a variety of responsibilities that may or may not be realistic.

Turner and Bolam (1998) emphasises the crucial role played by the head of department who is able to, for example, motivate and support staff, model desirable behaviour, provide strong leadership and be accessible. The knowledge, skills and personal characteristics of an individual heads of department are also highlighted in this model, as key components informing our analysis and understanding of the leadership of heads of department. This knowledge and these skills are likely to be acquired by the heads of department through informal learning in the workplace (Turner 2006).

Much has been printed in current years about the role of the departmental head (Moses, 1985, p. 339). McHenry and Associates (1977) saw his role thus:

“...The chairman must concurrently understand university policy to his colleagues in the department and convey departmental needs and goals to the central administration. It may be said that the chairman must study how to resolve tensions on both a horizontal and vertical plane in academic organization...”

(McHenry and Associates, 1977, p. 190)

The changes in higher education are profoundly affecting the role and function of the head of department. Halsey and Trow (1971) argued that the role of the head of department was to provide academic leadership to his or her colleagues and that, functionally; the head of department was responsible for managing the budget and syllabus, defending and promoting the department, and giving research guidance to

younger colleagues (Halsey and Trow, 1971). However, according to Halsey and Trow, these latter duties, which may be onerous, should not "distract him from his central interests" (p. 376). These "central interests" can be taken to mean teaching and research. However, even here, it is clear from the work of Startup (1976), Becher (2001) and Becher and Kogan (1992) that what matters above all else is the research status of the head of department because, traditionally, head of department have not been elected or appointed to the office primarily on the basis of their ability to administrate, manage, or teach but on their research standing. As Becher (1992) shows academics have been judged almost exclusively by their success in research:

“...Credit is earned through the publication of one's research findings; excellence in teaching counts for little towards recognition by established colleagues in the same field...” (p. 53).

This has had significant consequences for the role of the head of department. Heads of department have owed their power to their status as academic leaders in their chosen field, and, customarily, the emphasis has been on a light management steering of the department to allow other academics in the department the intellectual freedom and autonomy to effectively pursue their own academic and research ends (Greene et al, 1996).

Hare and Hare (2002) are expected to fulfil several different roles in the institutional management structure by the heads of department: academic leader; departmental manager (i.e. running the teaching programme and other routine functions); departmental planner (i.e. developing and implementing departmental strategy); and departmental-level institutional manager (i.e. a middle- level manager for the institution) (Hare and Hare, 2002, p. 36-37). These roles cannot all be fulfilled by the head of department in large departments, in the current conditions of rapid change and

increasing financial pressure from a declining unit of resource even for the basic teaching function (Hare and Hare, 2002, p. 37).

The head of the department as an administrative and educational leader can be described according to his position in the administrative rank as an executive leader who performs the role of controlling upon the teaching staff members, the employees and the students contrary to administrative and educational leaders in the university administration. He or she is responsible for translating the goals of the university and converting them to real outputs, solving the disputes that may occur between the members. And since he represents the department as a whole, he should be neutral, can distinguish very well between the members, wise man and take into consideration the interests and expectations of the others. Hence the leading roles of the head of the department are represented in the following: presenting the policy and the goals of department to the teaching staff members clearly and definitely; giving some of the administrative positions in the department to some individual or committees; in addition, suggesting and preparing the future needs of the department (human resources and physical resources). Assessing the performance of the members and suggesting the proper awards; furthermore, facilitating the flow of information to the teaching staff members and the employees in order to inform them with the activities and plans of the department. He represents the department in the various meeting inside and outside the university. Finally, reviewing and assessing the affairs of the department in order to show the areas of power and weakness (Mutar, 1987, p.151; Ministry of Higher Education, 2008).

Jones and Holdaway (1996) believe that the head's role is actually one of little power and great responsibility. Within his research heads saw their work as focused on curriculum design, programme evaluation, and formulation and implementation of academic policy. Heads themselves put faculty recruitment / selection and performance review as their top duties. Faculty saw only matters as being essential. The only agreement across levels was that academic investigate was very low on the size importance for a department head. Buller (2009) supposed that the department head's role includes a variety of responsibilities, even though the specific duties performed by the head depend on the institution, its governance structure, and at times even the personality of the head (Buller, 2009, p. 8).

It has been suggested that department heads see leadership as a formal position with responsibilities and tasks, not as a function of processes among people. According to Harris and Lambert (2003), broad-based, skilful participation and collaboration are the essence of leadership capacity and require an attention to both structures and processes. It is evident that the numerous responsibilities and multifaceted roles of department leaders may actually hinder the development of leadership capacity (Feeney, 2009, p. 217).

Heads have responsibility for ensuring that legal and policy requirements are met. These include ensuring compliance with relevant legislative requirements and with university policies including, but not limited to, environment, health and safety, finance, information technology, competitive neutrality, equal opportunity, anti-discrimination and employment matters. The role involves the following general responsibilities:

- the guidance and facilitation of the research, and undergraduate and postgraduate teaching, and continuing education and outreach activities of the department;
- the governance of the department and the establishment and development of its strategic direction;
- overseeing and guiding the academic development of students;
- the management of the department's finances and infrastructure through effective budgeting and expenditure control;
- exercising a proper duty of care for staff, students and visitors to the department;
- ensuring fair and equitable treatment of all staff and students; and
- Establishment of mechanisms to ensure that the University's cultural diversity policy is implemented (Human Resources Committee, 1999; The University of Sheffield, 2008).

The head is expected to exercise appropriate leadership and management of his/her department with due regard to: the strategic and operational plans of the university; ensuring that staff responsibilities are met; ensuring that collegiality is exercised in the management of the department and in interaction with the broader university; and ensuring that legitimate academic freedom is protected (Human Resources Committee, 1999; Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009; The University of Sheffield, 2008).

Specific responsibilities of heads include academic leadership: encouraging the pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning and in research; seeking new opportunities for enhancing the international standing of the university and department; promoting collaboration with other departments or centers; developing a culture of evaluation and

benchmarking and striving for continuous improvement; maintaining personal academic standing; representing the interests and needs of the university to the department and to the external community; promoting the discipline and the department in the external community; representing the interests and needs of the department within the university through active engagement with the academic board, faculty and other university groups and committees; and the pursuit of excellence and innovation in teaching and learning responsiveness (Human Resources Committee, 1999; Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009; The University of Sheffield, 2008).

Furthermore, responsibilities of heads involve department governance: the establishment and maintenance of a suitable departmental organizational and committee structure; the regular consultation with a departmental consultative committee; the development and maintenance of the strategic and academic planning functions of the department including the setting of goals and targets and the initiation and revision of course offerings; the implementation of quality assurance processes particularly in relation to teaching, research and the supervision of students; the allocation of duties to staff to ensure the effective and efficient performance of the department's teaching, research and service functions; the promulgation and implementation of university policies within the department; and the communication of information to and from relevant university authorities (Human Resources Committee, 1999; Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009; The University of Sheffield, 2008).

Moreover, responsibilities of heads of department contains staff guidance and management for performance: fostering the development of staff (including induction of new staff and appropriate career development and guidance support for staff on probation) within the department; ensuring the management of personnel issues within

the department including recruitment and selection of staff, annual staff performance assessment, and other relevant staff performance management issues (including advice on promotion and probation matters) and staff grievances; the establishment of mechanisms to ensure that duty of care (e.g. in relation to fieldwork) workplace health and safety policies are observed; and ensuring the ethical conduct in and by the department, including ethical use of communications networks.

Finally, responsibilities of heads of department consist of financial and infrastructure management: the financial management of the department, including establishment of budgets and planning for equipment, other infrastructure expenditure, and monitoring of expenditure against allocations; actively pursuing opportunities to increase revenue for the department; the management and maintenance of departmental space and infrastructure resources; ensuring environmentally responsible work practice and staff and student training; and ensuring compliance with legislation, university policy and regulations and university financial management and reporting requirements (Human Resources Committee, 1999; Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009; The University of Sheffield, 2008).

The growth of training programmes in a great deal of universities for heads of department must go some way to organize individuals for that role and in providing continuing opportunities for developing relevant knowledge and skills. These will only show to be really successful if such training is linked to organisational development because many of the important problems facing the head are closely bound up with the nature of the organisation. A failure to address organisational issues will mean that the

head of department's role will increasingly be perceived as a burden to be avoided (Mathios, 1991. P. 74).

It is clear that the role of the head of department has improved in difficulty over the years with a resulting increase of demands and pressures it places on the individual chosen to occupy that position. Additionally, little formal preparation for this role is provided, much has to be learnt on the job and the position is invariably occupied for only a short time (Mathios, 1991. P. 73).

2.6 THE ABILITY TO MAKE DECISIONS

2.6.1 Introduction

Decision-making is undoubtedly the most difficult and most essential task a manager performs (Kepner and Tregoe, 1965). Executives rate decision-making ability as the most important business skill, but few people have the training they need to make good decisions consistently. Russo and Shoemaker (1989) point out that becoming a good decision-maker requires coaching just like becoming a good athlete. Decision-making skills can also be taught. Common mistakes when making crucial decisions can be avoided using some fairly simple methods and techniques (Forman, 2001, p.4). The process of making a decision is considered the base and the pillar of the administrative process. The administrative leader is always forced to choose an alternative from among several alternatives. Choosing one alternative, anticipating what are the positive and negative results that will result in and the ability to implement it (put it in effect) is considered as the core of the process of making a decision. Moreover, the ability to firmly make a decision is an essential characteristic

of every leader and the competence of making a decision is needed to achieve the active performance. It requires the ability to differentiate the matters and judging them in order to determine the priorities and putting the most desired goals for making the suitable decision (Okonor, 1998, p.105).

The decisions making on the level of departments are very important and have further effects on the faculty and the university as well as on the community as a whole. Because of the importance of these decisions and in order to accord with the regulations and laws, the head of the department should be well-acquainted with the laws, regulations, the limits of the department and his relationships with the university, students and teaching staff members in order to be able to direct his department in such a way that does not clash with the system of the university and the regulations in effect (Alsheibany, 1992, p.198).

There are some models, which are useful to consider relating to how the institutional culture influences departmental disagreement and ultimately the department head's ability or inability to manage it (Baldrige, 1971; Birnbaum, 1988). First, the bureaucratic model assumes that conflict occurs but can be managed through bureaucratic roles and procedures. Second, the political model states that conflict is inevitable and is normal between and among individuals who have different needs and interests. Third, the collegial model views the academy as a "community of scholars" where conflict is "abnormal" and when it is identified, steps should be taken to eliminate it. The fourth and final model, anarchical is present in institutions that succeed in conditions of abundant resources and enter into decline when resources are

limited. The latter then forces administrators to make difficult decisions, which can then lead to conflict (Gmelch, 1995, p.36).

The process of making decisions is affected by many factors, circumstances, and social and economical variables. Therefore, the one who makes a decision should make into consideration all the factors when making, implementing and following up a decision in order to guarantee the accuracy of its structure and framing, acceptability and applicability (Alsheibany, 1992, p.198). It is supposed, that the process of making the decision should be based on the principle of scientism and objectivity in identifying the problem or the goal that is to be achieved in addition to collecting the data related to it, preparing the alternatives by taking the members opinions, choosing the preferable and suitable one in order to bring the decision from the stage of theory to the stage of implementation.

Heads see their own development as paramount to their ability to make environments that serve the learning needs of others, and they seek opportunities to learn and reflect on their own experiences through professional development activities, collaborating, and reading. The scholarship described here should help them in that process (Amey, 2006, p. 58).

According to what has been outlined so far, it becomes clear that the abilities that should be available in the leader are complementary and interrelated. The existence of all these competences in the personality of the head of the department reveals the active leadership that the institutions seek in order to develop.

2.6.2 Abilities of the heads of department

The leading administrative process is not an easy task even and having the enough amounts of leading skills is considered an important condition for performing the leading tasks efficiently. Harris and Lambert (2003) identify five critical features of the department exhibiting high leadership capacity. The critical features can be summarized as follows: broad-based skilful involvement in the work of leadership; inquiry-based decisions and practices; roles and responsibilities that exhibit broad involvement and collaboration; reflective practice and innovation as the norm; and steady increase in student achievement (Harris and Lambert, 2003). These features are part of an evaluation of leadership capacity that supports successful department improvement initiatives. These Abilities can be summarized in several fields that should be available in the head of department:

2.6.2.1 Objectivity

Objectivity refers to the ability to practice justice in implementing administration and leadership. The role of the head of department in developing and controlling the employees requires an increasing care to establish and develop active and renewed systems for choosing, appointing and assessing that enable him to employ the human resources through training and developing competences and capabilities of the employees at department. All this remains of little help unless there is objectivity and justice (Alsebeeay, 1994, p.13).

Taking into consideration the principle of objectivity in implementing administrative systems and regulations as well as making the administrative decisions is a basic requirement for all leaders in the university administration which needs to do their best

in order to protect the administration from the administrative illnesses such as friendship corruption and administrative divergence (Alsebeeay, 1994, p. 13).

The objectivity of the head of department means his ability to look at the matters in front of him or her and identify them according to a general perspective and analyze them logically without any interference of the disputes, selfishness, self-regard or biasing towards certain party. Moreover, the ability of the head of the department to keep feelings and disputes away from his or her administration and to try to analyze the matters objectively enables him to better understanding of the behaviour of the employees and consequently direct and guide them according to scientific and logical bases (Almaghriby, 1994, p. 201).

Accordingly, the American Assembly of the educational leaders (AASA) have developed policies control the vocational behaviour that the leaders are supposed to follow including the heads of department to guarantee a behaviour that supports the administrative leadership to be distinguished. These policies are including the following:

- The vocationally of the head of department push him to be objective and neutral in implementing the systems and instructions in all his procedures and relation with the students and teaching staff members.
- The head of department is committed to overpass any non vocational acts and should stay away from anything that may affect his behaviour and decisions and makes him stands with a group against another or be lenient in such a way that hinder the activation of the goals of the department and the university .

- The leading role that the head of department performs obliged him to deny himself and never think of achieving private gains that may affect practicing his responsibilities so he should practice his role neutrally and never let such things affecting his way of administrating and leading (Altaweel, 1999, p. 21).

In the light of the above, the objectivity of the head of department means the absolute dealing which is far from the personal tint and separating the individual values from the organizational values and giving the latter priority and importance in the field of official work.

The implementation of the rational (objective) and scientific principles in the administrative system is an attempt to separate the effect of the individual values so this trend seeks to form organizational values on the basis of the laws, the regulations and the rational bases in achieving this goal and connecting the means with the ends (Awamla, 1993, p. 396).

2.6.2.2 Flexibility

Flexibility is one of the abilities that the head of department should know and practice as a response to the changes that occur in the surrounding environment. The department does not act out of the environment but it responds to all the developments that occur in the society.

Flexibility in the field of administration means that there is no only one way for achieving the goals, and the leader who adopts the democratic style in his policy is considered the most dynamic and flexible leader . Hence, the need for the heads of

department to possess the ability of flexible dealing emerges .in order to face and solve the problems of the work inside the department in the light of the changes that occur in accordance with the needs and expectations of the department (Altaweel, 1999, p. 385). Altaweel (1999) points out the picture that the administrative people of the 21st century should have among which the heads of department, he supposes that they should be dynamic, flexible and able to deal with the others according to certain frame of profound understanding based on flexible policies that interact with the challenges and the increasing needs of the societies which requires from the head of department to have the following:

- The ability of move quickly and act in a good way.
- The ability to take the initiative.
- Have the ability to change and make benefit from the alternative opportunities.
- Willing to accept the new ideas and to deal with them.
- The ability to convince and appeal the others without ignoring their reactions and complaints (Amer and Abed Alwahab, 1994, p. 330).

2.6.2.3 Understanding others

The human power is considered the most precious investment in any developing process. Therefore, creating the suitable atmosphere for the work of the individuals and groups that deepens the feeling of satisfaction, achieves affiliation and stimulates the goodness in performance is considered of the most important tasks of the administrative and educational leadership (Alsabeeay, 1994, p. 15).

Profound understanding of the factors that constitute individual and group behaviour represented in the psychological characteristics, needs, trends and desires help the leader to know the intrinsic impulses of the individuals behaviours and their needs so

that they can know how to behave, influence and consequently planning for the possible alternatives that meet their needs in order to help in achieving the balance between the total goals of department and the partial goals represented in the needs of the individuals (Alsabeeay, 1994, p. 15). Understanding others is a human skill that shows the ability of the leader to deal with his employees besides the mutual understanding between them and he should know their opinions, trends desires and the individual differences in order to choose the best ways in directing them towards the right direction. The field of human skills has received a great attention from commentators on administration. For instance it has been argues that Japanese administration has achieved very high performance rates and training was considered as the essential factor behind that progress (Alearify and Mahdy, 1996, p. 196).

Human relationships are considered of the successful factors of the administration. The ability to understand others and communicate with them a purposive and proper way is also of the basic characteristics that characterizes the successful administrative personality specially in the field of educational administration (Alearify and Mahdy, 1996, p. 196). Therefore, it is the most important work in the field of undergraduate institutions where the prevailing business of intellectual nature.

2.6.2.4 Using the power

The power is the right to issue the orders and to oblige others to obey these orders and abide with them. Therefore the authority has two basic pillars that complement each other: the ability of the individual to issue the orders; and the ability of the individual who issues the orders to make others to abide by and respect the orders he had issued (Baeera, 1992, p. 206).

In this respect, Zweelif and Adayla (1996) refer to the necessity of distinguishing between the authority and the power. The authority means the legal right to act and to issue the orders whereas the power means the actual ability to implement the order, affect others and convince them to act accordingly. The source of this influence is the official authority or individual capabilities. Moreover, the use of the authority refers to the administration eligibility; he gains from his official position, to make decisions that influence the behaviour of the employees (Zweelif and Adayla, 1996, p. 172).

Department heads possess a semblance of authority but no formal power. Although they have great potential to effect positive change because of their broad sphere of influence, they never have a clear or easy path to follow (Gabriel, 2005).

Using the power means that the head of department practices his authorities, rights and duties without exploiting his official position in order to guarantee the implementation of the goals that that department seeks to achieve; This using of the power does not mean that the head of department monopolizes the power but the necessity and special nature of departments require from the head of the department to entrust some of his employees to handle certain tasks besides giving them some authority that help them to fulfil these tasks. This authorization that the administrative leader should give leads to develop the individual by training him to use his competences and bear his responsibility and in order that the authorization to be valid it should not be confined to simple matters or only be allowed when the department has heavy loads but it should be a part of a comprehensive plan and continuous process aims at opening the field for new young leaderships that practice their role through developing their capabilities,

planting trust in them and training them to bear the responsibility (Shawqy, 19992, p. 260).

2.6.2.5 Knowing the principles of communication

The leader is considered the joining circle between the organization and the members where the desired information are transferred through to the concerned authority. So he or she is required to be the mastermind that creates an integrated system from this multi-mass that consists of the activities (Alsabeeay, 1994, p. 16).

According to the study of Feeney (2009) department leaders saw their role as a distinct position with great responsibility to serve the needs of many people. Department leaders used descriptors such as liaison, manager, enforcer, supplier, fixer, department representative, advocate, communicator, and mediator to define their position (Feeney, 2009, p. 215). Schutz (1958) found that the three interpersonal behaviours of inclusion, control, and openness are present in or during most communication situations.

The head's role would become more about coaching and training team members, serving as a contact point and overall coordination (Rowley, 1997). In the communication, the head should use clear listening, speaking, and writing skills to connect in honest, open conversation at all levels of the college and its surrounding community, to support the success of all students, and to continue the community college mission (Craig, 2005, p. 85).

One of the most important communications in which heads become involved is the sending and receiving of role expectations. A role is a set of activities expected of a person holding a particular office or position in a group or organization (Schermerhorn et al, 1995, p. 183). The various people who have these expectations regarding the behavior of someone in a role are considered to be members of the role set. For a subordinate, the role expectations communicated by the head are likely to include instructions about desired behavior and unacceptable behavior, intentions regarding the allocation of reward, and evaluations of past performance. At the organizational level, a key issue in establishing a unified sense of mission and culture is the communication of a shared role orientation for the entire firm's members (Schermerhorn et al, 1995, p. 183).

The process of communication is considered the means of the leaders in managing their administrative activities that achieve the goals of the organization. One of the studies indicated that the leader spends 78% of his time in the process of communication which helps in determining the goals that should be achieved; identifying the problems and the ways of solving these problems; then assessing the performance and work productivity. After that, the coordination between the tasks and the various units, and finally, giving the orders and instructions, directing and guiding the employees and affecting them in order to lead them (Maher, 1998, p. 128).

Heads must create a supportive communication climate and manage conflict. Heads of department should do tasks include motivating faculty to enhance productivity, increase research, improve teaching, and commit to more service, and handling faculty evaluation. Therefore, heads must equip themselves with basic survival mechanisms

that enable them to engage in leadership (Lucas, 1994). Feeney (2009) said that good communication, the facilitation of group processes, and the development of positive relationships are important for the success of department heads (Feeney, 2009, p. 217).

Lees et al (2009) stated that heads must be effective communicators. As conduits of vital information between the faculty and the administration, heads must deliver all news with credible rationales, contexts, and justifications. Although it is reasonable to express concern regarding the wisdom of some policies and suggestions, heads should present the entire story with accuracy and from a perspective that does not undermine their effectiveness with department colleagues or senior administration. Mechanisms for communication are varied and include discussions at faculty meetings, agendas or announcements sent electronically or in hard copy, impromptu conversations, newsletters, press releases, or websites. Heads may communicate with a variety of individuals on campus and off, but the most essential communicants are department personnel and the Dean of Faculty (Lees et al, 2009, p. 1-2).

Therefore, the skill of communication should appear as a condition that should be available in the heads of department. The head of department who possess the ability of opening the channels of communication with the administration of the faculty, the administration of the university and the teaching staff members and who knows exactly to whom he should speak to settle certain matter or to get certain resources and by any means, he certainly has the ability to lead or make the decision.

2.6.3 Summary

The challenge for department heads in the academic arena is an increased involvement in human resources development. The head of department, who is an academic manager in an academic business setting, must give support for success in developing their staff (Scott, 1990, p. 12). Heads seem to be more interested in roles as faculty defenders. This finding is borne out in other current literature reviewed. Few heads have had specific training in administrative or interpersonal skills and, therefore, are reluctant to be viewed as administrators responsible for human resource development (Scott, 1990, p. 13). Heads report that they do accept the responsibility for the growth and development of their faculty (Boice, 1985).

In recent years it has become clear that the primacy of this perception of the senior academic and the role of the head of department has been challenged. Financial, government and institutional pressures have all made the position much more demanding, requiring heads of department to have a much greater ability to manage effectively (Greene et al, 1996). Facilitating the department's decision-making process is a main tool that the head can use (Matz, 2007, p. 14).

As the department director and manager, the head's location is crucial to day-to-day operations, institutional and department preparation, policy and outcomes. The role requires location of the department direction, inspiring and cultivating relationships, and developing collaborative initiatives on several levels (Craig, 2005, p. 84; Lucas, 1994). Greene et al (1996) said that academic heads of department in higher education institutions are increasingly being expected to assume much greater responsibilities than hitherto for both human resource and financial management in addition to

traditional academic concerns, as patterns of university financing and management practices change under pressure from government and funding councils.

