

TOWARD EQUITY IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING: POWER AND INFLUENCE
AMONG MEN AND WOMEN FACULTY IN SAUDI UNIVERSITIES

by

MOHAMMED AWAD ALASMRAI

(Under the Direction of Thomas Valentine)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to understand the level of power faculty members have and key influence tactics they use in decision making process at Saudi universities. The six research questions guiding the study were: (a) How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings? (b) To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings? (c) To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities? (d) To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during* the departmental meetings? (e) To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics? (f) To what extent do personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership*

position) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

Six research questions were examined in this study using descriptive statistics, bivariate tests and simple and multiple linear regression by using SPSS. In total, the sample population for this study was 953 full time faculty members holding Ph.D. degree with varying nationalities, rank, and fields and currently working for more than a year in public universities in Saudi Arabia.

After examining the study findings, the following three conclusions are suggested and discussed: (a) Power relationships between men and women faculty members are predominantly shaped by Saudi cultural values, (b) The societal norms present in Saudi Arabia have an impact on interpersonal behavior, including the influence tactics used by men and women faculty members, and (c) Gender, age and years of experience and impact the faculty's perception of power and power strategies in Saudi universities.

INDEX WORDS: Educational Planning, Decision Making, Program Planning Theories, Gender Equity, Gender Roles, Social Norms, Transnational Feminism, Islamic Feminism, New Version of Power and Influence Tactics Scale POINTS, Influence Tactics, Power Relationships, Power Dynamics, Higher Education, Faculty Members, Saudi Arabia, The Middle East Countries.

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DEDICATION

To Allah. May Allah accept this work.

To my father, mother, brothers and sisters. May Allah protect them.

To my wife and children. May Allah protect them.

To my uncle Ali bin Nasser Alasmrai. May Allah be merciful to him.

إلى صاحب الفضل إلى الأول والأخير الهادي سواء السبيل- الله عز وجل

إلى والدتي ووالدي وأخواني وأخواتي جميعا. حفظهم الباري عز وجل.

إلى زوجتي الحبيبة رفيقة دربي وأطفالي فلذات كبدي. حفظهم الباري عز وجل.

إلى من له أثر كبير في نفسي والدي وعمي علي بن ناصر الأسمرى. أسكنه الله فسيح جناته.

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CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Educational decision-making is a key to the future of Saudi Arabia, and some scholars both within this country or outside claim that women do not have enough voice at the Educational planning and decision making table. Saudi Arabia's King Abdullah, died in 2015, initiated a socio-political reform when he said about Saudi women: "Because we refuse to marginalize women in our society in all roles that comply with shariah [Islamic law], we have decided, after deliberation with our senior ulama (clerics) and others... to involve women in the Shura Council as members, starting from the next term," and also added: "Women will be able to run as candidates in the municipal election and will even have a right to vote" (Reuters News, 2011, n.d.).

Since 2011, Saudi Arabia has been experiencing more social turbulence than they had in recent decades. In my view, social turbulence is not necessary a bad thing since it is a way by which the society correct imperfections and keep pace with the modern world. These times are particularly important in Saudi Arabia as it has faced economic challenges that need to diversified Saud economy and consequently develop all workers regardless their gender or religious orientation to make contributions to unknown future through allowing them to be involved in educational decision-making process. The purpose of this study is to explore data particularly related to equity existed in the higher education systems that helps us to improve educational decision making, ultimately Saudi nation.

Background of the Problem

Educational planning and development are collaborative activities that affect society as a whole. Thus, it is critical that the planners are drawn from all the quarters of society. In Saudi Arabian universities, the faculty members participate in curriculum development, and it is important for women faculty members to participate in decision-making and provide ideas that represent the interests of other women. Additionally, some scholars argue that educational planning and development involve a substantive democratic participation (Wilson & Cervero, 2010). Since 2005, Saudi Arabia has made some moves toward democracy, the inclusion of women faculty members in educational planning and development reflects the need for such participation. The inclusion of women faculty in Saudi Arabian universities enhances an illuminated sociopolitical aspect of women in which they represent the capacity to act vested in the power given to them to participate in decision-making (Le Renard & Le Renard, 2014). Also, the inclusion of women enhances an increased organizational relationship because of the motivations and concerns that women bring to the planning board.

The Saudi Arabian government has been keen to improve its economy amid the recent regional financial crisis. In a bid to have a fully working economy, therefore, the country needs to embrace the input of all members of the society as they come up with policies and reforms leading to economy improvement and utilization of national resources (Le Renard & Le Renard, 2014). Education is central to economic development. As such, the participation of women faculty members in planning the educational curriculum is critical for developing efficient educational reforms and improving the quality of education. The input of both men and women in equal measure

towards educational planning and development is vital to streamline the education sector and consequently improve Saudi Arabian national resources (AlMunajjed, 2007).

Cervero and Wilson (1998) defined the context in program planning as the human, the organization, and the wider environment in which stakeholders with diverse viewpoints participate. The goal of educational planning is to accommodate the views of all stakeholders to reach a resolution that will equally and amicably suit the interests of the larger population. Saudi Arabia is a predominantly Islamic country. Thus there are conflicting views about the role of women in the society. Whereas the conservatives view women as having lower status than men, some scholars campaign for gender equity in all sectors (Vidyasagar & Rea, 2004). As such the participation of women faculty members in educational planning and development in Saudi Arabian universities gives the country an opportunity to embrace gender equity. The government has been campaigning for progressive thinking as well as the inclusion of all citizens in major decision making (AlMunajjed, 2007). Therefore, the moral obligation for women to be included in decision-making will be supported if the women faculty members in the Saudi Arabian universities play an active role in the development of the curriculum. Additionally, women constitute a substantial part of the Saudi Arabian population. As such it would be prudent to involve them in education planning and development so that they can shape their own destiny.

The following sections provide an overview of the context of Saudi , its cultural aspects and their impacts on higher educational institutions and power relations among men and women faculty members in higher educational institutions.

The Context of Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia encompasses an area the size of all of Western Europe or one-half of the United States (from the Mississippi River to the east coast), with a population of approximately 28 million people. Figure 1 shows that Saudi Arabia is surrounded by the



Figure 1. A Map of *Saudi Arabia*
(source: The ministry of Education)

Arabian Gulf (Persian Gulf) on the east, the Red Sea on the west, Yemen and Oman to the south, and Kuwait, Jordan, and Iraq to the north (Rashid & Shasheen, 2002). Saudi Arabia consists of a combination of high-tech cities, small remote villages, and nomadic tribes alongside luxury mountain and seashore resorts. In addition to be highly significant in the economic sphere, Saudi Arabia is also the birthplace of Islam, which dates back to 610 AC (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2010). Sunni Muslims make up approximately 90 percent of the citizen population while Shia Muslims comprise ten percent of the population. (Report on International Religious Freedom, 2011). Arabic is the official language of the Saudi people. To comprehend the political and social structures of the Saudi people, one must understand Islam, which manages and affects every phase of a Muslim's life. As Facey (1979) stated, "the truest culture of Arabia rests not in things, but in the words of the language, the Holy Book, the Qur'an" (p. 26).

Preserving the Islamic tradition at both the political and societal levels is the principal objective of Saudi Arabia. The Qu'ran is the Kingdom's constitution, while Islamic law, or Shariah, is the basis of the legal system. Saudi Arabia is the center of Islam, one of the greatest monotheistic religions of the world, and the country has been an important area in the Islamic world over the centuries. The way to Mecca is through this country. In Mecca, there is the Holy Mosque where the most sacred shrine of the Islamic world, the Kaaba, is located. Adherents of Islam come to this place from all over the world to pray to this shrine five times a day. Islamic studies is the most essential discipline in the educational system of Saudi Arabia. Researchers often use records of Muhammad's teachings called *hadith*, and verses from the Qu'ran (Sura) when conducting their studies.

In Saudi Arabia, the socio- economic systems and social institutions, including gender roles, are highly influenced by Arab culture and Islam. Vidyasagar and Rea (2004) noted that Saudi culture is heavily influenced by tribal values more than any other value. Therefore, in Saudi Arabia, the concepts of the freedom of women and women's role in public spheres are still considered to be foreign and *western* ideas. For decades, only men have been considered the custodians and heads of family, and hence, the bread winners and decision makers while women are supposed to stay at home, rear children, and take care of the family since there is a basic belief in the customs and traditions of tribal culture in Saudi Arabia. Hence, a huge rift can be observed in expectations of the family between their male and female children. As a result of this basic belief, male children are considered to be more entitled to an education and are provided better opportunities for education and employment. Women have limited opportunities for

education and work, and, in many cases, are specifically excluded from some occupations and services. These examples represent clear gender segregation (AlAmri, 2011; Alfassi, 2009; Alhareth, 2015).

Overview of Gender Roles in Saudi Arabia

Western media frequently focuses on lack of women's rights and roles in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, this issue needs to be assessed to find out whether it is a principal driving force of the Kingdom that requires changes.

Tribal customs in the country's patriarchal culture and the way Sunni scholars *Ulama* interprets Islam determine the rights of women living in Saudi Arabia. However, such interpretations often turn out to be inconsistent. Sheikh Ahmad Qassim Al-Ghamdi, the chief of religious police, stated that *Shariah* did not assume the prohibition of gender mixing (Sallam & Hunter, 2013). But, Abdul Rahman Al-Barrak, an influential cleric [Sheikh], established a fatwa that emphasized the necessity of killing proponents of *iktilat* (to mix freely) (Zoepf, 2010). The strictness of the restrictions also varies considerably in different regions. For instance, Jeddah can be characterized as a comparatively relaxed area, while Riyadh and those regions that surround it have much stricter regulations regarding women's rights (Al-Huwaider, 2009).

By tribal customs, every woman is expected to have her husband, father, or brother as her men guardian. In turn, every guardian has his own rights and duties when it comes to dealing with the woman he protects. In Saudi society, protection of women is an honor for men guardians (Mackey, 2002). In fact, this type of guardianship is not an Islamic law but is considered a social convention, and strictly observed by most members

of the society. Some reduction of restrictions encountered by women took place during the American troops' stay in the region after 9/11 (Almunjied, 2009).

The guardianship scenario is more in accordance with the tribal life style than with Islam because the Qur'an encourages the obligatory educational practices for all believers, regardless of gender. This means that women should be educated for the purpose of obtaining moral and spiritual perfection. Moreover, the Qur'an clearly indicates that women have privileges and rights to own property, work, and propriety (AlMunajjed, 1997).

Elyas & Picard (2013) indicated that the main change that has taken place in the lives of Saudi women is the neoliberalism paradigm in education, which made women more assertive, self-confident, and capable of defending their point of view. Along with the right to vote that was given to Saudi women in 2015, Islam (2014) highlighted the important of the appointment of 30 women to the Shura Council as the biggest, most significant change supported by the current King Salman.

These changes have caused a shift in social focus towards planning educational programs that have an emphasis on social and cultural issues. Although there is notable growth in terms of university-level research and social change, that growth has been mitigated by influential cultural forces, such as religion and its problematic social and political norms, that generate research constraints and limit further studies. When interviewed by the Economist, and English-language weekly newspaper owned by the Economist Group and based in London, Saudi Arabia's deputy crown prince, Mohammed bin Salam, said [the requirement for permission of women's family members] "has its

own social criteria and religious criteria. Some of them are things we can change, and some things even if we want to change we cannot do that” (2015).

Gender Equity in Saudi Universities

However, faculty as decision makers and their works, as in other societies in the modern world, face different types of challenges and constraints. The consequences of

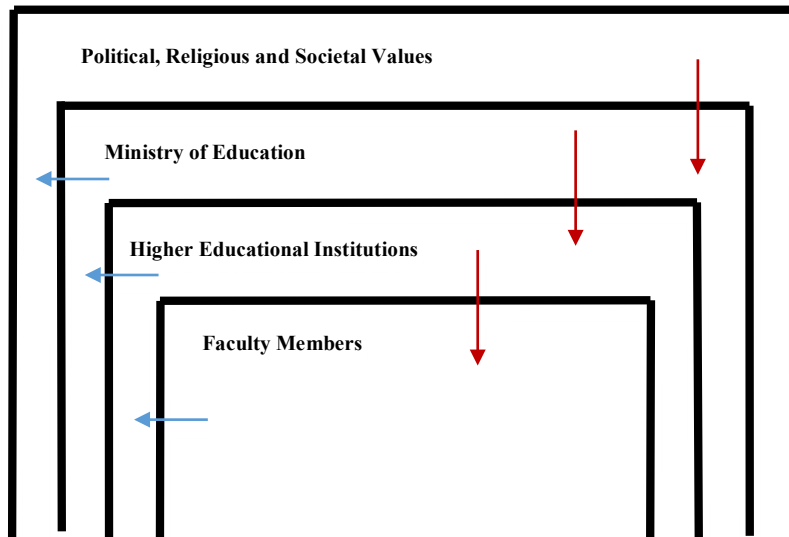


Figure 2 *Power Dynamic within Saudi Cultural Values and Faculty Members*

these constraints have affected many sectors in the Saudi society, particularly education as well as higher educational institutions as a whole and their members (See figure 2).

Figure 2 shows that decisions at the university level are heavily shaped by higher order three factors: The Saudi cultural values, Ministry of Education, and higher educational and research organizations. In Saudi Arabia, Saudi context is driven by political, religious, and social values, which impact the ministry of education, its educational system and policies. In turn, the ministry of education has influenced the higher educational institutions regarding structure of the educational apparatus, buildings,

educational curriculum and research topics. Ultimately, this system has influenced faculty members and their projects.

Therefore, the range of decision making is allowable only with parameters as set. Anyone at the university level attempted to affect change is aware of that. Consequently, a faculty member will have to find ways to gain more power and be more influential to introduce their ideas and produce socially significant findings in a respectful way.

Power Relationship between Men and Women Faculty in the Saudi Context

The cultural influence can be clearly seen at the university campuses in Saudi Arabia. Under Article 155 of the Saudi Arabia Education Policy, a strict separation of men and women (with some exceptions) are required at all levels of education. The colleges for boys and girls are administratively segregated into men and women administrations, respectively. Two important ways in which men privileged by the system. First, men faculty are tending to have more influence than women over organizational and financial decision-making. Secondly, men faculty can teach the female students only through closed circuit television (Alfassi, 2009) while female faculty are not allowed to teach male students. Despite the representation of women in university faculties, women experience pervasive feelings of subjugation and neglect in decision making in educational development programs (MHE, 2010). For program planning or other administrative and management purposes, the departmental meetings between men and women faculties are restricted, and communication takes place via phones, emails, *closed circuit TV*, or video conferencing. Although everyone has a right to vote and share opinions, the men and women faculty are required to sign the agenda

items before a final decision is made by the department head which is usually or always a man.

In Saudi Arabian society, gender has been a major issue, preventing women's voice from being heard in society and any decision making processes (AlMunajed, 2009; Hamdan, 2005; Elyas & Picard , 2013). As a result, women have been denied opportunities for independent decision-making—or any decision-making at all—by a myriad of systemic obstacles which automatically bar women from taking any strong stance in the education system. These issues include the negative stereotyping of women faculty (Alharbi, 2014), a bureaucratic culture in higher education, the institutionalization of gender differences, and administrative policies tilted in favor of men. All these issues tend to influence program planning in higher education, and they are designed to legally and authentically maintain the conventional system of men dominance in Saudi society.

Due to inequality in Saudi universities, women have to struggle for their rights to negotiate their interests on the face of the unequal opportunities provided by Saudi society. The bureaucracy in higher education is manifested as centralization of Higher Education in Ministry of Education which is further dominated by men professors as guardians (Alamri, 2011, p. 90) and leaves “no clear venue for changes that move a milestone toward development” (p. 90) for women faculty. It is extremely difficult to bring the institutional changes in the system through activism which, in turn, is considered against the Islamic principles as upheld by Saudi society and the government (Hamdan, 2005). In such a scenario, women are given little practical decision-making independence in education. Taking advantage of the policies drafted at government level, some men faculty members use planning decisions in their own favor. Saudi sociologist

and expert on the social role of women in Arab countries, Al-Munajed (2009), indicated, “Saudi women do not share sufficiently in decision-making processes at the highest levels of government educational policies” (p. 15).

All the major positions in the Ministry of Education such as the Minister of Education, Vice Minister, and Deputy Minister are occupied by men. Thus, women’s interests do not have a voice at the decision making process. Only one significant position has been allocated to a woman since 2000, the *Director General of Girls’ Higher Education* reporting to the Minister of Education (Hamden, 2005; AlMunajed, 2009). However, the hidden policies of higher education institutions in favor of men teaching and administrative staff, and ascribing superior roles to men impede women’s influence on the decision-making process at the decision making process. Lack of gender equality as institutionalized by the Saudi government on social and religious grounds creates a gap in the formulation of principles and implementation of policies in Saudi universities (Vidyasagar & Rea, 2004; Hamdan, 2005, Almunajjed, 2009).

Since social norms related to religion and politics are so important to understand in the Saudi Arabian context, the following section will consider a primary constraint to advancing gender equity in the country, the consequential restrictions to cross-gender communication.

Cross-Gender Communication

Because of norms that affect all aspects of life in Saudi Arabia, the segregation of the sexes is required (AlAmri, 2011; Alfassi, 2009; Alhareth, 2015; AlMunajjed, 1997). The Saudi culture that resulted in the separation of men and women in educational institutions significantly influenced the structure of these systems. Conventional and

Islamic individuals in Saudi Arabia tend to confront the philosophical foundation of the activist movement (Al-Bakr, 2015) by articulating the Qur'an's notion on harmonization of the rules of interactions between men and women and severely limiting and excluding the natural interactions and communications among unmarried, unrelated and unknown men and women. Article 155 of the Saudi Arabia Education Policy requires a strict separation of men and women at all levels of education, with some exceptions (e.g., in medical schools). These restrictions have continually manifested even within the education and research sectors where women researchers have smaller chances of making an impact on, or even participating in, research.

The social constraints placed on women in the Saudi culture act as a planning barrier to cross-gender communication. Although planning meetings in many other cultures support interaction between men and women researchers and participants, in Saudi Arabia, cross-gender interaction outside of the immediate family is strictly forbidden. A man and a woman cannot be alone with each other unless they are relatives like brother and sister, and a man may not look a woman in the face (though she may look at him). These constraints are barriers to the decision-making process because cross-gender communication is limited, and they make it extremely challenging to engage in curriculum or program development defined by the need for cross-gender communication. Research studies involving a man researcher who interviews women participants is not possible under Islamic law. Furthermore, any study that proposes women will have contact with men outside of the home is also forbidden in Saudi Arabia. As a result, stakeholders and planners cannot interact when men and women need to both

be involved at the planning table, and men faculty cannot directly engage women faculty when necessary for program development.

Technology provides the traditional Saudi community with ways to solve some of its social equity problems. Modern technology came to the rescue to preserve the rule that men and women cannot operate in the same workplace (Al-Bakr, 1997; Al-Fassi, 2000, 2009). Segregation was less strictly followed before technological modernization, but it has become institutionalized into a new reality with the ability to work remotely because of “As’sahwa” which means “the awakening”, the traditional conservative movement. This movement emerged as a result of the 80s extremist movement led by Islamic fundamentalist Juhayman who seized the holy site of Mecca asking for the purity of Islamic teaching in Saudi. Its goals are to protect Saudi women from westernization and to lessen the impact of Western thoughts in their behavior. Thus, the main challenges occupying conservatives in Saudi Arabia have been how to maintain and regulate “the veil” and how to prevent women from working alongside men (Alfassi, 2009).

To preserve women’s privacy and separation from men without preventing them from studying or working, the country adopted closed-circuit television (CCTV) and modern communication facilities. According to North and Tripp (2009), “while the cleric's interpretation of the Qur’an prohibits face to face communication between opposite genders, nothing in the Qur’an bans video conferencing” (p. 66) Video conferencing has allowed women to observe men faculty members and instructors on television, without reciprocal observation; and internal telephones have made communication possible between the two sides.

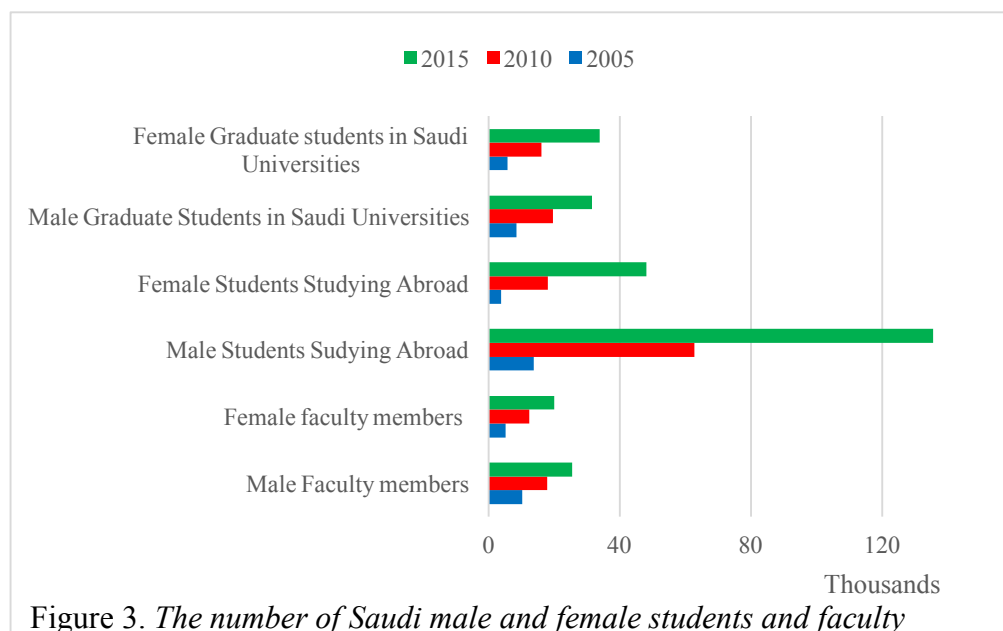
The process of securing segregation is an essential element in understanding and assessing the development of Saudi women's social and economic life in the past three decades (North & Tripp, 2009). The main outcome of video conferencing has been its social acceptability. In as much as the women needed a man guardian's permission to study and work outside the home, conditions for doing so had to be made acceptable to him. Today, a complex system of video conferencing that includes a sound system, wired and wireless types of communication, and the latest mobile phones, has helped to empower women planners or stakeholders who either welcome or critique segregation and has allowed a relative degree of participation in meetings, conferences, and lectures. This system has paved the way for more planners and stakeholders to enter into the public sphere, albeit in a segregated way.

Despite many limitations in gender interactions, it is undeniable that things got better in the past decade. The Saudi Arabian government has been on the forefront of leading a campaign to enhance gender equity. As such, there are myriads of reforms that have been made by the government to support gender equity. Apart from encouraging women to participate actively in national matters, the government has made significant strides in advocating for women's participation in both private and public positions. As such, there are numerous advanced efforts that the government has undertaken to enhance gender equity in Saudi Arabia.

Positive Trends enhancing Gender Equality in Saudi Arabia

The last decade has witnessed a considerable shift in the area of gender equity in Saudi context because of a number of factors. According to the Ministry of Education (2015), there has been a sharp increase in the total number of public and private universities from 8 to 53 since 2005 (Figure 3).

This expansion has also driven an increase in the number of academic researchers from a total of 25,000 in 2005 to a total of 60,000. Another strong statistic is found in the increase in graduate programs at major Saudi universities, which is now up to 45,000 male and female students. The number of students traveling to study abroad at Western universities has increased drastically. Figure 3 shows the number of Saudi male and female students and faculty members at Saudi higher educational institutions.



Regardless of impediments impacting women's education and research, the officials of Saudi Arabia have vividly demonstrated their formal intent to proceed with this delicate social issue in general and the gender issue in particular. During the last

decade, the government has made it possible for the number of higher education institutions to increase and has made the institutions accessible to women (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). As the main visionary of change in gender roles in Saudi Arabia, King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz (King of Saudi Arabia from 2005 to 2015) was the main initiator of this new directive. King Abdullah also provided women with study-abroad benefits similar to men, and this has been a big opportunity for Saudi women to study apart from a society that considers men above all women. More importantly, King Abdullah accomplished this trend in a smooth manner and without social protests, which indicates that today's society is flexible enough to accept women's value in education as long as there is strong support from the central government.

Saudi women professors such as Hayat Sindi, Samiri Ibrahim Islam, Howaida Obaid al-Qethamy, Ghada al-Mutairi, and Soraya Al Turki have become pioneers of high achievement in scientific research and academics (MHE, 2014). Nora Al-Fayez, a United States educated teacher, was appointed as the first deputy education minister for the Department of Female Student Affairs in 2009. Also, Princess Al-Jowhara bint Fahd was the first woman when she was appointed as a president of the Women's University in Riyadh in 2007.

Since 2005, the Saudi government has sought progress towards modernization through science diplomacy and empowerment via transfers of modern education equality theory. In 2009, against the odds of political and social debate, the King Abdullah Science Co-education University was established with subjects that were globally accredited and scholarships that permitted male and female student attendance (Elyas & Picard, 2013; Islam, 2014). The rise in women university enrollment will also be aided

by King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) which is the first mixed-gender university campus in Saudi Arabia. Saudi authorities hope the mixed-gender center will help modernize the kingdom's deeply conservative society. Further, Princess Nourah bint Abdul Rahman University has been established as the world's largest higher education center for women (MHE, 2010).

The King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud Project for General Education Development was funded with \$2.4 billion to invest in training, teaching, curriculum development, educational supervision, and the integration of advanced technology to the Saudi educational processes (Islam, 2014). Also, the 2004 King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Scholarship program significantly increased the number of opportunities for Saudi's female students to study abroad and return to work in Saudi universities in different fields.

Elyas & Picard (2013) indicated that the main change that has taken place in the lives of Saudi women is the neoliberalism paradigm in education, which made women more assertive, self-confident, and capable of defending their point of view. Islam (2014) accredited with the 2013 appointment of 30 women to the Shura council as the biggest, most significant change along with the right to vote that was given to Saudi women in 2015. In summary, these positive reforms have helped to enhance gender equality not only in higher educational institutions but also in Saudi society. However, challenges still stand in the way of gender equality at higher educational institutions at Saudi Arabia. These obstacles will be discussed in the following section.

As noted earlier, the program planning in higher education is a process that involves various political negotiations. The women in higher education faculties,

particularly in Saudi Arabian society, seek to have equal opportunities for their input to be incorporated into the planning of the programs in higher education. This problem is particularly acute because of their absence from the planning table. The men faculty had the prerogative to make fundamental decisions without sufficient consideration of the women's needs (Bingham & Nix, 2012). As such, "the power dynamics that are the manifestations of the politics of the academy convey a powerful message that is unheard or unacknowledged by most enfranchised students but seems obvious to minorities" (Johnson-Bailey, 2001, p. 139). In other words, this leads to a situation where women have a better chance of utilizing their position to create a new educational structure as program planners or program directors to drive change and to develop the interests of women in society through the education process.

Common Challenges Facing Women Faculty in Planning Process

According to higher education literature in Saudi Arabia, (Alharbi, 2014, Almunajjed, 2009; Alharbi, 2014; Hamdan, 2005; Islam, 2014; Vidyasagar & Rea, 2004) there are four major elements that should be regarded in terms of common challenges facing women faculty in the planning process: from being silent to communicative, from being ignored to regarded, from having low authority to equal authority, and being stereotyped (negative messages) to being unique (positive messages).

Moving from Being Silent to Communicative. Gender is the major issue preventing Saudi women from being marginalized in society. Women in Saudi Arabia were negatively stereotyped in schools and had to struggle for their rights to receive an education (Alharbi, 2014). They were oppressed by a society that did not provide them with the equal opportunities that were given to boys or men. Saudi Arabia is a

conservative country, and its conservatism is most strongly manifested in the middle regions of the country. Women have been silent for too long, being afraid to speak out about their points of view. Nowadays, everything has changed: many women tend to take an active part in the life of society, make their contributions, and penetrate those professional fields, which have been previously inaccessible and unavailable for them. For example, Saudi women professors such as Hayat Sindi, Samiri Ibrahim Islam, Howaida Obaid al-Qethamy, Ghada al-Mutairi, and Soraya Al Turki have high achievement in scientific research and academics (MHE, 2014). Nora Al-Fayez, a United States educated teacher, was appointed as the first deputy education minister for the Department of Female Student Affairs from 2009 to 2015.

Move from Being Disregarded to Regarded. Saudi women are committed and content with the laws and regulations under which they live. Nevertheless, Islamic Law is highly criticized for repressing women's rights (Islam, 2014). It requires women to follow the holy book, which promotes the equality of both men and women. But Saudi women are discriminated against in numerous aspects of their lives, and seem to be given the laws to follow, which are provided by the men, but not by Islamic law. However, the modern conditions make women stand up and defend their rights and positions in society. For example, Saudi Arabian women have used Twitter to campaign against men guardianship. They have used the hashtag *#TogetherToEndMaleGuardianship*, to display their approval and request social reform.

From Having Low Authority to Equal Authority. The prevalence of gender bias is reflected in the attitudes of men towards women in the modern Saudi society. In the educational field, Saudi women have to face a legal and constitutional system that

promotes and supports men superiority. Women are affected when they choose a specialty, in their promotion prospects, and in collaboration alongside men colleagues (Vidyasagar & Rea, 2004, Hamdan,2005, Almunajjed,2009; Alharbi, 2014). Men do not perceive women as authoritative figures, despite the fact that women demonstrate a great tendency towards being leaders and taking leadership positions.

Moving from Being Stereotyped to Unique. This factor is the most powerful among others, because Saudi women tended to lead one path in their life – as a housekeeper, wife, and mother. Gender stereotypes haunt Saudi women throughout their lives and throughout the careers they choose to pursue. Elays and Picard (2013) indicate that the main change that has taken place in the lives of Saudi women is the neoliberalism paradigm in education, which has made women more assertive, self-confident, and capable of defending their point of view.

Power Influence at Planning Table

Asymmetrical power relations arise when women have to work as inferiors under the authority of men administrators and all-men boards. To balance the power relations and influence tactics at the planning table in Saudi universities, we need to change the idea of women in education and societal perspectives towards women in education. In this regard, the men and women teachers who get the opportunities to study abroad and come back to Saudi Arabia have the potential to introduce reforms into the conventional education system in Saudi Arabia. They can negotiate with the education authorities and government for a system which does not reproduce the existing system (Johnson-Bailey, 2001) but rather creates organizational structures supporting gender equality. The current higher education system is a crystal clear image of the marginalization of women faculty

at the planning table for programs development resulting in a vicious circle in which women are subjected to an education system denying them equal opportunities. It is worth understanding the spirit and dynamics of program planning at the planning table to suggest a solution to the problem.

According to Cervero and Wilson (1998), the context in program planning is defined as the human, the organization, and the wider environment in which stakeholders with diverse viewpoints participate. The aim of program planning is to accommodate the views of all stakeholders to reach a resolution that will equally and amicably suit the interests of the larger population. The stakeholders do so by exchanging their ideas and discussing the possibilities related to the program. This discussion can be either fruitful or end without a decision in the event of great differences of opinion here. Program planning is complex and intricate because it involves stakeholders who attend planning meetings as well as others who may not have a voice at the planning table. Therefore, the power relations and dynamics in the exercise of influence or power is critical in program planning. Influence tactics are usually based on the particular social vision related to the wider systems of social, economic, and cultural relations of power (Cervero & Wilson, 2001). Moreover, the culture, organization, and their associated structural and historical dimensions influence and shape program planning in relation to power (Ryu, 2008). In fact, the socio-political and socio-cultural nature of program planning influences the process and makes planners anticipate how people think, how they interpret information, how they respond to one another, and how they understand stakeholders and the wider environment (Yang, 2011).

When ascribing roles, power, and influencing behaviors based on gender

differences, the sociological studies have indicated great variability between men and women. The social behavior studies conducted on behavioral attributions based on gender have associated aggression, dominance, and resistance towards influence with men and communal attitudes inclined towards bringing and maintaining harmony in relationships with women (Eagly, 1983, Eagly, 2013). These sex role stereotypes influence the behavioral patterns and personalities of men and women. Women are socialized to be passive, accommodative, and intuitive, while men are socialized to be aggressive, active, and dominating. The differences between men and women influence their respective styles and exercise of power. The relationships between gender and influence and between gender dynamics and power are, however, different in collective societies—particularly in Middle Eastern countries including Saudi Arabia—which are influenced by cultural and religious factors.

Also, Cervero and Wilson (2006) state that “decision making about the features of the educational program is a form of problem-solving” (p. 95). In this view, Zartman (2008) contends that negotiation is a search for a formula, and he views it as a more positive and creative attitude to the resolution of conflict. Therefore, on the one hand, planners exercise the power to represent their own and others’ interests in shaping educational and political outcomes. On the other hand, planners negotiate their interests with other stakeholders when conflicts occur among them at the planning table. However, in the case of Saudi system, many women in important positions, especially in the education sector, have somehow accepted their fate and their loss of power to the men in similar positions. They have to look up to men to gain support for their idea to influence decisions during program planning. Some women are still able to exercise

some influence while others try to devise strategies to gain power at their workplaces (Fiorani& Maestri, 2010).

The Statement of the Problem

Although many scholars and social advocates and planners have argued for the importance of increasing women's role in educational planning, little is known about the way and which men and women experience educational planning in Saudi Arabia. We do not know how women perceive power relative to men and the ways in which women try to influence educational decision-making in the current Saudi system.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to understand the level of influence faculty members have and key influence tactics they use in decision making process at Saudi universities.

To accomplish these goals, the following six questions have been developed:

1. How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?
2. To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?
3. To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?
4. To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during the departmental meetings*?
5. To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually

explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

6. To what extent do personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

The Overview of the Study

This study uses a survey methodology to distribute a self-completed questionnaire about power and influence tactics to a large sample of men and women faculty members working in Saudi universities. The survey will be based on Cervero and Wilson's theory of program planning (1994, 2006), Yang's framework (1996), and the Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS). Data will be collected using web-based survey methodology, and it will cover three broad areas.

The Significance of the Study

Theoretical Significance of the Study

There are gaps in the literature about program planning and influence tactics during program planning used by men and women faculty members. The dearth of data on this topic within the Saudi context, therefore, limits the researcher's ability to provide evidence in this area to improve the status of Saudi women during the planning process. Hence, this study aims to present an extended vision of program planning theory and practice compared to studies by Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2006). The major findings made by Cervero and Wilson and others will be used as supportive literature and

background for the present study. The researchers will be using the diagrams pertaining to power tactics on the basis of interests within program planning to develop results in the Saudi context. Since there are gaps in the literature about this topic, the present study has the potential to reach significant conclusions by: a) Extending these discussions to another culture; b) Translating an instrument for use in later research; and c) Providing a better understanding of the cross-cultural differences and similarities in the outlines of this research.

A review of the available literature on assessment of the power and policymaking roles of women in Saudi Arabian universities reveals the gaps in the research, and implies that scholars are more interested in other aspects of gender-based inequality, including those in health care (Govender & Penn-Kekana, 2007), opportunities, marriage, and social positions (Alsaleh, 2009), access to education as an indicator of further development and success (Wiseman, Sadaawi, & Alromi, 2008), and others. In this respect, the gap in literature reflects the absence or low interest in the roles and potential contribution of women stakeholders in education at the level of planning programs, making decisions, and solving problems about risks and opportunities. At this point, the use and effective influence tactics in program planning remain under-researched and undeveloped from the theoretical perspective, putting women stakeholders at risk of staying denied in their voices, opinions, and prospective contribution. According to the findings by Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2006), program planning is a type of social activity which requires people to negotiate diverse interests in the environment that has established and quite stable relations of power.

The research by Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b, 2006) serves as the basis for the present study. Other scholarly sources are aimed at providing supporting evidence to explore the power position of women in educational program-planning. Also, the present research utilizes visual aids (tables and diagrams) to make the results more graphically appealing and understandable. Power tactics in the Saudi context will be one of the key points to show the lack of access to power for women rather than their denial to exercise power in the education-related setting. In other words, women might be more effective in their contribution if they had more power to negotiate and make decisions, which would be a positive aspect for the entire system of Saudi universities.

Practical Significance of the Study

Those charged with overseeing the university and the future development of Saudi Arabia will come away with a better sense of how the world looks to women, and this knowledge will allow them to craft goals for remedy or any kind of equity. These remedies will take a variety of different forms at either the university level or departmental level. Different structures could be put in place to ensure that women, in fact, do have as much equality as impossible under current social norms. Advocates for women equality can use these findings as a basis for training and orienting women to university life. Once all the players have a better understanding of both the realities of power and the ways in which behaviors can affect their power, we will see a new set of women who are in a position to more positively influence the development of Saudi Arabia's educational system.

The Researcher's Subjectivity

I am proud of being a Saudi Muslim who believe in the ascendancy of the Qur'an. I am proud of working at Saudi educational system for 13 years at public educational level and higher educational level. During this period of time in the university, I participated in various discussions and interacted with different people sharing their points of view and ideas on complex problems and changes applicable to the educational setting.

Prior to beginning my doctoral study, I read Cervero and Wilson's book on power and influence, and this book inspired me to do this study focusing on the nature of power and influence tactics as a valuable tool used by people in faculty planning at universities. For some years I have informally observed some people are less influential than others in decision making process during departmental meetings.

Although I study power in educational planning, my initial focus was on the role of foreign faculty working in Saudi context. thought was to study the role of foreign faculty. However, the deeper I studied and giving attention to the social changing in Saudi Arabia, I recognized that there was much more important population. Finally, I decided to However, while researching the topic, using the credible literature and giving attention to the social changing in Saudi Arabia, I recognized that there was another group being even more important to consider for the future of Saudi Arabia compared to the experiences of foreigner professors in the same settings. In fact, the majority of foreigners come to work in Saudi Arabia for some period of time being considered a temporary accommodation, and thus, their impact on the country is not limited.

In his interview, Saudi Arabia's King Abdullah said about Saudi women:

"Because we refuse to marginalize women in our society in all roles that comply with shariah [Islamic law], we have decided, after deliberation with our senior ulama (clerics) and others... to involve women in the Shura Council as members, starting from the next term," and also added: "Women will be able to run as candidates in the municipal election and will even have a right to vote" (Reuters News, 2011, n.d.).

I completely agree with this statement, because we now live in a modern society with changing social roles and gender issues granting more rights and opportunities for women worldwide. I have been working for few years with women faculty members, and I have observed their challenges in getting influence and authority in the educational setting, and it is difficult for women to obtain some power and equality because of social barriers, at least at this historical point of time.

Although I keep the framework of examining all influence tactics used by both genders, I will focus more specifically on the gender reification in my analysis evaluating the influence tactics used by women faculty members. This is important for me from the patriarchal or national development levels because I believe we can no longer live in a global economy if we take half of our talent and restrict it too far due to gender issues.

We have a blessing of being an oil rich economy, and as a future evolves as economy, Saudi citizens should also promote diversity and changes in various fields of their life and professional activity valuing talent and skills rather than gender issues. I am sure there are ways to achieve positive changes and at the same time respect both our monarchy and religious heritage of increasing the role of women in society. Being a Saudi man who married a Saudi woman and having two beautiful daughters and a son, I

want to be sure that women members of my family will have a greater access to education, employment and other opportunities in life, and this will be possible if people in Saudi Arabia become more open to changes less restricted by gender differences caused by social norms.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review provides context for the study by identifying and discussing relevant literature. The literature review has three major sections.

The first section discusses program planning theory by providing a brief description of three viewpoints on the theory, paying particular attention to Cervero and Wilson's program planning model and strategies used to attract planners to the planning process ending with Yang's Model of Influence Tactics.

The second section of the chapter discusses feminist perspectives on Middle Eastern women, explaining transnational feminism and Islamic feminism in Middle Eastern countries, with a focus on Saudi Arabia

The final section explores gender role theory, which explains gender differences through the lens of the social expectations for men and women to behave differently. The core of the literature review provides a detailed examination of the theoretical, empirical, and anecdotal literature on Saudi women faculty and how gender, marginality, and influence tactics affect women faculty in the process of educational program development. This section will also shed light on the use of power at the planning table and on how to implement change by showing how power dynamics affect influence tactics.

Program Planning Theory in Adult Education

Since 1949, literature on program planning has contributed to the development of adult education planning theory. Program planning scholars have suggested different theories, models or even frameworks in an attempt to show their interpretation and views on the dynamic of planning (Caffarella 2002; Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006; Sork & Caffarella 1989, Sork 2000; 2010). These models and frameworks about adult education planners' actions can be categorized into (a) the conventional planning viewpoint, (b) the deliberative viewpoint, and (c) the critical viewpoint.

Conventional planning theory

The purpose of conventional planning theory (Sork & Newman 2004; Wilson, 2005) is to replicate Tyler's (1949) argument that "educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and examinations prepared" (p. 3). The framework offered by Tyler is perceived as a classical point of view in adult education (Apps, 1979; Brookfield, 1987). Tyler asked four questions:

1. *What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?*
2. *How can learning experiences be selected which are likely to be useful in attaining these objectives?*
3. *How can learning experiences be organized for effective instruction?*
4. *How can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated? (p. 1)*

Tyler's four questions have become integral constituents of the program planning process, and planners cannot disregard them. Thus, Knowles (1980) confirmed the idea that learners should participate in the planning process. So he had six answers to Tyler's

four questions about adult educators: (a) helping learners to realize their own learning needs; (b) helping the learners to plan a sequence of experiences that is required for producing the desired learning; (c) creating conditions that will increase learners' motivation for education; (d) selecting the most efficient and appropriate techniques/methods to establish the desired learning; (e) providing necessary resources (both human and material) for producing the desired learning; and (f) assisting learners in measuring the results of their learning experiences. (Knowles, 1980, p. 26-27)

In general, conventional planning theory is based on the idea that one of the planner's major tasks is to move from the needs analysis phase to the evaluation phase in a logical and consistent manner. The distinctive feature of the conventional tradition is the planners applying a set of procedures or principles without paying attention to the social and political aspects. Addressing this issue, Cervero and Wilson (1994a) argued that "real-life planners say that it is not an accurate depiction of what they really have to do and what is important about their everyday practice" (p. 16).

Deliberative planning theory

The deliberative process typically comprises three elements: deliberation, platform, and design. The platform is the beliefs or principles that guide the developers of the curriculum. The platform causes deliberation that, in turn, leads to certain decisions concerning the process of using the available alternatives. Ultimately, a curriculum design emerges from deliberation. As a result, adult educators can develop the necessary criteria that will be used in certain situations, and they become expert planners. The deliberative or naturalistic viewpoint does not apply standard principles but emphasizes

the ability of planners to make judgments in a definite context and be ready to justify them.

The deliberative planning approach does not deal with conflict dynamics or with the context in which these conflicts usually occur (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 2006). Cervero and Wilson compared deliberative planning theory with the conventional approach and found that the former did not consider structural constraint to be an important element. Instead, deliberative planning emphasizes the necessity of action and planning practice at the individual planners' discretion. Also, it is difficult to undervalue the role of context in deliberative planning. It is crucial to know the ways in which context is built and its significance for human activities in structuring along with "structural relations of power" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 255). Finally, the naturalistic point of view remains an essential rationalist prescription that represents the decision-making elements of creating the steps of rationalist problem solving (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 246).

The critical tradition

Unlike conventional and deliberative planning theory, the critical tradition is based on the use of the ideological and political constituents when planning various educational programs. The issues of social disparities, power, and emancipation are addressed by this approach. According to critical adult educators, the role of learning is to challenge repressive social structures (Giroux, 1983), criticize cultural assumptions (Brookfield, 1987), and support necessary political action.

The principal responsibility of a planner is to realize who has the power before the beginning of the planning process (Forester, 1989). By understanding these power

relations, a planner is ready for the planning process's politics and anticipates potential problems. Program planners initiate the analysis of power structure and use the acquired information as the main resource in the process of planning. The achievement of these goals requires planners to be aware of institutional restrictions and the impact of power structures on participants. Also, the planners' knowledge of power relations makes them able to learn the political background of the planning process and predict possible challenges.

The critical tradition has been criticized for over-emphasizing the ideological and political factors when planning learning programs. The judgments of this approach are viewed as ethical issues (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a) because of its concern for bringing certain changes that are based on emancipation and justice.

In general, program planning theories and models did not typically emphasize the importance of stakeholders' participation, but this tendency has begun to change. Now a great number of contemporary models and theories support the idea of more inclusive perspectives. In fact, more and more literature recognizes programs that are based on broad stakeholder planning and shaping (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2006; Sork, 1996, 2000; Sork & Caffarella, 1989), and this vision is widely incorporated in the development of program planning theory (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2006; Sork, 1996, 2000; Sork & Caffarella, 1989).

While multiple theories and models of planning have been concentrated on the technical dimension, they have neglected the significance of the socio-political one. Only a small number of program planning models has taken into consideration both dimensions. Cervero and Wilson (1994; 2006) established a model that paid equal

attention to social and political dynamics in the planning process. So this next section discusses the place and content of the program planning theory offered by Cervero and Wilson (1994; 2006), critical notes about the theory, and an introduction to Yang's (1996) framework along with related studies.

Cervero and Wilson's Program Planning Theory

Theories of program planning in the literature on adult education have deeply examined curriculum-related models and technical strategies, as well as concepts regarding program planning (Sork & Caffarella, 1989, Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006; Sork, 2000 & Caffarella, 2002). However, until recently, these program planning theories and models did not typically emphasize the importance of stakeholders' participation. Now, a great number of contemporary models and theories support the idea of more inclusive perspectives. In fact, more and more academic literature recognizes programs that are based on stakeholders' planning and shaping (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, 1994b, 2006; Sork, 1996, 2000; Sork & Caffarella, 1989). According to Sork (2000, 2010), we should review three mutually interconnected dimensions of program planning: the technical, socio-political, and ethical. Sork clarifies the value of technical models in planning, but cautions about the restrictions of applying only technical models. The review of the sociopolitical area focuses on Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) findings, assuming that these findings are equally relevant to the case of program planning. Consequently, Sork's views on adult education planners' actions are shifted to Cervero and Wilson's Program planning theory among adult education planning models.