Consistent with Mathias (1991), there was a general anxiety that the head of department should view the interests of the department within the context of the interests of the University. This might involve having to make difficult decisions and to implement agreed policy that was unfavourable to the department (Mathias, 1991, pp. 66). In order for the departments' heads to efficiently control their departments, they should understand that these departments are formed of distinguished individuals take part in that administration, know their responsibilities and wish to practice their rights and work in a free academic atmosphere.

2.7 CONCLUSIONS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

If we return to the first component of this review, leadership, it should be remembered that leaders need vision to provide development (Fidler, 1997, p. 23) and growth of all involved in teaching and learning (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p. 24). However, Lee and Dimmock (1999, p. 456) claim that few research projects have been conducted concerning the issue of the complexities of curriculum leadership and management in departments.

In reviewing the literature, concerning leadership of changes in the educational system, it appears that the quality of a department depends on the quality of its leadership (Bollington, 1999, p. 153), and the quality of leadership makes the difference between the success and failure of the department (Millett, 1998, p. 1). Watson (1993, p. 192)

summarizes the above by claiming that without effective leadership, development are unlikely to be realized.

It is widely agreed, as shown in most studies, that the dominant variable affecting the quality and success of the department is the head's leadership. Since the head is the leader of the department's staff, his or her leadership style is of extreme importance. The leadership style has a crucial effect on various aspects of the department – the atmosphere, the staff members' satisfaction, the students' response to the requirements, and the climate of the department (Eden, 1998).

Bayne-Jardine (1981) who produced 'pathologies' of departmental management and described types of managers: the ritualist (who hides behind detail and systems); the neurotic (who worries ineffectually about translating theory into practice); the robber baron (who is mainly concerned with territorial expansion, creating an image of efficiency and innovation while failing to develop the team). However, transformational heads capture the interest and imagination of followers, help them to locate their work in the overall mission or vision of the organisation, develop individuals to perform better and motivate them to support the team and its goals with enthusiasm (Kerry, 2005, p. 69).

There is consensus in support for increasing participation in decision making to allow employees to have a greater say over work practices and conditions that affect them. The evidence suggests increased participation in decision-making encourages positive changes in task characteristics and performance effectiveness leading to gains in rewards and so benefits job satisfaction and commitment both directly and indirectly.

Nevertheless, the actuality may be more complex depending on the context. For example, participation in decision-making might promote job satisfaction, but may not have a significant influence on either performance effectiveness or commitment. Changes to the work kind without participatory involvement may equally lead to satisfaction and productivity improvements (Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004, p. 650).

Decision-making has a significant impact upon the quality and success of our life in general and upon the success or failure of business organisations and enterprises in particular. Hale and Whitlam stated that:

“...Arguably one of the most fundamental of life skills required by human beings is the ability to solve problems and make decisions. Effectively it is this unique behaviour that has contributed significantly to the successful evolution of mankind and has been instrumental in determining our success as a species...”

(Hale and Whitlam, 1997, p. 9)

According to previous studies, the quality of a decision is higher when the decisions made by groups style. In addition, the head of department should have the ability to follow the stages or steps of decision-making when he needs solve any problem about others in the department, as individuals and as groups, to ensure access to the best solutions.

A head of department is defined as: ‘any person who influences individuals and groups within an organisation, helps them in the establishment of goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective’ (Nahavandi, 1997, p. 4); and leadership is defined in terms of: ‘an interactive dynamic process drawing members of an organisation together to build a culture within which they feel

secure enough to articulate and pursue what they want to become' (Rallis, 1990, p. 186), as well as 'the art of mobilising others to struggle for shared aspirations' (Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p. 30). Overall, leadership refers to higher-level practices, such as setting visions and goals, motivating staff to achieve them, and building culture and climate (Dimmock and Lee, 2000). Kouzes and Posner (1995) have recognized five basic practices of exemplary leadership that enable the heads of department to get extraordinary things done. Those practices comprise:

- (1) Challenge the process;
- (2) Inspire a shared vision;
- (3) Enable others to act;
- (4) Model the way;
- (5) And encourage the heart (Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p. 9).

As noted in previous studies, heads of department work in different contexts and with different levels of support, and consequently the tasks and problems facing them was of a different order (Mathias, 1991, p. 67). In addition, heads of department are affected by more than just their skills. In order to be effective, academic middle managers and their supervisors need to pay attention to other factors that affect performance (Diabach, 2006, p. 7).

Chapter three

Methodology of the study

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The research methodology is made up of the systematic and orderly steps taken towards the collection and analysis of data (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Further, Johnson points out that the educational researcher should be interested in the complexities of human decision-making and behaviour and that social research should seek to elicit the meaning of events and phenomena from the point of view of participants (Johnson, 1994, p. 7). The research outlined in this thesis aims to identify the level of ability of heads of department to make decisions. Hence, a survey questionnaire and personal interviews were carried out with heads of department to obtain both quantitative and qualitative assessments based on their subjective judgments, with an ultimate aim to assist in improving the management in Higher Education departments.

This section provides a justification for the appropriateness of the research design and methodology and outlines the fitness for purpose of the approach used to answer the research questions. It begins with a justification of the research paradigm, and the selected research methodology. Later, the section highlights the research design, unit of analysis and piloting of the data collection tools. In addition, the research data collection and analysis procedures, the criteria for assessing the quality of the case study research design in terms of reliability, validity and generalisation, are outlined and, finally, a conclusion of to the chapter is provided.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODS

The term ‘research methods’ refers to the range of techniques used to accumulate data in order to make a base for explanations and predictions (Cohen et al, 2003). If methods indicate to techniques and procedures used in the process of data gathering, the aim of methodology then is, in Kaplan’s words:

“...To describe and analyze these methods, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. It is to venture generalizations from the success of particular techniques, suggesting new applications, and to unfold the specific bearings of logical and metaphysical principles on concrete problems, suggesting new formulations...” (Kaplan, 1973)

The researcher considered that the descriptive method was most appropriate to address the aims of the study and the tools that were used to collect the data reflect that belief. Accordingly, she has adopted the approach recommended by Cohen and Manion (1994, p.83). The population of the study consists of all the heads of department in the Faculties of Universities in Libya.

“...Quantitative research followed the scientific mode, aiming at objectivity, standard procedures and reliability. Qualitative research, on the other hand, took the view that all human life is experienced and indeed constructed from a subjective point of view, and that social research should seek to elicit the meaning of events and phenomena from the point of view of participants...”

(Johnson, 1994, p.7)

There are two types of research methods, namely, ‘quantitative research’ and ‘qualitative research’. Deciding, on which type of research to follow, depends on the purpose of the study and the type and availability of information which is required (Naoum, 2007). Quantitative research is ‘objective’ in nature. It is definite as an investigation into a social or human difficulty, based on testing a hypothesis or a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical

procedures, in order to determine whether the hypothesis or the theory holds true (Creswell, 1994). Qualitative research is 'subjective' in nature. It emphasises meanings, experience (often verbally described), and description and so on. The information gathered in qualitative research can be classified under two categories of research, namely, exploratory and attitudinal. Exploratory research is used when there is a limited amount of knowledge about the topic under investigation. Attitudinal study is used to 'subjectively' assess the 'opinion', 'view', or the 'perception' of an individual, towards a particular object. The term 'object' is referred to as an 'attribute', a 'variable' a 'factor', or a 'question'. For the purpose of this study, the data gathered was analysed qualitatively as well as quantitatively to support and give more validity and reliability to the study, in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny.

The main sources for secondary data collection are; reference books, papers, articles, reports of previous research, theses, magazines, and internet sources. This type of data was used mainly in the literature review to gain the required knowledge for building the conceptual or theoretical framework. However, it can also be used to triangulate with primary data to support the evidentiary value of the thesis.

3.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Numerous researchers have pointed out the importance of paying heed to the research philosophies (Saunders et al, 2003). Easterby-Smith et al, (2002) stated that failure to understand and think through philosophical issues can have a detrimental effect on the quality of research outcomes. Thinking through philosophies can help to determine the most suitable method to conduct the research at the very early stages (Kulatunga et al, 2007).

Philosophers of knowledge and methodologists have been occupied in a long-standing epistemological debate about how best to conduct research. This discussion has centred on the relation value of two basically different and competing schools of thought or inquiry paradigms (Amaratunga et al. 2002). Positivism determines that the social world exists externally and that its properties must be measured during objective measures, where the observer must be independent from what is being observed, which originates from the thinking of Comte (1853). Positivism was, for centuries, the solitary and then leading method of scientific investigation, derived from the study of natural sciences. In contrast, social constructionism/ phenomenological (interpretive science) stems from the view that reality is not objective and exterior, but is socially constructed and giving meaning by people (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002), who are conscious, purposive actors with ideas about their world and attach meaning to what is going on around them (Robson, 2002).

The research philosophy which was adopted in this research was the phenomenological paradigm since this approach tries to understand and explain a phenomenon based on opinions and subjective aspects, rather than search for external causes or fundamental laws. The rationale for choosing this approach is that the topic under investigation, the management in Libyan universities, is not well understood, and that improving the management and abilities of heads of department of Libyan universities is essential to the future development of the country.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Johnson (1994, p. 37), Bayth-Marom (1997, p. 29), Robson (1993, p. 187), and others claim that the four main tools for social research are the questionnaire, interview,

observation and documents. There are some fundamental differences between them.

According to Johnson (1994, p. 37):

“...The essence of a questionnaire, as a research tool, is that it is in hands of the respondent, and is completed by him or her...”

Whilst interviews:

“...Are initiated by the interviewer, with a view to gathering certain information from the person interviewed...”

(Johnson, 1994, p. 43)

The questionnaire empowers the respondent and gives him or her possibility to think whether or not to complete the relevant data. The interview gives the power to the interviewer.

As for observation, Robson (1993, p. 190) describes it in the following manner:

“...As the action and behaviour of people are a central aspect in virtually any inquiry, a natural and obvious technique is to watch what they do, to record this in some way and then to describe, analyse and interpret what we have observed...”

In general, observation can take a variety of forms. It is commonly used in an exploratory phase and seeks to find out what is going on. The researcher is not involved at all. In contrast, the researcher is involved to a great extent in the questionnaire and interview. In other words, the degree to which the researcher is involved is the most fundamental difference between questionnaire and interview. In the present study, the main research tools were questionnaire and in-depth Interviews. In this study the focus does not only on understand the management in Libyan universities, but on improving the management and abilities of heads of department of Libyan universities. In this type of research which using these tools would be both

practical and possible and would provide rich data that would show something of the lived experience of the respondents.

The researcher also argues that in the present study, the use of in-depth interviews and questionnaire is justified by the facts that the aim was to identify the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions according to the fields and variables of the study.

3.4.1 Interviews

Burgess et al (1994, p.135) offer three reasons for choosing interviews as the principal method of data collection:

“...First, interview can allow the researcher access to past events. Second, they can allow access to situations at which the researcher is not able to be present. Third, they can allow access to situations where permission is refused for the researcher to be present...”

(Scott and Usher, 1996, p. 65)

The data collection of the study consisted of two main dimensions including:

1. One hour interviews with 11 heads of department in Libyan universities. The interviews included two phases:

- Initial interviews carried out with 11 heads of department at Libyan Universities during the summer of 2008.
- According to the findings of the questionnaire the researcher structured further in-depth interviews that were carried out during the summer of 2009 with the

same 11 heads of department at Libyan universities in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny.

2. A questionnaire distributed to 450 heads of department in Libya universities (as outlined below).

Cohen and Manion (1994) suggest a distinction between structured and unstructured interviews, but add to them the non-directive interview, as well as the focused one.

“...There are four kinds of interviews that may be used specifically as research tools: the structured; the unstructured interviews; the non-directive interview; and the focused interview...”

(Cohen and Manion, 1994, p. 272)

According to Robson (1993) the types and styles of interviews are, at one end, the fully structured interview and, at the other end, the unstructured interview. In between, the semi-structured interview combines them. In a structured interview, the interviewer works through an interview schedule, which has close-ended questions Robson, 1993, p. 230).

Consistent with Robson (1993), structured interviews have played a central part in survey research, which has represented an important methodological strand within social science and has had a determining influence on social policy (Robson, 1993, p. 231).

Interviews are designed to elicit thick, rich data that analysed to develop key themes that informed the analysis of questionnaire data and interviews are initiated by the interviewer, with a view to gathering certain information from the person interviewed (Johnson, 1994, p.43). Bell (1996) noted that a structured interview can take the form of a questionnaire or checklist that is completed by the interviewer rather than by the respondent. Johnson's (1994) idea about the structured interview is that:

“...The prime aim of a structured interview is to get equivalent information from a number of interviewees, information which is uncontaminated by subtle differences in the way in which it is asked for...”

(Bell, 1996, pp. 92-93)

A more flexible interview is the semi-structured interview. Usually it is used to collect information. Bayth-Marom (1996) argues that the content of the interview can be prepared in advance and consists of a set of items. These items may be subject to change during the course of a semi-structured interview. The items are usually questions, mostly open ended in nature (Bayth-Marom, 1996, p. 17).

“...the interviewer has worked out a set of questions in advance, but is free to modify their order based upon the perception of what seems most appropriate in the context of the ‘conversation’...”

(Robson, 1993, p. 231)

Johnson (1994) thinks that both structured and semi-structured interviews have similar aims of collecting equivalent information from a number of people. But, Johnson claims that in the semi-structured interviews:

“...A more flexible style is used, adapted to the personality and circumstances of the person being interviewed...”

(Johnson, 1994, p. 45)

As was mentioned previously, the contrasting approach is the unstructured interview that is used in exploring an area in preliminary research, or at a later stage, the interviewer has a general area of interest and concern, but lets the conversation develop within this area.

The kind of interviews that was chosen for this study is the semi-structured one for data collection from the sample of the study. The justification for its use is that it is a straightforward way to generate data, and it is the most meaningful way to examine the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in higher education. Moreover, the semi-structured interview allowed for the collection of more information that otherwise would have been dispersed. It should be mentioned that in some interviews, some aspects of the unstructured interviews took place, in some cases, the heads expanded on particular subjects and issues that were relevant elsewhere in the interview.

In the present study, the issues pursued in the interviews were derived from the literature review and included the following subjects: general background of the decision making in department, the administration of universities and the purpose and aims of the study. According to previous studies the researcher used the semi structured to analyse the data.

In addition to the large-scale survey the researcher undertake 11 interviews with heads of department at Libyan Universities. The respondents were selected to represent the variety of different departments operating within the Universities. Two of them are locating in the faculty of Sciences, other two in faculty of Engineering, one in Law faculty, two in the faculty of Economics, two in Arts faculty and two in the faculty of Medicine. These various specializations represent the most specializations included in the population of the study. Interviews lasted for approximately one hour and the researcher developed an interview schedule that included main questions, probes and prompts that address the key themes of the study. Although the topics the heads were

supposed to refer to were pre-determined, there was flexibility in the order of questions and topics presented during the interviews. Thus, the interviews could be navigated according to the course the conversation took, the special circumstances and the subject's personality. It should be mentioned that despite all this, all of the questions were asked in all of the interviews, without exception. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. These transcriptions were returned to respondents for comment and confirmation of content. The data was subsequently analysed. These forms examined critically to assess to what extent they can be reliable and valid. According to Bell (2000):

“...Reliability is the extent to which a test or a procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions, while validity tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure of describe...”

(Bell, 2000, pp. 103-104)

Consistent with Miles and Huberman (1994), internal validity is achieved when the researcher's interpretation is confirmed by the subjects, is confirmed by the subjects, and the response of the people in the field confirms the pattern discovered. The internal validity is derived from descriptive content, and is presented as such to the subjects. The external validity depends on the compliance of the findings with the theoretical literature. Both types of validity were achieved in the present study.

The internal validity of the present study was explained in this chapter. It should be noted that the heads' responses to the interview topics indeed provided a clear picture of their perceptions regarding the ability to make decisions according to the fields of the study, the ability to make decisions accordance with the variables of the study, and leadership. It should also be noted that every interview started with an explanation

about the purpose of the interview and with clear information about the aims of the study. In addition, the researcher explained to the heads that any information supplied was completely confidential and that the respondents could and should be as honest and direct in their comments as possible. Consequently, the interviewees appeared relaxed and the researcher felt that the respondents had indeed been open and honest in their responses. As to external validity, the generalization was made about the sample of the heads of department in Libyan universities.

Since interviews are the most reliable way of gathering accurate information from people, a semi-structured interview used to examine a part of the sample (Waters, 2001). All the interviews were held in the universities staff rooms, during a face-to-face conversation. The interviews were semi-structured in nature and although an interview schedule was used, the interviews sometimes tended to lose their structure when the respondent gave detailed answers. Over the course of reading some of the interviews, the researcher analyzed the statements that reflected the respondents' actions and views.

3.4.2 The questionnaire

Boynton and Greenhalgh (2004) mentioned that questionnaires is an objective means of collecting information about people's knowledge, beliefs, and behaviour, and can be applied in various ways in order to identify different responses (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). Berg and Latin (2004) believed that an advantage of using questionnaires is that they offer users a broad-based information-gathering procedure designed to measure practices of opinions (Berg & Latin, 2004).

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Since the current study aims to identify the ability of the heads of department to make decisions, so it is necessary to use a tool to identify that ability. For this reason, the researcher searched for previous studies and the measures and the questionnaires that have been used in these studies to test the ability of making decisions and leadership. In addition, the results that were reached by the researcher from the pilot study were employed in constructing a questionnaire that served the purposes and goals of the study. This pilot study took the form of five in-depth interviews and was carried out in order to develop the research questionnaire. The aim was to conduct the pilot questionnaire with five heads of department from different universities and departments. As a result, the questionnaire divided into the following fields: the concept of making the decision, the stages of making decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. In addition, the researcher has studied questionnaires and measures of administration and educational leadership, as follows:

1. Test of educational leadership (Moarsy, 1978) is an objective test and has validity and reliability for the study of ability to educationally lead.
2. Measure the ability of educational leadership of departments' heads in the faculties of Baghdad University by Mahdi, (1988).
3. Test of the leader effectiveness and adaptability (Hersey and Blanchard, 1994).
4. Test of the ability of departments' heads in the faculties of Baghdad University in making a decision by Saber, (1994).

Consequently, the researcher used elements of the tests above because they are relevant to decision making in the field of administration. While there are some similarities between the current questionnaire and the previous ones in terms of some

fields as mentioned in the bottom, there are significant differences including the fields of control and communication in addition to differentiations between the items among the new questionnaire and the previous ones.

Most data collection uses the questionnaire approach and it is essential that the questionnaire is designed carefully (Waters, 2001). The questionnaire of this study was composed of 62 items and seven sections, or aspects. Each item is composed of 4 options. The seven aspects included:

1. The concept of decision-making.
2. Stages of decision-making: how much the head of department knows about the steps of decision making and their sequence.
3. Objectivity: refers to the extent decision-making is affected by internal and external impacts.
4. Flexibility: refers to the extent the head of the department modifies, alters, rejects decision making concept: related to the ability of the heads of department to conceive or approves a particular decision in accordance to the circumstances and contexts.
5. Quality: refers to the ability of the head of department to make decisions characterized by appropriate characteristics in terms of clarity, excitability, etc.

In addition, two fields (the field of power and the field of communication with 10 items for everyone) were added to the questionnaire by the researcher because they are necessary to decision making in the field of administration, according to the results that have been reached from the pilot study.

Four possible answers were constructed with each question, three of them considered wrong and only one deemed 'correct'. If the head of department chose this 'correct' answer he received one mark. All other possible responses received a zero allocation.

Example: The chosen decision must be appropriate for:

- A- The aim needed to be achieved.
- B- The information collected.
- C- *The behaviour of the decision maker.
- D- All the above.

Draw a circle on the letter of the option you think relevant.

The essence of a questionnaire, as a research tool, is that it is in the hands of the respondent, and is completed by him or her (Johnson, 1994, p. 37). The researcher used the questionnaire for data collection from the sample of the study outlined above. In order to collect the data from the sample, the researcher elicited a letter from the senior administration of each university giving permission for the research which the researcher gave to the heads of department along with a copy of the questionnaire. After one day or two days the researcher returned to collect the completed questionnaires at a stated time by mutual agreement. 450 forms of the questionnaire were handed out in person with time allowed for individuals to answer them as this is the best way to reduce the probability of losing forms and to ensure that the respondents answering the questions themselves (Akeel, 1995). The response rate was high, with 448 completed questionnaires collected in addition to 2 forms that were returned without being completed. Therefore, the rate was 98.25% of the whole heads population.

3.4.2.1 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability and validity are tools of basically positivist epistemology (Winter, 2000, p. 7). Validity is a measure of the extent to which the tool is fit for the purpose for which it was designed (Awda and Alkhalili, 1988, p.163). Moreover, according to Joppe (2000) validity determines whether the research really measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are (Joppe, 2000, p. 1).

Validity is honesty apparent through appropriate means, in the case of the numbers the researcher uses in the research instrument (Awda and Alkhalili, 1988, p. 80). Therefore, the researcher used the face validity in ensuring the validity of fields of study by sample of some consultants in the field of public administration, business management, educational administration and psychology who are 20 consultants. Ebel (1972) believed that the tool be validity if the items were formed from them seem to measure what has developed in order to measure dependent on the accuracy of the rule of the arbitrators (Ebel, 1972, p. 555). Nunnally (1972) confirmed that the best kind of validity is the face validity of such tools (Nunnally, 1972, p. 353). Wainer and Braun (1998) explained the validity in quantitative research as “construct validity”. The construct is the original concept, concept, question or hypothesis that determines which data is to be gathered and how it is to be gathered. They also assert that quantitative researchers actively cause or affect the interplay between construct and data in order to validate their investigation, usually by the application of a test or other process (Wainer and Braun, 1998; Golafshani, 2003, p. 599).

Consequently, to confirm the validity of the questions of the fields of the questionnaire the researcher used the Scott equation or percentages of the significant differences

between the responses of the arbitrators and the non-consenting vote of each item, and promised each item is valid as it was a greater than 60%. The rate of validity to the tool as a whole of questionnaire was 90% of the arbitrators. Thus, the number of items of questionnaire sincere 62 questions distributed to 7 fields. Accordingly, the questionnaire of this study had high validity.

Joppe (2000) notes that reliability is the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable (Joppe, 2000, p. 1). Meanwhile, Kirk and Miller (1986) recognize three types of reliability referred to in quantitative research, which relate to the amount to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same; the stability of a measurement over time; and the similarity of measurements within a given time period (Kirk and Miller, 1986, pp. 41-42). Further, Charles (1995) adheres to the thinking that constancy with which questionnaire (test) items are answered or individual's scores remain relatively the same can be determined through the test-retest method at two different times. This quality of the instrument is actually referred to as constancy. But we are dealing with a steady measure, and then the results should be similar. A high degree of constancy indicates a high degree of reliability, which means the results are repeatable (Charles, 1995; Golafshani, 2003, p. 599).

To verify the reliability of the questionnaire the researcher used test-retest method by distributed the questionnaire to 25 heads of departments at Libyan universities for the first time after 10 days, the researcher returned to the same sample were given the

same survey sample to ensure the reliability of the tool. The researcher used the Pearson correlation coefficient of a whole questionnaire. The rate of reliability was (.877) the correlation was significant at 0.01 level for whole questionnaire, therefore the questionnaire is reliable. To ensure the reliability of the fields of the questionnaire the researcher used the Pearson correlation coefficient and the rate of stability to the fields as following: the rate of reliability was (.758) for field of the decision making concept; the rate of reliability was (.785) for field of the stages of making the decision; the rate of reliability was (.873) for field of objectivity; The rate of reliability was (.871) for field of flexibility; the rate of reliability was (.661) for field of quality; the rate of reliability was (.807) for field of control and the rate of reliability was (.734) for field of communication. All the correlations were significant at 0.01 level. As a result, the researcher found that no differences in reliability for all fields of the questionnaire. Consequently, the questionnaire is reliable.