Cervero and Wilson advanced their theory based on the socio-political dimension, which was a different approach from conventional theories about program planning

theory, especially in adult education. Such a theory is, therefore, distinct from the conventional understanding of planning that mainly focuses on technical, rational tradition. These conventional models rooted in Tyler's works (1949) apply a systematic approach that requires the completion of a step-by-step process (Sork & Caffarella, 1989; Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006) beginning with the definition of the objectives and moving through to evaluation. Although conventional models such as the PRECEDE-PROCEED model by Green and Kreuter has been considered as "the most researched educational planning model" (Sork, 2010, p. 16), it fails to identify the role of interests and power in the planning model.

Consequently, others models were developed based on the need for practitioners and researchers to create models that are more reflective of the environment or context in which planning and learning occur (Caffarella, 2002; Sork, 2000, 2010). After considering the shortcomings of the older models, two new models were developed. The first framework is the 12-part interactive model developed by Caffarella (2002). This model includes discerning the context; building a solid base of support; identifying program ideas; sorting and prioritizing program ideas; developing program objectives; designing instructional plans; devising transfer-of-learning plans; formulating evaluation plan; making recommendations and communicating results; selecting formats and schedules and staff needs; preparing budgets and marketing plans and coordinating facilities and on-site events. This model provides more flexibility in the planning process. For example, a distinct feature of Caffarella's model is the focus on creating transfer-of-learning plans. The second framework is the question-based model developed by Sork (2000) and consisting of six components. This model concentrates on "first posing

questions and then deciding the best ways to answer them from a wide range of alternative processes” (Sork, 2010, p. 162). Additionally, critical models were also developed to focus the attention of planning beyond skills development and content knowledge and towards emancipatory action between instructors and learners (Forester, 1989; Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006).

Cervero and Wilson (1994a, 1994b) identified the shortcomings of the different models. They believed that the deliberative, critical, and conventional models were not suitable for making planning decisions in a practical environment. In their opinion, conventional models do not explain the mobility of planning contexts, the essence of practical judgments, or the principles that affect the process of making these judgments. In fact, such models disregard socio-political interaction that, in turn, is the largest constituent of the planning function and has an immense influence on planning decisions. According to Cervero and Wilson (1994b), these models wrongly “assume that planning programs is a matter of applying the same generic set of procedures in all situations” (p. 251).

Deliberative models like the deliberation procedure of program planning proposed by Walker (1971; 1990) aim to place planning in the real-life setting where it occurs. However, such an approach fails to establish any technical or ethical standards for detecting whether the most appropriate and efficient judgment has been made (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a). Furthermore, the deliberation procedure implemented in naturalistic models fails to address the uneven and inconsistent power relations between those who are involved in planning. Critical models that are used to rebuild current power relationships (e.g., Forester, 1989) emphasize the ethical and political aspects of the

planning, but fall “short in exploring the ways these insights might be worked out in the everyday world faced by program planners” (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, p. 24).

Restructuring power relations as seen by these models turns out to be impractical during the process of educational program planning.

In brief, Cervero and Wilson’s theory is a more critical and democratic approach that explicitly evolved from these critiques. Their theory bases its argument on three primary traditions—the practical, technical-rational and critical approaches to program planning—and combines political and social dimensions into planning practice (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006 and Sork 2000, 2010).

Overview of Cervero and Wilson’s Theory

Cervero and Wilson (1994; 2006) have argued that educational program planning is *not*: a) procedures that are carried out by adhering to a range of prescribed steps, b) a deliberative process that assumes people are performing to the best of their abilities, or c) a critical process that is intended to redesign power relationships. Instead, the scholars view program planning as a social negotiation process. Cervero and Wilson (1994; 2006) borrowed their ideas from Forester (1989) and expanded his work to provide a practical and ethical guide for planning practice. In their opinion, program planning is “a social activity in which people negotiate with each other in answering some questions about a program’s form, including its purposes, content, audience, and format” (p. 28). Planning becomes a social activity presuming the planner’s interaction with organizational settings, and it includes a relevant construction of interpersonal, organizational, and social interests. Importantly, the theory emphasizes that negotiable interests and power are appealing to the actions and responsibility of adult educators. Accepting the program

as a social activity and understanding its power relations and interests are the central goals for planners.

Cervero and Wilson (1994a) claim that adult educators “plan for programs based on a concrete set of power relationships and associated interests” (p. 119). Power and interests define a planner’s activities, so the authors define power as “a capacity to act logically necessary as a feature of all practices planning” (p. 120). Thus, power is not about relationships, but a natural factor typical of people and any program-planning process. Planners’ individual discretion is not actualized, but the relevance of a planner’s power in facilitating social conditions is prioritized. Technically, there are different power levels among people, leading to asymmetrical power relations.

When considering power relations in terms of educational programs, Cervero and Wilson (1994a) analyzed the interests of various stakeholders (learners, teachers, planners, public, etc.) as “a complex set of dispositions, goals, values, desires, and expectations that lead people to act in certain ways and to position themselves in a particular manner when confronted with situations in which they must act” (pp. 122-123). Interests are closely associated with a planner’s power and hierarchically-developed power relations.

Responsibilities, as the another element, assume that “learners, teachers, planners, institutional leadership, and the affected public” (p. 143) should relate to negotiation (Cervero and Wilson, 1994a). As their interests affect power use, Cervero and Wilson (2006) emphasized that planners refer to their ethical beliefs by answering two fundamental questions. First, who will take advantage of the educational programs? Second, whose interests must be considered during program planning (p. 92)? For adult

educators, it is vital to appreciate educational results and other socio-political implications linked to stakeholders' interests. Looking beyond the *fundamental blind spots* of program planning theories is also the concept's feature, meaning the planners' interests are the educational results (p. 90).

Negotiation, in turn, serves as a process encouraging people to discuss and exchange ideas to achieve agreement upon education program's content, as "planners exercise power to represent their own and others' interests in shaping educational and political outcomes," (Cervero & Wilson, 1994a, p. 29). Negotiation is significant for resolving the issues of asymmetrical relations. Understanding our socio-cultural position and that of other stakeholders, planners can use negotiations in "consultative, bargaining, and dispute situations" (Cervero & Wilson, 2006).

Cervero and Wilson (1994) developed a conceptual pattern that includes two dimensions: relations among legitimate interests (consensual vs. conflictual) and two types of power relations (symmetrical vs. asymmetrical). In addition to these dimensions, there are four suggested planning tactics: satisficing, networking, bargaining, and counteracting. Along with reading the political situations to understand power relationships and legitimate interests, the planner can determine, adapt, and implement their interests in the planning process.

Satisfice. Planners can cope with the symmetrical power relations, and they share the stakeholders' reciprocal and legal interests in terms of settled setting and equal opportunities. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) indicated that planners quickly reach their personal limits regarding their tasks in a program's detailed planning, with the power relations being moderately symmetrical.

Network. Networking focuses on program participants' exchanges of information about individuals, outcomes, or methods of people's role distributions in the planning (Cervero & Wilson, 1994b). Asymmetrical power relations are typical, and stakeholders' interests are considered. The previously mentioned solution is ineffective here—regardless of planners' responsibility limits—because of unequal power relations.

Bargain. Bargaining requires various participants with competing interests who demonstrate a will to show their leadership and maintain their interests with symmetrical power relations. The planner's position is the core instrument of supporting the bargain between the competing stakeholders.

Counteract. Asymmetrical power relations do exist along with competing interests of stakeholders. The more authorized individuals or some institutions have a direct interest in the planning. The context implies that asymmetrical power relations secure specific opportunities but endanger flexible planning (Cervero & Wilson, 1994b). The opposing strategy is preferable for planners in this case. Cervero and Wilson (1994b) affirmed that “the most common situations are marked by asymmetrical power relations that threaten, as well as offer opportunities, for democratic planning” (p. 260).

Critiques of the Power and Interests Model

Cervero and Wilson's theory of program planning expands on technical, rational, and practical approaches that are collectively integrated by incorporating social and political dimensions in the planning process (Sandmann, Kiely, & Grenier, 2009, p. 20). Their model emphasizes the need to support planners in understanding and discussing social, ethical, and political aspects of the planning practice, and promoting democracy and inclusiveness in the planning process (Cervero & Wilson, 2006, p. 102).

The Cervero and Wilson model demonstrates that social, ethical, and political dimensions have a significant influence on objective educational planning practice (Sandmann, Kiely & Grenier, 2009). Other scholars advocate for a planning model with parallel relations of power and limited guidance on how to comprehend, negotiate, and act for the interest of stakeholders. However, social and educational structures concentrate more on content, and, therefore, limiting the audience's participation in educational programs. Cervero and Wilson cover this gap by offering practical guidance on negotiating power and interest in everyday practice (Cho & Kim, 2004). Their approach to education planning includes power, interests, negotiation, and responsibility.

Cervero and Wilson also describe power relationships and negotiations that encourage an integrative approach (Cho & Kim, 2004). This approach has been integrated into the typical planning models, reaping numerous benefits to the stakeholders. An integrative approach constructs diverse social relations, emphasizing the need to acknowledge planners' efforts in creating comprehensive social programs.

On the other hand, the Cervero and Wilson model has some limitations. For instance, their model is criticized for perpetuating a theory-practice gap, resulting in improper guidance for the stakeholders (Sork, 2010, p.83). Occasionally, the stakeholders may miss some events that could be of great benefit to them because the events are not strictly connected to the education program. Scholars suggest that to prevent the inadequate transfer of information to the audience, proper resource utilization and careful budgeting for all facets is required (Sork, 2010).

Cervero and Wilson model has also been criticized for paying little attention to the stakeholders' negotiations (Sork, 1996). Inadequate guidance on negotiating with the

stakeholders limits the ethical, social and political decisions. Accordingly, both planners and stakeholders face moral dilemmas, with multiple stakeholders been uncertain about the consequences of their decisions. The best means to address this challenge is to combine frame factor theory and negotiation theory (Umble, Cervero & Langone, 2001). Integrating these models encourages democracy and inclusive development.

Similarly, Cervero and Wilson model loses a moral justification of actions as the program planners embrace manipulative and antidemocratic negotiations. Instead of focusing on the power of negotiation among the interest groups, the Cervero and Wilson model does not pay much attention to people's work views on planning, thus undermining the political realities in planning programs (Sork, 2010). This situation necessitates the recounting of justifiable actions to prevent erosion of moral values.

The negotiation challenges are summed up by the lack of democratic planning practice. Since planners work among the complex relationships of power and stakeholders' interests, it is often hard for planners to construct inclusive programs. More specifically, finding a suitable program planner is very challenging (Sork, 2010), which means, therefore, that service educational experience is limited as stakeholders' interests are not well presented. The lack of technically oriented, practical, and reflective programs diminishes social-political relations and the way planners and audiences make decisions in their learning contexts. The solution to these dilemmas is to examine critically the implications of encouraging substantive democratic planning and to answer questions such as "Under what circumstance is it important to ensure substantively democratic planning?" (Sork, 2010, p. 83). Similarly, it is necessary to evaluate the consequences of engaging and disengaging a democratic planning practice. Another hurdle is the difficulty

of finding a suitable program planner. Finally, there are no clear tactics that can be employed when dealing with power relations, interest, and ethical commitment (Sork, 2010). The planners should, at a minimum, come up with a criterion for screening the planners for a program and ensure there is equitability in power distributions.

Yang's Model of Influence Tactics

Several questionnaires have been developed to measure power and influence behaviors in organizations. These instruments include the Profile of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS) by Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980), the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBO) by Yukl, Lepsinger, and Lucia (1992), and the Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS) by Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998). For this paper, POINTS will be discussed in the following section.

Yang (1996) operationalized and incorporated the important parts of Cervero and Wilson's (1994a) theoretical framework in developing a reliable and valid instrument for measuring the power and influence tactics of adult educators. His framework has connected program planning behaviors and political contexts. The resulting instrument was the Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS), which includes seven power and influence tactics to reflect various planning behaviors. These tactics are reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, exchanging, bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting. Seven of these tactics were developed to represent distinctive underlying dimensions of planning behavior. POINTS is a useful tool for the experimental study of power and influence within adult educational program planning.

Power has been seen as a potential influence and can be achieved through a variety of influence tactics (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1992; Cervero & Wilson,

1994a). Yang (1996) and Yang et al. (1998) highlighted that Raven and French's approach failed to explain the relationship between agent and structure although it extended the concept of power to a broad social context. Yang's argument is based on the idea that social structure is both the medium and the effect of human action. But he ignores the fact that structure is transformed by human action. Therefore, the concept of social power should be studied from at least three perspectives: power bases, the nature of the relationship among planners and other stakeholders, and the influence of process or communication tactics. According to Yang et al. (1998), the new notion of power can be viewed as "the capacities of intended social interaction in which one subset of people effectively influences others and resolves the social dispute and conflict, given constrained resources and social relationships" (p. 41). Their framework contains two mechanisms of organizational process. The first mechanism is context which include individual and contextual dimensions and the second mechanism is the set of different influence tactics utilized by the different agents in various contexts.

Yang et al. (1998) added a third underlying dimension representing the assertiveness of planning action, labeling the elements proactive and reactive. This dimension reflects the planners' cognitive planning (understanding about program objectives and generating solutions). In other words, the planners' influence is viewed as relatively proactive, where the planning goals are more specific, and solutions are comprehensive. Their influencing actions may be viewed as reactive where both goal and solution occur while moving through the planning process (Yang et al., 1998).

Power and Influence Tactics

The second part of the framework consists of seven influence tactics that are used in different situations. Because “power and influence tactics are constructs which reflect certain behavioral patterns in organizational political processes” (Yang et al., 1998, p. 230), seven planning behaviors or influence tactics can be identified based on the three dimensions between planners and organizational contexts. These tactics are: Reasoning, Consulting, Appealing, Networking, Exchanging/Bargaining, Pressuring, and Counteracting. Also, the agent was defined as a program planner and the target as any person who has interacted with the planner during the planning process.

To develop their instrument, the researchers conducted a two-stage study. The first stage was a pilot study with 102 adult educators. The results of this first stage suggested that a reliable scale could be developed to measure eight tactics: reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, exchanging, bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting. The second stage was a validation study that was conducted on the scale with a total of 226 adult educators and trainers. Ultimately, seven power and influence tactics out of eight were identified and operationally defined during the questionnaire development process and validation of the Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS). The authors found that *exchanging* as an influence tactic should not be included in the final instrument because it was found to be parallel to *bargaining*. Yang’s POINTS instrument was not built to measure the theoretical concept of “how proactive or reactive the planner was in a given situation” (Hendricks, 2001, p. 222). His study has contributed to an understanding of planners’ behaviors and patterns in response to power and how

planners exercise their power in program planning practice, making it and the POINTS instrument useful for the proposed study.

Relevant Studies to Program Planning Theory

Yang's model built on Cervero and Wilson's theory (1994) and has been defined and utilized within several significant scholarly works. Hendricks' (2001) multivariate study incorporated Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b) framework and the work of Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998) to examine the relationships between contextual factors and influencing tactics in program planning. Participants were students and faculty members from multiple adult education graduate programs in North America. The results indicated that in conflicted planning situations, *counteracting* was favored as an influencing tactic over *reasoning* and *consulting*. In consensual planning situations, *reasoning* and *consulting* were favored, and *counteracting* was deemed ineffective.

Mosley's (2005) qualitative study made use of Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b) framework to explore the sociopolitical issues individuals face in medical education when engaged in program planning designed to address racial and ethnic disparities. The results showed that social, political, economic, and personal issues affected the planning process. Consistent patterns were noted in issues related to organizational culture, funding, intersections of racism and sexism, and line authority. Relationship development was consistently identified as the most important strategy for sustaining the planner and changing the planner's power base. The findings pointed to three primary conclusions. First, program planning is affected by the planner's positionality and appointment level. Second, program planning is most effective when

evidence-based, outcome oriented, and embedded as part of the institutional mission.

Third, most program planning negotiations center around power relationships.

Meng's study (2008) used Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b) framework to determine which power bases predict the planners' use of different influence tactics. The study also examined the program planners' use of influence tactics, the relation of influence tactics and personal factors, power bases, and program planners' perception of the relative importance of power bases and the influence of superiors. The study incorporated the seven influence tactics Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998) identified: reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, exchanging, bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting.

This study indicated that consulting, reasoning, and appealing were the most frequently used influence tactics. The leading power bases were expert power, interpersonal-linkage power, and communication-skill power. Expert and legitimate power had the most significance when it came to influencing superiors. Information-control, referent, and communication-skill power were most predictive of pressuring tactics by planners. Information-control and legitimate power were significant predictors of the counteracting tactic. Information-control and communication-skill power were the best predictors of the bargaining tactic. Expert power was the only notable predictor of bargaining, and uncertainty and ambiguity-coping power was the only significant predictor of reasoning tactics. Informational-control and uncertainty and ambiguity-coping power predicted the use of appeal tactics, while referent and communication-skill power were found to be predictive of networking tactics.

Yang (2011) conducted a qualitative study to explore the negotiation strategies that adult educators used to plan educational programs for adults in the context of asymmetrical political relationships using Cervero and Wilson's framework and Yang's model of influence tactics. The sample of the population was 12 participants, ten women and two men ranging in age from the 30s to the 60s, from nine different organizations distributed over five different geographic locations in Georgia, including Athens, Atlanta, Covington, Gwinnett, and Kennesaw. The data analysis revealed two findings. First, the major themes influencing program planners were organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. Therefore, the participants felt that they did not have enough power at the planning table. Second, six strategies were identified under two main themes—exercising power and ceding power—when an asymmetrical political relationship occurred in the planning process. *Building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow* are the strategies for exercising power. The strategies for ceding power are *going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table*.

The findings pointed to five primary conclusions. First, asymmetrical political relationships result from a set of complex interacting factors: organizational hierarchy, cultural norms, and individual credibility. Second, the major conflicts in the planning process result from differences between the organizations' adult education ideology. Third, relationships play a key role in negotiation. Fourth, strategic decisions about exercising or ceding power are central to negotiation in asymmetrical political situations. Finally, win-win theory is the most strategic stance when negotiating in asymmetrical

political situations. Table 2.1 summarizes the major themes of the seven selected theoretical works.

Table 2.1
The Major Themes of Selected Theoretical Studies

Theoretical Work	Themes
Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • POINTS instrument • Negotiating tactics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reasoning, Consulting, Appealing, Networking, Exchanging, Bargaining, Pressuring, Counteracting
Hendricks (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflicted planning situations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Counteracting • Consensual planning situations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reasoning, Consulting, Counteracting ineffective
Mosley (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Substantive negotiation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Resource utilization, Evidence based program planning, Marketing the program • Meta-negotiation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Functional line authority, Relationship development, Being a team player</i> • Intra-personal negotiations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Personal commitment, Time management, Support systems
Chan Siew Meng (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most frequent influence tactics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Consulting, Reasoning, Appealing • Leading power bases <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Communication-skill power, <i>Interpersonal-linkage power</i>, Expert power
Yang (2011) Negotiation strategies in the context of asymmetrical political relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major themes influencing the program planners: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Organizational hierarchy, Cultural norms, Individual credibility • Six strategies were identified under two main themes of power: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Exercising power: building relationships, establishing credibility, and facilitating information flow ○ <i>Ceding power: going along with a questionable decision, observing to learn, and leaving the table.</i>

Discussion of Program Planning Literature

Nevertheless, the greatest challenge to adult education planning is the gap between theory and practice which is particularly related to the dominance of conventional theories in adult planning models. It is important for planning theories to explain, describe, and enable action for adult planning programs. Cervero and Wilson's theory contributes to adult education planning by identifying the context and contributing positively to the theory-practice gap (Cervero & Wilson, 2006). Therefore, it is important for stakeholders in adult education planning to go beyond the surface level in discussions of multiple consensual overarching interests. Such discussions are crucial for uncovering potential conflicting issues that occur early in the planning process. Moreover, studies such as Yang (1996) and Yang et al. (1998) have contributed to an expanded understanding of Cervero and Wilson's model, and they help build an awareness of planners' behaviors and patterns in response to power and how planners exercise their power in program planning practice.

Also, the use and effectiveness of influence tactics at the planning table has not been examined fully especially in Eastern countries. It is important to note for this study the impact of the context in which individuals have been raised and are now reacting. The framework by Yang (1996) explains how a planner (an agent) influences another person (a target) during the program-planning process. Such a framework is excellent for dealing with individual action, but not with collective action seen through a feminist lens. Consequently, the model for this study assumes a framework where both individual and collective influence actions should be considered based on transnational feminist perspectives (Mohanty, 1991) which represent a paradigm that can be used to explain the

continued existence of both gender and patriarchal norms in Middle Eastern countries, including Saudi Arabia. In this context, a model is a particular way of viewing the world. For instance, feminists argue that women face problems in society that cannot be ignored, including diminished decision-making power in the planning process and limited access to men-dominated professions and upper-level positions, and that, therefore, gender and influence tactics should be an important focus in program-planning practice.

Many feminist scholars (Moghdam, 1999; Scott & Schmitt-Boshnick, 1996) have claimed that the struggle for equal rights requires people to find alternative means of collaborating through involvement in a collective action. Smith et al. (2013) identified a significant gender determinant and illustrated the way gender groups use power. Taking gender-role theory as their basis, the researchers assessed the extent of the effect of the influencer's gender on the use and efficiency of individual and collective influence behaviors.

Feminists' Perspectives on the Middle Eastern Women

Feminism is an ideological approach to viewing women's rights in the economic, political, cultural, and individual realms compared to the function and opportunities for men (Brown, 1992; Gural, 2009; Herr, 2014; Mohanty, 1991, 2003). Such an approach calls for education and employment for women on the same basis as for men applicants. Feminist theories are aimed at exploring the roles of women in various fields of human society, including different activities, such as interests and chores as well as the experience of women in philosophy, education, literature, economy, and other disciplines and areas of study. As a rule, feminist theories emphasize such topics as oppression, discrimination, patriarchy, gender inequality, and aesthetics.

Scholars of the West and the Middle East have recently focused on an examination of feminist studies, including transnational and other theories of feminism, since the role of Middle Eastern women has shifted globally, making it important to explore academic discourses to reshape academic feminist understanding of the women's movement in the Middle East. For instance, the study by Porter (2007) expresses interest in shifting from national to transnational women's movements and exploring the national feminist studies in more depth, showing how they influence each other globally and within the borders of one state or culture. Therefore, the political economy becomes one of the key aspects of exploration for academic feminists, implying that development of feminist theories refers to transnational and global culture and the roles of women in a wide range of topics. In this respect, academic feminists think that they acquired necessary instruments to reframe the modern society to fit the needs of women based on their feminist theories regarding cultural sacrifice and the role of women.

This section of research provides a consistent analysis of the relation between academic feminists' discourses and the need for a shift in their ideas concerning the role of transnational feminism. In other words, a shift is expected in the theoretical approaches of scholars towards women and their roles in a particular environment, such as the Middle Eastern society, especially women as individuals and as parts of the cultural and professional groups.

Definitions: Globalization, Internationalization & Transnationalization

There has been significant ambiguity and confusion about the use of correct terms to explain the emergence of feminist entities worldwide. Researchers have tended to devise individual terms for *transnational*, *international*, and *global* feminism, though

many of them are inconsistent with the use of these concepts in their works (Grewal & Kaplan, 1994; Herr, 2014; Mohanty, 1991; Porter, 2007). All three terms denote the convergence of feminist non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to coordinate their campaigns and collisions across borders (Porter, 2007). Porter (2007) argued that historically, the word *international* was the initial descriptor referring to an earlier phase of entities at the time when national boundaries were less open for penetration. The change to *transnational* portrays a turn towards the acknowledgment of both the enduring significance and sovereignty of countries and their transcendence by feminist movements as they work beyond and across the borders.

Transnational Feminism is considered as a reply to *global* and *international* feminisms that have tended to view the world from a Eurocentric, colonialist perspective (Fay, 2014; Grewal & Kaplan, 1994; Herr, 2014). Transnational feminist theorists focus on interrelationships between and among factors situated in different contexts across the globe. Global feminism tries to conform the whole world into one feminist template, or it studies discrete areas of the globe, whereas transnational feminism articulates issues as they occur through multiple related contexts, often with different meanings in different places. In addition to focusing on relationships and movements, transnational feminists integrate the critical views of Third World, postcolonial, and Islamic feminists into an optimistic vision of transnational feminist solidarity.

According to Grewal and Kaplan (1994), one transnational feminist critique of *global feminism* asks how to connect "diverse feminisms without requiring either equivalence or a master theory" (p. 19). Grewal and Kaplan (1994) asked for Western feminists to examine academic scholarship and daily life so that they are aware that

privilege in a world system means someone else's exploitation or oppression; consequently, feminists will have different agendas, or paths to particular issues, based on their perspectives.

The Transnational Feminist Perspectives on Middle Eastern Women

Colonial modernity and postcolonial staging of such concepts as gender, sexuality, race, class, and culture have become new topics for the feminist scholars who entered a discursive world beside the opposition of oppressive and non-oppressive culture for women in the Middle East (Conway, 2008; Herr, 2014; Mohanty, 1991). Meanwhile, women in their authentic environments have become parts of the documented research. On the one hand, feminism can be viewed from the perspective of women scholars that shape their professional environments and their statuses, as well as their gender identities, to meet their needs in a changing world of emerging opportunities for gender equality and feminism in a variety of expressions. On the other hand, culture and ethnicity have a great impact on the statuses and roles assigned to Middle Eastern women, especially concerning the shift of modern society. According to Porter (2007), transnational feminism uses the complexity of academic discourses to unify certain commonalities for further research.

The status of women in society has shifted slowly within the areas of major concern. As a result, Middle Eastern women have become the topic of feminist scholarship as they started taking part in the global, regional, and local shifts in their roles and statuses (Alsharmani, 2014; Baralas, 2013; Bolak, 1996; Fay, 2008). Starting in the last century, there has been a major shift in the debates between scholars in the Middle East, providing women with some attention from the perspective of international and

local roles assigned to trace the tendencies, changes, and influence of the newly acquired roles on the way women function in society with a novel status. The clash of the greatly different Eastern and Western cultures has caused a major problem in the exploration of the roles of women and has made the exploration of women and feminist scholarship a changing rather than a constant process. In this case, it is natural to assume that women's roles may change under the influence of society, external forces, and scholars.

Based on the available literature, there are two different seminal perspectives on how transnational academic feminists view Middle Eastern women, especially concerning their positions in feminism as a collective concept. The research for this paper has led this researcher to shape a two-dimensional approach to these theories as applied to Middle Eastern women. These two dimensions are the postcolonial perspective and the religious perspective (or Islamic perspective). This division facilitates the establishment and further development of theoretical notions for scrutinizing the position of Middle Eastern women, as they are most closely aligned with the descriptions provided (See Table 2.2).

Postcolonial Theoretical Framework

In the early twentieth century, colonial feminism was described as western, and it received critical acclaim from international feminists, including Middle East theorists (Baralás, 2013; Bolak, 1996; Fay, 2008; Gurl, 2009; Herr, 2013; Liela, 1982; Mohanty, 1991; Kandiyoti, 1996, Wber, 2001). Western feminist thought deprived the Middle East women of their voice and gave the privileged woman's voice more credibility. Such an ideological approach was called "Orientalism" in the words of Edward Said(1978),

Table 2.2
Two Original Feminist Perspectives on the Middle Eastern Women

Transnational Theoretical Framework	Religious Theoretical Framework
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secularism • Solidarity • Intersectionality • Communal identity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Islamic Feminism. • Intersectional approach to women's needs, gender, and development. • Development of feminist identities.

such an ideological approach was called “Orientalism” in the words of Edward Said(1978), and it represented the Western domination over the East. Feminism challenged the pivotal pillars of Orientalism, and it resulted in the recognition that men authority caused women’s oppression around the world.

But social science emerged with greater power in the 1950s and 1960s, connecting shifting roles of women in the Middle East with the Marxist theory that did not view any social group as excluded from the complexity of social processes (Kandiyoti, 1996). This connection meant that women gained a broader range of opportunities and assigned roles based on the social homogeneity that eventually transferred into a patriarchal homogeneity as opposed to social heterogeneity. According to the findings by Kandiyoti (1996), the concept of *otherness* has entered social science discourse, shaping the way women are viewed by society and scholars.

Feminism can occur as a concept with distinctive features that characterize the position and perception of women in a particular setting, such as society, politics, family status, and role. According to Herr (2014), transnational and third-world feminism are two significant branches of feminism. Both emerged following the opposition to mainstream second-wave feminism, which promoted the idea that all women experienced

the same level of oppression due to their gender or sex orientation. However, Herr (2014) noted that transnational and third-world feminism have distinct features. Third-world feminism became more popular after the criticism of white feminism by Chandra Mohanty, and transnational feminism became more influential due to the progress in fighting for gender justice.

One of the major scholars who played a crucial role in enunciating the apprehensions about Western feminism was Chandra Mohanty (1991, 2003). Mohanty found that Western feminist theories incorporated an ethnocentric perspective, showing Third-World women as one-dimensional and homogenous individuals. “The average Third World woman leads an essentially truncated life based on her feminine gender...” (Mohanty, 2003, p. 22). This ethnocentric perspective provides an overly simplistic understanding of what Western feminists can do to assist women in developing their national institutions. Therefore, transnational feminism appeared because of the two different views of Western and Third-World feminism. Mohanty (1991, 2003) described the idea of transnational feminism by claiming that physical struggles for survival in perspective were seen as greater grounds for solidarity compared to a shared identity. Therefore, transnational feminism was the result of feminists’ collaboration in solidarity, which also implies that transnational feminism was critical in eradicating the challenge of assuming oppression, specifically among women in the Third World. The critique and opposition to global capitalism, and the unraveling of the naturalization of its racist views and masculinity led to the development of a transnational feminist practice (Mohanty, 2003). According to Mohanty (2003), global capitalism destroyed some possibilities but provided new ones. Drawn by the ideas of Mies (1982), Mohanty (1991, 2003) suggests

the need for a material evaluation connected to everyday life, and local gendered ideologies and contexts to the wider transnational economic and political ideas of capitalism. Mohanty (1991) was interested in witnessing how and why *differences* were adopted over *commonality*.

One of the feminist perspectives denies any expression of national identity, relying on a more generalized vision of feminism and the roles of women regardless of their national belonging. According to Alarcon, Kaplan, and Mollem (1998), woman as a trope reflects the retrospective of nation-building activity in modernity (as cited in Herr, 2014). The ambiguity of national versus global binary becomes obvious and rather unnecessary for examination of feminist approaches, making the theory by Herr (2014) more appropriate for employing it with the modern feminist studies, rejecting any binary in the context of women's roles due to its overall complexity. At this point, Herr (2014) denies the monolithic nature of binary national-global relations. It is important to acknowledge that all local and national cultures are hybrids capable of changing and shifting their values and priorities to a more or less liberal, democratic, or oppressive state. Middle Eastern countries are not a monolith, but a complexity of smaller cultures with a broad communal context, whose citizens differ in terms of their religion, race, ethnicity, gender, and class that shape their identity and distinguish themselves from other nations, regional and cultural groups. In this respect, some feminist groups emphasize the importance of protecting human rights. The majority of transnational feminists take human rights as it was established and developed in Western cultures or taught by Western feminists, influencing an imperialistic perception.

Subsequently, feminists with a western orientation perceived religion as an oppressive concept with modernity being a secular concept (Hasan, 2012). On the one hand, intersectionality might come as a useful framework for viewing the realities of religious women. On the other hand, intersectionality constitutes a major contribution to feminist theory. Crenshaw (1991) introduced the concept of the intersectionality of identities for women, insisting that gender requires understanding from the perspective of diverse concepts, including race, class, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Even though this simply describes the complexity of women's roles and functions, intersectionality became an important aspect of feminist studies, including the Middle Eastern feminist scholarship.

In the context of feminist studies and the most effective feminist models, Ast and Spielhaus (2012) support the intersectional approach, which defines Middle Eastern women as those at risk of discrimination regardless of their religion due to their tendency to wear headscarves. In this respect, multiple identities of women are not limited to their gender, religion, and social functions, but spreads to cross-sectional aspects, including class, status, and many other concepts. As such, the study by Salem (2013) views an intersectional approach to Muslim and Middle Eastern women in the context of religiosity, which basically enables those women to gain religious experience as a part of their own identities. Eventually, Macey and Carling (2010) promote a concept of "communal identity" in an attempt to show that religion is the major reason for discrimination in less developed countries, oppressing women in their roles and opportunities, and limiting their functions in society. In the context of particular cultural groups, they incorporate an intersectionality of race and ethnicity, as well as religion.

A serious contribution to this distinction was made by Suzy D'Enbeau, Villamil, & Helens-Hart (2015), and other advocates for rational, but liberalistic, interpretation of women's rights and opportunities in the patriarchal world. Through the transnational feminists' analysis, D'Enbeau et al. (2015) observed the emergence of three broad tensions: equality-difference, individual-collective, and modernity-tradition. These tensions reveal how a shift in dominant ideologies can pierce through academic and cultural discourses for those women who are caught between the Middle Eastern women. The shift took place because of the Middle East women participants situation, which emphasized their cultural pride and academic success.

Religion and Feminist Theoretical Frameworks

Middle Eastern women appear to be a topic of a particular type of study focusing on their limited opportunities, which are also restrained at an economic and social level. Therefore, academic feminists have created a new area of scholarship based on different paradigms to view Middle Eastern women. These paradigms are based on self-perception because of many other experiences spreading to community, family, cultural group, and national identity. One of these perspectives is based on an Islamic paradigm.

Islamic Feminism

Over the last thirty-five years, the perception of women in the Middle Eastern tradition had changed and focused on gender justice and procedural reforms. The changes apply to the roles of women and their perception in society, broadening the limited patriarchal tradition to include women in their newly acquired statuses and seeking knowledge within the Islamic paradigm of gender inequality and justice (Al-Sharmani, 2014), This paradigm is based on Sunnah, the speech of the prophet Mohammed, which

explains the overall concept and values of the Islamic Holy Book of Quran. Feminist scholars from various disciplines and countries have contributed to the construction of studies on the changing roles and status of women under the Sunnah practices. These efforts have been brought new perspectives to the Islamic interpretive tradition, and empowered advocates in the different nations working towards gender equality and justice. This new scholarship has been deemed Islamic feminism, which can be classified according to two categories: transnational and national (Moghadam, 2002). Notable Middle Eastern feminist scholars have produced their theories or explanations of the existing theories from their perspective concerning their academic experience and personal perception of women and their roles in the context of feminist studies.

Omaima Abou-Bakr is among the first who have theorized Islamic feminism. Abou-Bakr, a professor at Cairo University, is a groundbreaking commissioner who deconstructs the contemporary Islamic interpretations of gender rights and roles (Al-Sharman, 2014). Abou-Bakr carried out a research and wrote about the roles played by Muslim women in the creation of modern religious science as well as women's religious studies of both Christianity and Islam. Abou-Bakr indicated that the sticky label Islamic feminism could be restricting when used by Western scholars to name gender activism of women in the Muslim world (Al-Sharman, 2014). In such situations, the label can become concealing. Abou-Bakr argues that the term "Islam" is a context, within which knowledge is to be situated (Al-Sharmani, 2014). Abou-Bakr speculates that her promotion of a feminist project is based upon the Qur'an goals of justice, and specifies the historical and cultural contexts of Muslim women participating in such projects. This

woman also underscores the benefits of de-homogenizing feminism as non-western or western intellectual customs.

Asma Barlas, a Pakistani-American researcher, has produced insightful scholarship seeking to unravel the Quran-expressed discomfort with the term “Islamic feminism” (Al- Sharmani, 2014). Barlas does not agree with feminism as an intellectual tradition that is inevitably entwined with Western colonization history (Al- Sharmani, 2014). On the contrary, Barlas views her project of creating new, gender-sensitive knowledge not as a feminist but as accomplishing her duty to God as a believer (Al-Sharamani, 2014). When it comes to executing ideas about feminism in the actual world, Grewal and Kaplan (2001) construct the divergence between transnational and third world feminism. They pay attention to the condition of postmodernity, under which transnational distributed homogeneous feminists have started to “reveal themselves in gender relations” (Herr, 2014, p.11). As a result, transnational feminism needs to articulate the relationship between the homogeneous people.

Ziba Mir-Hosseini is one of the pioneering scholars who have written critical studies on Islamic jurisprudence to highlight its problematic establishment of marriage and marital duties and rights. On the other hand, Moghissi, Moghadam, and Tohidi (1996) have critically commented on Islamic feminism for being a heterogeneous body of knowledge and for having weak methodological links to religious science. They also view Islamic feminism as politically insignificant and counterproductive to the Muslim women. Moghadam (2001) claims that the struggle for gender rights cannot be won through theological arguments but it may succeed through focusing on socioeconomic and political realities. These are some critical arguments on Islamic feminism.

Some scholars see Islamic feminism as a great epistemic and political value, not for Muslim women only, but also for the reform of the religious tradition (Al-Sharamani, 2014). Muslim feminists have created a global movement *Musawah*, which means equality in Arabic, and they use a four-pronged approach by linking scholarship with activism to produce knowledge that brings a new perspective on the Islamic tradition and empower advocates to work towards gender equality and justice.

Muslim women espouse transnational Islamic theory with the aim of tracing patriarchal religious knowledge that opposes gender inequality (Al-Sharamani, 2014). For instance, in Egypt, feminism is important both transnationally and nationally. There are strong ties between Egyptian scholars and organizations which produce the kind of knowledge that helps them realize their rights as women. On the other hand, global movements seek to build new feminist Muslim knowledge with the aim of bringing change and social transformation on different levels (Tolaymat, 2011). One of the organizations in Egypt is the Egyptian research organization Women and Memory Forum, which closely collaborates with *Musawah* on the production of this knowledge through a wide range of activities. Egyptian scholars producing the knowledge can be termed as Islamic feminism crisscross the transnational and local beliefs. This phenomenon has made Egypt the most important country in the Middle East and the home to the oldest Arab feminist movement society. One of the Egyptian feminists an anthropologist Fadwa El Guidy, who labels *Sha'rawi's feminism* as a Western influence. He distinguishes it from the feminist views of Malak Hifni Nasif (1900-1918), who established the Egyptian feminist movement. Muslim women can derive empowerment from enlightened religious knowledge concerning an individual tradition as well as

historical studies that shed light on the role of women in the production of Islamic religious and scientific works (Alsharmani, 2014).

Recently, Islamic feminists restructured their perspectives to bridge and connect secular and religious perspectives (Barlas, 2013; Seedat, 2013). They indicate that Islamic feminist discourse focuses on bridging gaps and identifying common goals and concerns, which emphasize social justice and gender equality. The main priority of Islamic feminism is the reference to the basic text of the Qur'an. This notion is regarded as a powerful tool towards the improvement of society and state. Islamic feminism is a great way for Muslim women to understand religion, patriarchal customs, societal opportunity, gender equality, and their own potential (Badran, 2009).

Other Non-Dominant Perspectives on Middle Eastern Women

Other frameworks on feminist scholarship focus on women from developing societies' perspectives. Singh (2007) insists that the present understanding of women's needs in developing countries refers to the gender and development paradigm, which is development-focused and centered on Western feminism ideals. According to Singh (2007), the key goal of Western feminism is gaining equality between men and women, which is not the reality in developing countries since women depend on their husbands and family for survival and, primarily, financial support. Singh (2007) advocates for the use of women identities as an alternative framework that is centered on individual women's self-perception of their environment and their agency within their individual contexts. In this respect, it is important not to broaden some aspects to include women and their needs, but to acknowledge that women may have multiple identities that may

enable them to take part in numerous social and other activities, not restraining their roles to gender and religious studies.

According to Brodsky et al. (2012), the feminist identity development model occurs with the development of critical consciousness as its core component, relying greatly on education and reasoning. At this point, it is a steady process of acquiring and shifting values and priorities concerning the newly acquiring awareness of gender oppression and the gained motivation to struggle against recognized oppressive patterns with the available tools. In this respect, education (formal or informal) gains a more important role in empowering individuals to acquire anew consciousness and critical thinking regarding gender equality and the established norms and statuses of the Middle Eastern women and other social groups.

Many models of feminist identity development are based on Cross's (1971) five-stage model of Black Identity Development, which describes the transition from a passive acceptance of a phenomenon to the rise of a critical consciousness with an ultimate shift in society. One of the effective feminist models is Downing and Roush's (1985) Feminist Identity Development Model. It consists of five stages, starting with passive acceptance, proceeding to revelation, then shifting to embeddedness or emanation, then further synthesis, and eventually ending with active commitment (Brodsky et al., 2012).

Hermeneutical Approaches

Key scholars in this new area, who conduct hermeneutical studies of the Islamic interpretive tradition, employ a range of methods (Barlas, 2002). These methods include: a) exegetical constructs that condone patriarchal interpretations through genealogical readings of the exegetical tradition, and b) identification of and reflection on the

contradictions in interpretations of individual exegetes and jurists with the aim of locating their interpretations in the context of their existing environment, rather than discrediting them. These aspects place the hidden voices and contributions of women in the interpretive tradition (Barlas, 2002). There are two different hermeneutical approaches in respect to each perspective. The Western feminists holds the idea of secularization of the Qur'an as the precondition for having any rights, such as Nasr Abu Zayd and Raja Rhouni, whereas Islamic feminists make the case for rights and equality from within a Qur'an framework, such as those developed by Barlas (2013) and Duderija (2015).

The first approach is based on the idea that only secularists have the right to discuss the issue of rights, though there is no particular reason why Muslim women cannot do the same based on their own Muslim perspectives. The need to secularize the Qur'an is determined by the aim of putting one's faith in right and democracy. The second approach deals with the assumption that sex or gender are not a distinctive feature of people in terms of the equality of their rights (Barlas, 2013). In this respect, the Qur'an indicates that men and women were created in the same self, and, therefore, are equally capable of having moral choice and personality, and possess a mutual duty "to enjoin the right and forbid the wrong" (Barlas, 2013, p. 421). Also, it concerns ethical interpretive principles (e.g., *tafsir* and *fukh*) and appears as a part of the Qur'anic worldview (Al-Sharmani, 2014).

Both approaches to Middle Eastern women's rights are extremely different and should be thoroughly analyzed on the issue of their appropriateness in today's Middle Eastern environment because both of them bear their ideas. The first approach is contradictory in its nature due to the statement that only secularists have the right to

discuss the issue of women's rights. Secular democracy will provide no leeway to Middle Eastern countries (Barlas, 2013) if it does not consider diversity and political and religious autonomy, despite the amount of bridges built across divides. This argument may entail destructive consequences for Islam due to the choice of Muslims to destroy its fundamental principles and dogmas.

The second approach can be explained by numerous facts to support the idea that gender is not a decisive factor in providing women with their rights. The establishment of bridges across divides requires mutuality and possibility between both sides, the absence of which will leave the bridges uncrossed. To support this approach, Duderija (2015) provided six mechanisms relating to Islamic scriptural hermeneutics:

- 1) interpreter-centered hermeneutics;
- 2) comprehensive contextualization of textual sources;
- 3) a thematic-holistic approach to textual sources on the basis of an inductive-corroboration approach to textual evidence;
- 4) a non-Salafi-based worldview;
- 5) teleological hermeneutics (ethical-religious values and purpose-based interpretation); and
- 6) non-Hadith-dependent Sunnah hermeneutics.

Duderija (2015) highlighted significantly beneficial aspects for the understanding of the mechanisms relating to Islamic scriptural hermeneutics and their effectiveness in Islamic feminism, particularly in the context of the question of subjectivity versus objectivity in interpretation, because it allows for recognizing the inevitable

encroachment of subjectivity in interpretation. Scrupulously identifying the major concepts and principles of each mechanism, Duderija (2015) contributes to a broader acceptance and feasibility of the Islamic feminist concept.

The Challenges of Feminist Approaches in Middle Eastern Countries

From the discussion above, the perspectives of Third-world, postcolonial and Islamic Feminists have been challenged to reconsider and expand their viewpoints about who they symbolize and what they advocate (Alwazni, 2015; Barlas, 2013; D'Enbeau, 2015; Zimmerman, 2014). Although there is no agreement on a single framework used by feminists to view Middle Eastern women, all models discussed above should focus on cultural, religious, and political knowledge, which should be connected with an understanding and respect for previous movements of Middle Eastern women to enable the realization of intersectional identities and interrelated tensions. These tensions can be recognized in two conceptions: The veiling or the practice of wearing a headscarf paired with clothing that covers the arms and legs (Alwazni, 2015) and Islamophobia defined as a prejudice against or panic of Islam or Muslims (Barlas, 2014).

The Veil or Hijab. Outstandingly, transnational postcolonial feminists have had a distinctive interpretation of the dilemma of wearing a veil or Hijab, perceiving it as a modernity threat, although the word's meaning is diverse to different women (Scott, 2007). Women wearing the hijab in France represent a more serious threat to French law than Muslim men do. These threats mentioned by Bowen (2007) are the following: 1) communalism (ethnic community's reduction); 2) Islamism; and 3) sexism. By oppressing the "veil" issue, French feminists have tied both communalism and Islamism with Muslim women's oppression across the globe (as cited in Zimmerman, 2014, p.

146). Unlike French feminists, Western advocates, such as Martha Nussbaum (2012) strongly supported the right to wear the veil among the Muslim women, since these European bans embrace the policy of the fear and avoidance of freedom of cultural conscience.

Some studies suggest a topic for further examination of the issue, regarding the failure of the author to provide a representative sample size to make any meaningful conclusions based on available findings. For instance, Zimmerman (2014) completed a transnational phenomenological feminist study, focusing on 16 American and French Arab Muslim female students. Importantly, the hijab was found to be rather a personal choice, with most participants considering it is wrong to force women to wear the hijab, while six respondents opposed taking off the hijab. Al Wazani (2015) conducted another study, in which 12 Muslim women wearing hijab were interviewed in the light of the value of empowered feminist in the United States. The researcher pointed out several significant findings (Al Wazani, 2015). First, the interviewees did not consider the practice of wearing a veil or Hijab as “a symbol of the oppression,” rather perceiving it as “empowering,” which is part of their self-empowerment and self-determination (Alwazani, 2015). Another important finding by Al Wazani (2015) is that Western feminists usually misinterpreted their empowerment even though those participants identified themselves as empowered Muslim Women. Moreover, those participants thought that their choices to wear hijab confronted Western feminists’ perspectives of *women’s empowerment* (Al Wazani, 2015). Finally, those Muslim women believed that the oppression of hijab and women considered two separate subjects (Al Wazani, 2015).