3.5 THE SAMPLE USED IN THE STUDY

Designing the research sample can take many forms, each of which is suitable to a particular situation. Generally, there are two strategies for sampling, namely; probability sampling (random sampling) which is frequently used in quantitative research, and non-probability sampling (selected sampling) which is commonly practiced in qualitative research. The most common types of probability sampling are; simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, and stratified random sampling. While the most known non-probability sampling are; convenience samples, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, and quota samples (Berg, 2004). In this study, the researcher used a purposive sample to select the heads of department in Libyan

universities. This strategy is selected as it is thought to be more appropriate than a random sampling strategy due to the nature of the study. The sample was 448 heads of department in Libyan universities (see Figure 3-2). Therefore, the rate was 98.25% of the whole heads population.

Table 3-2: The sample of the study
Distribution the heads of department according to their faculties and specialisation in universities of Libya

Universities	Alfateh		Garyunis		Tabrik		Omar Elmukhtar		Darnah		Almarg		tahhadi		Nasir		Seven of April		Total
Faculties	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	
Engineering	10	-	7	-	-	-	3	-	3	-	4	-	6	-	14	-	4	-	51
Science	10	-	7	-	10	-	3	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	12	-	7	-	55
Veterinary Medicine	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13
Agriculture	12	-	-	-	4	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25
Economy	4	3	2	4	3	4	-	-	-	4	5	-	2	3	3	3	1	2	43
Law	-	4	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	14
Arts	4	9	-	12	-	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	-	14	65
Languages	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	09
Social Sciences	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	06
Physical Education	-	13	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	27
Engineering and technical sciences	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	07
Arts and Science	-	-	-	-	9	12	-	-	8	8	10	15	9	7	-	-	-	-	78
Medical technology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	04
Art and Architecture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	04
Human Medicine	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	-	-	-	-	-	19
Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	17	-	-	24
Law and Economic Sciences	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	04
Total	50	44	18	26	33	16	15	09	15	19	28	15	34	13	45	40	12	16	448

Note: S= Scientific and H= Humanities.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

The data gathered in this research was analyzed to identifying the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions. In order to process the collected data by quantitative method, the researcher used a number of statistical methods which suit the nature of the goals, including standard deviations, T-test, F-test and Pearson

correlation coefficient. All statistical analyses of the data were accomplished using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) software (version 16). To analyse the qualitative data in this study, the researcher analyzed key issues which were found through continuously reading and re-reading of the respondents' answers, according to the approach recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994).

3.7 CONCLUSIONS

This study mainly applies the descriptive method for answering the overarching question: What is the overall level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions in Libyan universities? The starting point is the subject, and the goal is to analyze the heads' ability to make decision from their own private experiences. The researcher found that analyzing the results of the study produced some very interesting. The researcher focus was on the heads and their thoughts and problems regarding all that has to do with their ability to make decision and leadership. The researcher analyzed the ability of 448 heads in the questionnaires, and 11 heads by using interviews. In the case of the questionnaire it should be noted that this makes up most of the research population. Although, by contrast, the qualitative research used a relatively small sample group, this approach was employed to deepen and enriches the data that was elicited. In this way the in-depth interviews of the heads gave much detail and richness to the data in the study and thus these 11 semi-structured, in-depth, interviews of heads allowed the researcher to describe and understand the ability of these heads in much greater detail. The choice of the in-depth semi-structured interview as tool research was due to the importance of allowing the heads to express their ability to make decision without losing any important information.

As outlined earlier in this chapter, the researcher used a number of statistical methods in order to analyse the data from the questionnaire responses, which were deemed to suit the nature of the aims of the study to analyze the ability of the heads. The researcher used the questionnaire for data collection in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny for identify the ability of the heads of department according to their experiences and their beliefs. Consequently, the questionnaire attempted to assess the ability to guide heads' behaviour through use of the concept of decision-making, and included the ability of the heads to use the stages of decision-making, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, communication, and leadership. As a result, it allowed the researcher to gain a broad view about the ability of heads of department to make decisions in a manner which allowed for generalisable conclusions.

The researcher believes that the analysis from both major research tools and the conclusion drawn from this methodology will shed light on the work of Heads of Department in Libyan Universities and help in the understanding of the ways in which University administration in Libya can be improved.

Chapter four

Data presentation of findings and analysis

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis of data and findings derived from the data collected using the main research tools of the study which took the form of both a questionnaire and interviews. In the first part of this chapter, the researcher presented general information about 448 heads that answered 62 questions of questionnaire. Five hundred copies of the questionnaire form were distributed to heads of department in Libyan universities; however, two copies were returned uncompleted. Therefore, the total of the copies of questionnaire form which were completed totalled 448 forms. It should be noted that the heads were asked to answer all the questions rather than make partial returns.

The questionnaire of the study, which can be found in Appendix A of this document, comprised 62 questions and seven fields. Each question was composed of 4 options.

The seven fields included:

First field: The concept of decision making (questions 1 – 9)

Second field: Stages of decision making (questions 10 – 16)

Third field: Objectivity (questions 17 – 25)

Forth field: Flexibility (questions 26 – 33)

Fifth field: Quality (questions 34 – 42)

Sixth field: Control (questions 43 – 52)

Seventh field: Communication (questions 53 – 62)

In the second part of this chapter, the researcher presented the findings and analysis of the questionnaire. The results were analyzed via using SPSS program; and the researcher summarized the results of analysis of questionnaire.

The findings of the questionnaire will be presented as responses to the main research questions:

- 1-What is the overall level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions?
- 2- What is the level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions according to the fields of study: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication?
- 3- Are there any differences of the ability of heads of department to make decisions attributed to the variables: scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization?

In the third part of this chapter, the researcher presents the findings and analysis of interviews which represent key issues, structured around the key themes derived from the main aims of the study and was developed through continuously reading and re-reading the responses of the respondents. The interviews included two phases:

- Initial interviews carried out with 11 heads of department at Libyan Universities during the summer of 2008. The interview schedule for which can be found in Appendix (B).
- According to the findings of the questionnaire the researcher structured further in-depth interviews that were carried out during the summer of 2009 with the same 11 heads of department at Libyan universities in order to gather rich data

about the topic under scrutiny. The interview schedule can be found in Appendix (C).

The purpose of the interviews was to obtain both information and opinion from the interviewees. 12 questions asked were open-ended questions; and the researcher summarized the finding of analysis of interview data.

4.2 GENERAL INFORMATION

This section presents the general information about each of the different variables of the study including the gender of the heads of department in Libyan universities, age, specialisation, qualification, and experience. The following tables demonstrate the distribution of the different variables according to general data about the heads of department, such as the number of males and females, age groups, kind of specialisation, kind of qualification, and years of experience. The distribution of the heads is from nine Libyan universities, which are located in different geographical areas of Libya.

4.2.1 Heads of Department Gender

Table 4.1: Gender variable of the heads

University	Gender		Total
	F	M	
Alfatih	25	69	94
Garyounis	12	32	44
Tubreq	13	36	49
Omar Elmukhtar	6	18	24
Darna	7	27	34
Almarg	7	36	43
Altahhadi	14	33	47
Nasir	21	64	85
Seven of April	7	21	28
Total	112	336	448

Table No. 4.1 shows clearly that the data about the gender of 448 heads of department in Libyan university that distributed into nine Libyan universities. The total was 112 female and 336 male. It is to be norted that males are predominant in Libyan universities.

4.2.2 Heads of Department Age

Table 4.2: Age variable of the heads

University	Age in groups				Total
	30<	31-40	41-50	51>	
Alfatih	2	22	36	34	94
Garyounis	0	8	8	28	44
Tubreq	1	11	18	19	49
Omar Elmukhtar	0	8	8	8	24
Darna	2	10	9	13	34
Almarg	0	15	12	16	43
Altahhadi	1	9	17	20	47
Nasir	0	31	34	20	85
Seven of April	4	9	9	6	28
Total	10	123	151	164	448

As shown in table No. 4.2, four groups of age of 448 heads of department in nine Libyan universities were involved. The total of heads was 10 of 30< group, 123 of 31-40 group, 151 of 41-50 group, and 164 of 51> group. The total of the heads in 51> group was more than others groups in Libyan universities.

4.2.3 *Heads of Department Specialisation*

Table 4.3: Specialisation variable of the heads

University	Specialisation		Total
	Scientific	Humanities	
Alfatih	49	45	94
Garyounis	19	25	44
Tubreq	33	16	49
Omar Elmukhtar	15	9	24
Darna	15	19	34
Almarg	28	15	43
Altahhadi	34	13	47
Nasir	45	40	85
Seven of April	12	16	28
Total	250	198	448

Table No. 4.3 reveals the specialisation of 448 heads of department in nine Libyan universities divided to 250 heads in scientific specialty, and 198 heads in humanities specialty. The total of heads with a scientific specialty was more than the heads in humanities specialty in Libyan universities.

4.2.4 *Heads of Department Qualification*

Table 4.4: Qualification variable of the heads

University	Qualification		Total
	Master	PhD	
Alfatih	31	63	94
Garyounis	18	26	44
Tubreq	23	26	49
Omar Elmukhtar	13	11	24
Darna	16	18	34
Almarg	20	23	43
Altahhadi	19	28	47
Nasir	35	50	85
Seven of April	6	22	28
Total	180	267	448

Table No. 4.4 presents the kinds of the qualification of 448 heads of department in nine Libyan universities. 180 heads had Masters’ degree, and 267 heads held the PhD

degree. The total of the heads that had a Masters’ degree qualification was smaller than the heads that had PhD degree in Libyan universities.

4.2.5 Heads of Department Experience

Table 4.5: Experience variable of the heads

University	Experience in groups			Total
	<5	6-10	11>	
Alfatih	36	30	28	94
Garyounis	24	15	5	44
Tubreq	34	13	2	49
Omar Elmukhtar	22	2	0	24
Darna	22	10	2	34
Almarg	27	11	5	43
Altahhadi	29	9	9	47
Nasir	38	29	18	85
Seven of April	6	10	12	28
Total	238	129	81	448

As shown in table No. 4.5 the experience of 448 heads of department in nine Libyan universities was classified in to three groups. The first group <5 years included 238 heads, the second group 6-10 included 129 heads and the final group 11> included 81heads. The first group <5 included most heads of department in Libyan universities.

4.3 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE

4.3.1 Questions of the study

As mentioned in chapter three to confirm the validity of the questions of the questionnaire the researcher used the percentages of the significant differences between the responses of the arbitrators and the non-consenting vote of each question.

The researcher used the face validity in ensuring the validity of fields of study by sample of some consultants in the field of public administration, business management, educational administration and psychology who are 20 consultants. The rate of validity to the questionnaire was 90% of the arbitrators. Accordingly, the questionnaire of this study had high validity.

To verify the reliability of the questionnaire the researcher used test-retest method by distributed the questionnaire to 25 heads of department at Libyan universities for the first time after 10 days, the researcher returned to the same sample were given the same survey sample to ensure the reliability of the tool. The researcher used the Pearson correlation coefficient of a whole questionnaire.

Table 4.6: Test-retest reliability of the questionnaire of the study

Fields of the study	N	Sig. (2-tailed)	Correlations
All fields of the study (questionnaire)	25	.000	.877**
the decision making concept	25	.000	.758**
the stages of making the decision	25	.000	.785**
objectivity	25	.000	.873**
flexibility	25	.000	.871**
quality	25	.000	.807**
control	25	.000	.661**
communication	25	.000	.734**

****Note:** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in table No. 4.6 the rate of reliability was (.877) the correlation was significant at 0.01 level for whole questionnaire, therefore the questionnaire is reliable. As a result, the questions were valid to examine the ability of heads to make decisions. The study aims at identifying the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions, and this accomplished through answering the following questions:

4.3.1.1 Q1: What is the level of department heads' ability to make decisions?

To analyze the date derived from responses to this question the researcher used T-test with all the fields of the questionnaire to compare the calculated mean with expected mean (EX). Consistent with previous studies the expected mean collected by using the following equation:

$$E(X) = \sum_i x_i p(x_i)$$

$$EX = \frac{1+0}{2} * 62 = 31$$

The expected mean calculated by collected the alternatives of possible answers of the questionnaire (1 for correct answer, and 0 for wrong answer), divided their number, multiplication the number of the questions of the questionnaire (62). The researcher calculated the EX be the following link: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Expected_value. Depending on that, their ability of decision-making will be expected high if the calculated mean is higher than the expected mean statistical difference.

Table 4.7: the level of department heads' ability to make decisions

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Expected mean	Freedom Degree	T
448	36	7	31	447	15.15*

Note: * The level of department heads' ability to make decisions is significant at (p<0.05)

Table No.4.7 reveals that the test was significant at 0.05 level. The researcher concludes that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall is high.

4.3.1.2 Q2: What is the level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to certain fields of study: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication?

In order to analyze the data derived from responses to this question the researcher used T-test with every field of the questionnaire to compare the calculated means with expected means. Depending on that, their ability of decision-making in each field of the study will be expected high if the calculated mean is higher than the expected mean statistical difference. This step was carried out to find out the ability of the heads in each field apart from the general ability as some of the heads may have high level in the general ability while their ability could be poor in some of the fields; therefore, the reason is that to determine the differences between heads of department to use each field of study.

Table 4.8: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions in each field of the study.

Fields of the study	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Expected mean	Freedom Degree	T
Decision making concept	448	5	1	4.5	447	10.17*
Stages of decision making	448	3.91	1	3.5	447	5.51*
Objectivity	448	5	1	4.5	447	24.65*
Flexibility	448	5	1	4	447	16.25*
Quality	448	5	1	4.5	447	9.23*
Control	448	5	1	5	447	3.31*
Communication	448	5.60	2	5	447	6.12*

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to each field of the study is significant at (p<0.05).

From table No.4.8 the researcher concludes that all the tests are significant at 0.05 level. Clearly, all the tests were significant which mean that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions by using the fields of study is high.

4.3.1.3 Q3: *Are there any differences in the level of department heads' ability to make decisions attributed to the variable of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization?*

To analyze data derived from this question the researcher used T-test with the variable of gender (Male and Female); F-test with variable of age with these classes (< 30, 31-40, 41-50, 51 >); T-test with the variable of specialization with these classes (Scientific and Humanities); T-test with the variable of scientific qualification with these classes (Master Degree and Doctor Degree); and F-test with variable of experience with these classes (< 5, 6-10, 11 >). It will be with all the universities, after that with every one of the universities to define the differences between universities consistent with the variables of the study.

4.3.1.3.1 Variable of gender

Table 4.9: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of gender.

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
M	336	36	7	446	2.06*
F	112	37	7	446	

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of gender is significant at (p<0.05).

From table No.4.9 it is evident that the test is significant at 0.05 level which meant that there was difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions. To define the differences between males and females in the universities, the researcher examined the variable of gender in each university as following:

Table 4.10: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of gender of each University.

Universities	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
Alfateh University	M	69	38	7	92	.86
	F	25	39	7	92	
Garyounis University	M	32	34	7	42	-.18
	F	12	33	8	42	
Tabriq University	M	36	30	7	47	2.53*
	F	13	36	7	47	
Omar elmukhtar University	M	18	33	6	22	-.54
	F	6	31	10	22	
Seven of April University	M	21	44	2	26	1.10
	F	7	45	2	26	
Almarag University	M	36	36	6	41	.61
	F	7	38	5	41	
Darnah University	M	27	35	7	32	1.07
	F	7	38	3	32	
Nasir University	M	64	35	7	83	1.52
	F	21	37	7	83	
Tahhadi University	M	33	36	6	45	-.07
	F	14	36	5	45	

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of gender of Tabriq University is significant at (p<0.05).

The table No.4.10 shows that the test is significant in Tabriq University at 0.05 level which mean that there was difference between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions in Tabriq University; however, there were no differences between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Universities.

4.3.1.3.2 Variable of age

Table 4.11: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of age.

ANOVA age	Sum of Squares	Freedom Degree	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1154.87	3	384.95	6.96*	.000
Within Groups	24552.83	444	55.29		
Total	25707.71	447			

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of age is significant at ($p<0.05$).

From Table N0.4.11 the test is significant at 0.05 level. That mean there was at least one group of age difference of department heads' ability to make decisions.

To see how much the difference is significant between groups, the researcher used the Multiple Comparisons. The researcher set two tests here the first one is Bonferroni test assuming the variance is equal and the second one is Tamhane test assuming the variance not equal. The researcher summarized the findings by stating that the group of age >51 set appears Inferior for department heads' ability to make decisions to the other three group of ages, another word the difference of the group of age >51 is statistically significant at 0.05 level. (Refer back to the graphs in Figure-4.1) the conclusion supported by the Figure-4.1. Moreover, the group of age <30 appears Superior for department heads' ability to make decisions with mean obtain 42.10.

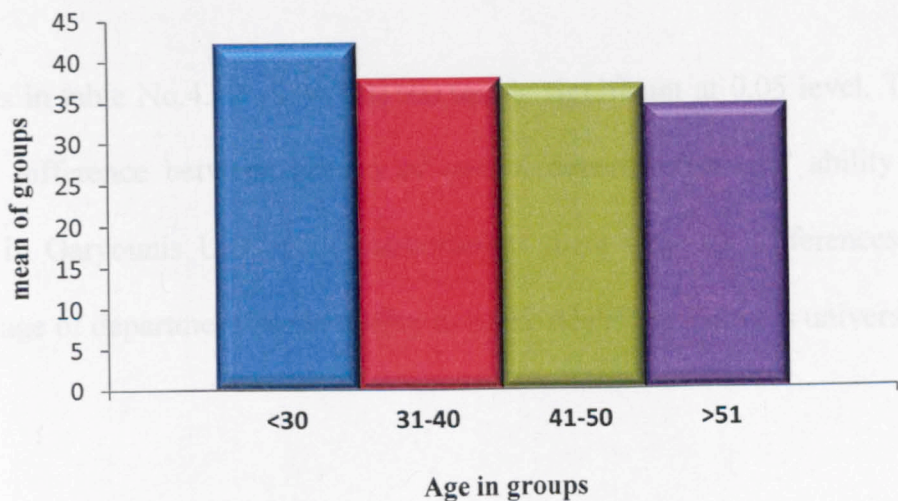


Figure 4.1 Variable of age in group

As a result, the age group of <30 was the best level ability to make decisions in Libyan universities; however the age group of >51 was the least level ability to make decisions in Libyan universities. To determine the differences between groups of age in the universities, the researcher examined the variable of age in each university as following:

Table 4.12: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of age of each University.

Universities	N	F	Sig.
Alfateh University	94	1.72	.168
Garyounis University	44	8.27*	.001
Tabriq University	49	.26	.852
Omar elmukhtar University	24	.30	.742
Seven of April	28	.85	.479
Almarag	43	2.36	.107
Darnah	34	.21	.886
Nasir	85	.78	.460
Tahhadi	47	.89	.454

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of age of Garyounis University is significant at (p<0.05).

The results in table No.4.12 show that the test is significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, there was difference between groups of age of department heads' ability to make decisions in Garyounis University; nevertheless there were no differences between groups of age of department heads' ability to make decisions in others universities.

4.3.1.3.3 Variable of specialisation

Table 4.13: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of specialisation.

Specialisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
Scientific	250	35	7	446	-2.27*
Humanities	198	37	7	446	

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of specialisation is significant at (p<0.05).

Table 4.13 shows that the test is significant at 0.05 level. Another word there was difference between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions. To determine the differences between heads of department in the universities, the researcher examined the variable of specialisation in each university as following:

Table 4.14: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of specialisation of each University.

Universities	Specialisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
Alfateh University	Scientific	49	38	8	92	-.11
	Humanities	45	38	7	92	
Garyounis University	Scientific	19	31	8	42	-1.85
	Humanities	25	35	6	42	
Tabriq University	Scientific	33	31	7	47	-.84
	Humanities	16	33	7	47	
Omar elmukhtar University	Scientific	15	33	7	22	.09
	Humanities	9	32	8	22	
Seven of April	Scientific	12	45	3	26	.21
	Humanities	16	44	1	26	
Almarag	Scientific	28	35	6	41	-1.90
	Humanities	15	39	4	41	
Darnah	Scientific	15	35	7	32	-.57
	Humanities	19	37	5	32	
Nasir	Scientific	45	35	7	83	-.47
	Humanities	40	36	7	83	
Tahhadi	Scientific	34	36	6	45	.05
	Humanities	13	36	4	45	

Note: * The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of specialisation of each University is not significant at ($p<0.05$).

This Table No.4.14 presents that the tests are not significant at 0.05 level. Another word there were no differences between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions in each University.

4.3.1.3.4 Variable of qualification

Table 4.15: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of qualification.

Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
Master	180	36	7	445	.25*
PhD	267	36	7	445	

Note: *The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of qualification is not significant at ($p<0.05$).

From table No.4.15 clearly that the test is not significant at 0.05 level. Another word there was no difference between qualifications of department heads' ability to make decisions. To determine the differences between heads of department in the universities, the researcher examined the variable of qualification in each university as following:

Table 4.16: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of qualification of each University.

Universities	qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Freedom Degree	T
Alfateh University	Master	31	38	9	92	-.01
	PhD	63	38	7	92	
Garyounis University	Master	18	36	7	42	1.87
	PhD	26	32	7	42	
Tabriq University	Master	23	33	8	47	.92
	PhD	26	31	7	47	
Omar elmukhtar University	Master	13	33	6	22	.30
	PhD	11	32	8	22	
Seven of April	Master	6	45	1	26	.22
	PhD	22	44	2	26	
Almarag	Master	20	37	5	41	.70
	PhD	23	36	6	41	
Darnah	Master	16	36	5	32	.33
	PhD	18	36	7	32	
Nasir	Master	34	36	7	82	.59
	PhD	50	35	6	82	
Tahhadi	Master	19	35	5	45	-.65
	PhD	28	36	6	45	

Note: *The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of qualification of each University is not significant at ($p < 0.05$).

From table 4.16 clearly that the test is not significant at 0.05 level. Another word there were no differences between qualifications of department heads' ability to make decisions in each University.

4.3.1.3.5 Variable of experience

Table 4.17: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of experience.

ANOVA age	Sum of Squares	Freedom Degree	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2408.547	2	1204.27	23.00*	.000
Within Groups	23299.168	445	52.35		
Total	25707.714	447			

Note: *The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of experience is significant at ($p < 0.05$).

According to the result in table No.4.17 the test is significant at 0.05 level. The researcher found that there was difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions.