Islamophobia. The growing Western and Middle Eastern political conflicts and

the events of 9/11 have resulted in a shift in people's awareness. Increasing fearfulness of Islam and an interest in the situation of Middle Eastern women in the Western countries. have also influenced the way feminists receive scholarly literatures; hence, transnational, global and Islamic Feminists have discussed another issue which is Islamophobia (Gottschalk & Greenberg, 2008; Hasan, 2012). Islamophobia, as claimed by Gottschalk and Greenberg (2008), is another issue to be considered by feminists. The cover page of their book, "Making Muslims the Enemy" (2008), introduces a cartoon image of a Muslim woman in veil, representing a tie between Islamophobia and the woman's position in Islam. Islamophobia revolves around Islam's perceived suppression of women, as women's rights contribute to the representation of Islam as typically misogynistic (Hasan, 2012). Gendered Islamophobia can be used to illustrate Islam as a gender oppressive religion. A negative image over Islam is merely determined by colonial feminism legitimizing Western supremacy and oppression of women, who were considered unsuitable for independence (Hasan, 2012).

The Islamic position of women may involve privileged rights in education, employment, and marriage although it is compromised by the West's Islamophobia (Barlas, 2013; Hasan, 2012). Feminism confronts inequities and fights for independence of women, implying that Islamophobia is based on prejudices, which becomes a sort of racism. Being ideologically different, the association of feminism with Islamophobia is wrong and inappropriate for oppressed women around the world, especially people opposing patriarchal mechanisms of power. Therefore, it is vital today to confront Islamophobic trends in feminist discourses.

Implications of Feminist Literature For The Current Study

Women in the Middle East countries encounter double standards regarding feminist perspectives on their roles and functions. As a rule, academic feminists explore the roles and statuses of Middle Eastern women from their chosen perspective, limiting their studies to Western or non-Western feminism. Gender equality is one of the key aspects of the modern research by feminists because many Eastern countries are moving towards less patriarchal and more balanced construction and assignments of roles in society, including different fields of study, such as profession, education, and family (Gule, 2009). Transnational nongovernmental organizations collaborate with feminist organizations in their attempt to enable women to speak up and voice their concern and suggestions. In this respect, the transnational approach to academic feminism exists in the realm generated and supported by global activists. Therefore, people should learn more about possibilities and opportunities of developing this direction of research, because the Islamic world is not limited to a binary scrutinizing of feminist scholars with their findings and suggestions regarding the roles of women in the Middle East and the world. Since Islamism, democracy, and secularism are among the major concerns, they need to be addressed from the perspective of women and their influence on each other.

The Role of Gender and Interpersonal Communication

Men and women interact with each other on a daily basis, and gender differences between people impact communication styles and influence tactics, power and leadership positions, and roles in various settings (Copley, 2008; Merchant, 2012; Moran, 1992). Stereotypes, prejudices, and bias towards the position of women in modern society create additional obstacles for women seeking power and influence in the workplace and other

settings. While living in a patriarchal society, women experience constant gender inequality and discrimination, and they are unable to compete with men in different roles and positions. Modern-day women feel subjected to men in various spheres of their daily life and professional activity, and this kind of treatment and perspectives negatively affects people's communication and interaction.

Critical Issues in Gender Role Theory

According to the Gender Role Theory, men and women are assigned different gender roles and expectations in society forcing them to act differently in various social situations while interacting with different groups of people. Smith et al. (2013) stated that “communal characteristics (e.g., sympathy, gentleness, submissiveness) are more associated with women than men, whereas agentic characteristics (e.g., assertiveness, dominance, aggression) are assumed to be more aligned with men than with women” (p. 1159). Thus, men and women behave based on the expectations formed by society, as traditionally women are viewed as gentle and calm while men are usually more powerful, aggressive, and strict. Even though the world is changing regularly and affecting gender roles and social expectations, women are still considered to be communal, sociable, and interdependent, while men are agentic, being independent and masterful.

In fact, gender roles may differ greatly depending on the social structure, as, for example, men can be influential and assertive at work while being subjected to their wives in the family. Women can also be subordinated to men managers in the working setting but make important decisions and control everything in the family circle. Thus, people's gender does not matter greatly in certain social structures since it depends mostly on people's choice, values, and traditions. Some families are men-dominated

while others are controlled and managed by women. Women now feel more liberated struggling for greater equality with men in various fields. The feminist movements initiated worldwide inspire much confidence and security on the part of women gaining more rights and opportunities that affect their communication styles, influence tactics, and other issues. Men and women follow different styles of communication in society, as “women are, overall, more expressive, tentative, and polite in conversation, while men are more assertive, and power-hungry” (Merchant, 2012, p. 17).

People’s attitude towards others in society also differs greatly in both genders, as women care more about others and try to help people follow their emotions and feelings, while men are more independent and strive for achievements rather than moral aims. Merchant (2012) claimed that “men view conversations as a way to establish and maintain status and dominance in relationships, women see the purpose of conversation to create and foster an intimate bond with the other party by talking about topical problems and issues they are communally facing” (p. 17). Thus, communication may be organized differently by the representatives of both genders, as people follow different aims and personal issues.

Influence and power are also greatly dependent on gender, as traditionally men express more power and authority in society compared to women who historically have been subjected to men. Power and influence play a crucial role in managerial positions in a company or organization. Companies may not depend on the leadership style used by men and women because some may choose autocratic leadership while others choose participative or democratic leadership styles. Rajan & Krishnan (2002) stated that “authoritarian men use assertiveness, bargaining and friendliness strategies more

frequently than authoritarian women” (p. 205). Men are more likely to specify their status and position in the company, while women follow gender stereotypes and roles imposed on them by society. Even though representatives of both genders may perform their tasks and projects effectively and correctly, they may simply use different influence tactics to achieve their goals.

Rajan & Krishnan (2002) stated that “people tend to use different influence strategies depending on whether their goals are personal or organizational, and depending on the organizational climate” (p. 198). Following the constant changes and recent trends in the field of employment, the number of women occupying higher positions increased worldwide, and thus, gender stereotypes and roles are replaced by the unique influence tactics used by women who express friendliness and power at the same time. Women understand that they should not care about people but respect their personality and skills rather than underestimating subordinates, as people form the basis of any company’s success, growth, and profitability. The proper treatment of employees will contribute to the higher productivity and job satisfaction on their part contributing to the company’s success regularly.

Thus, gender and status affect people’s influence behaviors and tactics in various settings. Eagly (1983) stated that “if social change proceeds to the point that men and women become equally represented at all levels, those aspects of sex differences and status inequalities would disappear from people’s behavior, stereotypes and expectancies” (p. 980). People should be evaluated and characterized by their knowledge, skills, and attitudes rather than their gender differences, racial background, and other characteristics that create greater inequalities and discrimination in various

fields. If both men and women have equal opportunities in the workplace and various fields, there will be fewer conflicts and concerns on their part, as they can be equally promoted and get similar rewards and benefits. Gender differences are mostly based on expectations formed decades ago, and the world has changed greatly since that period.

Rajan & Krishnan (2002) stated that “position seems to be central to the authoritarian personality, and it would therefore determine largely the individual’s interactions with the world, including perhaps the way influence is exercised” (p. 199). Thus, even though gender differences may affect influence tactics and the use of power in the workplace, people’s position still matters and greatly predetermines people’s attitudes towards subordinates, strategies, and tactics used to perform their job. Gender differences affect not only communication styles but also leadership roles, influence, and power tactics used by men and women in various settings. Even though social expectations still matter and impact people’s choices and behaviors, people should follow their values and life principles rather than roles imposed on them by the community.

Relevant Studies in Gender and Power Dynamics

Five qualitative studies related to asymmetrical power relations in the field of adult higher education are addressed here. Those studies have been great sources for me as I have conducted my study. The knowledge from these studies not only helps me gain a better understanding of power dynamics encountered in program planning but also makes a significant contribution to defining my research and designing the questionnaire.

Johnson-Bailey & Cervero’s study (1998) was *Power Dynamics in Teaching and Learning Practices: An Examination of Two Adult Education Classrooms*. The purpose of this study was to define how the modes in which power relations exist in the wider

social context are played out in the teaching and learning dynamics of adult education classrooms. The study design was a qualitative comparative case study of two courses which were taught by the researchers at the University of Georgia. Data sources included students' evaluations, teachers' observations, interviews with students, interviews with both teachers, and conversations with similarly situated faculty members. The authors used four previously researched themes—mastery, voice, authority, and positionality—to organize the results. The results showed the many complex ways in which power relations played out across all these four themes and how these dynamics directly influenced the teaching and learning process. The positionality of the instructors and learners appeared as the main power relationship arranging classroom dynamics.

Kezar's framework (2011) was focused on the nature of power dynamics that faculty and staff encounter as they attempt to create change in higher education institutions. Kezar identified five distinctive types of power dynamics: oppression, silencing, controlling, inertia, and micro-aggressions which ran from the most overt to more subtle and covert forms. Staff experienced multiple forms of power dynamics that are extremely difficult to overcome; the faculty experienced less intense forms of power dynamics. The severe forms of oppression and silencing that staff experienced led to staff turnover and a lack of leadership for initiatives, and impacted the resiliency of individuals involved in change. Kezar also described ways that those leaders navigate power dynamics through networks, accountability structures, or flying under the radar.

The purpose of Gutierrez's (2005) qualitative study was to understand how Asian/Asian North American women negotiate race and gender in the patriarchal context of Christian theological education indirectly using Cervero and Wilson's (1994a, 1994b)

framework. The sample population was eight Asian/Asian North American women theological educators in theological institutions. The findings showed that participants experienced power dynamics characterized by four themes: mastery, voice, authority, and positionality. Three main conclusions were drawn. First, Asian and Asian North American women theological educators are invisible and silenced in the construction of knowledge in theological education. Second, the positionality of these women impacts the power dynamics in their classrooms and is negotiated with a variety of strategies. Third, racism and sexism affect educators in the institutional context of theological education.

Vidyasagar & Rea's study, "Saudi Women Doctors: Gender and Careers within Wahhabic Islam and a 'Westernized' Work Culture," was published in 2004. This study examined the experience of 28 Saudi women doctors working in Saudi Arabia and described the problems peculiar to Saudi society that they encountered: a constitution and legal system that sanctions men superiority and segregation of the sexes in all areas of life. The study also discussed how they had to deal with these problems and how the context affected their choice of specialty, their work alongside men colleagues, and their promotion prospects. Despite the constraints, the older women doctors had achieved professional success and satisfaction, and the younger doctors expect professional success as well.

Elyas & Picard (2013) conducted a study to examine the impact of 9/11 on K-12 and higher education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The authors took a historical approach to speak more broadly about higher education policy in Saudi Arabia and showed how the post-9/11 context of education in Saudi Arabia led to a new paradigm in

educational policy. Regarding the methodology for the study, the authors first defined neoliberalism, which is essentially a product that in the Saudi context can be “sold” as a way of enhancing individual human rights and developing the competitiveness of the people (p. 38), and then described its manifestations and impact on the Saudi Arabian educational context, particularly post-9/11. They also described the arguments against adopting a neoliberal approach and suggested a new neoliberalism that addresses the needs of a globalized Saudi higher educational community. Finally, this study led to three results: 1) a neoliberalism paradigm was adopted by education policy writers and university academics; 2) the university learners enthusiastically embraced neoliberalism and globalization; and 3) the local conditions make a complete transformation to neoliberalism inappropriate. Instead, a globalized form of neoliberalism is required to meet national and individual needs and to ensure the buy-in of local teachers/lecturers.

The following table (2.3) summarizes the major themes of the five selected theoretical works.

Table 2.3
The Major Themes of Selected Studies

Study	Themes
Johnson-Bailey & Cervero (1998) (Power dynamics in teaching and learning practices: an examination of two adult education classrooms)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Power dynamics</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Mastery, Voice, Authority, Positionality - <i>The results</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Many complex ways in which power relations based on race, class, gender, and disability played out across all four themes o How these dynamics directly influenced the teaching and learning process. o The positionality of the teachers and learners emerged as a key power relationship mediating classroom dynamics.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	Themes
Gutierrez (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Power dynamics</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Mastery, Voice, Authority, Positionality • <i>Resources of strategies to negotiate their power:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) Teaching philosophy, faith and theology; ii) Sense of accomplishment from teaching; iii) Acculturation/absorbing/adjustment; iv) Engaged feminist and critical pedagogy; v) Authenticating their authority as teachers, vi) Pronouncing; vii) Asserting their positionality; viii) alignment with and getting supports from communities and allies.
Kezar (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Power dynamics</i> (faculty-faculty or faculty-staff): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oppression, silencing, controlling, inertia, and micro-aggressions • <i>Ways to navigate power dynamics through:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Networks, accountability structures, or flying under the radar
Vidyasagar, G. & Rea, D.M. (2004). “Saudi women doctors: Gender and careers within Wahhabic Islam and a ‘westernized’ work culture”	<p>Demonstrating problems that 28 Saudi women doctors working in Saudi Arabia encountered, deal with problems peculiar to Saudi society:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A constitution and legal system that sanctions men superiority, - Segregation of the sexes in all areas of life. - Affect their choice of specialty, their work alongside men colleagues, and their promotion prospects. - A Wahhabi interpretation of Islam shapes modern lives but is increasingly questioned. - The older women doctors had achieved professional success and satisfaction—and the younger doctors expect professional success also.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	Themes
Elyas, T. & Picard, M. (2013). “Critiquing of higher education policy in Saudi Arabia: Towards a new neoliberalism.”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Education policy writers and university academics have adopted a neoliberalism paradigm. - The university learners have enthusiastically embraced neoliberalism and globalization. - The local conditions make a complete transformation to neoliberalism inappropriate - A globalized form of neoliberalism is required to meet national and individual needs and to ensure the buy-in by local teachers/lecturers.

Implication of the Feminist Literature Review For The Current Study

The idea of women’s education should be changed and improved since modern women’s needs are totally distinguished from the needs of previous generations. Evidently, social changes have to take place once women are more educated, more competent about their civil rights, and more proactive in their intentions. In higher educational institutions, female students and women faculty deal with a variety of barriers to study and work, including social protection, labor exclusion, restricted representation, and the incapacity to properly address their interests. The women and men who have opportunities for studying abroad are expected to return home with new concepts of life enhancement, ideas they want from their native society and government. They have to negotiate for a new organizational structure that doesn't reproduce the existing system (Johnson-Bailey, 2001). Rather, they should create an organizational structure supporting gender equality which requires far more sophisticated actions from the Saudi government and higher education system than simply investing in women’s education. They must engage women faculty in making any decision impacting their

well-being and ensuring their capacity to have benefits through a system of involvement in the decision-making process. Still, the outcomes depend on what the institutions want to get from women's education. Despite the good image and positive intent, women are not involved in defining proper education strategies for all women because men tend to make decisions because of power struggle concerns. However, Saudi universities can find paths to make women faculty more included. Saudi Universities can move beyond those traditional obstacles—whether physical or psychological or social—by recognizing the real purpose of these obstacles.

The literature review aims to discuss three approaches to program planning as well as Cervero and Wilson's theory of program planning (1994, 2006), laying out the theoretical issues that inform their ethical perspective. The second section of the literature review provides insight into feminist perspectives on Middle Eastern women. The third section explores the cultural role of gender in the process of negotiation, as well as women educators' negotiations within the power structure during the process of planning higher education programs.

The ultimate aim of this study is to develop an understanding of the role that marginality plays for women faculty in the process of constructing an educational program, to show how power is utilized at the planning table, and to bring about change through exploring the impact of power dynamics on influencing tactics. Also, this study challenges conventional Saudi social structures in which women adult educators sometimes struggle with marginality in their attempts to negotiate effectively.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the proposed methodology of this study. The purpose of this study was to understand the level of influence faculty members have and key influence tactics they use in decision making process at Saudi universities. To accomplish these goals, the following five questions have been developed:

1. How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?
2. To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?
3. To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?
4. To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during the departmental meetings*?
5. To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?
6. To what extent do personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any*

leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

This chapter is organized into seven sections. The first section describes the study's conceptual framework. The second section discusses the process by which the survey instrument was designed, including adapting existing measures and developing new ones. The third and fourth sections describe the study population and sample selection, respectively. The fifth section describes the data collection and preparation. The sixth section shows how the data was analyzed. The final section is about limitations.

The Conceptual Framework

Because Saudi Arabian culture is much different than Western cultures, this difference makes the use of Western instruments and theories problematic. Ultimately, to accomplish the current study in a meaningful way, the researcher used theoretical concepts from Western literature and cautiously recast and reshaped them to make them fit the Saudi context. The researcher developed a composite theory using two major sources. The first was the literature on program-planning theory (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, 2006) in power relationships framing the planning context; this theoretical work was operationalized by Yang (1996) and Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998), who examined the individual influence tactics used in the planning context. The second source was transnational feminist theories showing the ways in which men and women view gender equality differently and the ways they behave individually and collectively to enhance gender equality, specifically in the planning context.

Power Relationships and Individual Influence Tactics in the Planning Context

The central part of this study's conceptual framework is derived from Cervero and Wilson's (1994, 2006) work on program-planning theory, which posits the ways in which planners must act in a social world structured by historically developed sets of power relationships. Cervero and Wilson (1994) defined power as "the capacity to act, distributed to individual planners by virtue of the organizational and social positions that they occupy" (p. 3). This power is not shared equally among men and women (Eagly, 1983). Therefore, planners, whether men or women, must be negotiators who are able to "translate their own interests directly into purpose, content and format of a program, as their planning is always conducted within a complex set of personal, organizational and social relationships of power" (p. 4). Furthermore, people working in various settings and interacting with diverse groups are highly dependent on one another and should consider different points of view and accommodate levels of power.

Studies by Yang (1996) and Yang, Cervero, Valentine, and Benson (1998) are helpful in measuring individual influence tactics using an instrument called Power and Influence Tactics Scale- POINTS. This instrument operationalized Cervero and Wilson's (1994a) theoretical framework to develop a reliable, valid instrument to measure the power and influence tactics applied by adult educators. The framework connects program-planning behaviors with political contexts. In operationalizing Cervero and Wilson's model, Yang (1996) identified seven unique influence tactics that a planner (an agent) may use to influence another individual (a target) during the planning process: reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, exchanging, pressuring, and counteracting. Table 3.1 defines these seven individual influence tactics. Yang et al.'s (1998) framework

explains how a planner influences his/her target during the program-planning process. In general, influence behaviors provide an insight into interpersonal relationships, but it is also important to identify the capacity and power of planners in the planning context (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1
Definitions of the Seven Influence Tactics

Construct	Definition
Reasoning	The planner's use of logic or factual evidence to persuade the target group that a request or decision proposed is both viable and logically congruent with common interests
Consulting	The planner's effort to seek the input and ideas of the target group to generate a viable plan that will meet common ideas, interests, and points of view.
Appealing	The planner's appeal to the emotions, predispositions, or values of the target group to convey the idea that a request is not at the cost of the target's interests.
Networking	The planner's inclusion of other parties who are involved in the program and who hold relevant information or authority so that the support of the target group is gained.
Exchanging	The planner's behavior of offering an exchange of favors to convince the target group that a proposal can satisfy the needs and interests of both sides.
Bargaining	The planner's negotiations with other stakeholders to reach an agreement that meets their needs.
Pressuring	The planner's action of making direct and forceful demands on or threats to the target group amid the presence of resistance in achieving the needed goals.
Counteracting	The planner's behavior of blocking the efforts of the target group or acting in the opposite direction to promote his/her own interests and beliefs.

Transnational Feminist Perspectives on Collective Influence Tactics

The framework by Yang et al. (1998) explains how a planner (an agent) influences another person (a target) during the program-planning process. The researcher believes that such a framework is excellent for dealing with individual actions in general, but not adequate to apprehend feminist collective actions. Consequently, I have added

collective-influence tactics under to the conceptual framework as an approach to feminist collective-influence tactics.

Transnational feminist perspectives (Mohanty, 1991) represent a paradigm that can be used to explain the continued existence of both gender and patriarchal norms in Middle Eastern countries, including Saudi Arabia. In this context, a paradigm is a particular way of viewing the world. For instance, feminists argue that women face problems in society that cannot be ignored, including diminished decision-making power in the planning process and limited access to men-dominated professions and upper-level positions, and that, therefore, gender should be an important focus in program-planning practice.

Transnational feminist theories maintain that gender-based power differences are endemic to both Western and non-Western life. These theories have two primary interests: understanding the conditions that structure women's lives in diverse locations and under patriarchal norms (Grewal & Kaplan, 1994) and changing the bond between gender and patriarchal norms and policies in Middle Eastern countries (Barlas, 2013). Feminist theorists maintain that men and women experience gender differently and that the only way to bridge this gap is to give women as much voice as men are given. Herr (2014) argued that third world women should depict their own reality because they tend to "opt for gradual changes that result from their collaboration with their men counterparts to enhance their communal influence vis-à-vis other members and to improve living standards of their families and of the community itself" (p. 5).

Those groups who have been historically marginalized and classified as disempowered frequently must unite in their attempts to fight for equality and achieve

greater power (Moghdam, 1999). In some parts of the world, political movements are crucial at the national level, but at the micro-level, oppressed groups lack historic power to counter vested control.

Oppressed groups believe that the privileged group continues to abuse its power because lack of support for women's equality prevents them from competing for power. Therefore, unifying and considering collective-influence tactics are appropriate ways to increase access by oppressed groups to the program-planning process. Many feminist scholars (Moghdam, 1999; Scott & Schmitt-Boshnick, 1996) have claimed that the struggle for equal rights requires people to find alternative means of collaborating through involvement in collective action. Smith et al. (2013) identified a significant gender determinant and illustrated the way gender groups use power. Taking gender-role theory as their basis, the researchers assessed the extent of the effect of the influencer's gender on the use and efficiency of individual and collective influence behaviors.

This proposed study adapted Yang's framework to investigate the extent to which it can accommodate the political realities of individual and collective-influence behaviors. The proposed study explored how men and women view gender inequality differently and how they behave individually and collectively. I explored this by surveying those involved in the program-planning process in Saudi Arabia. Specifically, transnational feminist theory informs this study by providing the analytical lens through which the results were interpreted.

The conceptual model of the predictor factors and the influence tactics constructs, is shown in Figure 4. The development and selection of each of the variables was

discussed throughout this chapter. These variables include influence tactics, gender, and other predictor variables and relations among them.

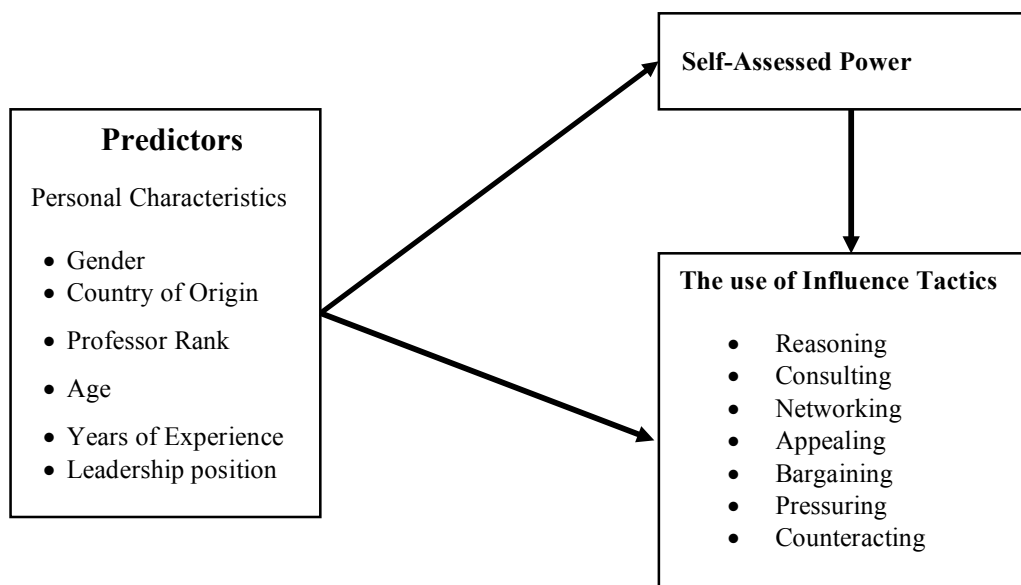


Figure 4. *Operational model to test the predictors on influence tactics and self-assessed power.*

Instrumentation

To accomplish this study, I developed a multifaceted instrument to gather relevant data (See Appendix A). Babbie (1990) stated that survey research has three general objectives, which are to (a) describe, (b) explain, and (c) explore. The current study used a questionnaire to understand and measure the following three areas: (a) faculty members' levels of power and (b) their individual and collective influence actions used during decision making process at Saudi universities.

Over a 19-month period, I developed and refined item pools for the separate measures of influence tactics and self-assessed power. I ensured content validity for all items through a methodical and rigorous process of item generation, as described in detail in the following section. In addition, the items generated were compared with

those in Yang's (1996) questionnaire and in transnational feminist literature questionnaires in terms of validity of themes and saturation on the topic.

Through each phase of the refinement process, I worked with my dissertation advisor, 13 PhD students at UGA who were 10 women and 3 men, at University of Georgia to generate and refine the influence tactics items from 208 to 46 items, the self-assessed power items to 8 and the culture of faculty meetings to 7 items.

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, a multifaceted instrument is used. The final instrument contains three major sections. The first section looks at developing self-assessed power. The second section describes the adapting process of Yang's instrument. The third section explains finalizing process of the whole instrument. In following section, I will deal with each of one of these sections.

Developing Self Assessed Power Scale

The development process of Self-Assessed Power scale involves four steps: (a) Defining self-assessed power Construct, (b) developing item pool, (c) Refining item pool, (d) Constructing response scale. (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2

The development process of Self assessed Power

Step 1.	Defining self-assessed power Construct
Step 2.	Developing item pool.
Step 3.	Refining item pool.
Step 4.	Constructing response scale

Defining Self-Assessed Power Construct. The initial step in developing a measure for the construct "self-assessed power" is the identification and clarification of

such a construct. This step involves defining what is meant by self-assessed power, which refers to a faculty member's self-perception of the degree of being influential during the planning process.

Developing Item Pool for Self-Assessed Power. My goal was to identify as many items as possible that help a faculty member assess his/her influence in the planning context. One factor that was considered in developing the item pool was content validity. A researcher uses multiple authoritative sources to identify the survey instrument items and thus ensure content validity (Spector, 1992). A review of the literature is the best way to obtain the data and information needed.

Brainstorming Session for Self-Assessed Power Construct. The next step was refining the item pool for the self-assessed power construct. A brainstorming session was scheduled with Dr. Valentine, me, and 13 PhD students. This stage tends to identify the items for the instrument. I, as the researcher, introduced the purpose of the activity and distributed the worksheets to the brainstorming participants. The worksheets are shown in Appendix B.

During the brainstorming session, the participants were asked to consider the following questions:

- Is each suggested item a good representation of self-assessed power?
- Can you please add possible items?
- What is the appropriate wording to capture self-assessed power?

The construct was defined operationally to help the group generate and refine the items of this construct.

Construction of the Response Scale for Self-Assessed Power. As regards the response scale for self-assessed power, my goal was to develop a response scale that best measures the level of power of the survey participants during the program planning process. Several formats were considered for this study, but the final decision was to use a five-point Likert scale that ranged from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). The researcher chose this type of rating scale because of its potential to “have good psychometric properties – that is, a well-developed summated rating scale can have good reliability and validity” (Spector, 1992, p. 2). The respondents were asked to rate each of the items according to the following set of instructions: Please reflect upon your own planning experiences in a higher education institution you have been working in. Decide the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. After reading the questionnaire instructions, the respondents were asked to rate each of the questionnaire items by using the five-point scale, as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Sample Items with Response Scale of the Self-Assessed Power

During the departmental meetings, to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My colleagues appreciate my ideas on educational program planning development.				
2. My colleagues listen to my ideas on educational program development.				

Adapting Process of Influence Tactics Scale

The adapting process of influence tactics scale involves (a) Adapting measures for influence tactics from program planning theory., (b) Modification on Yang’s instrument,

(c) Generating item pool for collective influence actions, (d) Refining item pool, (e) Constructing response scale. (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

The adapting process of influence tactics scale

Step 1.	Adapting measures for influence tactics from program planning theory.
Step 2.	Modification on Yang's instrument.
Step 3.	Generating item pool for collective influence actions.
Step 4.	Refining item pool.
Step 5.	Constructing response scale

Adapting measures for influence tactics. After a review of the literature available on program planning theory, I was convinced to use the influence behavior scale, POINTS, developed by Yang (1996) which offered suitable framework to conduct my study. Also, I modified this instrument to identify the tactics utilized by an individual to influence unspecific group members during the program planning process and program development.

Modification of Yang's instrument. After completing my examination of POINTS, I noted that the instrument could be improved to serve the purpose of the study by performing the following tasks:

1. Revising the wording of the influence tactics items from a person influences to be a person influences a group of people instead of a person influence another person and to ensure clarity and consistency (Appendix C).
2. Generating items for collective influence actions. After reviewing the feminist

literature, I included items to address the collective actions based on the feminist (Appendix D).

3. Item pool refinement. After critique session, my major advisor and I looked over the items that addressing collective influence actions and reduce possible items that would be covered by individual influence tactics to avoid duplication of constructs (Appendix E).

Generating the items for collective influence actions. The initial step in generating items for “collective influence actions” is based on the identification and clarification of these actions. This step involves defining what is meant by collective influence actions, which are the tactics used by an individual and his/her like-minded colleagues to be collectively influential before the program planning meetings. In other words, these are the actions used by a group to influence an individual or other groups before the program planning meetings. My goal was to identify as many items as possible that help capture the collective actions in the planning context. One factor that was considered in developing the item pool was content validity. To ensure content validity, a researcher uses multiple authoritative sources to identify the survey instrument items (Spector, 1992). The best way to obtain the needed data and information was through a review of the literature. Also, the chairperson and I invited six people with excellent critical thinking skills to participate in a survey critique session. During this session, we brainstormed strategies for collective action and then critiqued potential items. As a result, the wording of the items was clarified, and these were organized and presented in a logical format following the proposed sequence. The items of a questionnaire need to be presented in a simple format so that reviewers were not

distracted by the classifications (Converse & Presser, 1986; Spector, 1992). The suggested prototype is shown in Appendix E.

Item pool refinement. The next step after developing and refining the item pool for collective actions was to go over the 39 potential items provided through a review of the feminist literature so that collective influence actions can be captured. A critique session was scheduled with my major advisor, me, and three PhD students. The aim of this stage is to refine the items on collective actions. My major advisor introduced the purpose of the activity and distributed the worksheets to the brainstorming participants. The worksheets are shown in Appendix E.

During the brainstorming session, the participants were asked to consider the following questions:

- Is each suggested item a good representation of collective actions?
- Are there any possible items should be included?
- Is the wording appropriate to capture collective actions?

The operational definition of collective actions was provided to help the group generate and refine the items. The potential items were also reviewed for clarity of wording and logic of classification. The items were grouped according to seven components and then sub- grouped by commonality of the items. Ultimately, some items were deleted because their wording was confusing, and the ideas overlapped or were repeated.

Construction of the response scale.

My goal was to develop a response scale. The response scale should measure the use of influence actions the participants demonstrated prior and during the program

planning meetings. A suitable format for this study is the use of yes-or-no questions. For each item, the respondents were asked to answer whether each tactic has been used or not according to the following set of instructions: Please reflect upon your own planning experiences in a higher educational institution you have been working in. Decide if you have used the following influence tactic, as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Response Scale of the influence tactics

During decision making process, have you used the following negotiating tactics when you are trying to be influential?	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
Before attending departmental meetings, I encourage trusted colleagues to express any issues they might have.				
During the departmental meetings, I convince other faculty members that my ideas on developing the educational program are viable.				

The Prototype Questionnaire

This section describes the development process of the Prototype Questionnaire, which involves (a) Selecting personal predictor variables., (b) Cultural Critique sessions, (c) Back-translation process, (d) Creating English Version. (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6
The development process of the Prototype Questionnaire

Step 1.	Selecting personal predictor variables
Step 2.	Cultural Critique sessions.
Step 3.	Back-Translation process
Step 4.	Creating English Version

Selecting Personal Predictor Variables. The goal of this stage was to identify the personal predictor variables that explained influence tactics and self-assessed power.

A set of personal characteristics was identified on the basis of the literature, expert input, and personal experience. These predictors are one's country of origin, professor's rank, age and gender. The justification for each personal predictor variable is shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7
Rationale for Predictor Variables

Predictor Variable	Rationale
Gender	The research done on gender and influence tactics has found that there is, in fact, a difference in men and women's assessment of their interpersonal power and the influence tactics they use. ((White, 1988; DuBrin, 1991; Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 19990; Lamude, 1993)
Nationality	Being native faculty or international faculty may influence the focus on their assessment of their interpersonal power and influence behaviors.
Professor rank	Professors with high rank may be more powerful and influential in the organization.
Age	Research suggests people who are older are more influence in the organization. (Yang, 2011)
Years of experiences	Research suggests people who have more years of experiences are more influential in the organization
Leadership position	Research indicates people who are previously or currently appointed in any leadership positions are more powerful and use various tactics than others in the organization

Cultural Critique Session. The scales in this study includes concepts developed in Western countries. The purpose of this step is to adjust all items in the original surveys so that they fit the Saudi context and the case of faculty members working in Saudi universities. The adaptation of survey instruments involves tailoring questions to better fit the needs of a given audience while still retaining the stimulus or measurement properties of the source (Harkness, Villar, & Edwards, 2010). Adaptation can help improve the validity of this study. To accomplish this, I shared the constructs and items

that make up the testing instrument with a committee that consists of five men and three women educators working in universities and the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. During a two-hour session, the committee members had face to face meeting to examine the handout (see Appendix F) and had a general discussion to ensure that each item within the construct made sense in the context of Saudi Arabia and that each item was appropriate for both men and women faculty members in Saudi universities. After these sessions, the items for each construct were selected, as shown in Table 8, and the number of items was reduced to 54. Also, the committee members agreed to change the word “Departmental faculty meeting” in each item to “faculty meeting.” Table 3.8 provides a summary of the survey item pool development and refinement process.

Table 3.8
Survey Item Pool Development and Refinement Process

Description	Numbers of items
1. Item pool development by the researcher	
- Program Planning Literature (Yang’s Influence Tactics Items)	+31
- Power Literature (Self-assessed Power Items)	+4
- Potential item in the pool	35
2. 1 st Item pool refinement after brainstorming and critique sessions	
- Brainstorming session by a group of doctoral students	+4 (self-assessed power)
- Brainstorming session by the researcher and the supervisor	+39 (collective actions)
- Provisional item in pool	113
3. 2 nd Item pool refinement	
- Item critique session by a group of doctoral students	-15
- Item critique session by the researcher and the supervisor.	- 40
- Provisional item in pool	58
4. 3 rd Item pool refinement	
- Cultural critique session	- 4
5. Final item prototype questionnaire for prospectus	54

After ensuring the construct appropriateness and items appropriateness through cultural critique sessions, subscale items measuring reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, bargaining pressuring, and counteracting are presented in Tables 3.9, to 3.15.

Table 3.9

Items Measuring Reasoning in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I convince other faculty members that my planning ideas are viable. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that explain my planning ideas. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas. 4. During attending program planning meeting, I demonstrate to other faculty members my competence in planning the program. 5. During attending program planning meeting, I showing other faculty members the relationship between my planning ideas and past practices in our organization.
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Table 3.10

Items Measuring Consulting in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members for suggestions about my planning ideas. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate my willingness to modify my planning ideas based on input from other faculty members. 4. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate that I am receptive to other faculty members' ideas about my planning ideas.

Table 3.11

Items Measuring Appealing in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I wait until other faculty members are in a receptive mood before making a request. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel good about me before making my request. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel that what you want done is extremely important. 4. During attending program planning meeting, I appeal to other faculty members' values in making a request. 5. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people encourage other faculty members (Department Head) to express any concerns or doubts about a plan or course of action that we have proposed. 6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to modify a proposal or plan to deal with faculty members' concerns (Department Head's concerns) and incorporate their suggestions. |
|---|

Table 3.12

Items Measuring Networking in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I get other people to help influence other faculty members. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I link what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I obtain support from other people before making a request of other faculty members. 4. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas. 5. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people form coalitions to make reciprocal agreement with other departments instrumental in our plans. 6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees internal operations of the organization |
|---|

Table 3.12

Items Measuring Networking in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

7. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie our request onto others made by popular people in the organizational unit.
8. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people would have informal meetings to discuss our plans.
9. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people strategize and think about the decision made and crafting arguments.

Table 3.13

Items Measuring Bargaining in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

1. During attending program planning meeting, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support.
2. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do some work for other faculty members in return for their supports.
3. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas.
4. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their supports.
5. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people remind my co-workers of how we have helped them in the past to imply that now we expect compliance with our request.
6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now.

Table 3.14

Items Measuring Pressuring in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I repeatedly remind other faculty members about things I want done. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I simply insist that other faculty members do what you want done. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I raise my voice when telling other faculty members what I want done. 4. During attending program planning meeting, I challenge other faculty members to do the work on my way or to come up with a better plan. 5. During attending program planning meeting, I demand that other faculty members do the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations. 6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use our titles, position power and resources to support our group goals. |
|--|

Table 3.15

Items Measuring Counteracting in Influence Tactics Questionnaire

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During attending program planning meeting, I take action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included in the planning process. 2. During attending program planning meeting, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my planning ideas. 3. During attending program planning meeting, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to carry out those requests that I do not agree with. 4. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if he or she did not give in to my request. 5. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Ministry of Education if he or she did not give in to my |
|---|

request.

6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people send a letter or proposal or paper which includes several signatures.
7. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people delay carrying out those requests that we do not agree with.
8. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.
9. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to say nothing.
10. During program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to vote to pay attention.

Translation and Back Translation Process

At this stage, the English version questionnaire was translated into Arabic, since the setting for the research context is Taiwan. In order to obtain translation quality, the researcher used Brislin's (1986) cross cultural back-translation process. Brislin's back-translation process was conducted in two phases. First, an original scale was translated into the target language by a bilingual person. Then, the translated version was translated back to the language of the original scale. This procedure was repeated several times. The degree of similarity between the original scale and the back translated version is an indication of the adequacy of the translated version of the scale (Brislin, 1986).

In this study, first, the scale was translated from English into Arabic by the researcher. Then, the translated version was translated back to English by two bilinguals who are also doctoral students in Educational field (Appendix G). After back translation, the researcher worked with his major professor to examine the degree of similarity between the original English scale and the translated back scales. When the content and

language in the back translated scales were consistent with the original scale, we decided to continue the study.

Finalizing the Survey Instrument

Creating the Online Survey

An online survey instrument was used in this study. The researcher used software from Qualtrics (www.Qualtrics.com) that provided controlled access to the survey instrument and enabled the responses to be collected. In the online survey, the researcher typed in all the items created previously. The researcher also provided a welcome message, general information about the study, and a consent form for the participants. Participation in the online survey was completely voluntary. Respondents could refuse to participate in the process or choose to withdraw from participation at any time.

Regarding the survey language, the researcher added two languages to the survey, Arabic and English. Each respondent could view the survey in a language they are comfortable with (Qualtrics, 2016).

Pilot Study

This was the final step of the instrument development process. The pilot study in a study serves two purposes. The first is to test the data collection technique; the second is to test the psychometric properties of the instrument. To adequately reach these goals, a pilot study was conducted.

I used a population for the pilot study with similar characteristics to the final study, but one that remained distinct from the specific population for this study. The population included faculty members working at Jeddah University in Saudi Arabia.

Data collection methods. Each respondent completed the 58-item questionnaire through Qualtrics, a web-based survey system. The demographic and predictor variables paralleled those intended for the final study. The demographic and predictor variables identified for the pilot study participants attempted to mirror similar predictor variables for the researcher's final study. The demographic and predictor variables included gender, country of origin, years of experience, year of birth, position, length of experience "as a professor," major, and professorial rank.

In order to gain access to this population, the researcher used an email list of faculty members provided by Jeddah University. The list encompassed all email addresses of faculty members. The researcher removed duplicate addresses.

The researcher designed a data collection plan that would emulate the final study. Every faculty member at Jeddah University received a unique invitation from the researcher through Qualtrics to complete the survey. The survey included one follow-up reminder, which was sent four days after the initial request. Of the 158 potential respondents, 46 participated. This response rate of just below 30% cannot be expected to hold across other groups, as this population does not represent the population of this current and final study.

With respect to the data collection methods, my major professor and I found that they were generally very satisfactory since they provided good data. The response rate was lower than what we would have liked (below 30%) but not out of line with current survey research numbers. Nevertheless, we examined the invitation letter and the structure of the survey.

Some graduate students from Saudi Arabia reviewed at these letters; ultimately,

they made minor changes. An additional change was made with regard to the link that originally took the respondents to the research information sheet, which appeared very legalistic. Therefore, we incorporated an introductory page that includes the following: 1) a thank you statement, 2) the topic of the study, 3) the expected time needed to complete the survey, and 4) a confidentiality statement.

Psychometric properties of the instrument. To test the psychometric properties of the instrument, the researcher entered the data into SPSS and conducted an analysis in terms of psychometric patterns. Specifically, the study examined whether a statistically desirable amount of variation occurred for each item.

Regarding the instrument used in the pilot study, the validity of the instrument came from relevant theories and existing instruments as well as expert meetings and back translation. In terms of reliability, the findings revealed greater variance in the responses while maintaining acceptable reliability. The pilot study used the eight items with a four-point response scale to measure a self-assessed power construct and 46 items with a four-point response scale to measure the use of influence tactics. The researcher used SPSS to obtain alphas for the scale and then asked the program to give the value that alpha would become *if that item were deleted from the scale*.

After obtaining the mean, SD, and distribution of each construct using SPSS, the results showed that all items demonstrate sufficient variance in analysis with no item resulting in overly skewed distributions. Moreover, in terms of the technical proprieties of the instrument, most scales approximated a normal curve even with the small sample surveyed (Appendix H).

In terms of reliability, despite the translation process and the addition of items required for the analysis, the results showed overall that the reliability performed rather well. However, two dimensions revealed some problematic items. These were *Reasoning* and *Appealing* with reliability measurement of .61 and .58, respectively. Otherwise, the reliability for the remaining constructs ranged from .70~.87, which is *acceptable* (Table 3.16).

Table 3.16

Reliability Estimates for the Constructs of Self-Assessed Power and Influence Tactics

Subscale	Number of Items	Alpha
Self-Assessed Power	8	0.87
Reasoning	5	0.61
Consulting	5	0.7
Appealing	5	0.58
Networking	9	0.83
Bargaining	6	0.86
Pressuring	6	0.75
Counteracting	9	0.85

My advisor and I examined all the items that have the lowest item-total correlation. Since, their numbers are not close to zero, we decided to keep them after rewriting them (Table 3.17).

Table 3.17

Old and Fixed Items

Construct	Old Items	Type of the problem	Fixed Items
Self-Assessed Power	3. My colleagues question my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	Ambiguity	My colleagues challenge my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.

Table 3.17 (Continued)

Construct	Old Items	Type of the problem	Fixed Items
Consulting	31. During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas on educational program development.	Complexity	During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members if they have concerns about my planning ideas on educational program development.
Bargaining	15. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to remind my co-workers of how we have helped them in the past to imply that we now expect compliance with our request for developing the educational program.	Ambiguity	Before attending faculty meetings, I make sure that my trusted colleagues remind other colleagues of how we have helped them in the past, to imply that we now expect compliance with our request for developing the educational program.
Counteracting	22. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.	Ambiguity	Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to resolve conflicting points in our educational program.

Overall, analysis of the data in the pilot study showed that the sensitivity measurement was good, which means that reasonable variance exists and that most respondents used all four points. However, my advisor and I made a decision in order to improve the sensitivity measurement by changing the order of the items. According to Weathington, Cunningham, and Pittenger (2010), the order of the questions can influence the responses of the participants. Moreover, Dillman (2000) mentioned that researchers should create various surveys with different sequences of items when they suspect that the order of items could influence the participants' responses. For this reason, the researcher changed the order of items after the pilot study.

Finally, the intercorrelation among items was generally acceptable; therefore, we

decided that no items needed to be changed. After completing the pilot study, the instrument's constructs of self-assessed power and influence tactics were ready for study in the proposed population.

Study Population

The population of interests for the study is full time faculty members holding Ph.D. degree with varying nationalities, rank, and fields and currently working for more than a year in public universities in Saudi Arabia. Table 3.18 shows the frequency distribution of 35,213 faculty members for gender.

Table 3.18

The number of Faculty members working in Public Universities in Saudi Arabia

s	Region	University	Professors				Total
			Male		Female		
			N	%	N	%	
1.	Middle	King Saud University	3135	80%	777	20%	3912
2.		Imam Mohammed Islamic University	1476	87%	211	13%	1687
3.		Qasim University	1291	70%	566	30%	1857
4.		Shaqra University	429	63%	257	37%	686
5.		Prince Satam University	533	68%	248	32%	781
6.		Magmah University	650	71%	269	29%	919
7.		Princess Norah University	29	97%	892	3%	921
8.		Electronic University	153	78%	44	22%	197
9.		King Saud Medical science	179	69%	92	31%	261
10	East	King Faisal University	749	76%	240	24%	989
11		Damam University	620	51%	586	49%	1206
12		King Fahad University	638	100%	0	0%	638
13		Haffer Albaten University	0	0%	4	100%	4
14	West	King Abdulaziz University	2227	63%	1307	37%	3534
15		Umm Alqura University	1748	70%	747	30%	2495
16		Tibah University	809	67%	393	33%	1202
17		Islamic University	369	100%	0	0%	369
18		Jeddah University	297	74%	104	26%	401
19	Taif University	1051	72%	419	28%	1470	

Table 3.18 (Continued)

	Region	University	Professors				Total
			Male		Female		
			N	%	N	%	
20	North	Tabuk University	485	63%	282	37%	767
21		Juaf University	454	78%	130	22%	584
22		Northern University	42	89%	5	11%	47
23		Hail University	450	65%	246	35%	696
24	South	King Khalid University	1085	67%	546	33%	1631
25		Jazn University	976	74%	337	26%	1313
26		Bahah University	620	77%	185	23%	805
27		Najran University	381	73%	139	27%	520
28		Bishah University	175	55%	141	45%	316
Total			21051	60%	14,162	40%	35,213

The Sample of the Study

Regarding the sample population of this study, the researcher analyzed a large population and decided to collect data from faculty members who are working in the four flagship universities. According to the Ministry of Education (2016), those four public universities are the best-known institutions in Saudi Arabia. Those four universities are most powerful, competitive and advanced universities. Additionally, they are generally the first to be established and are frequently the largest and most selective, as well as the most research-intensive public universities as well as receiving large budget.