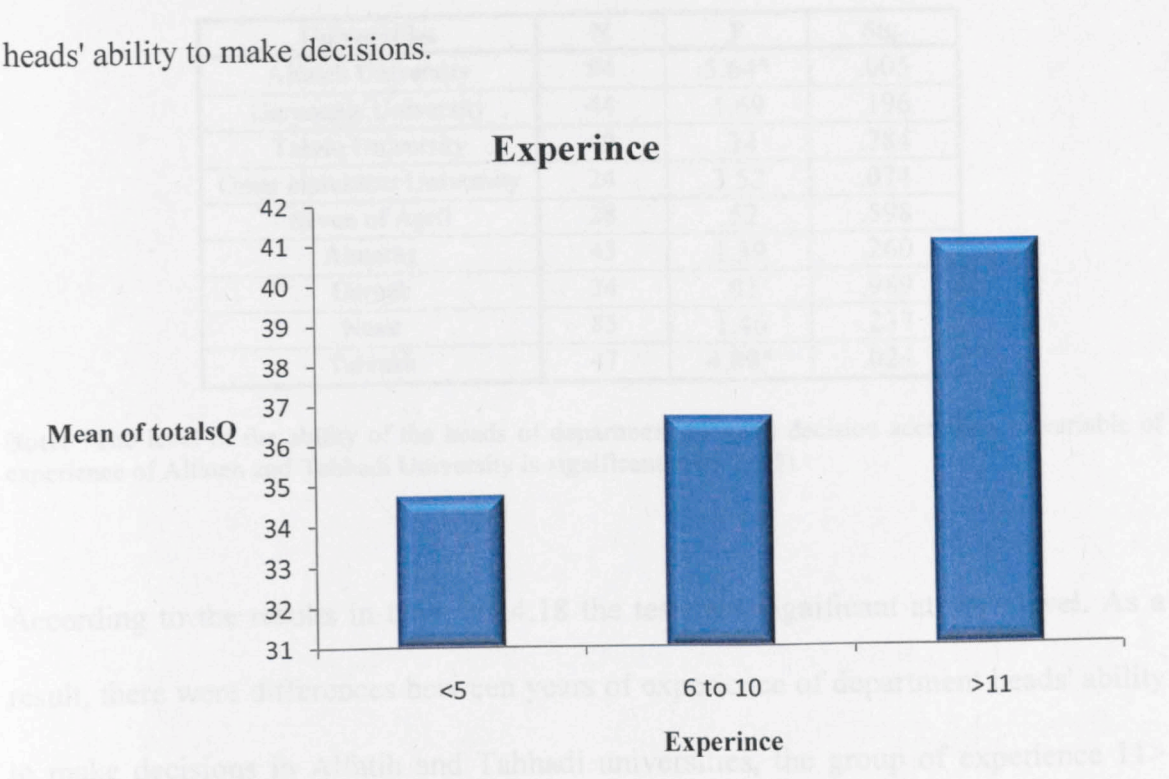


Figure 4.2 Variable of group of experience

To see how much the difference is significant between groups of experience, the researcher used the Multiple Comparisons. The researcher set two tests here the first one is Bonferroni test assuming the variance is equal and the second one is Tamhane test assuming the variance not equal. The researcher summarized the findings by stating that the group of experience 11> appears Superior for department heads' ability to make decisions with mean obtain 41.02. Moreover, there was no difference between the other groups of experience. (Refer back to the graphs in Figure 4-2 the conclusion supported by the graphs 4.2). To determine the differences between heads of department in the universities, the researcher examined the variable of experience in each university as following:

Table 4.18: The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to variable of experience of each University.

Universities	N	F	Sig.
Alfateh University	94	5.64*	.005
Garyounis University	44	1.69	.196
Tabriq University	49	.24	.784
Omar elmukhtar University	24	3.52	.074
Seven of April	28	.52	.598
Almarag	43	1.39	.260
Darnah	34	.01	.989
Nasir	85	1.46	.237
Tahhadi	47	4.08*	.024

Note: *The level of the ability of the heads of department to make decision according to variable of experience of Alfateh and Tahhadi University is significant at ($p<0.05$).

According to the results in table No.4.18 the tests are significant at 0.05 level. As a result, there were differences between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in Alfatih and Tahhadi universities, the group of experience 11> appears superior for department heads' ability to make decisions however, there were no differences between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in other universities.

4.3.2 Summary of Results of analysis of questionnaire

4.3.2.1 The level of department heads' ability to make decisions

- According to the analyses the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in Libyan universities was considered to be high.

4.3.2.2 The level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to certain fields of study: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication

- According to the analyses the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in each field of the study (the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication) was perceived to be high.

4.3.2.3 The differences in the level of department heads' ability to make decisions attributed to the variable of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization

4.3.2.3.1 Gender

- There was difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in Tabriq University, however there was no difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Libyan Universities.

4.3.2.3.2 Age

- There was at least one group of age difference of department heads' ability to make decisions in Garyounis University, the group of age <30 appears Superior for department heads' ability to make decisions. Nevertheless, the group of age >51 set appears Inferior for department heads' ability to make decisions. There was no difference between groups of age of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Libyan Universities.

4.3.2.3.3 Specialisation

- There was a clear difference between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions. The ability of heads of department of humanities group was higher than scientific group.

4.3.2.3.4 Qualification

- There was no difference, based on qualification of department heads', in ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

4.3.2.3.5 Experience

- There was a difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in Alfatih and Tahhadi University. The group of experience 11> appears superior for department heads' ability to make decisions however, there was no difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in others Libyan Universities.

4.4 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEWS

The following is a presentation of the findings of two interviews which represent key issues, structured around the key themes derived from the main aims of the study. The analytical approach adopted is according to the approach recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994) and was developed through continuously reading and re-reading the responses of the respondents.

4.4.1 The first interview

Leading and managing departments in Higher Education institutions in Libya

Departments play a key role in the university. This section examines the important question of how heads run their department and seeks to outline whether such heads operate collectively, follow up all matters related to the department personally, operate according to legislation and regulations imposed by the college, or through meetings with staff to discuss what needs to be done in order to make a decision.

This question elicited some very interesting responses. One typical response was that of head No.7, who stated:

“...I run the department through the daily follow-up and periodic meetings of the Council of the department...”

(Head No.7)

Six of heads (head No.1, No.3, No.6, No.8, No.9, No.10 and No.11) gave similar answers which showed that they try to focus on the management of their departments through follow-up meetings that were either convened daily or as periodic meetings. However, on the other hand, head No.2 and head No.5, gave a rather different answer, since they suggested that the key factor in the way that they run their departments was according to legislation and regulations imposed by the college and university.

“...I run my department according to legislation and regulations imposed by the college and university... and through collective management of the department in accordance with the policy of the college and the department...”

(Head No.2)

Yet another head (Head No. 4) runs his department through different methods.

“...I respect the colleagues in the department and taking into account the differences by age and academic degree of the staff member of the department...Encourage a spirit of like and cooperation among all...Encourage new individuals to creativity... When I make decision must be collective decision in the department...”

(Head No. 4)

Accordingly, it is clear that heads operate tend to argue that they run their departments through the collective participation of academic colleagues. A collegial approach characterised and made operant through daily follow-up of the functioning of departments by the heads themselves.

The decision-making in the departments

The second topic which respondents were invited to discuss related to decision-making processes. In particular the researcher explored to what extent decisions are based on collecting information related to the subject of the decision prior to formal decision-making. Further the interview explored to what extent decision-making carried out on the basis of regulations and legislation applicable at Libyan universities and how far decisions are made collectively. Finally, heads were asked to what extent they make some individual decisions on urgent matters.

The respondents replied to these questions readily. One such response was as following:

“...Through having a discussion with the Council of the department in order to make a collective decision...”

(Head No.2)

Respondents No.1, No. 3, No. 6, No. 7, No. 9, No. 10, and No.11 gave similar answers. Thus, these heads make a collective decision in their departments by discussion with the Council of the department. Nevertheless, two heads (4 and 5) suggested that they make their decisions consistent with data collection; consult experienced professionals, and the study of the passives of decision.

“...I am making decisions according to steps of decision making, in accordance with the resolution and the most important data collection and development of alternatives and choose the best...Make realistic

decisions and safety implementation...Consult experienced of the department...and the study of the passives consequences for the decision..."

(Head No.5)

On the other hand, head No. 8 had a different way to make administrative decisions:

"...I am making individual decisions in matters which do not require help from the staff of the department. For example, administrative matters such as choosing the secretary of the department, and teaching facilities...the academic and scientific matters are made by the department..."

(Head No. 8)

Through the heads' answers it is obvious that holding meetings is the most common method for decision-making where any problems or aspects discussed to make a decision or find a solution.

The difficulties which encounter the head during collecting data related to a decision

The starting point for this section of the interview was based on the conception that the decision-making process requires head to gather data in order to reach a resolution. Heads were asked whether they find it difficult to deal with a lot of information at once and whether they face the problem of hesitation from some administrative staff in giving accurate information. Further they were asked if such inaccuracy of available information proves a difficulty and whether heads face the problem of a delayed response to requests for data and reports.

This question provided some very interesting responses. For instance:

"...The most important difficulty in decision-making is to collect accurate data from reliable sources in a timely manner which leads to make accurate and valid resolution..."

(Head No.5)

The head No.3, No.4, No.6, No. 7, No. 10, and No.11 gave similar answers. Heads found difficulties when they make decisions. However, head No. 2 has another explanation:

“...when I make decision I face the problem of delayed response to the requests of data and reports...”

(Head No. 2)

Nevertheless Head No. 1 had different explanation:

“...The biggest difficulty I have when I make decision is non-agreement of staff members of the department on the subject of the decision. As a result, do not be a collective decision and objectivity...”

(Head No. 1)

Head No. 8 explained another difficulty:

“...Low the level of some administrative staff in some administrations in carrying out their work properly.

(Head No. 8)

The answer of head No. 9 was very different since he made it clear that he operated according to local and national legislation:

“...I do not have any difficulty during make decision, because I make them according to legislation and regulations imposed by the university which Issued by the higher education...”

(Head No. 9)

In general, it was clear that there are difficulties and challenges facing heads during the process of data collection. The most important of these is the lack of access to accurate information thus necessitating more time, which could lead to impediments to the decision-process and to timely action.

The best solutions to solve any particular problem which the heads may encounter while they are performing their work

The most difficult step in the decision-making lies in finding the best alternatives. The question was raised as to whether this can be carried out by relevant departments and whether the heads consult expert members of the staff. Further they were asked how far that is carried out through the department council and to what extent the public interest is taken into account.

One typical answer to this question was given by head No.6 as following:

“...By consulting department members who have experience and know-how of the problem...”

(Head No.6)

Most the heads (No. 1, No. 3, No. 4, N. 9, No. 10, No.8, No.7, No.2 and No.11) gave similar answers. Therefore, it appeared that most heads felt that they could find the best solutions to solve any particular problem which they may encounter while they are performing their work by consulting an expert member or members of the staff. However, on the other hand heads No. 5 gave different answer:

“...When I get correct data and information, I can arrive at the best solutions to solve any problem during my work...”

(Heads No. 5)

Accordingly, despite the difficulties impeding the work of the heads, according to the answers heads, they feel that they can reach the best solutions to the problems which they may encounter during their work, through consultation with experts on the topic under scrutiny.

The areas that heads find most difficult to make a decision about

The heads were asked what, in their administrative and academic experience, are the issues where they find it most difficult to make a decision about. They were asked whether the lack of power prevents a head of department from that from making decision and whether the lack of sufficient data and information on the decision prevents decision-making. Further, they were asked if the lack of sufficient time prevents decision-making and if there is a contradiction between the decisions and legislation in place, how the decision would be made.

A full explanation was given by head No.10:

“...Lack of necessary information related to the resolution...in addition to cases in which I need to make a decision might conflict with regulations and legislations in Libyan universities...”

(Head No.10)

Head No.2, No.6, No.5, No. 8, No. 3, No. 7, No. 9 and No.11 gave similar answers.

However, it is important to note that heads No.1 and head No. 4 gave another answer:

“...There are some cases where I find difficulty to make decision about them, especially when related to harm particular individual...”

(Heads No.1)

There are some cases where the heads could be unable to make a scientific decision, because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data. In addition to some decisions that might conflict with regulations and legislation in Libyan universities.

4.4.2 The second interview

Heads of department in Libyan Universities feel that their ability to make decisions in Libyan universities is high

The researcher has already carried out the first phase of her research (the questionnaire) and the researcher wanted to explore some of the issues that have arisen from her research in more detail. The previous research suggests that heads of department in Libyan Universities feel that their ability to make decisions in Libyan universities is high. This section shows if the heads agreed with this and, if so, what skills and support help the heads to make high quality decisions?

In this case the responses were high (448 respondents handed in questionnaires). However, when the researcher carried out the interviews it was clear that some of the heads were agreed with this result, but on the other hand some of the heads disagreed. The following is a presentation of the findings that represent key issues, structured around the key themes derived from the main aims of the study.

The significant explanation was given by head No.1:

"...Yes I agree with this result...but with regard to the skills and support necessary for the head of the department to make decisions of high quality, it depends on his understanding of his work first...and long experience gained in the area of work before he became head for a certain department...and non-interference in his work when making any decision provided that The decision shall be in accordance with regulations and decisions in force..."

(Head No.1)

Head No. 3 supported this result as following:

"...Yes, I agree with that...which helps on that are essential: practical experience in the management functions of the scientific departments,

especially with regard to scientific matters...and the scientific council for each department, and often take decisions after trading between members of the department and the agreement on the decisions which made...these deliberations will allow the department and secretary of its members to make good decisions and based on scientific grounds..."

(Head No. 3)

Head No.8, No.9, No.10, No. 6, and No.11 gave similar answers. However, it is important to note that heads No.5, No.2, No.7 and head No. 4 gave another answer:

"...No, I disagree with this result. Heads of departments haven't the ability to make the significant decisions, because the laws and regulation limit their ability...the skills and support which help me: alleviation of the central...give sufficient flexibility to the head of the department; even take freely action according to the situation which I want to make decision about it...scientific councils... and laws and regulations that do not take into account the scientific and administrative hierarchy..."

(Head No. 4)

As a result, it seems clear that the interviews revealed that heads of department in Libyan Universities feel that their ability to make decisions in Libyan universities is high. The most important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities is the length of experience as a head.

That heads of department feel that their ability to make decision in the fields of the study (the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication) is high.

The researcher was interested in a number of fields in the study including: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication the previous research suggests that heads of department feel that their ability to make decision in each of these areas is high. Why the heads think this is the case? What does the University do to support decision-making skills –

for instance is any training provided? What skills heads feel they need to be effective in these key areas?

Why the heads think this is the case

To answer why the heads think this is the case the respondents' gave different answers as following:

"...Because to make correct decision is based on scientific grounds must follow all of these fields. Decisions should be taken collectively even characterized by objectivity, flexibility, and quality...this is will improve the Communication between members of the department..."

(Head No.3)

Some respondents (No.6, No.8, N.9, No.10, and No.11) gave similar answers. They feel that their ability to make decision in the fields of the study (the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication) is high. Nevertheless, some the heads of department gave different answers:

"...No, I disagree, because the head of department usually doesn't use all these fields when he makes the decisions...and there are many differences between people in their ability in the leadership, decision making, and communication with staff member...in the same time they don't have all the knowledge of scientific methods of management..."

(Head No.4)

Another answer (Head No.1) agreement the last answer of head No. 4:

"...I disagree with this result, because some department heads make their decisions non-use of objectivity, flexibility, quality, and control...I mean that some of the decisions taken impact of others, or the decision of the individual, which means that non-compliance with regulations and conditions, and must be members of the department in the decision-making responsibility..."

(Head No.1)

Another answer head (No.7) support the result:

"...I do not use these fields because I make the decision in my department routinely..."

(Head No.7)

Some heads (No. 5, and No. 2) gave similar answers. Thus some heads of department make their decisions non-use all the fields of the study because they usually make their decisions impact of others, or the decision of the individual, and the make their decision routinely. Generally, the heads of department make their decision according to the fields of the study, however they make their decision by staff member of the department and routinely.

What does the University do to support decision making skills – for instance is any training provided?

All the responses were similar. One typical answer to this question was given by head No.1, as following:

"...The University does not do anything with regard to supporting decision-making skills of the department heads', do not provide any training programs to the head of department...The head of the department who is chosen if it does not comply with the regulations, the presence of experience, participation of members of the department in the responsibility, and walk on the principle of one to take any action, so he will not be able to make any right decision..."

(Head No. 1)

Another similar answer gave by head No. 4:

"...There are no training programs offered by the University to the heads of departments, but I make the decisions depends on my personal ability and my experience in the field of administrative work..."

(Head No. 4)

Head N0. 7 agreements with head No. 1 and head 4:

“...There are no training programs prepared by the University to raise the level of heads of departments of the administrative and scientific tasks, and support skills in decision-making. There is quality management but it does not do anything to support heads’ work...”

(Head No. 7)

Most heads of department (head No. 5, No. 2, No. 6, No. 3, No. 8, No.9, No. 10, and No. 11) gave similar answers. As a result, the University does not do anything to support decision making skills of the heads of department. They make their decision according to their experience in the field of administrative work.

What skills and support help the heads to make high quality decisions?

Consistent with the heads’ answers there are many skills which the heads need in order for them to make decisions. A very interesting answer was made by head No. 4 and No. 10, as follows:

“...There are many skills which the head of department needs when he makes decisions, for example, management skills, legal, Regulatory, and methods of decision-making...”

(Head No. 4)

Another explanation was by head No. 1:

“...Skills are the head of the department feeling a personal sense internally that he can be effective. This feeling does not come by demand, but remain with the owner and retains. He needs to the Secretary-section is not to interfere in his work during the decision-making, the requirement to follow regulations that must be fixed...”

(Head No. 1)

A further surprising answer was by the head No. 3 who felt that there was little if any training for the role:

“...Heads of Department need a lot of skills so that he can make decisions effectively. Head of department rely on the experience because the university does not provide any support to the head. Administration is aware of a stand-alone, has its origins, rules and many of the details we are not aware of the absence of training programs for that...”

(Head No. 3)

Head No. 5, No. 6, No8, and head No. 11 gave similar an answer:

“... The head of department needs to communication skill...and to deal with others and Gain their views in high or low levels...and subjective and objective skills...”

(Head No.11)

Equally, head No. 7 stated:

“... I need to skill of use the computer ...and deal with the internet ...and understand the decisions of the university...”

(Head No. 7)

Head No. 9 and No. 2 gave different answer which emphasised the need for humanitarian and administrative skills:

“... Heads of department need many skills to make good decisions, for example humanitarian, administrative skills and the experience...”

(Head No. 9)

Clearly, heads of department in Libyan universities need to a great many skills to make good decisions, and it appears that they do not have enough skills to make decisions without help from others.

The differences between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions

The research suggests that there is little difference between females and males' department heads ability to make decisions in most Libyan Universities. In this section the researcher obtained some answers regarding the following questions: Do heads

think this is the case in their department? What skills and qualities to men and women bring to the role of head of department? Are these sets of skills different in men and women? There is some evidence in the research literature that men and women adopt different management styles. Do heads think men and women who are head of department in your institution adopt different management styles? If so, what are the key features of these differing styles of management?

Do heads think this is the case in their department?

To answer this question, heads of department divided into two groups, the first group is agreed that the differences between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions, whilst another group is disagreed the differences between them in their ability to make decisions.

Two heads (No.4 and No. 8) mentioned the differences between females and males to make decisions:

“...Yes I agree strongly, because it is natural that there are differences between individuals and their composition, and their expertise accumulated over the administrative work...”

(Head No. 4)

Consequently, these heads believed that there are differences between females and males' department heads ability to make decisions. Whilst nine heads (No.2, No.6, No.5, No. 1, No. 3, No. 7, No. 9, No. 10 and No.11) gave the same answer. According to heads' answers there are no differences between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions.

Head No.3 explained the differences between females and males:

“...There are no difference between males and females to make decisions, because the difference in the ability not according to gender to made decisions correctly...”

(Head No.3)

Head No. 1 gave similar explained:

“...There is no significant difference between males and females in the ability to make decisions. The reason is that as long as you followed the rules and regulations were applied correctly in this case is not a great difference between them...”

(Head No. 1)

Overall, in conclusion, it would appear that there is consensus in the views of the respondents that there are no differences between females and males of department heads' ability to make decisions.

The skills and qualities to men and women bring to the role of head of department? Are these sets of skills different in men and women?

According to the heads' answers male and female heads need a range of skills and qualities to make good decisions. However, there are no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions. One typical answer to this question was given by head No.1 as following:

“...There is no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions, because regardless of gender, any decision needs to skills to make any right decision...”

(Head No. 1)

As another head perceived it:

“...Head of department (male and female) needs to managerial skills, humanitarian, communication and others so can make the decision correctly...”

(Head No.3)

Head N0.4 claimed that:

“...There is no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions... heads need to the ability to deal with others...possess leadership qualities...sense of responsibility...and estimate the value of the work being undertaken by the department head...”

(Head No. 4)

An important answer gave by head No. 2:

“...There is no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions... heads must possess the flexibility and objectivity, neutrality and training on methods to make the correct decisions...”

(Head No.2)

Most heads (No.8, N0.6, No.5, No. 3, No. 7, No. 9, No. 10 and No.11) gave the same answer. Heads need many skills to make correct decisions for example the ability to communication and deal with others, flexibility and objectivity and others.

There is some evidence in the research literature that men and women adopt different management styles. Do heads think men and women who are head of department in their institution adopt different management styles? If so, what are the key features of these differing styles of management?

Heads (No.1 and No.4) focused on different management styles between males and females:

"...Yes, I agree to a rate of 80%. Key features of the management methods are: the desire, experience, firmness, and flexibility in the time provided they do not abuse the regulations and not take any weak decision..."

(Head No. 1)

Another explanation is:

"...Yes, all the head follows the methods mostly by his or her gender. Women are usually focused on minute details and formalities and deal high sensitively with positions, and frequency in the decision-making and the irreversibility of the decisions if found to be groundless..."

(Head No. 4)

Two heads (No.2 and No.8) gave similar answer. Thus, men and women who are head of department adopted different management styles when they made decisions. On the other hand, some heads disagreed with this thinking. For instance head No.3 mentioned in the interview that:

"...In my opinion, there are no differences between them. According to their experience they will choice the style that helps to make good decisions..."

(Head No.3)

Head No. 6 also included his personal opinion:

"...No difference between male and female in use management styles...because everyone (male or female) uses the style which is Suitable for the position which wants to make a decision for him..."

(Head No. 6)

Head No. 5, No. 7, No.9, No.10, and No. 11 gave similar answer. Therefore, depended to responses of the heads there are no differences between males and females in Libyan universities according to management styles.

There is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age

The researcher suggests that there is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age. Do heads think age is a factor in decision making? If so why do heads think this is the case? What would head consider to be the optimal age for making management decisions? Why is this age group most capable in making decisions?

Do heads think age is a factor in decision-making? If so why do heads think this is the case?

All the respondents thought age is a main factor in decision making. Indeed every respondent expressed this belief. One interesting answer in this vein was given by head

No. 3:

“...Yes, age is a factor in decision making that the experiences of the human are part of the President of its ingredients, whenever the accumulated experience and practice to work, acquired new skills will help him to do his job very well...and avoid repeating mistakes and inappropriate practices...”

(Head No.3)

Head No.1 had a similar explanation:

“...Yes, age is an influencing factor in the decision-making. In my opinion, because people who are older are able to better decision-making of people aged less...the reason for this is lack of understanding of regulations and lack of experience...”

(Head No. 1)

Another explanation (Head No. 4), which is not less important:

“...Yes, age is a large factor in decision making, because there are many reasons for that the surface of experience, experiments and expertise to play a major role in the decision-making and that the individual gained through progress in the age...”

(Head No. 4)

According to Head No.5 age is:

“...Yes, it is a big factor in decision making...because more progress in the age of the individual, become more capable of decision-making...”

(Head No.5)

All heads (No.2, No.6, No.9, No.10, No.8, No.7, and No.11) gave similar answer. Therefore, it is clear that there is a common belief that there is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age. The reason most common observation focused on the conception that it is older individuals who have better ability in decision-making because they have greater experience in administrative work with a concomitant greater depth of understanding of nuanced situations and a greater ability to judge circumstances.

What would head consider to be the optimal age for making management decisions? Why is this age group most capable in making decisions?

Some heads did not specify a particular age group is able to make appropriate decisions. In the other hand, most heads have identified the age group of forties and fifties are the best class is able to make good decisions. The reason is that heads with the length of the period will gain good experience make them able to make better decisions. This is a presentation shows that:

Head No.3 did not define age group as following:

“...I cannot determine the specific age group. But it is essential that the head of the department shall have experience in the practice of academic work and the requisite experience in the field of work with the competent administrative bodies, this is scientific foundation in the administration of department...”

(Head No.3)

Other explanations (head No.1 and No.6) did not qualify age group:

"...There is no particular age group...because there are those who work for a long time in the field of work and when assigned the task of the leadership of the department cannot take a proper decision because it did not benefit from his years in understanding the laws and regulations and to gain experience, therefore does not help if he was big or small. There are a few of the heads acquired abilities qualifying them for the presidency of the department and they come out successful decisions..."

(Head No. 1)

In the other hand, most heads identified the age group of forties and fifties as best able to make good decisions, for example:

"...In my opinion, the person who matures the forties is able to make decisions and the reasons are the experience and expertise gained..."

(Head No. 4)

Most Heads (No.5, No.2, No.7, No.8, No.10, No.9, and No.11) gave similar answer. Accordingly, consistent with heads' answers the age group of forties and fifties are the best classes that able to make good decisions, because these heads have a longer experience in their work so they have more ability to make better decisions.

There is no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities

The researcher suggests that there is no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. This section relates to asking the heads some questions about: Do heads agree with this conclusion? If so, why do heads think this is the case and what are the generic skills that are required to make good decisions regardless of subject area? Are there any specific sets of skills that heads think a good leader/ Head of department needs in

his or her subject area? According to heads' responses the researcher had these answers:

Do heads agree with this conclusion? If so, why do heads think this is the case and what are the generic skills that are required to make good decisions regardless of subject area?

Two heads (No.1, and No.5) disagreed with this result:

"...I disagree with that. Because decision making is not confined to administrative matters only, but there are things that a scientific, head of the department must be aware of them in order to be able to discuss and participate so that his colleagues are making the right decision. Generic skills are not enough for a non-specialist, whether in humanities or Scientific..."

(Head No. 1)

As a result, there is appears to be a some difference between the views of scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' about the ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. Nevertheless, most heads noted that there is little or no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities as following:

Head No.3 supported this result:

"...Yes, I agree with this, because of the nature of the scientific departments in the faculties of the university are almost the same or similar, so there is no importance of specialization in the decision-making...that full knowledge of the subject under discussion and his careful study of all aspects of what is required is the most important debate going on inside the meetings of the scientific departments..."

(Head No.3)

Another interesting explanation of head No.4:

“...Yes, I agree strongly. Specialization creates differences among individuals. There is no doubt that scientific knowledge is giving to the individual special potential according to his knowledge there is no doubt that the administrative and psychological can serve the leadership and the president can make a mature decision...”

(Head No. 4)

Most heads (No.6, No.7, No.8, No.10, No.9, No.2, and No.11) gave similar answers.

In conclusion, there is no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

Are there any specific sets of skills that heads think a good leader/ Head of department needs in his or her subject area?

The interesting answer was of head No.8 he summarised the important skills as following:

“...the important skills to make good decision are administrative skills...scientific...regulatory...and humanitarian...”

(Head No.8)

All the heads (No.6, No.3, No.4, No.5, No.7, No.1, No.10, No.9, No.2, and No.11) gave similar answers. Therefore, heads of department in Libyan university used administrative skills, scientific, regulatory, and humanitarian.

Type of qualification and the ability to make decisions

The researcher suggests that level and type of qualification does not predict ability to make decisions. In this part the researcher focused on these questions: Do heads agree with this conclusion? If so, why do heads think this is the case? Are there any particular types of qualification that heads think are more helpful in assisting in

preparing heads of department to lead effectively? Do heads think special training and qualification should be offered to heads of department? If so, what form do heads think this training should take (for instance on-site/ off-site training; specific qualifications such as a Diploma/ MBA in Management).

Do heads agree with this conclusion? If so, why do heads think this is the case?

Responses of the respondents were divided into two teams. The first team was agreed with this result; however the second team was disagreed with this result. The results were as following:

Head No. 3 explained why he was agreed:

"...Yes, I agree with this...there is no importance to the different qualifications and types on the ability of heads of departments to make decisions... because the experience is more important when the head makes decision..."

(Head No.3)

Head No.4 added another explanation:

"...Qualification is not in any case be able to grant the head of the efficiency of a particular section...there is no doubt that the qualification added to the balance of leadership and what it creates in the hearts of his subordinates respect and discipline..."

(Head No. 4)

Head No. 6, No.8, No.9, No.10, and No.11 gave similar answer. Therefore, level and type of qualification does not predict ability to make decisions. However, some heads disagreed with this result. For instance, head No. 1 believed that:

"...I disagree with that, because the qualification is the main affect factor on the ability of the heads of department to make decisions...when heads are required discussing scientific issues that need to the presence of specialization, while the other administrative matters can be conducted..."

(Head No. 1)

Head No.5, No.2, and No.7 gave similar answer. Subsequently, the level and type of qualification are predicting the ability to make decisions. However, generally, according to most heads' responses the level and type of qualification does not predict the ability to make decisions.

Are there any particular types of qualification that heads think are more helpful in assisting in preparing heads of department to lead effectively?

Some heads gave different answers about the type of the qualification, for example:

"...The heads of departments should be placed according to their specialties and qualifications, and taking into account the expertise and desire...they need training and rehabilitation to help them to make right decisions..."

(Head No. 1)

Another explanation was of head No. 4:

"...No, there are no specific types but required to be the work of the head of department in the field of specialization to lead effectively..."

(Head No. 4)

The interesting answer was of head No.6 it:

"...Heads who have qualifications related to the administration will be able to take the best decision..."

(Head No.6)

Head No. 3 gave different explanation:

"...No, I disagree with this. There is no importance to the different qualifications and types on the ability of heads of departments to make decisions..."

(Head No. 3)

Head No.5, No.2, No.7, No.8, No. 9, No.10, and No.11 gave similar answer. As a result, no differences were found between types of qualifications of the heads of department.

Do heads think special training and qualification should be offered to heads of department? If so, what form do heads think this training should take (for instance on-site/ off-site training; specific qualifications such as a Diploma/ MBA in Management).

Three heads (No3, No.1, and No.5) gave negative response:

"...The scientific departments in the universities are not like administration company needs to qualifications in business administration. Academic affairs is the basis of the work of department heads and mostly make decisions collectively requires simple skills in the management of meetings, and the ability to control the debate is going to walk a positive, to be to reach the appropriate decision..."

(Head No.3)

Another explanation is:

"...No, I don't think that is very useful, because the heads of department can make decisions by high quality when they work in the scientific field and gain experience and flexibility in resolving issues and different issues..."

(Head No. 1)

In the other hand, head No.4 gave different answer:

"...Yes, head of department should be subject to training programs at the site and outside of the work to help him knowledge of scientifically based to be followed when making decisions..."

(Head No. 4)

Another interesting answer of head No.8:

"...Yes, heads need special training about their work...because not all heads are familiar with administrative processes, laws, regulations, and operational procedures applicable in universities..."

(Head No.8)

Heads No.2, No.6, No.7, No.9, No.10, and No.11 gave similar answer. Accordingly, heads need to special training about their work to acquire new skills and experience in the field of decision-making.

The years of experience predict the ability to make decisions in most Universities in Libya

The researcher suggests that years of experience do not predict the ability to make high quality decisions in most Universities in Libya. Therefore, the researcher examined these questions: Do heads find this surprising? What length of experience, if any, do heads think is optimal in helping leaders to be effective?

Do heads find this surprising?

Head No.3 perceived that:

"...No, it does not surprising, because the work of the department is collectively..."

(Head No.3)

A more description was given by head No. 1:

"...No, it does not surprising, because experience means years of their President in the field of work and benefited to solve any problem in the department, so the experience should be help the leaders to make decisions by high quality. The number of years of experience has no effect on the ability of leaders to make the decision..."

(Head No. 1)

In addition, head No.7 noted that:

"...No, it does not surprising, because there is confusion between the number of years worked by the head and the experience gained..."

(Head No. 7)

Therefore, according to heads' answers, years of experience do not predict the ability to make high quality decisions in most Universities in Libya. Yet, some heads found that surprising, because the experience is very important in the field of administrative and leadership.

Head No. 4 explained that:

"...Yes, I find that surprising...Expertise in any area at any time should create disparity among individuals, therefore considered it very important in order to be effective decision-making..."

(Head No. 4)

Head No.8 mentioned another important explanation:

"...Yes, I find that surprising because experience is very important in the field of administrative work...Heads that lack experience do not have enough awareness and knowledge of the ways and methods of administration and leadership..."

(Head No.8)

Head No. 5, No. 2, No. 6, No. 8, No. 9, No. 10, and No. 11 gave similar answer. Generally, the years of experience is predicting the ability to make decisions in most Universities in Libya.

What length of experience, if any, do heads think is optimal in helping leaders to be effective?

The heads gave different responses. Some heads specified the length of experience between 3 to 6 years; furthermore, other heads specified the length of experience between 10 to 30 years. In the other hand, some heads cannot decide the length of experience that is most beneficial. Head No.3, No.6, No.10, No.11, and No.9 stated that:

"...Experience is important, it is one of the factors helping to achieve the academic work, cannot be determined a certain age to do so..."

(Head No.3)

Another similar presented by head No.1:

"...I cannot decide the length of experience, because the ability of individuals vary, it is difficult to specify. There are those who gain experience through a period of less than someone else..."

(Head No. 1)

On the other hand, head No. 4 gave a different answer:

"...In my opinion, Years of experience required should not be less than ten years to be effective..."

(Head No. 4)

Moreover, head No. 5 and head No.2 specified the length of experience as following:

"...So the head can make decisions efficiently must be at least five or six years... However it is not optimal because more years of experience have improved the ability for leadership and decision making..."

(Head No. 5)

Another explanation was of head No.7:

"...The number of years of experience not is less than three years and it is optimal in helping leaders to be effective..."

(Head No.7)

Head No. 8 mentioned in the interview that:

"...Twenty to thirty years of experience in the field of education is the best period of leadership and decision making..."

(Head No. 8)

In conclusion, most heads of department in Libyan universities cannot decide which number of years of experience is the optimal in helping leaders to be effective, although it was clear that most felt that the ability of the heads to improve their skills and take advantage of situations that they go through would enable them to be more effective according to the number of years of experience. Finally, the researcher asked the heads if are there any other issues in connection with the ability of heads of

department to make decisions in Libyan Universities. The important answers were by head No. 4 and No. 6 as following:

“...Yes, there are other issues relating to heads of departments such as: taking into account the laws and regulations and their role in creating stability in the management of Libyan universities...Job stability because of the ongoing change management... and failure to observe the sequence administrative, professional and scientific in the selection of department heads and leaders...”

(Head No. 4)

Consistent with heads answers, when the heads make decisions, they must take into account the laws and regulations of the Libyan universities.

4.4.3 Summary of the finding of analysis of interviews data

According to the analysis of interview data and the aims of the study the researcher found that the heads of department argue strongly that they administer their departments through collective participation enacted by making academic and administrative decisions and a daily follow-up of the functioning of departments to assess the implementation of their requirements. This would suggest that heads of department perceive that they are administering their departments through the use of the democratic style of making decisions. In addition, heads of department use meetings as the most common forum for decision-making where any problems or aspects are discussed in order to make a decision or find a solution. Therefore, the kind of decision that the heads of department made is a deemed to be collective. Many respondents stated that there are difficulties facing the heads of department which can impede swift and timely decision making. Data also suggested that, as a result of these pressures, heads of department may be forced to make bad or inadequate decisions at times. However, the data suggests that heads of department attempt to reach the best solutions to the problems which they may encounter during their work through

consultation with experts on the topic under scrutiny. Finally, there are some cases where the heads of department felt unable to make a rational and lucid decision because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data. In addition, it was felt that some decisions might conflict with extant regulations and legislation in Libyan universities thus constraining decision-making further.

The main result of study was that the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high; the important skill and support which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities is the length experience as a head. Generally, the heads of department make their decision according to the fields of the study (decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication); however some routine decisions make routinely. On the other hand, the surprising result was that the University does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work. It is clearly, heads of department in Libyan universities need to many skills to make good decision; they do not have enough skills to make decision without help from others. Furthermore, there are no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions. In addition, the responses of the heads indicate that there are no differences between males and females in Libyan universities according to management styles. Moreover, there is a belief that there is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age in their opinion, and the reason for that is older individuals in the age have better ability to decision-making because they have good experience in the administrative work. Accordingly, consistent with heads' answers, the age group of forties and fifties

are the viewed as the best able to make good decisions, because these heads have a longer experience in their work so greater skills and more attuned judgement. However, there is no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

The researcher found that heads of department in Libyan university used administrative skills, including scientific, regulatory, and humanitarian. Generally, according to most heads' responses the level and type of qualification does not predict the ability to make decisions. As a result, no differences were found between types of qualifications of the heads of department. Another important result was that heads need to special training about their work to acquire new skills and experience in the field of decision-making. In addition, years of experience is predicting the ability to make decisions in most Universities in Libya.

In conclusion, most heads of department in Libyan universities cannot decide which number of years of experience is the optimal in helping leaders to be effective, because the ability of the heads to improve their self and take advantage of situations that go through will be more effective than the number of years of experience. Consistent with heads answers, when the heads make decisions must take into account the laws and regulations of the Libyan universities. Overall, the analysis of interview data suggested clearly that heads of department perceive that they have the ability to make appropriate and effective decisions in Libyan universities.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter examined the ability of heads of department to make decision in Libyan universities according to the fields and variables of the study by qualitative and quantitative methods. The content analysis results show that the overall level of the ability of heads of department to make decisions, and how heads role their department. The analysis of the answers to the questionnaire and interviews showed that despite the ability of heads of department to make decisions in Libyan universities was high, there are difficulties facing the heads of department which can impede swift and timely decision making. There are some cases where the heads of department felt unable to make a rational and lucid decision because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data, in addition some decisions might conflict with extant regulations and legislation in Libyan universities thus constraining decision-making further. The important result was that the universities do not progress any support to the heads to work effectively. The majority of the participants felt that they need training to improve their level of leadership and decision-making. However, what can be said on the positive side is that, despite the difficulties which facing the heads of department in Libyan universities, they can make appropriate decisions based on their experience.

The discussion of the finding and analysis will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5

Discussion of Findings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the findings of the study derived from the data were presented in the previous section of this thesis. The chapter is structured according to the three questions that were set as the framework for this study in chapter one (Section 1.7.2) which are discussed in light of the literature reviewed in chapter two. In addition, the various themes that have been identified in the findings are discussed according to:

- the background of the ability of the heads of department to perform their duties;
- their current actual ability to perform any mental or intellectual effort under certain conditions;
- their styles of leadership;
- the ability of the heads of department to conceive the concept of decision making, the types of decision taken, and,
- the extent to which the head of department understands the steps or stages of decision making and their sequence.
- ‘objectivity’ or the extent decision making is affected by internal and external impacts;
- ‘flexibility’ or the extent to which the head of the department modifies, alters, rejects decision making concept: related to the ability of the heads of department to conceive or approves a particular decision in accordance to the circumstances and contexts;

- ‘quality’ or the ability of the head of department to make decisions characterized by appropriate characteristics in terms of clarity, excitability, etc;
- ‘communication’, which should appear as a condition that should be displayed in the work of the heads of department;
- the heads of departments’ practice in relation to their authorities, rights and duties without exploiting his or her official position in order to guarantee the implementation of the goals.

A synthesis of the findings from this study provides useful information in identifying the ability of heads of department to make decisions attributed to the variables of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization which, as noted from the outset, are central to this study. Crucially, the researcher found that there are many differences in the ability of heads of department to make decisions according to the variables of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization in Libyan universities.

The *ability* of the heads of department is the most important keyword in this discussion, especially in view of the nature of decision-making within Libyan universities. As noted earlier, this chapter discusses the main findings and relates them to the research questions assembled in chapter four. Each section of the analysis below summarizes a body of evidence on the relevant research question. Every attempt has been made to integrate the findings from this research project into a coherent conceptual framework drawing upon the concepts outlined in the literature review.

Many different themes have appeared in the course of this study. Some of these themes were identified in the background research to this study and formed the basis of the questions put to the heads and decision-making survey participants. Other themes came to light from the answers of the respondents. Together they make up a complex matrix of intersecting issues and problems that tend to corroborate each other rather than being in contradiction. The researcher first examines the themes contained within the framework of the research questions. These will then be discussed with reference to previous data, primary and secondary literature, the interview data and the researcher's own experience.

5.2 Q1: WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF DEPARTMENT HEADS' ABILITY TO MAKE DECISIONS?

Overall, the main thrust of the findings in relation to this issue is in line with previous research and confirms that the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions was deemed to be high. Ability is the skill set required for the successful conduct of a particular position (Youssef, 1998, p.14; Oxford University Press, 2006, p.2). The head of department has overall responsibility for the conduct of the department in accordance with the policies of the institution and the role of the head of department is to provide academic leadership, to encourage and develop excellence in teaching and research, to manage and develop the department, its staff and its activities through the most effective and efficient use of resources within the framework of a general strategic plan (Veredus executive Resourcing, 2009; Mursy, 1992, p.221; Cipriano and Riccardi, 2005; McLaughlin et al, 1975). 448 heads participated in this study, the researcher found that the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high and the most

important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities was the long experience as a head of department. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews would indicate length of service and experience is believed to be so important because the university does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work. The data therefore tends to support the thesis put forward in the literature by Alabbar (2001), Alsharif (1988), Mahdi (1988) and Saber (1994), all of whom argue that heads of department do have significant ability to make decisions in higher education institutions.

Nonetheless, we must note that studies have shown that most people are much poorer at decision making than they think and consideration of what decision making involves, together with a few effective techniques, will help produce better decisions (Harris, 2009). This finding points to the fact that heads of department in Libyan universities need to master a wide variety of skills to make good decisions. Such skills or skill-sets would include: communication skills, management skills, scientific, regulatory and humanitarian skills. In light of this complex set of skills and abilities involved in the role of head of department, combined with the paucity and rarity of training available, it seems likely that few heads would in fact have the full range of skills to make decisions without help from others (Harris, 2009) and we may note that the head of department should have excellent delegation skills; be flexible and adapt to changing circumstances; be able to develop their skills and seek advice from a variety of sources (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 3-4).

Heads of department are one of the key drivers of change in modern Universities (Ibraheem, 2008; Badri, 2007). The role of the head of department is to provide academic leadership to his or her colleagues and that, functionally; the head of department is responsible for managing the budget and syllabus, defending and promoting the department, and giving research guidance to younger colleagues (Halsey and Trow, 1971). Moreover, the department head's role needs to be considered within the context of the challenging statement that up to 80 per cent of all administrative decisions made in colleges and universities are made by department heads and that the head plays a central role in the governance and productivity of postsecondary institutions (Wolverton, 1999; Carroll & Wolverton, 2004). The researcher examined the important question of how heads run their department. Decision makers are faced daily with making significant and pervasive decisions. This is particularly important in higher education, where decisions about academics will have considerable impact on the next generation of leaders (Sellers, 2005, p. 265). The researcher found that the heads of department involved in the study argued strongly that they administer their departments through collective participation enacted by making academic and administrative decisions and a daily follow-up of the functioning of departments to assess the implementation of their requirements. This would suggest that heads of department perceive that they are administering their departments through the use of the democratic or collegial style of making decisions. In addition, heads of department stated that they used meetings as the most common forum for decision-making where any problems or aspects are discussed in order to make a decision or find a solution. Therefore, the kind of decision that the heads of department made is deemed to be collective, a behavioral style which is associated with people who have a deep concern for the organizations in which they work and the

personal development of their coworkers. Such individuals are highly supportive of others and very concerned about others' achievements, frequently helping them meet their goals. In addition, such individuals tend to be open to suggestions from others, and therefore tend to rely on meetings for making decisions (Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p. 389). According to the results of this study heads of department in Libyan universities are using this behavioral style when they are making decisions in their departments and this result concurred with those of a number of other researchers (see, for instance, Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p. 389; Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004, p.650; Kolbe & Boos, 2009).

As noted in previous studies, heads of department work in different contexts and with different levels of support, and consequently the tasks and problems facing them are of a different order from all other department heads (Mathias, 1991, pp. 67). In addition, heads of department are affected by more than just their skills. In order to be effective, academic middle managers and their supervisors need to pay attention to other factors that affect performance (Diabach, 2006, p. 7). Many respondents stated that there are difficulties facing heads of department which can impede swift and timely decision making. Data also suggested that, as a result of these pressures, heads of department may be forced to make bad or inadequate decisions at times. However, the data suggests that heads of department attempt to reach the best solutions to the problems which they may encounter during their work through consultation with experts on the topic under scrutiny; this result supported the findings of Mathias (1991, pp. 67). The researcher found that there are some cases where the heads of department felt unable to make a rational and lucid decision because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data (Schwarber, 2005p.1088; Daft & Marcic, 2001; Timberlake, 2004).

There are some views that support this practice of political control over the administrative and decision-making affairs of the institutions of higher education. These views are based on the argument that organizations with some type of political control can progress more easily toward the achievement of their goals (Livingstone, 1974; Khati, 1969, p.1). Another finding was that it is important to note that some decisions might conflict with extant regulations and legislation in Libyan universities thus constraining decision making further (Alsheibany, 1992, p. 198). Such findings support the previous perspectives offered by a number of researchers and writers in the field (see, for instance, Scott, 1992; Welsh, Nunez, & Petrosko, 2005; Garmon, 1984; Kukalis, 1991; and Waters, 1996).

5.3 Q2: WHAT IS THE LEVEL OF DEPARTMENT HEADS' ABILITY TO MAKE DECISIONS ACCORDING TO CERTAIN FIELDS OF STUDY: THE DECISION MAKING CONCEPT, THE STAGES OF MAKING THE DECISION, OBJECTIVITY, FLEXIBILITY, QUALITY, CONTROL, AND COMMUNICATION?

The researcher found that, in all most heads of department demonstrated high level of their ability to make decision according to the fields of the study. The researcher presented the finding of this question in relation to the fields of the study as following minor sub-headings presented in succeeding pages of this document.

5.3.1 The field of decision making concept

Decision making is learning of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values and preferences of the decision maker. Decision making is also the

development of sufficiently reducing uncertainty and doubt about alternatives to allow a reasonable choice to be made from among them (Harris, 2009; Lawson & Shen, 1998). According to the results of the study heads of department believed high level of their ability to make decision consistent with the decision making concept. We should also notes that making good decisions is a central skill at every level (Drucker, 2006). The best decision makers focus on three critical aspects of the decision including: objectives; alternatives; and, risks (Drucker, 2006; Cherrington; 1989).