Furthermore, they have large numbers of men and women faculty members who come from a variety of backgrounds. Thus, faculty members in those four universities provided rich data regarding the questions and benefit the representativeness of the samples in this study. The sample of faculty members are 10,833 (see table 3.19).

Table 3.19

The number of faculty members working in four public universities in Saudi

s	University	Professor				
		Male		Female		Total
		N	%	N	%	
1.	King Saud University	3135	80%	777	20%	3912
2.	King Faisal University	749	76%	240	24%	989
3.	King Abdulaziz University	2227	63%	1307	37%	3534
4.	King Khalid University	1085	67%	546	33%	1631
Total		7,196	71%	2,870	29%	10,066

The respondents were 953 participants who were 48.1 % men faculty and 51.9% women faculty (Table 3.20). A majority (61.2%) of the respondents were Saudi faculty members while 38.8% were None-Saudi faculty. Regarding the professor rank, 65.7% of respondents were assistant professors. Of the remaining professors were 20.6% associate professors and 13.8% were full professors. Additionally, respondents' fields of interests were: colleges of Science Engineering and Technical Sciences (33.6%), College of Education (20.6%), College of Arts (19.3%), Colleges of Medicine and healthy Science (12.8%), Colleges of Law and Business (10.6%) and College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences (2.9%).

Table 3.20
Personal Characteristics of Study Respondents (n=953)

Variable	Value	
Gender		
- Male	n = 444	48.1%
- Female	n = 478	51.9%
Country of Origin		
- Saudi	n = 581	61.2%
- None Saudi	n = 369	38.8%
Professor Rank		
- Assistant Professor	n = 633	65.7%
- Associate Professor	n = 197	20.5%
- Full Professor	n = 133	13.8%
Type of Fields		
- Colleges of Science Engineering and Technical Sciences	n = 320	33.6%
- College of Arts	n = 184	19.3%
- College of Education	n = 196	20.6%
- College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences	n = 28	2.9%
- Colleges of Law and Business	n = 101	10.6%
- Colleges of Medicine and healthy Sciences	n = 122	12.8%
Age	M= 44.33	SD= 8.99
Years of Experiences	M= 11.65	SD= 9.51

Finally, the respondents ranged in age from 28 to 67, with a mean age of 44.33. The number of completed years as professors ranged from one to 38, with a mean years' experience of 11.55.

Data Collection

After having IRB Approval (Appendix I), the data was collected for the study, which was associated with a confidential, self-administered, and web-based survey, mainly. Given the large sample size of this research as well as advantages of easy access and dynamic interaction, a web-based survey was selected (Dillman, 2000). Using social exchange theory in methodology, I have built rapport with potential respondents by

communication via letter invitation, highlighting the benefits of participation, and minimizing the perceived costs. The data collection was arranged via a web-based survey delivered through emails.

The communication strategy (Table 3.21) presented the four contacts with potential respondents, leading to a higher response rate, according to Dillman (2009).

Table 3.21
Communications Strategy

<i>Week Zero</i>	<i>Having IRB approval</i>
<i>Week 1</i>	- <i>Distributing survey via email</i>
<i>Week 2</i>	- <i>Thank you note to those completing the survey</i> - <i>Reminder to those who have not started the survey</i>
<i>Week 3</i>	- <i>Reminder to finish the survey for those who began it</i> - <i>Thank you to all participants who began or completed survey.</i>

Emailing was considered a reliable distribution method for completing the survey, since the intended respondents have been all faculty members whose names and emails are accessible on the university website. Both personal and work emails of participants are available. For candidates selected, email was an appropriate tool required in the course of business.

In order to collect data from participants, the University of Georgia's Qualtrics software subscription was utilized. Qualtrics offers flexibility in presenting information and questions following an individual's responses. In the meantime, Qualtrics incorporates preformatted identity to the University of Georgia, adding credibility and academic value as a university-supported project without potentially undermining military operational security. As an official product of the University of Georgia, Qualtrics has ensured technical assistance, secured data, and precondition for

collaboration.

The Qualtrics survey software have various tools the researcher used to presented a survey to the respondents in different forms and languages. For this study, the survey had different viewable formats for a computer and a mobile device. Moreover, multi-language support was added to this survey by the researcher to guarantee that each respondent is able to take part in the survey using a language they are comfortable with. Since one survey includes all translations, all final outcomes returned to the same dataset. At the top of each page, there was an option for switching language from English to Arabic, or vice versa. Instructions and the survey-related guideline were attached along with the contact sheet page, the pages completed by the respondent, and the pages remained. The Qualtrics survey software also allowed the researcher to save all responses; in the meantime, respondents were capable to leave the survey when necessary and then return to latest phase of completion on the same computer.

As suggested by Dillman (2000), a multiple contact strategy was used for this study. The standard set of email notifications for participants included: (a) a request for participation containing hyperlink to the survey and informed consent statement “*By clicking on the Survey link, a person consents and agree to participate...*” (appendix J); (b) a first reminder to those receiving the survey; and (c) a final reminder to those who received the survey. An electronic thank you was automatically sent at the end of the survey. Of the 15654 emails, 5441 (33%) had permanent and irresolvable failure issues

Data Preparation

During the data collection process, 2260 surveys were exported from Qualtric
Note: Survey respondents did not receive any incentives to participate in the survey

into SPSS for data cleaning. The overall response rate equaled to 14.4%. An adjusted response rate of 22.1% was calculated through focusing on 10213 participants by considering 770 dead emails. The first step in data preparation was to remove uncompleted surveys. Of the returned surveys, 1229 surveys were deemed unusable due to 20 or more blank responses on the questionnaire, and 78 respondents were excluded since the study population are full time faculty members who are holding PhD degree and currently working for more than a year in Saudi public universities. This resulted in 953 usable and valid questionnaires (Table 3.22).

Table 3.22

Details of Response Rate on Final Survey

Number of participants who were e-mailed the final survey	15,654
Number of e-mails that bounced (Could not be delivered)	5,441
Number of respondents who started the survey	2,260
Number of usable surveys	953
Response Rate	14.4 %
Adjusted Response Rate	22.1 %
Usable Response Rate	9.3 %

Several items required recoding. Thus, the respondents' age was calculated by subtracting their birth year from the current year (2017) after cleaning the respondents' year of birth, as they used Islamic calendar instead of English one. Moreover, the researcher transformed Arabic numbers into English ones (West Arabic form). For transparency in frequencies and other statistics, numeric responses written in Arabic non-English form were recoded to return an appropriate response in SPSS. These responses are now located in Years of Experience, number of male and female faculty members, and frequencies of faculty meetings per semester. For items having a checkbox response in Qualtrics, unchecked items were presented as missing responses in SPSS. With that

information and knowing about meetings participants attended before, I was able to identify additional sample characteristics, including *Field Type*, *Previously Appointed in Leadership Position*, and *Currently Appointed in Leadership Position* (Table 3. 23).

Table 3.23

Data Coding in SPSS

Predictor Variable	Codes
Gender	
- Male	1
- Female	2
Country of Origin	
- Saudi	1
- Non Saudi	2
Professor Rank	
- Assistant Professor	1
- Associate Professor	2
- Full Professor	3
Field type	
- College of Science, Engendering and technical sciences	1
- College of Arts	2
- College of Education	3
- College of Law and Business	4
- College of agriculture and sentimental sciences	5
- College of Medicine and healthy sciences	6
Currently appointed in Leadership position	
- Yes	1
- No	2
Previously appointed in Leadership position	
- Yes	1
- No	2

After preparing personal characteristics in SPSS, it was ensured that each variable was classified appropriately by ordinal, nominal or categorical types. The eight self-assessed power items were combined to create one scale called “self-assessed power construct”; meanwhile, 46 influence tactics were combined to create seven (7) scales for each of the constructs: (a) Reasoning scale, (b) consulting scale, (c) appealing scale, (d)

networking scale, (e) bargaining scale, (f) pressuring scale, and (g) counteracting scale. Additionally, a final construct involving all 46 items was created to measure *the use of influence tactics*, yet it was included only for descriptive purposes.

In SPSS, the frequencies, means and standard deviations for each questionnaire's item were further calculated. After reviewing the results of each, it was concluded that the range of responses was appropriate. Calculating the coefficient alpha for self-assessed power scale and each of the seven influence tactics construct scales was the next step to prove reliability. A summary of the scale reliabilities is depicted in the table 3.24.

Table 3.24

Distribution and Reliability of Key Measures

Scale	Number of items	M	SD	Mean Item Means	Alpha
Self-Assessed Power Scale	8	11.97	2.05	1.49	.85
Reasoning Scale	5	10.98	3.36	2.75	.88
Consulting Scale	5	11.96	3.17	2.99	.87
Appealing Scale	5	10.96	3.03	2.74	.75
Networking Scale	9	9.04	2.76	2.26	.86
Bargaining Scale	6	7.09	3.16	1.18	.86
Pressuring Scale	6	7.56	2.84	1.89	.81
Counteracting Scale	10	6.42	2.40	1.07	.87

Each of the scales approximated a normal curve. The eight constructs had a theoretical range from 4 to 16. The means ranged from 6.42 to 11.97. For the eight construct scales, alphas ranged from a high of .88 to .75. Specifically, coefficient alphas ran in descending order as follows: .88 for *reasoning scale*, .87 for both *consulting and counteracting scale*, .86 for both *networking and bargaining scales*, .85 for *self-assessed power scale*, .81 for *pressuring scale* and .75 for *appealing scale*.

Table 3.25 presents the findings of the final analysis in data preparation which was to determine the intercorrelation among the four construct scales. The correlation coefficient between every pair of scales was significant at the level of .01. Histograms of each scale frequency are presented in the figures below Table 3.26 presents the findings.