Decision making process needs to heads that have the ability to make fast decisions with lowest cost, and understanding the staff members in their departments. Some people are born with good decision-making skills. Their minds logically go from objectives to alternatives to risks, gathering and processing the relevant information in the right order (Schwarber, 2005p.1090). It is important to point out that consistent with the finding of the study decision making as a term differs from the process of actual decisions; it is a process comes prior to making the decision. Heads of department differ in perception and recognition of the term decision making, consequently choosing the appropriate option is solving a particular problem. In addition, the chosen option must be appropriate for the aim intended to be achieved. The process of decision making is affected by various factors, such as the values decision maker believes in, temporal pressures, the decision maker undergo during the process, and environmental factors under which decision making process takes place. In case of making a decision, head of department should try to create new options. Head of department and decision maker cannot make a decision in case of the availability of one option, no right data available, and there is no problem exists. In some cases, it is required that heads of the department make decisions non-

programmed whilst considering such decisions in light of the existent regulations. We should note that risks in such non-programmed decisions are higher than those of programmed ones. Furthermore, developing the qualitative aspects of the department requires taking a strategize decisions whose impacts are long run ones. In addition, strategic decision requires deeper study than the tactical decision, correcting the strategic decision mistake is more cost effect than that of the tactical decision and strategic decision requires more attention than that for the tactic decision (Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p.384; Cherrington, 1989, p.628; Simon, 1997). Finally, the quality of information about a problem makes the process of decision making easily. The findings do show that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the decision making concept was perceived to be high and this result concurred with those of a number of other researchers (Harris, 2009; Lawson & Shen, 1998; Drucker, 2006; Cherrington; 1989).

5.3.2 The field of stages of making the decision

Previous studies have proposed that the model of stages of decision-makers follows the following path: 1) perfectly defining the problem; 2) knowing all relevant information. 3) identifying all criteria; 4) precisely weighting all the criteria according to his/her goals; 5) precisely accessing each alternative on each measure; and, 6) precisely calculating and choosing the alternative with the highest value. Despite the importance of these stages and the need to follow them when decision-making, but many of the administrative organizations do not adhere to these stages (Bazerman, 1986). It could be mentioned that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the stages of making the decision was supposed to be high. As believed by the participants, the process of decision-making includes number of steps;

the first step is realization of the existence of problem. Additionally, heads of the department differ in their understandings of the monitoring the execution of the decision. Heads thought that the aim concerning the monitoring is discovering the results of the decision; enriching the experience; and discovering new problems. In addition, heads of department have different viewpoints towards decisions execution and represent these statements their viewpoint. First of all executing the decision is not part of making on decision; decision maker has no responsibility to execute it however the staff member in the department has the responsibility of executing it. It is clear that heads of the department face difficulties in information collection for instance the unclear information available on the problem. The occurrence of mistakes in making decisions is attributed to Information collection; problem recognition; and choice of the appropriate alternative. Heads of the department differ in their understanding of the function of information collection. Heads consideration that information collection benefits to recognizing the problem; help assessing the options; and benefits making options. Finally, in the stage of choosing the appropriate alternative, the decision has been made then. In general, the finding of the data support the view put forward by (Drucker, 2006; Schwarber, 2005, p.1087; Cherrington, 1989, p.609; Greenberg and Baron, 2008, p.416-417; Bazerman, 1986) that the best decision makers are focus on the stages of decision making.

5.3.3 Objectivity

The objectivity of the head of department means his ability to look at the matters in front of him or her and identify them according to a general perspective and analyze them logically without any interference of the disputes, selfishness, self-regard or biasing towards certain party. Moreover, the ability of the head of the department to

keep feelings and disputes away from his or her administration and to try to analyze the matters objectively enables him to better understanding of the behaviour of the employees and consequently direct and guide them according to scientific and logical bases (Almaghriby, 1994, p.201). The researcher found that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of objectivity was to be supposed high. Consequently consistent with the findings outlined earlier, heads of the department differs in sharing the process of decision-making with others; heads care about professional's view points and they do consider them. If one of the teaching staff criticized the way decisions are made in the department, heads try to benefit from his criticism. When heads make decision, it is based on quantitative information. There are no relationships existing between heads and the teaching staff may affect on the decision-making; such as work relationship; social relationship; and political relationship. If heads want to compare two members of staff equal in all of the criteria for a scholarship award, one of them is his or her friend whereas heads have neutral relationship with other; heads make a lottery to choose. Heads of department differ in their responsibility towards the decisions they make. When one of heads decisions fails to solve the problem; heads study the reasons of failure. If heads asked to minimize the number of their department teaching staff. Thus the decision based on neglect the less qualified. The finding of the data support the view put forward by Moarsy, 1978; Alabbar, 2001; Mahdi, 1988; Alsheibany, 1992, p.198; and Saber, 1994.

5.3.4 Flexibility

When the heads making decisions should be flexible and change their styles to match situations (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Current organizations seek flexibility in answer to the exponential growth in technology and

globalisation, they view greater employee participation in decision making as a means of gaining more from an educated, technologically oriented workforce (Connell, 1998); defined as the act of sharing decision making with others to achieve organisational objectives (Knoop, 1991). The researcher found that the ability of the heads of department to make decision consistent with the field of flexibility was believed to be high. It is also clearly that if heads received a request from their department teaching staff to cancel a decision heads made is deal with a situation; heads promise is cancelling it if situations get better. Heads of department differ in the ways they punish the department staff upon the occurrence of a mistake; heads investigate the reasons behind that mistake first. If the staff members asked the heads to change the department police; heads approve any change which lead is development. Heads of department want to make a new system of postgraduate candidates' supervision; heads participate past graduate candidates in the decision. Such findings support the previous perspectives offered by a number of researchers and writers in the field (see, for instance, Moarsy, 1978; Alabbar, 2001; Mahdi, 1988; and Saber, 1994).

5.3.5 Quality

The researcher found that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the decision-making quality was considered to be high. In judging the quality of a decision, furthermore to the concerns of logic, use of information and alternatives, three other considerations come into play. Firstly, the decision must meet the stated objectives most thoroughly and completely. How well does the alternative chosen meet the goals identified? Secondly, the decision must meet the stated objectives most efficiently, with concern over cost, energy, side-effects. Are there

harmful consequences to the option that make that choice less desirable? We occasionally overlook this thought in our search for thrills. Thirdly, the decision should take into account valuable by-products or indirect advantages (Harris, 2009, p.5). The researcher found that the efficiency of the academic department and its ability to achieve its goals, and objectives of the university depends to a large extent on the efficiency of administrative and academic head, The quality of the academic department is determined by the capabilities and readiness department head, he or she is a leader and manager, is guided by others towards achieving the goals section, a supervisor of the events and activities section, planned, and the supervisor and a resident of the levels of performance, both for students or researchers or faculty members, administrators, and shepherd them, and described their responsibilities, and generally is responsible for managing the affairs of the department. The finding of the question presented that when heads make a decision that related to scientific matters in the department, they care much about decision quality. There are particular criteria by which appropriate options are selected when you make a decision, when the option is interesting to the head; when the option is economical; and when the option accomplishes the far-reaching target. In addition, the appropriate decision is characterized by certain features, so it is important to be clear and accept one interpretation of the route to success. The quality of a decision is affected by the risks which accompany it. In this case, the decision is considered as good when risks relevant to the nature of decision are taken into account and ameliorated. Heads noted that how fast the decision-making is relative is nature of the decision. The interesting found was that when heads have enough information they do not ask for other's participation in decision-making. Heads of the department differ in the degree of attention they pay for the various sides when they make decisions. Heads of

department focused on clarity and preciseness, details, and do not contradiction with previous decisions. Furthermore, when the head of department discovered a drawback in way his or her department precede, they make a meeting with the staff to discuss the reasons. The findings do show that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of quality was considered to be high and this result concurred with those of a number of other researchers (see, for example, Harris, 2009, p.5; Moarsy, 1978; Alabbar, 2001; Mahdi, 1988; and Saber, 1994) that the quality of leadership by the heads of department is necessary for effective staff participation in decision making.

5.3.6 Control

Power is significant factor in determining the efficiency of decision making in organizations. Ppsychologists' thought that participation in decision making could increase job satisfaction which would in turn facilitate the implementation of decisions so as to enhance the efficiency of decision making and the effectiveness of the organization as a whole (Miles, 1965; Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993). This study revealed that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of control was deemed to be high. It may be therefore assumed that heads of department differ in accomplishing the principle of authorization and according to heads believe that authorization important for training the leaders. Some employees are well known for their abilities of bearing their responsibilities but they did not response to heads' own directions to determine the demanded accomplishing standard. Consequently heads depend on determining the achievement and supervise it carefully. In general, the findings of the data support the view put forward by (Miles, 1965; Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993; Moarsy, 1978; Alabbar, 2001; Mahdi, 1988; and

Saber, 1994; Baeera, 1992, p. 206) that power is significant factor in determining the efficiency of decision making in organizations.

Employees are well known for their abilities of bearing their responsibilities but they did not response to heads' own directions to determine the demanded accomplishing standard. Consequently heads depend on determining the nature achievement or setting targets and supervise the processes carefully.

5.3.7 Communication

The real work of academic chairpersons 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 (Bowman, 2002). The researcher found that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of communication was perceived to be high. In other words in the communication, the head should use clear listening, speaking, and writing skills to connect in honest, open conversation at all levels of the college and its surrounding community, to support the success of all students, and to continue the community college mission (Craig, 2005, p. 85).

According to the responses of the heads, with respect to communication, the written bulletins are the best means for communication. Forming committees is a means of communication but it is unworkable. There is no need to call the employees since the work is going well. In addition, periodical meetings ensure the organization and reaching wise decisions. Controlling and organizing are necessary for good administration. Participation is the basic way of making a proper decision and thus all

those who may be affected by the decision should know about it and, ideally, take part in it. Therefore, the results of this study have important for department heads and faculty members. Bowman (2002), Moarsy (1978), Alabbar (2001), Mahdi (1988), Saber (1994), Lees et al (2009, p. 1-2), Craig (2005, p. 85), and Hersey and Blanchard (1988), all support this argument that the skill of communication should appear as a condition that should be available in the heads of department. Heads must be effective communicators.

Generally, the heads of department considered that they make their decision according to the fields of the study (decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication).

5.4 Q3: ARE THERE ANY DIFFERENCES OF THE ABILITY OF HEADS OF DEPARTMENT TO MAKE DECISIONS ATTRIBUTED TO THE VARIABLES: GENDER, AGE, AND SPECIALIZATION, SCIENTIFIC QUALIFICATION, AND EXPERIENCE?

5.4.1 Gender

As noted in previous studies, gender might still play a role in affecting faculty members' participation in decision making. Hence, it is expected males will report greater levels of participation than females (Al-Omari, 2007, p.87). If faculty members' participation is so central to the managerial and leadership process in academic departments, what constrains the more active involvement of faculty members? Scholars have identified a host of factors ranging from, for instance, authority, gender (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993). Notably, this finding was the opposite

of previous studies, the researcher found that there was difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in Tabriq University, and the ability of females was higher than that of the males in Tabriq University. That is meant that consistent with responses of females in Tabriq University they have higher ability to make decisions in their departments. The researcher considered that the reason for this is that female suggested that may be they have excellent experience in the field of decision making and leadership, and may be they have the desire to exercise administrative duties, and that they pay special attention to all the details of their work. However there was no difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Libyan Universities. The researcher found that there were no differences between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions. In addition, the responses of the heads indicate that there were no differences between males and females in Libyan universities according to management styles, because the level of the ability to make decisions and leadership according to these skills is convergent between male and female in Libyan Universities. The data therefore tends to support the thesis put forward in the literature by (Denton & Zeytinoglu, 1993).

5.4.2 Age

As noted in previous studies, there appears to be a trend toward acceptance of a relationship between age and cognitive competence in decision-making (Klein, 1999), a decision making take two forms when age is a factor. The first form takes into account age as a factor at the societal, or policy level, and the second form takes into account the capacity of the individual to make decisions regarding their own care (Prezlaff, 2005). Data suggested that there was at least one group of age difference of

department heads' ability to make decisions in Garyounis University, the group of age <30 appears Superior for department heads' ability to make decisions. Nevertheless, the group of age >51 set appears inferior for department heads' ability to make decisions. This means that the younger heads of department suggested that their ability to make decision is higher than older heads in Garyounis University. A new worker applicant may also have extra abilities not directly related to the job but valuable to the company nonetheless. These should be taken into account (Harris, 2009, p.5). May be the reason for that is Libya is develop country, in recent decades of this century, universities in Libya were do not have any manifestation of the technology, for example, the Internet and others. However, at the moment technology permeates all areas of the life, especially the education at all the levels. Therefore, new generations may be better informed than their older counterparts and this may give a better chance to make the appropriate decisions; in addition to the new generations seeking development and change whilst keeping the best of the old systems. They may also make decisions with the support of state-of-the-art decision-making methods (Forman, 2001, p.1; Murphy, 1992). As a result, the age factor in which younger heads feel they have ability to make decisions in Garyounis University. However, there was no difference between groups of age of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Libyan Universities. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews there is a belief that there was some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age in their opinion, and the reason for that is older individuals in the age have better ability to decision-making because they have good experience in the administrative work. Accordingly, consistent with heads' answers, the age group of forties and fifties are viewed as the best able to make good decisions, because these heads have a longer experience in their work so greater skills and more

attuned judgement. Older faculty members' social distance from the chairperson may be less than that of younger faculty members, and, hence, they may be more bound to the formal structure that emphasizes and values participation. Since older faculty members feel less bounded by the informal rules that regulate faculty participation and since they are more identified with the formal structure, they would be more inclined to participate than younger ones (Al-Omari, 2007, p.86).

5.4.3 Specialisation

All heads of department are necessary to use leadership, demonstrate vision, and empower others in order to deliver the agreed departmental strategy within the faculty. It is documented that the methods by which heads of department take out their duties and the degree of allocation, will depend on such factors as the size and nature of the departments and the personal approach of the individual head of department (see for instance, The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 1). The questionnaire findings suggested that there was a clear difference between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions. In other words, the ability of heads of department of humanities group was higher than scientific group in Libyan universities, because may be humanities group is already studied the methods of administration and human relations in management and how to deal with others and try to gain their views; while the scientific group is not dealing with humans directly.

On the other hand the interviews provided different explanation to this fact. There was no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities, perhaps the reason is that scientific group and human group is subject to unified management system, and use similar

methods in the performance of their business, thus is the specialization variable is influential on the ability of department heads at the decision-making in the Libyan universities. The finding of the data support the view put forward by Alabbar, 2001; Saber, 1994.

5.4.4 Qualification

Perceived participation in university decision-making is influenced by a number of factors. According to the human capital theory (Becker, 1975), employers make rational decisions in choosing their employees, and only those candidates with the best education and experience for the job are considered. In universities, those faculty members possessing the highest degree (a doctorate), tenure, and extensive work experience gained through years of teaching would be most likely to be selected to participate in decision-making committees. Thus, according to the human capital model, faculty members' perceived participation in decision-making should be influenced by their level of education and their work experience (Scott, 1992). According to most heads' responses the level and type of qualification does not predict the ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. It was hard to explain why most heads claimed that there was no difference, based on qualification of department heads', in ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities, therefore, the reason may be that all heads of department have high qualifications in various disciplines and they manage their work and conduct of the affairs of their departments through their experience as head of the department (Mahdi, 1988; Saber, 1994; and Alabbar, 2001).

5.4.5 Experience

Heads should use directive or nondirective behaviour depends on the following situational contingencies: the leader's or subordinates group members' ability/competency; stress; experience; and group support of the leader (Fiedler, 1987). It is important to point out that there was a difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in Alfatih and Tahhadi University. The group of experience 11> appears superior for department heads' ability to make decisions, however, there was no difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in others Libyan Universities. Therefore, it seems that there is a consensus that years of experience appear to predict the ability to make decisions in most Universities in Libya. Findings suggest that more years of experience will develop the abilities and skills of the heads of department to make appropriate decisions in higher education institutions. Many respondents stated that they could not decide which number of years of experience is the optimal in helping leaders to be effective. Some suggested that the ability of the heads to improve their skills and knowledge and take advantage of situations that they go through will be more effective than the number of years of experience, and this result concurred with those of a number of other researchers (see, for instance Alsharify, 1988; Mahdi, 1988; Saber, 1994; Alabbar, 2001; and Cohen, 2003, p.110).

5.5 CONCLUSION

This study set out to examine the ability of the heads of department to make decisions at universities in Libya. It also examined key fields related to decision-making and leadership such as, the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision,

objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. Moreover, it also investigated if there are any differences of the ability of heads of department to make decisions attributed to the variables: gender, age, and specialization, scientific qualification, and experience. Conclusions to this study evolved from the original research questions.

Both the questionnaire and interview findings indicated that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high and the most important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities was the length experience as a head of department. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews would indicate that length of service and experience is believed to be critically important because the university does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work.

Another finding was that heads of department demonstrated high level of their ability to make decision according to the fields of the study, the decision-making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. As noted in previous studies, these themes are very important in the field of educational and administrative work.

In addition, there were differences between female and male, age-group, Scientific and Humanities based departments, and years of experience, in terms of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. However, There was no difference,

based on the level of qualification of department heads', in terms of their ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. There was strong agreement between many of these findings and those of previous studies.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The research reported in this study focuses on the ability of the heads of department in Libyan universities to make decisions. The importance of this study is related to the fact that higher education is an instrument of change and reform in all spheres of life amongst all nations and peoples and heads of department are one the key drivers of change in modern Universities (Ibraheem, 2008; Badri, 2007). The achievement of organizational goals in higher education institutions depends greatly on the ability of administrators to work together effectively and professionally (Gonzalez, 2004). Moreover, Ibraheem (1990) states that, in order to maximize organizational goals, higher education senior administrators must give particular attention to rational activities such as establishing systems for communicating directions to those who will implement the decisions, and constantly compare outcomes to objectives (Ibraheem, 1990). Higher education institutions such as Libyan universities need to have effective management to achieve their objectives, which requires universities to prepare efficacious organizational structures to obtain these aims.

Heads of department play a crucial role in the effective operation of the work of departments, requiring not only subject knowledge and teaching expertise but also the ability to manage and lead a team (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989, p.3). Moreover, Adey and Jones (1998) confirm that there is a lack of training for heads of department and they add that such heads of department tend to be appointed on the

basis of proven teaching skills, which may not be good predictors of skilled leadership (Adey and Jones, 1998).

For these reasons it is clear that the ability of leaders in education to make decisions is crucial to the further development of a high quality educational system. Heads of department should be good managers as well as distinguished academics. Moreover, Eley went further to say that if an individual did not possess both attributes, then the qualities of managerial capability should be given priority in the future selection of the heads of department (Eley, 1994).

Universities in developing countries such as Libya are affected by many considerations that can have a negative impact on the University administration and efficiency. The inability of some university leaders to fully understand the fundamentals of planning, regulation and supervision and evaluation has led to a weakening of managing the possibility of objective evaluation of the performance of university administrative and a lack of appreciation of the effectiveness and adequacy of current leadership capacity. Problems with people centred leadership include slow decision making, possible lack of positive direction, and the fact that certain people are not capable of contributing to decision making or working without close supervision (Bennett, 1994, p. 218). These considerations prompted me to survey 450 heads of department and to conduct 11 interviews from a sub-sample of the same group in order to examine their ability to make decisions in the context of their institutions in the absence of hard data about the level of their ability.

Therefore, the importance of the current study lies in the fact that it examines the academic institution and the various organizational units within it as well as including its administrative, educational and scientific sections. Within this examination the lived reality of the custodians of Libyan universities has been studied through the disclosure of reality, knowledge and the ability to make decisions according to the fields of study. As a result this study may contribute to the improvement of administrative work and development within the university, since such a study has never been carried out before in Libya. In addition, in accordance with the findings of the study, the researcher has identified some recommendations for improving practice in decision-making by heads of department.

Thus, this study aims to identify the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions in Libyan Universities through an examination of activities that such leaders undertake in order to achieve their desired objectives. More specifically, the study focused on the ways in which such heads of department influence staff members of their departments and other staff. Further, the study attempted to assess the ability to guide behaviour and motivation through use of the concept of decision-making. Crucial elements for examination included the stages of decision-making, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control and communication. Crucially, the researcher found that there are many differences in the ability of heads of department to make decisions according to the variables of scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization in Libyan universities. All of the above variables were measured by the tools of the study. However, one must be aware that additional variables may well exist that are outside the preview of the research.

6.2 THE MAIN FINDINGS

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny and to answer the research questions. Quantitative research is 'objective' in nature. It attempts to be definitive as an investigation into a social or human difficulty, based on testing a hypothesis or a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the hypothesis or the theory holds true (Creswell, 1994). Qualitative research is 'subjective' in nature. It emphasises meanings, experience (often verbally described), description and so on. The information gathered in qualitative research can be classified under two categories of research, namely, exploratory and attitudinal. Exploratory research is used when there is a limited amount of knowledge about the topic under investigation. Attitudinal study is used to 'subjectively' assess the 'opinion', 'view', or the 'perception' of an individual, towards a particular object. The term 'object' is referred to as an 'attribute', a 'variable' a 'factor', or a 'question' (Creswell, 1994). For the purpose of this study, the data gathered was analysed qualitatively as well as quantitatively to support and give more validity and reliability to the study, and in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny.

The researcher also argues that in the present study, the use of in-depth interviews and questionnaire is justified by the facts that the aim was to identify the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions according to the fields and variables of the study. Moreover, using a semi-structured in-depth interview led to a profound understanding of the heads' attitudes, abilities, leadership to decision making. In addition, the interview topics also referred to the aspects of decision

making, leadership, and management, all from the point of view of the head and his or her experience as a head of department. This form of the semi-structured in-depth interview enabled the level of the different heads' ability, attitudes, and views. A questionnaire was distributed to 448 from 456 heads of department in Libya universities. Therefore, the study covered a large number of the heads population in the Libyan universities. The response rate was 98.25% of the whole population of heads. The questionnaire was composed of 62 items and seven sections, or aspects. Each item is composed of 4 options. All questions of the questionnaire identified the level of the heads of department to make decisions. It is important to also mention that according to the interviews with the heads, the 11 heads in Libyan universities represented the ability of the whole population of heads of department in Libya. The topics in the interviews and the questionnaire were derived from detailed research questions as well as from the relevant literature in the field. The literature review was mostly based on studies conducted in Libya and in the UK, as well as on studies and literature from the USA.

The analysis is based mainly on the level of the heads abilities to make decisions. From this point on, the researcher examined the level of department heads' ability to make decisions according to certain fields of study (the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication). In addition, the researcher investigated differences in the ability of heads of department to make decisions attributed to certain variables (gender, age, and specialization, scientific qualification, and experience).

As mentioned in the analysis chapter, the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high and the most important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities was the length of experience as a head of department. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews would indicate that length of service and experience is believed to be critically important because the university does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work. As mentioned, heads of department in Libyan universities need to master a wide variety of skills to make good decisions. Such skills or skill-sets would include: communication skills, management skills, scientific, regulatory and humanitarian skills.

Thus, it can be concluded that, the heads of department involved in the study argued strongly that they administer their departments through collective participation enacted by making academic and administrative decisions and a daily follow-up of the functioning of departments to assess the implementation of their requirements. This would suggest that heads of department perceive that they are administering their departments through the use of the democratic or collegial style of making decisions. In addition, heads of department stated that they used meetings as the most common forum for decision-making where any problems or issues are discussed in order to make a decision or find a solution. Therefore, the kind of decision that the heads of department made may be deemed to be collective.

Another conclusion was that, there are difficulties facing heads of department which can impede swift and timely decision making. Data also suggested that, as a result of these pressures, heads of department may be forced to make bad or inadequate decisions at times. However, the data suggests that heads of department attempt to reach the best solutions to the problems which they may encounter during their work through consultation with experts on the topic under scrutiny. There are some cases where the heads of department felt unable to make a rational and lucid decision because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data. Some decisions might conflict with extant regulations and legislation in Libyan universities, thus constraining decision-making further.

As mentioned in the analysis chapter, the heads of department demonstrated a high level of ability to make decision according to the fields of the study, which included the decision-making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. Furthermore, all heads believed that, there were differences in decision-making ability according to such factors as gender, age-group, whether Scientific or Humanities based departments. However, There was no difference, based on the level of qualification of department heads', in terms of their ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

6.3 PROFESSIONAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The study revealed that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high and the most important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decisions in Libyan universities was perceived to be the

length of experience as a head of department. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews would indicate that length of service and experience is believed to be critically important because the university does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work.

Another main finding was that heads of department demonstrated high level of their ability to make decision according to the fields of the study, the decision-making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication.

In addition, and as noted above, there were differences according to gender, age-group, Scientific and Humanities based departments, and years of experience, in terms of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. However, There was no difference, based on the level of qualification of department heads', in terms of their ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

We should note that studies have shown that most people are much poorer at decision making than they think and consideration of what decision making involves, together with a few effective techniques, will help produce better decisions (Harris, 2009). Further, we may note that the head of department should have excellent delegation skills; be flexible and adapt to changing circumstances; be able to develop their skills and seek advice from a variety of sources (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 3-4). The results of this study and a close analysis of those of previous studies, can provide

a range of recommendations which we hope will help those responsible for the management of higher education to improve the ability of heads of department in universities so as to ensure achievement of excellence in the performance of their administrative and educational roles and help to improve the academic level of universities. The researcher can define a set of recommendations as follows:

1. Universities should be working to increase the ability of the heads of department to deal with the problems resulting from the work within the department, and on so doing reduce tension and conflicts that may arise within the department. In order for this to happen a closer relationship between the heads and members of other departments is required and access to support and assistance from senior management levels is needed.

2. A better definition of the roles and responsibilities of the heads of department is needed through the preparation of a list of detailed of these roles and responsibilities, both in the field of scientific, educational, or administrative, social, or community service, and to conduct further research and studies that will help to clarify these roles and to identify its various aspects.

3. Universities should, conduct training courses for the professional growth of faculty members and department heads in order to:

- Ensure that heads of department are aware of the nature of the academic institution and the nature of their roles and responsibilities and the dimensions and various aspects of these responsibilities.

- Educate members of the faculty of the nature and aspects of the responsibilities and functions of the heads of department, their roles and expected to work.
- Provide the heads of department with the knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary to perform their roles, and helping them to adapt to sudden shifts and necessary as required by the nature of the position of department head.
- Increase the awareness of heads of departments' rules and laws governing their work, especially with regard to the appointment and promotion policies and financial affairs and the affairs of the study and exams.
- Ensure that there is a clear definition of the role of heads of department in the field of new methods of management and administration and make them familiar with forms of organization and planning, logistics and budget allocation, and performance evaluation and professional development for faculty members.

4. The university should support the development of the decision-making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training.

5. The channels of communication within departments and faculties and the senior administrations should be increased so that heads of department could make decisions in the shortest possible period of time and at the lowest cost and high quality.

6. The capabilities which the heads of department need to carry out their roles and responsibilities should be supported not only through training but also through financial, administrative and other forms of support.

7. The administrative burden on the heads of department should be reduced by the appointment of assistants so that they can make decisions in a balanced and timely manner.

8. Further studies should be carried out to find out the reasons behind the weakness of the leadership level of heads of academic department in universities.

9. Heads of department should be involved in the development of training programmes which will have as their main goal the development of their potential in the administrative and educational field.

10. The criteria for the selection and appointment of heads of department should be reviewed. Appointment should not depend only on the experience in the field of research and teaching but also on its ability to make decision and administrative work within the department.

11. The heads of department in universities should be encouraged to master a wide variety of skills to make good decisions. Such skills or skill-sets would include: communication skills, management skills, scientific, regulatory and humanitarian skills.

12. Universities should be careful to provide precise and accurate data to ensure fast delivery and to make correct decisions and appropriate, and must appoint staff that have the ability, efficiency and expertise to do the administrative work.

13. Universities should work to alleviate the burdens of central management duties because such burdens hinder the process of decision-making.

14. The universities should offer training courses with the objective of raising the level of heads of leading department and develop competence and provide them with the skills necessary to enable them to perform administrative duties and leadership.

15. An emphasis should be placed on the importance of factors affecting the decision-making and administrative role in determining the quality of the decision by holding seminars and scientific conferences.

16. Greater material and moral incentives should be provided for the heads to help them settle financial, social and psychological issues that they may face.

17. Universities should seek to benefit from the data of modern technology through the use of new approaches and systems to administrative work, especially as they apply in developing countries.

18. Modern and sophisticated centers should be developed which are dedicated to the collection of educational information, and the classification and retrieval of data with the speed and accuracy required facilitating the tasks of heads of department in fulfilling their management.

6.4 REFLECTIONS ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS

It has been demonstrated that the study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in order to gather rich data about the topic under scrutiny and this was considered to be strength of the study. In addition, the population of the study consisted of all the heads of the department in the faculties of universities in Libya. A questionnaire was distributed to 448 from 456 heads of department in Libya universities. Therefore, the study covered a large proportion of the population of heads of department in the Libyan universities, and the response rate was 98.25% of the whole heads population. Furthermore, when the researcher used the questionnaire the heads were prepared to collaborate to return the form of the questionnaire. Moreover, the sample of the study was derived from those who have the experience and knowledge assets of scientific research and the importance of research.

On the other hand, there were several limitations to the research including the small sample size of the interviews, consisting as it did of only 11 heads of department, which consequently restricted the validity of the conclusions derived from this material. Another limitation was that the researcher used the qualitative method itself since the researcher found it difficult to collect data from the sample because like this method rarely used in research in Libya. Therefore, the heads were not collaborators with the researcher. The important limitation was that laws and regulations in the Libyan universities significantly affect the ability of department heads to make decisions, because most of the decisions made centrally from the high levels. The current study did not give enough attention to the importance of these laws and regulations and their impact on decision makers in the departments. Another important limitation was that there is a strong social relationship between people in Libya,

because Libya is a tribal society, which affects the decisions which are made by the heads of department in Libyan universities because of the courtesies of social responsibility and kinship.

6.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

In the future studies, continuing the theme of the present study, it might be interesting to examine the following topics:

1. To conduct a similar study to knowledge of the ability of department heads to make decisions in higher education institutions, according to other variables not addressed by the current study, such as the desire for administrative work, human relationships, and years of experience outside of education.
2. To carry out studies to identify the factors that affect on the decision-making process in universities such as personal factors, organizational, environmental, and pressures of work.
3. To undertake further studies on the identification of objective criteria to measure the performance of heads.
4. To do studies to determine the relationship between the leadership level of the heads of department and practical achievement, and morale of members of the board of teaching.
5. To conduct a similar study to determine the ability of department heads to make decisions from the viewpoint of members of the faculty and other administrators at the university.

The results of future research into the above topics would have important implications for the field of leadership, decision-making, education, and management in higher education institutions.

6.6 FINAL CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of this study were based on the analysis of the heads' abilities, make decisions, styles of leadership, the fields of the study, the decision-making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication, and the variables of the study, scientific qualification, experience, gender, age, and specialization. The major conclusions are as following:

1. The analysis of the heads' ability shows that the level of the ability of the heads of department to make decisions overall was considered to be high. In other words, all heads of department do have significant ability to make decisions in Libyan universities. The conclusion is that these heads perceived the ability as important in their department and when they make decisions as supported by Saber (1994).
2. The most important factor which helps the heads of department to make good decision in Libyan universities is the length of experience as a head of department. Some of the evidence derived from the interviews would indicate length of service and experience is believed to be so important because the university does not enable the development of decision making skills of the heads of department in terms of in-service training and thus they make their

decisions according to their past experience in the field of administrative work as described by Mahdi (1988).

3. The analysis showed that heads of department in Libyan universities need to master a wide variety of skills to make good decisions. Such skills or skill-sets would include: communication skills, management skills, scientific, regulatory and humanitarian skills. In other words, the head of department should have excellent delegation skills; be flexible and adapt to changing circumstances; be able to develop their skills and seek advice from a variety of sources (The University of Sheffield, 2008, p. 3-4).
4. All the heads of department involved in the study argued strongly that they administer their departments through collective participation enacted by making academic and administrative decisions and a daily follow-up of the functioning of departments to assess the implementation of their requirements as offered by Sellers (2005, p.265).
5. The heads of department perceive that they are administering their departments through the use of the democratic or collegial style of making decisions and leadership as presented by Scott-Ladd and Marshall (2004, p.650).
6. The heads of department stated that they used meetings as the most common forum for decision-making where any problems or aspects are discussed in order to make a decision or find a solution as noted by Kolbe & Boos (2009).

7. The kind of decision that the heads of department made is deemed to be collective. In other words, heads of department in Libyan universities are using this behavioral style when they are making decisions in their departments as mentioned by Greenberg and Baron (2008, p. 389).
8. Many respondents stated that there were difficulties facing heads of department which can impede swift and timely decision making. Data also suggested that, as a result of these pressures, heads of department may be forced to make bad or inadequate decisions at times. However, the data suggests that heads of department attempt to reach the best solutions to the problems which they may encounter during their work through consultation with experts on the topic under scrutiny as supposed by Mathias (1991, pp. 67). There were some cases where the heads of department felt unable to make a rational and lucid decision because of the lack of sufficient and accurate data as noted by Schwarber (2005p.1088). Some decisions might conflict with extant regulations and legislation in Libyan universities thus constraining decision-making further as mentioned by Alsheibany (1992, p. 198).
9. According to the results of the study heads of department believed that they had a high level of ability to make decisions consistent with the decision-making concept. Consistent with the findings of the study, decision making as a term differs from the process of actual decisions; it is a process comes prior to making the decision. Heads of department differ in perception and recognition of the term decision-making, consequently choosing the appropriate option is solving a particular problem. In addition, the chosen

option must be appropriate for the aim to be achieved. The process of decision-making is affected by various factors, such as the values decision maker believes in, temporal pressures, the decision maker undergo during the process, and environmental factors under which decision making process takes place. In case of making a decision, head of department should try to create new options. Heads of department and decision maker cannot make a decision in case of the availability of one option, no right data available, and there is no problem exists. In some cases, it is required that heads of the department make decisions non-programmed whilst considering such decisions in light of the existent regulations. We should note that risks in such non-programmed decisions are higher than those of programmed ones. Furthermore, developing the qualitative aspects of the department requires taking a strategize decisions whose impacts are long run ones. In addition, strategic decision requires deeper study than the tactical decision, correcting the strategic decision mistake is more cost effect than that of the tactical decision and strategic decision requires more attention than that for the tactic decision. Finally, the quality of information about a problem makes the process of decision making easily and this result concurred with the work of a number of theorists and other researchers including Harris (2009), Greenberg and Baron (2008, p.384), Cherrington (1989, p.628), and Simon (1997).

10. It should be noted that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the stages of making the decision was considered to be high. The participants believed that the process of decision-making includes number of steps; the first step in this process is the realization of the existence of

problem. Additionally, heads of the department differ in their understandings of the monitoring the execution of the decision. Heads thought that the main aims which required monitoring were discovering the results of the decision; enriching the experience; and discovering new problems. In addition, heads of department have different viewpoints towards decision execution. First of all executing the decision is not part of making of decision since it was believed that the decision maker has no responsibility to execute decisions but rather that the staff member in the department has the responsibility of executing it. It is clear that heads of the department face difficulties in information collection relating to the problems that their departments may face. The occurrence of mistakes in making decisions is attributed to information collection; problem recognition; and choice of the appropriate alternative. Heads of the department differ in their understanding of the function of information collection. Heads consider that information collection has benefits in recognizing the problem; helps in assessing the options; and enables the perception of decision-making options. Finally, in the last stage the decision-maker chooses the appropriate alternative, and the decision is made, as is mentioned by Cherrington (1989, p. 609).

11. All heads mentioned that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of objectivity was to be supposed high. Consequently consistent with the findings outlined earlier, heads of the department differs in sharing the process of decision making with others; heads care about professional's view points and they do consider them. If one of the teaching staff criticized the way decisions are made in the department, heads

try to benefit from his or her criticism. When heads make decisions, they try to ensure that they are based on quantitative information. It is considered important that there are no relationships existing between heads and the teaching staff which may have an effect on the decision making; such as work relationship; social relationship; and political relationship. If heads want to compare two members of staff who may be equal in all of the criteria for a scholarship award, and one of them is his or her personal friend whilst the head may have a neutral relationship with other; it is deemed appropriate that the head should use a lottery to choose between the two candidates. Heads of department differ in their responsibility towards the decisions they make. When one of heads decisions fails to solve the problem; heads study the reasons for failure.

12. The analysis found that the ability of the heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of flexibility was believed to be high. It is also clear that if heads received a request from their department teaching staff to cancel a decision heads made is deal with a situation; heads promise is cancelling it if situations get better. Heads of department differ in the ways they apply sanctions to the department staff upon the occurrence of a mistake. It is, of course, believed to be important that heads investigate the reasons behind that mistake first. For instance, one example that emerged from the data was that if heads of department wish to create a new system of postgraduate candidates' supervision; heads feel it important that past graduate candidates should be involved in the process (see also, Mahdi, 1988).

13. The researcher found that the ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the decision-making quality was considered to be high. The efficiency of the academic department and its ability to achieve its goals, and objectives of the university depends to a large extent on the efficiency of administrative and academic head. The quality of the academic department is determined by the capabilities and readiness department head, he or she is a leader and manager, is guided by others towards achieving the goals section, a supervisor of the events and activities section, planned, and the supervisor and a resident of the levels of performance, both for students or researchers or faculty members, administrators, and shepherd them, and described their responsibilities, and generally is responsible for managing the affairs of the department. The finding of the questionnaire suggests that when heads make a decision which is related to scientific matters in the department, they care greatly about decision quality. There are particular criteria by which appropriate options are selected when you make a decision, when the option is interests to the head; when the option is economical; and when the option accomplishes the far-reaching target. In addition, the appropriate decision is characterized by certain features and the quality of a decision is affected by the risks accompany it. In this case, the decision is considered as good when risks relevant to the nature of decision are taken into account and ameliorated. Heads noted that how fast the decision-making is relative is nature of the decision. The interesting found was that when heads have enough information they do not ask for other's participation in decision-making. Heads of the department differ in the degree of attention they pay for the various sides when they make decisions. Heads of department focused on clarity and preciseness,

details, and do not contradiction with previous decisions. Furthermore, when the head of department discovered a drawback in way his or her department proceeds, they feel it important to hold a meeting with the staff to discuss the reasons (see, Alabbar, 2001).

14. The ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of control was deemed to be high. It may be therefore assumed that heads of department differ in accomplishing the principle of authorization and according to heads believe that authorization important for training the leaders. Some employees are well known for their abilities in bearing their responsibilities but they did not respond to heads' own directions to determine the standard for accomplishment. Consequently heads depend on determining the achievement targets and supervise the process carefully (Baeera, 1992, p. 206).

15. The ability of heads of department to make decisions consistent with the field of communication was perceived to be high. According to the responses of the heads, with respect to communication, the written bulletins are the best means for communication. Forming committees is a means of communication but it is unworkable. There is no need to call the employees since the work is going well. In addition, periodical meetings are used to ensure the organization is reaching wise decisions. Controlling and organizing are necessary for good administration. Participation is the basic way of making a proper decision and thus all those who may be affected by the decision should know about it and, ideally, take part in it. Therefore, the results of this study have important

implications for department heads and faculty members, as mentioned by Bowman (2002).

16. There was a perceived difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in Tabriq University, and the ability of females was higher than that of the males in Tabriq University. In other words, consistent with responses of females in Tabriq University, it is believed that they have higher ability to make decisions in their departments. However there was no difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in other Libyan Universities.

17. There were no differences between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions. In addition, the responses of the heads indicate that there were no differences between males and females in Libyan universities according to management styles as supported by Denton & Zeytinoglu (1993).

18. There was considered to be a difference of department heads' ability to make decisions in Garyounis University according to age. The group of age <30 appears to be considered superior for department heads' ability to make decisions. Furthermore, the group of age >51 appears to be considered inferior for department heads' ability to make decisions. In other words, the younger heads of department suggested that their ability to make decision is higher than older heads in Garyounis University. However, there was no notable difference in perception between groups of age of department heads' ability to make

decisions in other Libyan Universities. In addition, the age group of forties and fifties are viewed as the best able to make good decisions, because these heads have a longer experience in their work so greater skills and more attuned judgement as noted by Al-Omari (2007, p.86). Some of the evidence derived from the interviews revealed that there is a belief that there was some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age in their opinion.

19. There was a clear difference between Scientific and Humanities department heads' ability to make decisions. In other words, the ability of heads of department of humanities group was higher than scientific group in Libyan universities. On the other hand the interviews provided different explanation to this fact. There was no difference between scientific and humanities specialisations of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

20. The level and type of qualification does not predict the ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. In other words, no significant differences were found between the different types of qualification in Libyan Universities as mentioned by Saber (1994).

21. There was a difference between years of experience of department heads' ability to make decisions in Alfatih and Tahhadi University. The group of experience 11> appears superior for department heads' ability to make decisions however, there was no difference between years of experience of

department heads' ability to make decisions in others Libyan Universities. More years of experience will develop the abilities and skills of the heads of department to make appropriate decisions in higher education institutions. Many respondents stated that they could not decide which number of years of experience is the optimal in helping leaders to be effective.

In conclusion this study set out to discover the factors that assist or detract from the ability of heads of department in Libyan universities to make good and timely administrative decisions. The main findings of the study have been set out in the analysis chapter of this study and have been summarised earlier in this concluding chapter. It is clear that heads of department face a set of developing challenges which mean that they require support and assistance in what they do. It is incumbent on university authorities that the selection and training of university heads of department should be enhanced if Libyan universities are to achieve their desired goals in the development of the nation.

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Thesis title:

**“An examination of the Ability of the Heads of Department to Make Decisions in
Libyan Universities”**

Dear Head of () Department,

This questionnaire involves a number of aspects related to the decision making process in your department as head of the department. We would be appreciative if you would kindly choose the option you think appropriate and relevant to your work throughout your stay on the top of the department administration. It is worth mentioning that the information, results and details will be totally for the sake of scientific research only without any reference and names, department or faculties.

Example:

The chosen decision must be appropriate for:

- E- The aim needed to be achieved.
- F- The information collected.
- G- *The behaviour of the decision maker.
- H- All the above.

Draw a circle on the letter of the option you think relevant.

This questionnaire is composed of (62) items and seven sections or aspects. Each item is composed of (4) options. The seven aspects are:

1. The concept of decision making.
2. Stages of decision-making: how much the head of department knows about the steps of decision making and their sequence.
3. Objectivity: refers to the extent decision making is affected by internal and external impacts.
4. Flexibility: refers to the extent the head of the department modifies, alters, rejects
Decision making concept: related to the ability of the heads of department to conceive or approves a particular decision in accordance to the circumstances and contexts.
5. Quality: refers to the ability of the head of department to make decisions characterized by appropriate characteristics in terms of clarity, excitability, etc.
6. Power: the heads of departments' practice in relation to their authorities, rights and duties without exploiting his or her official position in order to guarantee the implementation of the goals.
7. Communication: This should appear as a condition that should be displayed in the work of the heads of department.

Thanks

General information:

- 1- sex: Male () Female ()
- 2- Age: () years
- 3- Specialization: Scientific () Humanities ()
- 4- Qualification: Master () PhD ()
- 5- Years of experience as head of the department () years.

First: Decision making concept:

1- Heads of department differ perception and recognition of the term decision making.

In your opinion, does decision making means:

- A- Assessment of the possible ways solve particular problem.
- B- Information gathering about particular problem.
- C- * Choosing the appropriate option is solving a particular problem.
- D- Suggesting options to solve a particular problem.

2- Decision making as a term differs from the process of actual decisions. Which of the following statements represents your own view point on the process of decision making?

- A- *It is a process comes prior to taking the decision.
- B- Decision making people are well-known more than those of decision taking.
- C- Involves the choice of the appropriate option for solving a particular problem.
- D- All of the above are not correct.

3- The process of decision making is affected by various factors, which of what following reflects your view?

- A- The values decision maker believes in.
- B- Temporal pressures, the decision maker undergo during the process.
- C- Environmental factors under which decision making process takes place.
- D- *All the above.

4- The chosen option must be appropriate:

- A- *For the aim intended to be achieved.
- B- For the information which can be gathered.
- C- For decision making behaviour.
- D- For how bigger are the qualifications and rights give to decision maker.

5- In case of taking a decision, as a head of department you try to:

- A- Consider the readymade options.
- B- * Create new options.
- C- Assess the option during their application and executions.
- D- Follow another style.

6- As a head of department and decision maker, you cannot take a decision in case of:

- A- The availability of one option.
- B- No right available.
- C- There is no problem exists.
- I- * All of the above.

7- In some case, it is required from the head of the department to make decision unprogrammed to consider the existent regulations, which of the following statements represents your view?

- A- Taking nonprogrammed decisions are easier than programmed decisions.
- B- Programmed decisions are based on personal view point.
- C-* Risks in nonprogrammed decisions are higher than those of programmed ones.
- D- All the above are not correct.

8- Developing the qualitative aspects of the department requires taking a strategize decisions whose impacts are long run ones:

- A- Strategic decision requires deeper study than the tactical decision.
- B- Correcting the strategic decision mistake is more cost effect than that of the tactical decision.
- C- Strategic decision requires more attention than that for the tactic decision.
- D-*All the above are correct.

9- The easiness of the process of decision making department on various factors, do you think that:

- A- The multiplicity of options complicated the process of decision making.
- B- Similarity of options maker it easy to take a decision.
- C- * The quality of information about a problem makes the process of decision making easy.
- D- All of the above are not correct.

Second: stages of decision making:

10- The process of decision making include number of steps. What is the first step in your point of view?

- A- * Realization of the existence of problem.
- B- Collection of information about a problem.
- C- Formulation of suggested solutions.
- D- The circumstances under which the decision is made.

11- Heads of the department differ in their understandings of the monitoring the execution of the decision, which of the following statements represents your view point concerning the aim of monitoring?

- A- Discovering the results of the decision.
- B- Enriching the experience.
- C- Discovering new problems.
- D-* All of the above are correct.

12- Heads of department have different view points towards decisions execution. Which of the following statements represents your viewpoint?

- A- Executing the decision is not part of taking on decision.
- B- Decision maker has no responsibility to execute it.
- C- Staff in the department has the responsibility of executing it.
- D- *All the above are not correct.

13- Head of the department face difficulties in information collection, which of the following statements is your viewpoint:

- A- Big quantity of information related is the problem.
- B- Lack of information on the problem.
- C- * The unclear information available on the problem.
- D- All the above are correct.

14- The occurrence of mistakes in making decisions is attributed to:

- A- Information collection.
- B- Problem recognition.
- C- Choice of the appropriate option.
- D- * All of the above.

15- Heads of the department differ in their understanding of the function of information collection. Do you see information collection?

- A- Benefits recognizing the problem.
- B- Help assessing the options.
- C- Benefits making options.
- D- * All of the above.

16- If you are asked to express your view point on the stages of decision making. Do you think that?

- A- It is not possible to divide the decision making process into stages.
- B- Decision making process consists of four major stages.
- C- * In the stage of choosing the appropriate option, the decision has been made then.
- D- It is possible to divide the process of decision making for the sake of studying only.

Third: Objectivity:

17- Heads of the department differs in sharing the process of decision making with others. Which one of the following statements?

A- I do not care about other's view point as I am responsible for making decisions.

B-* I care about professional's view points and I do consider them.

C- I prefer a specific person as he does not let me down.

D- I make a decision then I listen to other's viewpoints.

18- One of the teaching staff criticized the way decisions are made in the department, what would you do?

A- Try to bring him to your side.

B-* Benefit from his criticism.

C- Ignore his criticism.

D- Rocket him with criticism in return.

19- When you make decision, on what basis of these you rely more often than others?

A- Personal experience.

B- The superior viewpoint.

C- Department staff viewpoints.

D- * Quantitative information.

20- Which one of the relationships exist between you and the teaching staff may affect on your decision making?

A- Work relationship.

B- Social relationship.

C- Political relationship.

D- * None of these relationships affects.

21- If you want to compare two members of staff equal in all of the criteria for a scholarship award, one of them is your friend whereas you have neutral relationship with other. Do you?

A- Choose your friend.

B- Choose the other is showing your objectivity.

C- You choose an objective tool to do the selection.

D- *You make a lottery to choose.

22- A teaching staff, you do not like, submitted a request is get a privilege or favour within your capacity. Does your decision:

A- Reject his request.

B-* Process his request.

C- Procrastination his request.

D- Follow another style (way).

23- A dispute happened between two of the department staff about a particular problem:

A- Adjourn the meeting and discuss the problem the next meeting.

B-* Form a committee to tackle the problem and make a decision.

C- You make the decision by yourself.

D- Follow another procedure.

24- Heads of department differ in their responsibility towards the decisions they make.

When one of your decisions fails to solve the problem. You:

- A- Justify the failure.
- B- * Study the reasons of failure.
- C- Attribute the failure to others.
- D- Follow different procedure.

25- You have been asked to minimize the number of your department teaching staff.

On what basis are you decision?

- A- * Neglect the less qualified.
- B- Neglect the ones you do not like.
- C- You consider voting to decide.
- D- You follow different procedure.

Forth: Flexibility:

26- You have received a request from your department teaching staff to cancel a decision you made is deal with a situation. What will you decision like?

- A- Cancel the decision complying with the majority.
- B- You submit the matter to your superior.
- C- You insist on the decision you made.
- D- * You promise is cancelling it if situations get better.

27- Heads of department differ in the insistence on their decision .As a head of the department:

- A- * You reconsider your decision if you find what justifies this.

- B- You insist on it often you make it to the end.
- C- You tend to change or modify it to avoid opposition.
- D- All of the above are correct.

28- One of your staff requested a leave during the exams is your decision?

- A- Reject his request.
- B- * Discuss and understand his circumstances before.
- C- Give him a leave.
- D- Follow different procedure.

29- You have been requested to change some of the teaching materials for some teaching staff during the academic year. Do you think?

- A- * It is better not to change during the academic year.
- B- You approve the change as it is issued from superiors.
- C- You follow different procedure.

30- Heads of departments differ in the ways you punish the department staff upon the occurrence of a mistake. Which one of the following represents your style of punishment?

- A- You make sure those who made mistakes to be punished.
- B- You overlook some of the mistakes.
- C- You punish after warning more than once.
- D- * You investigate the reasons behind that mistake first.

31- Two of your department staff made mistakes; one of them is new to the department. What is your decision?

A- You punish both.

B- Punish the one new to the department.

C- * You consider the long time of the latter.

D- You follow different procedure.

32- You were asked to change the department police. Do you:

A- Disapprove any change as it distracts the course of the department.

B- Disapprove as long as the course of the department moves swiftly.

C- * You approve any change which lead is development.

D- You accept the change for the sake of change.

33- As a head of department, you want is make a new system of post graduate candidates supervision. Which way you may choose?

A- Department committee choose the supervisors.

B-* Past graduate candidates participate in the decision.

C- The choice is left is the supervisors field of interest.

D-Past graduate candidates have the absolute right to choose their supervisors.

Fifth: Quality:

34- There are particular criteria by which appropriate options are selected when you make a decision. Which of the following criteria interests you?

A- When the option is interests you.

B- When the option is economical.

C- When the option accomplish the far-reaching target.

D- * All of the above.

35- The appropriate decision is characterized by certain features, which of the following you think of importance:

A-* It has to be clear and accepts on interpretation.

B- Quick is be made.

C- It has is be acceptable.

D- All of the above.

36- The quality of a decision is affected by the risks accompany it. In what case, the decision is considered as good in your viewpoint:

A-When the risks are not existence.

B- When these are few risks.

C- When risks are not known.

D- * When risks relevant is the nature of decision.

37- Heads of the department, differ in how fast they make decisions, which one of the following represent your view points?

A- Slow decision making is not a waste of time.

B- Fast decision making is preferable as long as it solve the problem.

C-* How fast the decision making is relative is nature of the decision.

D- All of the above.

38- Heads of department differ in degree far other participation in decision making.

Which of the following represents your viewpoint?

A- I try to make other's participate in all my decisions.

B- Others participation depends on my circumstances.

C- *When I have enough information I do not ask for other's participation in decision making.

D- I follow A and B.

39- When I make a decision is related is scientific matters in the department, I care much about:

A- *Decision quality.

B- How far the participants agree with each other.

C- The approval of these affected by the decision.

D- How easy is executing the decision?

40- Heads of the department differ in the degree of attention they pay for the various sides when they make decisions. Which one of the following represents your view point?

A- Clarity and preciseness.

B- Details.

C- Contradiction with previous decisions.

D- * All of the above.

41- As a head of department, you discovered a drawback in way your department precede. What would you do?

- A- Contact your superior to discuss the matter.
- B-* You make a meeting with the staff to discuss the reasons.
- C- You solve the matter quickly.
- D- You follow another procedure.

42- A particular year students submitted a request saying that they do not understand the way one of your teaching staff presents his scientific materials:

- A- *You discuss the matter with the teacher alone.
- B- Visit the teacher in his class number of times.
- C- Discuss the matter and solve it with both the students and the teacher.
- D- Follow all the above procedures.

Sixth: Field of control:

43- Your inferiors handed in a request signed by all requesting you to cancel a decision you have already made in order to handle the situation:

- A. Answering their request because it is the opinion of the group?
- B. Refuse their request because it minimizes your prestige?
- C. Refuse their request because he takes your decisions after consulting them?
- D.* Guaranteeing that he may abolish the decision if the situation improved?

44- The department holds an annual exhibition in which the students and employees to exhibit their creations and activities so which alternative do you prefer in order to organize the exhibition in such a way that attracts the visitors.

- A. Leave the organization and controlling the exhibition to the students.

B. Let the employees and the teaching staff members to participate and with active role.

C. You organize and control the exhibition by yourself.

D.* Leave the matter of organization to the committee of activity in the department and you watch and control.

45- It became certain to you that one of your employees does bad or indecorous deeds outside his the field of his work but it does not affect his work inside the department. How do you confront this?

A. Request to fire him immediately or transfer him to another place.

B. Make him know that you are not satisfied about his behaviour.

C. You do not interfere since it does not affect his work.

D. *Discuss the issue with him individually and explain that this may affect his work in the future.

46- One of your employees has discussed one of the work problems with the dean of the faculty. How do you act with this issue?

A. Punish the employee for his overpass.

B.* Ask the employee to explain the stimuli, reasons and justifications for his overpass and study them.

C. Meet the dean of the faculty and discuss the issue with him.

D. Blame him in front of the rest of employees because this will weaken his position.

47- Which way do you choose to appoint the heads of the committees?

A. Choose the most distinguished and active one.

B. *The students, teaching staff members and the employees participate in the process of selecting the head.

C. The selection is carried out according to applicants wish.

D. The department board carries out the selection.

48- Heads of department differ in accomplishing the principle of authorization and according to you believe that authorization:

A. Is sometimes misused.

B. Lessen your authority and prestige.

C. *Important for training the leaders.

D. Confusing for the system of work.

49- You have got information that there is a dispute between your employees because of their conflicting opinions about certain subject although their records refer to their hard work and always keeping achieving the goals. How you use your authorities to settle the dispute?

A. Provide the employees with the solution.

B. *Act firmly and immediately to correct the situation and give directions.

C. Let the employees solve their own problems.

D. The employees participate in discussing the problem and providing the solution but supporting them.

50- Your employees are well known for their abilities of bearing their responsibilities but they did not response to your own directions to determine the demanded accomplishing standard. So:

- A. Do you let the employees participate in determining the characteristics without watching them?
- B. Avoid confrontation by not putting stresses on employees and leaving the situation without interfering?
- C. Do you take into consideration employees recommendations and make sure of achieving the new characteristics.
- D.* Do you depend on determining the achievement and supervise it carefully.

51- Some of the teaching staff members informed you about the frequent absence of some students and asked you to intervene to solve the matter. Which means do you prefer?

- A. *Try to know the reasons behind their absence and help to do them.
- B. You do not intervene since there are reports reach the register of the faculty and he takes the necessary procedures.
- C. Call the students to discuss the problem with teaching staff members who indicated to the frequent absence.
- D. Warn them at the first time then fire them when they repeat it again.

52- How do you use your authority during the meeting of the department against the breaching of speech towards other subjects which leads to dispute and confusion?

- A. Show your discontent towards the situation?
- B. Ask them firmly to focus on the scheduled issues?
- C. Give everyone the chance to express his attitude?
- D.*Ask questions that drive the discussion back to its normal path?

Seventh: Field of Communication:

53- You have attended an urgent meeting with the other members of the faculty board. The board issued a group of directions. Which way do you use to inform your employees?

- A. Do you note down the directions in the record of the department and distribute it to all employees to read it and sign?
- B. Tell each employee individually the directions that concern him?
- C.* Meet with your employees in order to discuss the directions and take the executive measures?
- D. Put the directions in the internal notice board of the department to be read?

54- A group of students applied a complaint against one of the teaching staff members because they can't understand the lectures and they are unable to deal with him. How do you act?

- A. Discuss the issue with the concerned lecturer?
- B.* Discuss the issue with the students in front of the lecturer?
- C. Ask the lecturer to do an extra effort without informing him about the complaint.
- D. Follow another means?

55- One of the employees did a great job and provides a precious services deserve appreciation. Which means do you choose to award him?

- A. Put the appreciation paper in the notice board?
- B. Call him in to the department and thank him for his distinguished effort?
- C. *Appraise his distinguished work in the very first meeting?
- D. Award him during a festival?

56- Lecturers complaint about some of the bad behaviours of naughty students during lectures has been repeated and they asked the department to punish them, so:

- A. *Call the students in and meet them with the attendance of the lecturers and discuss the matter?
- B. Take a guarantee from the students after calling them in front of the register.
- C. Transfer their case to the administration?
- D. Fire these students after calling their fathers in and informing them?

57- Students parents visit you to inquire about their children behavioural and scientific autobiography. How do act?

- A. Just listen to them. (Take the listener stance)?
- B. *Inform them about what they want to know in a meeting with the lecturers?
- C. Consider their meeting confusing to your work?
- D. Transfer their case to the coordinator of the department to tackle it?

58- Sometimes there are rumours in the field of work so on which alternative do you account to reach the source of the rumour?

- A. Think that paying attention to the rumour helps in spreading it?
- B. Condense your effort with the monitoring system that consists of a number of students to follow up the source of the rumour?
- C. Do not pay attention to the source of the rumour since you managed to refute it?
- D. *Do not agree about what has been said?

59- One of the students violated the rules and assaulted a person in the department and you want to inform his father about what had happened, so which way do you use to deal with the situation?

- A. Call him in to the department to know what had happened.
- B. *Call for a meeting including him, his father and the one who is responsible.
- C. Send him an official letter with someone to inform him.
- D. Send him a letter with his son to inform him.

60- Which phrases express your opinion?

- A. Controlling and organizing are necessary for good administration.
- B. Participation is the basic way of taking a proper decision.
- C. All those who may be affected by the decision should know it.
- D.* All the phrases are true.

61- Which phrases are representing your opinion with respect to periodical meetings?

- A. There is no need for meeting unless it necessary.
- B. Systematic and organized work abolishes the need for a meeting in the department.
- C. There are other communication means better than holding meetings.
- D.*The periodical meetings ensure the organization and reaching wise decisions.

62- Your opinion with respect to communication matches the paragraph:

- A. the written bulletins are the best means for communication.
- B. Forming committees is a means of communication but it is unworkable.
- C. There is no need to call the employees since the work is going well.
- D.*All the phrases are not true.



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**An interview about “An examination of the Ability of the Heads of
Department to Make Decisions in Libyan Universities”**

Name of interviewee:

Location of interview:

Date:

Time:

Thank you for consenting to be interviewed. The researcher is undertaking a PhD thesis about the ability of the heads of department to make decisions at universities in Libya. Therefore, she requires your assistance in order to accomplish her goals. Your aid is greatly appreciated. It is expected that the interview will take about 40 minutes to one hour. All the information provided will be entirely confidential and none of what you say will be passed on to any third party. Should you wish to remain anonymous this will be guaranteed by the researcher.

Questions

Key Responses

1- How do you run your department?

The departments play a key role in the university, how do you run it?

- Do you run it collectively?
- Do you follow up all matters related to the department personally?
- Is that done according to legislation and regulations imposed by the college?
- Is that done through meetings with staff to discuss what needs to make a decision?

2- How is the decision-making in your department?

Or: How is the decision made in department?

Decision-making process is the most important step for the success of educational administration:

- To what extent is it based on collecting information related to the subject of the decision?
- To what extent is it carried out on the basis of regulations and legislation applicable at

Libyan universities?

- How far are decisions made collectively?
- Do you make some individual decisions on urgent matters – if so, give examples?

3- What are the difficulties you encounter during collecting data related to a decision you intend to make?

Decision-making process needs to gather data about the resolution:

- Do you find it difficult to deal with a lot of information at once?
- do you face the problem of hesitation from some administrative staff in giving accurate information?
- Is inaccuracy of available information a difficulty from your point of view?
- Do you face the problem of delayed response to the requests of data and reports?

4- How do you find the best solutions to solve any particular problem you may encounter while you are performing your work?

The most difficult step in the decision-making lies in finding the best alternatives:

- Can that be done by relevant departments?
- Do you consult expert members of the staff?
- How far is that carried out through the department council?
- To what extent is the public interest taken into account?

5 - As a head of a department and decision maker, what are the areas that you are not able to/ find most difficult to take a decision about?

In your administrative and academic experience, are there some issues where you find it most difficult or cannot take a decision about.

- Does the lack of power prevent you from that?
- Does the lack of sufficient data and information on the decision prevent decision making
- Does the lack of sufficient time prevent this?
- If there is a contradiction between the decisions and legislation in place, how would the decision is made?



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**An examination of the Ability of the Heads of Department to Make
Decisions in Libyan Universities**

Interview Schedule

Name of respondent.....Position Held.....

Date of Interview.....Place of Interview.....

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed. As you know I am interested in the ability of heads of department in Libyan Universities to make decisions. I have already carried out the first phase of my research and I want to take this opportunity to explore some of the issues that have arisen from my research in more detail.

Anything you say will be kept in complete confidence and all information will be used solely as part of my PhD studies.

Q1: My previous research suggests that heads of department in Libyan Universities feel that their ability to make decisions in Libyan universities is high.

Q1.1 Do you agree with this and, if so, what skills and support help you to make high quality decisions?

Q2: I am interested in a number of fields of the study including: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. Once again my previous research suggests that heads of department feel that their ability to make decision in each of these areas is high.

Q2.1 Why do you think this is the case?

Q2.2 What does the University do to support decision making skills – for instance is any training provided?

Q2.3 What skills do you feel that you and other heads of department need to be effective in these key areas?

Q3: My research suggests that there is little difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in most Libyan Universities.

Q3.1 Do you think this is the case in your department?

Q3.2 What skills and qualities to men and women bring to the role of head of department? Are these sets of skills different in men and women?

Q3.3 There is some evidence in the research literature that men and women adopt different management styles. Do you think men and women who are head of department in your institution adopt different management styles? If so, what are the key features of these differing styles of management?

Q4: My research suggests that there is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age.

Q4.1 Do you think age is a factor in decision making? If so why do you think this is the case?

Q4.2 What would you consider to be the optimal age for making management decisions? Why is this age group most capable in making decisions?

Q5: My previous research suggests that there is no difference between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities.

Q5.1 Do you agree with this conclusion? If so, why do you think this is the case and what are the generic skills that are required to make good decisions regardless of subject area?

Q5.2 Are there any specific sets of skills that you thinks a good leader/ Head of department needs in your subject area?

Q6: My research suggests that level and type of qualification does not predict ability to make decisions.

Q6.1 Do you agree with this conclusion? If so, why do you think this is the case?

Q6.2 Are there any particular types of qualification that you think are more helpful in assisting in preparing heads of department to lead effectively?

Q6.3 Do you think special training and qualification should be offered to heads of department? If so, what form do you think this training should take (for instance on-site/ off-site training; specific qualifications such as an Diploma/ MBA in Management)

Q7: My research suggests that years of experience do not predict the ability to make high quality decisions in most Universities in Libya.

Q7.1 Do you find this surprising? If so why? If not why not?

Q7.2 What length of experience, if any, do you think is optimal in helping leaders to be effective?

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed. Are there any other issues in connection with the ability of heads of department to make decisions in Libyan Universities that you feel you have not had the opportunity to share?

Head (1):

My previous research suggests that heads of department in Libyan Universities feel that their ability to make decisions in Libyan universities is high. Do you agree with this and, if so, what skills and support help you to make high quality decisions? Yes I agree, but with regard to the skills and support necessary for the head of the department to make decisions of high quality, it depends on his understanding of his work first, and long experience gained in the area of work before he became head for a certain department, and non-interference in his work when making any decision provided that The decision shall be in accordance with regulations and decisions in force. I am interested in a number of fields of the study including: the decision making concept, the stages of making the decision, objectivity, flexibility, quality, control, and communication. Once again my previous research suggests that heads of department feel that their ability to make decision in each of these areas is high. Why do you think this is the case? I disagree with this result, because some department heads make their decisions non-use of objectivity, flexibility, quality, and control. I mean that some of the decisions taken impact of others, or the decision of the individual, which means that non-compliance with regulations and conditions, and must be members of the department in the decision-making responsibility. What does the University do to support decision making skills – for instance is any training provided? The University does not do anything with regard to supporting decision-making skills of the department heads', do not provide any training programs to the head of department. The head of the department who is chosen if it does not comply with the regulations, the presence of experience, participation of members of the department in the responsibility, and walk on the principle of one to take any action, so he will not be able to make any right decision.

What skills do you feel that you and other heads of department need to be effective in these key areas? Skills are the head of the department feeling a personal sense internally that he can be effective. This feeling does not come by demand, but remain with the owner and retains. He needs to the Secretary-section is not to interfere in his work during the decision-making, the requirement to follow regulations that must be fixed. My research suggests that there is little difference between female and male of department heads' ability to make decisions in most Libyan Universities. Do you think this is the case in your department? There is no significant difference between males and females in the ability to make decisions. The reason is that as long as you followed the rules and regulations were applied correctly in this case is not a great difference between them. What skills and qualities to men and women bring to the role of head of department? Are these sets of skills different in men and women? There is no difference between males and females in need of skills and qualities when making decisions, because regardless of gender, any decision needs to skills to make any right decision. There is some evidence in the research literature that men and women adopt different management styles. Do you think men and women who are head of department in your institution adopt different management styles? If so, what are the key features of these differing styles of management?

Yes, I agree to a rate of 80%. Key features of the management methods are: the desire, experience, firmness, and flexibility in the time provided they do not abuse the regulations and not take any weak decision. My research suggests that there is some difference in the ability of heads of department to make decisions depending on their age. Do you think age is a factor in decision making? If so why do you think

this is the case? Yes, age is an influencing factor in the decision-making. In my opinion, because people who are older are able to better decision-making of people aged less. The reason for this is lack of understanding of regulations and lack of experience. What would you consider to be the optimal age for making management decisions? Why is this age group most capable in making decisions? There is no particular age group? Because there are those who work for a long time in the field of work and when assigned the task of the leadership of the department cannot take a proper decision because it did not benefit from his years in understanding the laws and regulations and to gain experience, therefore does not help if he was big or small. There are a few of the heads acquired abilities qualifying them for the presidency of the department and they come out successful decisions. My previous research suggests that there is no difference between Scientific and Humanities of department heads' ability to make decisions in Libyan Universities. Do you agree with this conclusion? If so, why do you think this is the case and what are the generic skills that are required to make good decisions regardless of subject area? I disagree with that. Because decision making is not confined to administrative matters only, but there are things that a scientific, head of the department must be aware of them in order to be able to discuss and participate so that his colleagues are making the right decision. Generic skills are not enough for a non-specialist, whether in humanities or Scientific. Are there any specific sets of skills that you think a good leader/ Head of department needs in your subject area? Management skills use the scientific bases of decision making, and The art of dealing with others. My research suggests that level and type of qualification does not predict ability to make decisions. Do you agree with this conclusion? If so, why do you think this is the case? I disagree with that, because the qualification is

the main affect factor on the ability of the heads of department to make decisions. When heads are required discussing scientific issues that need to the presence of specialization, while the other administrative matters can be conducted. **Are there any particular types of qualification that you think are more helpful in assisting in preparing heads of department to lead effectively?** The heads of departments should be placed according to their specialties and qualifications, and taking into account the expertise and desire. They need training and rehabilitation to help them to make right decisions. **Do you think special training and qualification should be offered to heads of department? If so, what form do you think this training should take (for instance on-site/ off-site training; specific qualifications such as a Diploma/ MBA in Management)?** No, I don't think that is very useful, because the heads of department can make decisions by high quality when they work in the scientific field and gain experience and flexibility in resolving issues and different issues. **My research suggests that years of experience do not predict the ability to make high quality decisions in most Universities in Libya. Do you find this surprising? If so why? If not why not?** No, it doesn't surprising, because experience means years of their President in the field of work and benefited to solve any problem in the department, so the experience should be help the leaders to make decisions by high quality. The number of years of experience has no effect on the ability of leaders to make the decision. **What length of experience, if any, do you think is optimal in helping leaders to be effective?** I cannot Decide, because the ability of individuals vary, it is difficult to specify. There are those who gain experience through a period of less than someone else.

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed. Are there any other issues in connection with the ability of heads of department to make decisions in Libyan Universities that

you feel you have not had the opportunity to share? Yes, there are other issues relating to heads of departments such as Laws and regulations and their role in creating stability. In addition, job stability because of the ongoing change management, and Failure to observe the sequence administrative, professional and scientific in the selection of department heads and leaders.

Thank you,