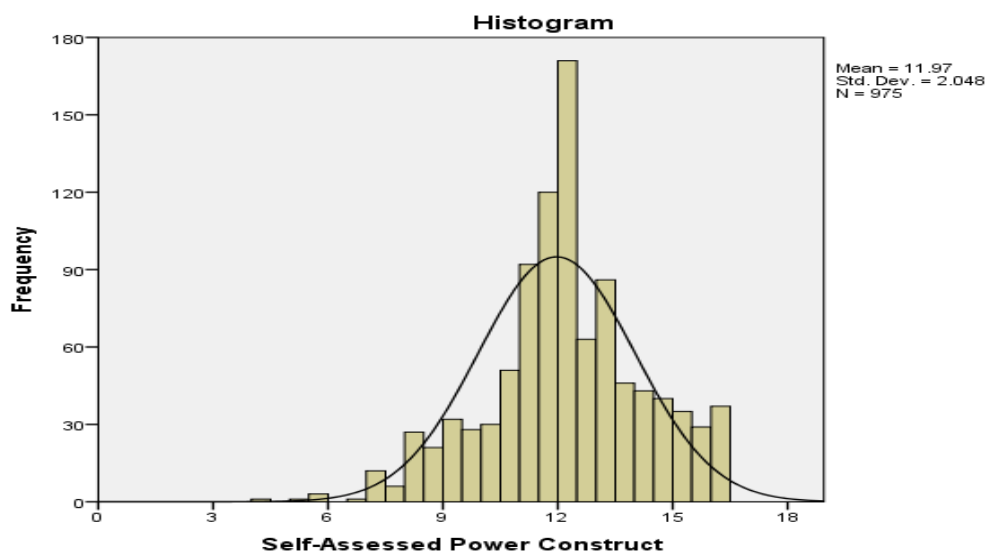


Figure 5 . *Distribution of self-assessed Power Scale*

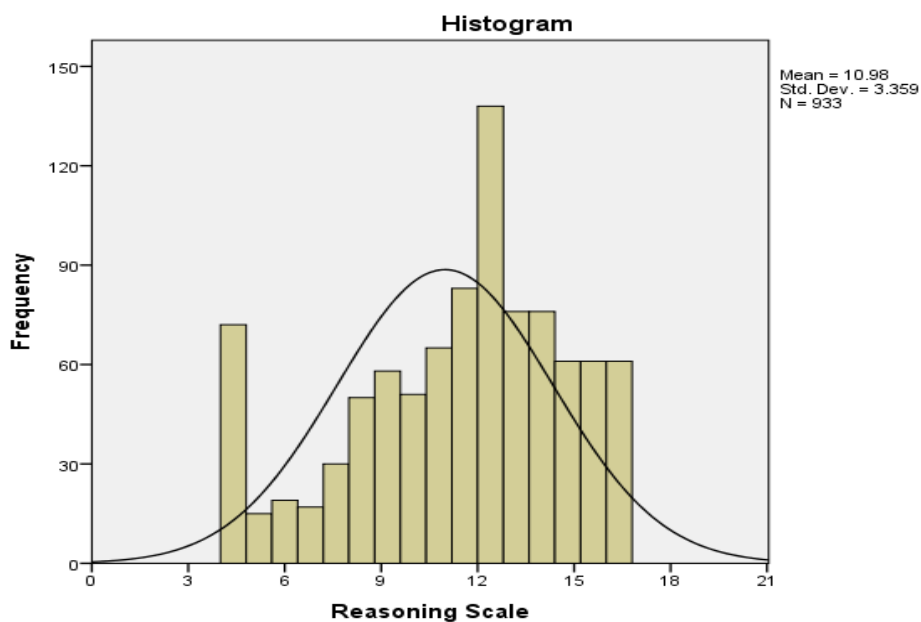


Figure 6 . *Distribution of Reasoning Scale*

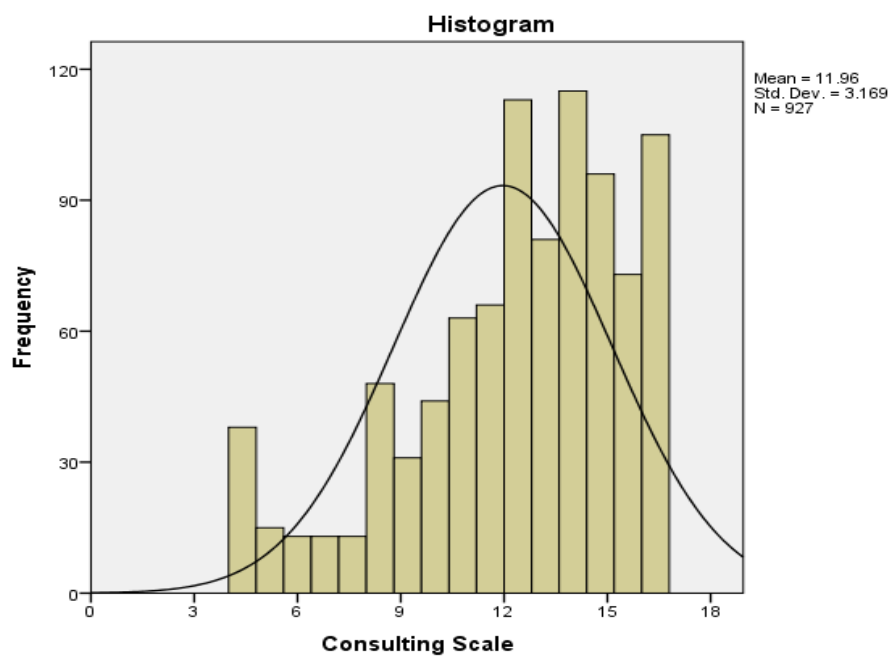


Figure 7 . *Distribution of Consulting Scale*

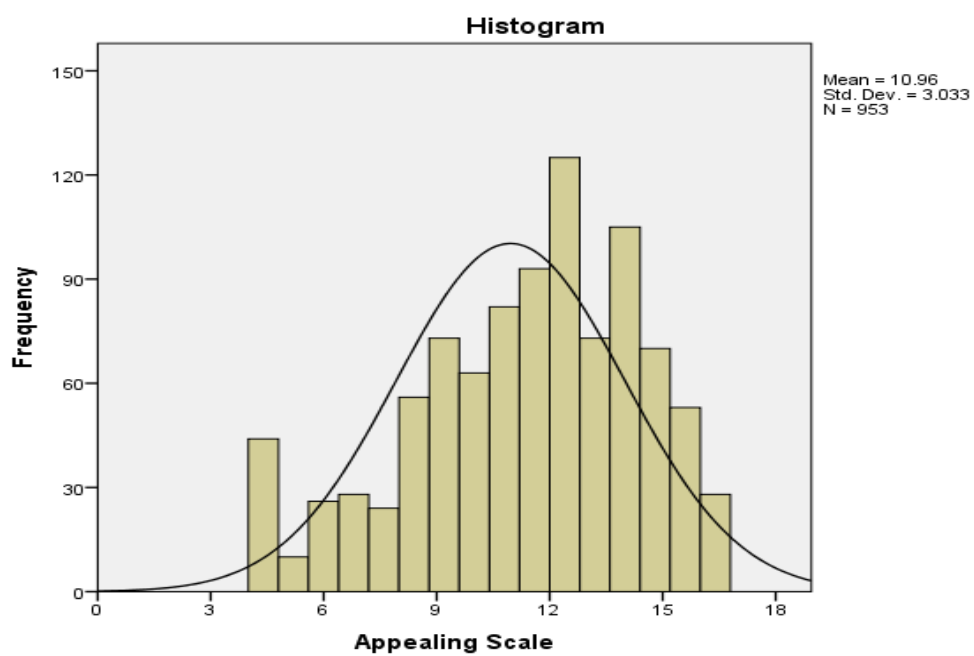


Figure 8 . *Distribution of Appealing Scale*

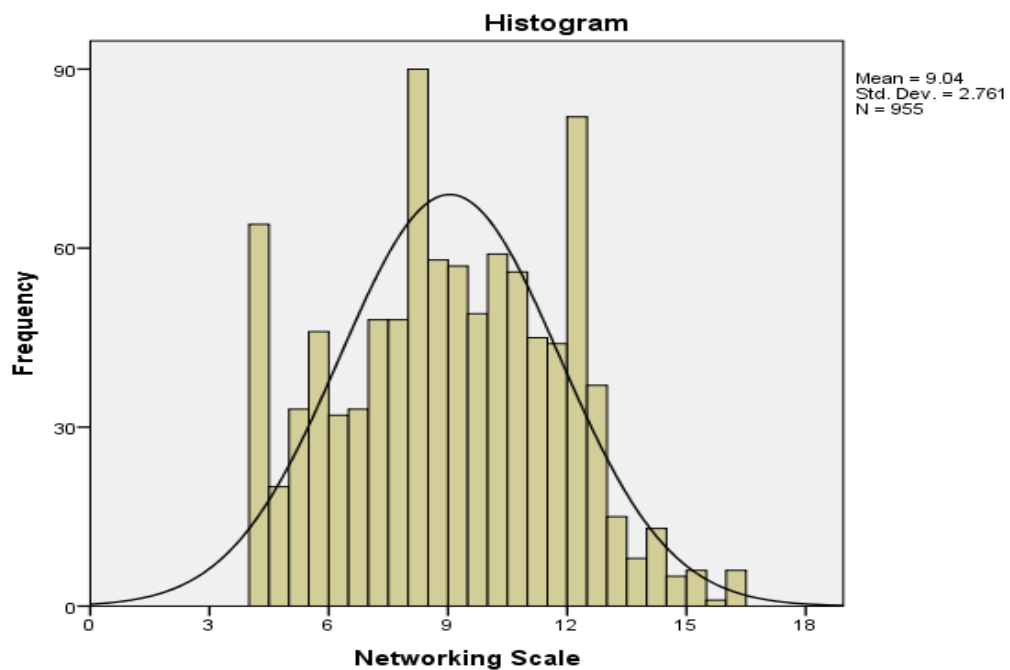


Figure 9 . *Distribution of Networking Scale*

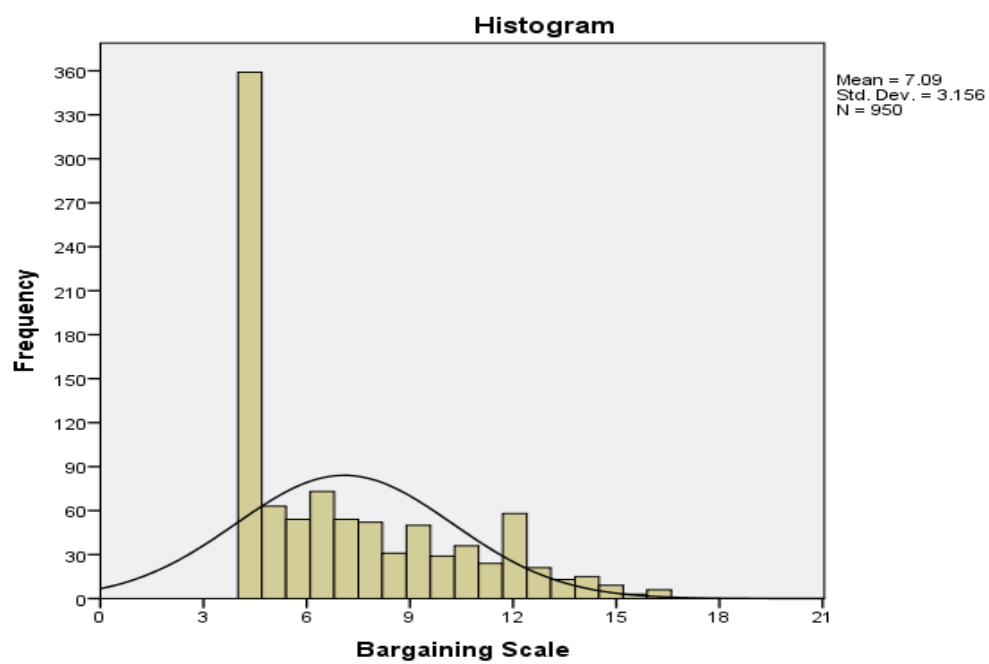


Figure 10 . *Distribution of Bargaining Scale*

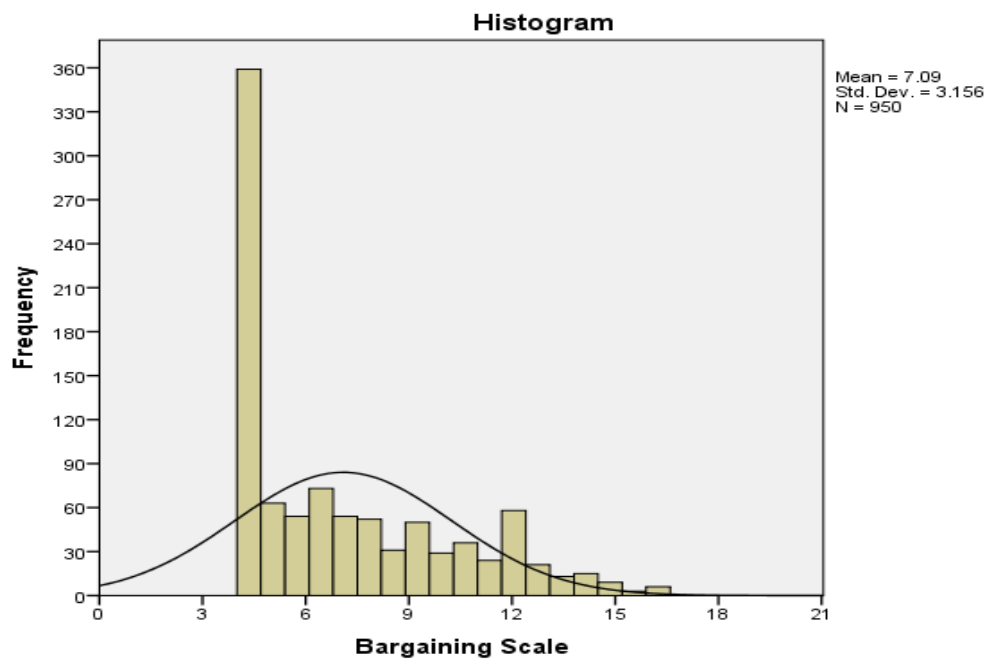


Figure 10 . *Distribution of Bargaining Scale*

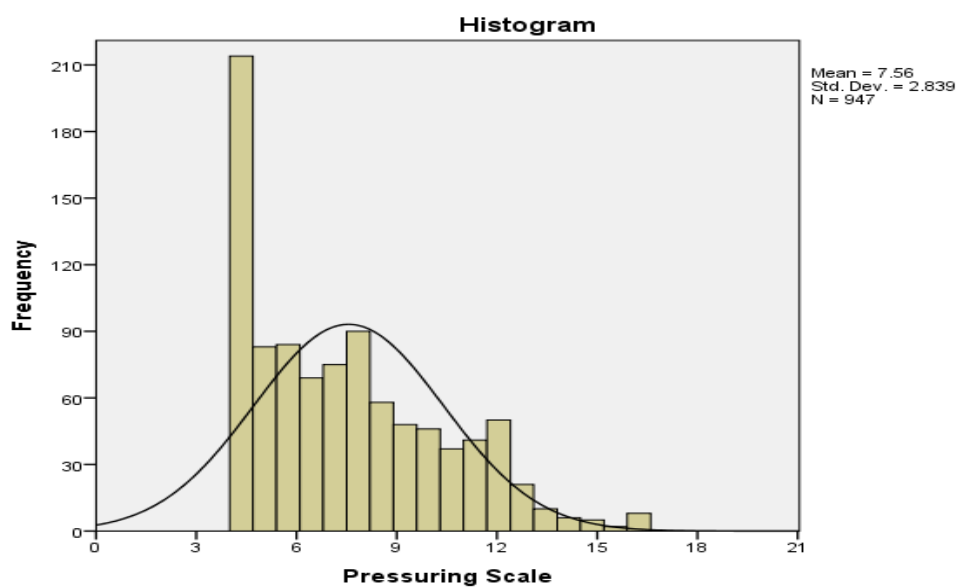


Figure 11 . *Distribution of Pressuring Scale*

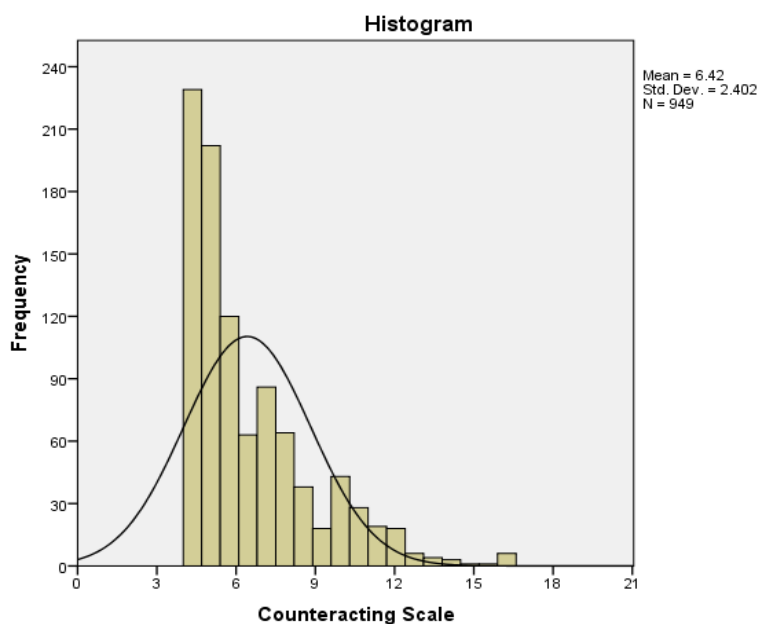


Figure 12. *Distribution of Counteracting Scales*

Another analysis in data preparation was multicollinearity. The collinearity statistics, tolerance, and variance inflation (VIF) were generated to determine if multicollinearity existed between any of the independent variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) affirmed that once the value of less tolerance levels is .2 or less it should begin to arouse suspicion; however, it is generally accepted that a value of .1 or less is cause for greater concern. In this study, none of the tolerance values for the independent variables threatened these parameters. Furthermore, it is generally accepted that variance inflation should not exceed 4.0, and the variance inflation values for all independent variables in the models of this study did not exceed 2.0 (Table 3.25).

Table 3.25

Multicollinearity Diagnostics for Independent Variables

Variables	Self-Assessed		Resourcing		Consulting		Appealing		Networking		Bargaining		Pressuring		Counteracting	
	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF	TOL	VIF
Gender	.899	1.11	.899	1.12	.9	1.11	.898	1.11	.9	1.11	.9	1.11	.901	1.11	.902	1.11
Nationality	.82	1.22	.82	1.23	.814	1.23	.816	1.23	.82	1.22	.814	1.23	.814	1.23	.816	1.23
Pro. Rank	.484	2.07	.487	2.05	.49	2.04	.485	2.06	.489	2.05	.485	2.66	.485	2.06	.486	2.06
Years of Exp.	.675	1.48	.674	1.48	.67	1.49	.674	1.48	.675	1.48	.674	1.48	.674	1.48	.675	1.48
Age	.511	1.96	.499	2.00	.503	1.99	.505	1.98	.514	1.95	.498	2.00	.499	2.01	.504	2.01
Previous Position	.793	1.26	.794	1.26	.787	1.27	.790	1.27	.791	1.26	.791	1.26	.790	1.27	.792	1.26
Current position	.712	1.41	.713	1.40	.705	1.42	.71	1.41	.712	1.41	.712	1.40	.710	1.41	.711	1.41

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS available at the University of Georgia. Appropriate statistical analyses were selected to answer the four research questions. In addition to descriptive statistics, the analysis relied on a variety of statistical procedures including multiple factor analysis and correlation to determine variable relationships.

Descriptive statistics of the responses from faculty members consisted of frequencies, means, medians and comparison of means and medians for describing the demographic variables, faculty members' influence behaviors, faculty members' assessment on their power at the planning table. Also, descriptive statistics was used to answer questions.

Research question#1, (How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?) was addressed by rank ordering the eight self-assessed power items. I calculated the mean of each item and ranked from highest to lowest. The distribution was then presented graphically with a histogram for each of the self-assessed power dimension.

Research question#2, (To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?) was addressed by rank ordering the 46 influence tactics items. The mean of each item was calculated and ranked from highest to lowest. The items were also grouped by construct to provide a rank order of which constructs were most commonly used.

Research question#3, (*To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?*), was designed to

determine the relationship between the self-assessed power of faculty members and the strategies they used. To answer this question, I used simple linear regression.

Research question#4, (To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during* the departmental meetings?) was designed to determine how the gender variable influence faculty members' self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics. To answer this question, I calculated the total means of men and women groups for each construct then I used an independent samples t-test to determine the influence of gender variable on those constructs.

Research question#5, (To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?) was designed to determine the bivariate relationships between the six predictor variables and eight key construct scales. To answer this question, I used a variety of techniques including a Pearson correlation, t-tests and simple regression analyses.

Research question#6, (To what extent do other faculty members' personal characteristics of faculty members *jointly* explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?) was designed to determine the impact of the personal predictor variables jointly influence faculty's power and their use of influence tactics. To answer this question, I established an exploratory model using multivariate relationships to identify the best model for the self-assessed power and use of influence tactics scales by a desire to explain the maximum variance.

Limitations and Assumptions

These results are samples representing the population of faculty working at four flagship universities. Therefore, they can be statistically generalized only to those universities. However, because the gender-related changes going on in education span the entire country and another 24 universities as well, many of these findings should prove useful to those in other universities if they use logical inference.

Regarding assumptions, a critical assumption is that the responses, in fact, gives us accurate feedback. This is a universal assumption that exists in all survey research and most other forms of research. However, in this particular situation, we have to be aware that the changing faces of the gender issues in Saudi Arabia could result in an unmeasured effect that could be due to the highly charged culture, social desirability, and safety issues.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses described in the previous chapter. The purpose of this study was to understand the level of influence faculty members have and key influence tactics they use in decision making process at Saudi universities. The findings will be presented in relation to the six research questions:

- 1) How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?
- 2) To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?
- 3) To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?
- 4) To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during the departmental meetings*?
- 5) To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?
- 6) To what extent do personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any*

leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

Findings Related to Research Question #1

The first research question presented was “*How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?*”. In order to answer this research question, the mean of each item was calculated and ranked from highest to lowest. Table 4.1 depicts the means of the eight self-assessed power.

Table 4.1
Rank Order Listing of Self-Assessed Power Items

Rank	Item	M (SD)	Mean Item Means	Percent by Category			
				Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2. My colleagues listen to my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	12.40 (0.66)	3.10	2.3	10.2	62.3	25.2
2	7. My colleagues respect my ideas in faculty meetings.	12.36 (0.68)	3.09	2.8	10.6	62.0	24.6
3	4. My colleagues ignore my opinions during faculty meetings. *	12.28 (0.75)	3.07	2.6	16.8	51.1	29.5
4	6. My colleagues allow me to speak freely about my ideas in faculty meetings.	12.27 (0.72)	3.06	3.8	11	59.6	25.6
5	1. My colleagues appreciate my planning ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	12.20 (0.69)	3.05	2.9	12.6	60.9	23.6
6	8. I expect my efforts to have an influence over my colleagues in faculty meetings.	11.76 (0.71)	2.94	3.6	17.3	60.3	18.8
7	3. My colleagues challenge my ideas on educational	11.56 (0.83)	2.89	4.9	25.1	45.5	24.4

Table 4.1
Rank Order Listing of Self-Assessed Power Items

Rank	Item	M (SD)	Mean Item Means	Percent by Category			
				Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	program development in faculty meetings.*						
8	5. I am an opinion leader in faculty meetings.	11.04 (0.79)	2.76	6.3	27.9	49.8	15.9

* Reverse Coded

As seen in the table above, the two highest ranking item were “My colleagues listen to my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings”, (M=3.10, SD = 0.66), and “My colleagues respect my ideas in faculty meetings. (M=3.09, SD = 0.68) on a four-point scale. Followed by “My colleagues ignore my opinions during faculty meetings (M=3.07, SD = 0.75) which was a reversed item; reverse coding in data preparation revealed that faculty members felt that their ideas were ignored. Overall, the mean item means are comparatively high, and the range is restricted. The mean item means ranged from 2.76 to 3.10. This indicated that faculty members feel powerful during departmental meetings, with the lowest rank items well passed the midpoint theoretical item in four-point scale.

Findings Related to Research Question #2

The second research question presented was (*To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?*). In order to answer the second research question, Tables 4.3 and 4.4 present the means of the 10 highest- and 10 lowest-ranked influence tactics, respectively.

Table 4.2 shows the 10 highest-ranked tactics used as reported by faculty members. These included four of the five measures for consulting tactics, three of the five measures for reasoning tactics and three of five measures for appealing tactics. The two

highest-ranked items for consulting tactics were “During faculty meetings, I indicate that I am open to other faculty members’ ideas about educational program development” and “During faculty meetings, I suggest that other faculty members are qualified individuals for the task that I want done on educational program development.”

Table 4.3 presents the 10 lowest-ranked items used as reported by faculty members. These included eight of the 10 measures for counteracting tactics, one of the six items for bargaining tactics and one item measuring pressure. The two lowest-ranked items were “*I work with like-minded people to refuse to vote during the faculty meeting in order to attract attention to educational program development*” and “*Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the Ministry of Education if our thoughts on developing the educational program are ignored.*” The frequency table of each item is located in Appendix K.

Overall, these tactics tend to reflect Saudi social norms that specify acceptable forms of interpersonal behavior in Saudi Arabia, including influence tactics. The top 10 tactics were considered the most respectful and acceptable tactics, while the bottom 10 tactics were considered the least respectful and unacceptable, according to Saudi cultural values.

These tactics, which conform to social norms, are the most respectful tactics. Meanwhile the bottom tactics (pressuring, bargaining and counteracting) are the least respectful and unacceptable tactics according to Saudi social norms and are used less frequently. However, we should keep in mind the possibility that unacceptable tactics may suppress the use of other tactics or these higher ratings were due to social desirability.

Table 4.2

The Ten Highest Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Items (N= 953)

Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Construct
1	33. During faculty meetings, I indicate that I am open to other faculty members' ideas	3.23	.91	Consulting
2	34. During faculty meetings, I suggest that other faculty members are qualified	3.14	.94	Consulting
3	27. During faculty meetings, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty	3.05	.99	Reasoning
4	30. During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members for suggestions on my	3.03	1.01	Consulting
5	35. During faculty meetings, I wait until my colleagues are in a good mood before	2.96	1.02	Appealing
6	24. During faculty meetings, I indicate my willingness to modify my planning ideas	2.94	.98	Consulting
7	33. During faculty meetings, I make other faculty members feel that what they want	2.93	.97	Appealing
8	38. During faculty meetings, I appeal to other faculty members' values while	2.89	1.05	Appealing
9	28. During faculty meetings, I convince my colleagues members based on my own	2.75	1.02	Reasoning
10	26. During faculty meetings, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and	2.70	1.06	Reasoning

Table 4.3

Ten Lowest Rank Ordered of Influence Tactics Items (N= 953)

Rank	Item Language	M	Construct
37	20. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to send an official letter to the department chairman about our positive thoughts on the development of the educational program.	1.70 (0.90)	Counteracting
38	45. During faculty meetings, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas on educational program development.	1.66 (0.95)	Bargaining
39	21. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to delay carrying out the conflicting points around developing the educational program.	1.62 (0.88)	Counteracting
40	52. During faculty meetings, I take action while other faculty members are absent to implement my ideas on developing the educational program.	1.59 (0.87)	Counteracting
41	50. During faculty meetings, I challenge other faculty members to do the work my way or to come up with a better plan for developing the educational program.	1.59 (0.89)	Pressuring
42	23. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to agree to say nothing during the faculty meeting.	1.46 (0.80)	Counteracting
43	18. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the dean of our college if our thoughts on developing the educational	1.45 (0.82)	Counteracting
44	53. During faculty meetings, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my ideas on developing the educational program.	1.39 (0.78)	Counteracting
45	24. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to refuse to vote during the faculty meeting in order to attract attention to educational program development.	1.36 (0.73)	Counteracting
46	19. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the Ministry of Education if our thoughts on developing the educational	1.36 (0.75)	Counteracting

Table 4.4 presents *the seven influence tactics* in order of their mean item means. Although the range of influence tactics were relatively restricted, a pattern emerged when the top 10 and bottom 10 tactics were examined. Faculty members reported that consulting, reasoning and appealing tactics were used frequently in departmental meetings; therefore, faculty members' behaviors might represent the ideal of Saudi social norms and cultural values.

Table 4.4
Rank Order List of Influence Tactics Scales (N=953)

Rank (Mean Item Means)	Scale	Number of items	M (SD)	Mean Item Means
1	Consulting	5	11.96 (3.17)	2.99
2	Reasoning	5	10.98 (3.36)	2.75
3	Appealing	5	10.96 (3.03)	2.74
4	Networking	9	9.04 (2.76)	2.26
5	Pressuring	6	7.56 (2.84)	1.89
6	Bargaining	6	7.09 (3.16)	1.18
7	Counteracting	10	6.42 (2.40)	1.07

Findings Related to Research Question #3

In order to answer the third question, "To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?", simple linear regression was used to determine the relationship between the self-assessed

power of faculty members and the strategies they used (Table4.5).

Based on Table 4.5, three influence tactics were Substantively and significantly explained by self-assessed power at level of 0.01. Self-assessed power explained 9% of

Table 4.5

Prediction of Influence Tactics by Self-Assessed Power (N=953)

Outcomes	r	p-value	r ²
Reasoning	.25	.000	.06**
Consulting	.30	.000	.09**
Appealing	.14	.000	.02
Networking	.07	.026	.01
Bargaining	-.14	.000	.02
Pressuring	-.06	.056	.00
Counteracting	-.19	.000	.04**

the observed variance in consulting. Other outcome variables were reasoning and counteracting tactics which were respectively explained (6%) and (4%) by self-assessed power.

Overall, faculty who felt powerful reported that they tended to use two tactics: consulting, and reasoning. Meanwhile, faculty members who felt less powerful tended to use counteracting tactics.

Findings Related to Research Question #4

In order to answer the fourth question, *“To what extent does the gender of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of*

influence tactics during the departmental meetings?” the researcher calculated the total means of men and women groups for each of constructs and t-tests were used to determine the influence of gender variable on key constructs.

Self-Assessed Power

To determine the relationship between the self-assessed power scale and gender, the total means of men and women groups for self-assessed power were calculated and t-Test was conducted.

Generally, results from an independent samples t-test on items indicated that women were statically lower in four items. Also, there was a significant effect for gender, once total score of self-assessed power was lower for women ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 0.52$) than for men ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 0.50$), $t(951) = 2.73$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = .01$ Overall, women faculty tend to feel less powerful than men faculty (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6
t-Tests Results Comparing Men and Women on Self-Assessed Power Items

Rank by Mean Difference	Self-Assessed Power Items	Men M (SD)	Women M (SD)	MD	t	r ²
1	My colleagues appreciate my planning ideas on educational program development in departmental meetings.	3.15 (0.71)	3.00 (0.71)	.15	3.35**	.012
2	My colleagues allow me to speak freely about my ideas in departmental meetings.	3.12 (0.68)	2.99 (0.70)	.13	2.26**	.010
3	I am an opinion leader in departmental meetings.	2.82 (0.79)	2.69 (0.80)	.13	2.50**	.005
4	My colleagues listen to my ideas on educational program development in departmental meetings.	3.16 (0.66)	3.06 (0.66)	.10	2.31**	.006
5	My colleagues ignore my opinions during departmental meetings. *	3.12 (0.75)	3.03 (0.74)	.09	1.81	.003

Table 4.6 (continued)

Rank by Mean Difference	Self-Assessed Power Items	Men M (SD)	Women M (SD)	MD	t	r ²
6	My colleagues respect my ideas in departmental meetings.	3.12 (0.68)	3.04 (0.68)	.07	1.83	.003
7	My colleagues challenge my ideas on educational program development in departmental meetings. *	2.91 (0.86)	2.88 (0.79)	.03	0.554	.000
8	I expect my efforts to have an influence over my colleagues in departmental meetings.	2.95 (0.72)	2.94 (0.70)	.01	0.179	.000
Total Self-Assessed Power		3.04 (0.49)	2.95 (0.52)	.09	2.74	.100

MD: Mean Difference

*Reverse Coded

** Significant at level .01

The Use of Influence Tactics

With respect to the use of influence tactics, Table 4.7 shows that women scored lower on all tactics, although some cases were marginally lower.

Table 4.7

t-Tests Results Comparing Men and Women on Influence Tactics Scales

Scales	Gender		t	df	P	r ²
	Men Faculty (N=444)	Women Faculty (N=478)				
	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Reasoning	2.82 (0.78)	2.68 (0.89)	2.64	947.16 ^a	.009*	.010
Consulting	3.00 (0.72)	2.98 (0.86)	0.45	940.44	.65	.004
Appealing	2.76 (0.69)	2.75 (0.79)	0.35	947.49	.73	.001
Networking	2.27 (0.67)	2.26 (0.71)	0.46	951	.64	.004
Bargaining	1.83 (0.82)	1.73 (0.75)	1.75	930.07 ^a	.082	.004
Pressuring	1.94 (0.72)	1.85 (0.70)	1.56	951	.118	.003
Counteracting	1.62 (0.64)	1.61 (0.57)	0.36	951	.721	.001

*MD: Mean Difference

** Significant at level .01

^a degrees of freedom were adjusted since Levene's test indicated unequal variances

Based on results above, an independent sample t-test indicated that most influence tactics were not statistically significant between men and women. Only one of the influence tactics yielded statistically significant results; however, it was difficult to claim substantive meaning since the mean difference was extremely small.

Findings Related to Research Question #5

In order to answer the fifth question, *“To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences, age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?”*, In order to answer the fifth question, the researcher used a variety of techniques including a Pearson correlation, t-tests and simple regression analyses, to determine the bivariate relationships between the six predictor variables and eight key construct scales. A total of 48 statistical tests were needed to discover the significant relationships.

With so many statistical tests, the researcher confronted two concerns: (1) errors and (2) unimportantly significant results. Two criteria were set up to address these issues. Firstly, the researcher adjusted for multiple testing of all 48 tests using multiple test theory, which provides a control for error rates (Bender & Lange, 2001). Therefore, the researcher set the required conservative significance at $p < 0.01$ in order to avoid false positive or type I error. Second, in order to avoid statistically insignificant results, the researcher chose substantively important predictors that could explain at least 3% of the variability in the dependent variables of all eight key measures. Table 4.8 shows the types of statistical analysis performed and two criteria.

Table 4. 8
Type of Statistical Analysis Performed

Predictor	Level of Measurement	Analysis
Country of Origin	Dichotomous	Independent Sample t-Test
Currently appointed in any leadership positions	Dichotomous	Independent Sample t-Test
Previously appointed in any leadership positions	Dichotomous	Independent Sample t-Test
Professor Rank	Categorical	Spearman's Correlation
Years of Experience	Interval	Pearson's Correlation
Age	Interval	Pearson's Correlation

* at .01 level of significance and

** Substantively significant predictor should explain at least 3% of variance in the dependent variables, eight key measures.

The prediction for each of the predictors, which were constricted by self-assessed power and influence tactics scales found in appendix L.

Self-Assessed Power

In the bivariate analysis, of the six predictor variables analyzed, two predictor variables were significantly correlated with self-assessed power. It is worth noting that Table 4.9 only presents the personal characteristics that were considered substantively, statistically significant results based on two criteria (Table 4.9).

Table 4. 9
 Correlations of Personal Characteristics with Key Construct Scales

Scales	Country of Origin	Professor Rank	Years of Experience	Age	CAL	PAL
Self-Assessed Power	-	-	Positive Correlated ($r^2= 3\%$)**	Positive Correlated ($r^2= 4\%$)**	-	-
Reasoning	-	-	-	-	-	-
Consulting	-	-	-	-	-	-
Appealing	-	-	-	-	-	-
Networking	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bargaining	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pressuring	-	-	-	-	-	-
Counteracting	-	-	Negative Correlated ($r^2= 3\%$)**	Negative Correlated ($r^2= 3\%$)**	-	-

CAL: Currently appointed in leadership position & PAL: Previously appointed in leadership position

* the level of significance at .01

** <3% is the acceptable percentage of the variance explained by a single predictor

It clearly seen that the strongest explanatory variable was age, which explained 4% of the observed variance in self-assessed power. The second explanatory variable was Years of experience, which explain 3% of the observed variance in self-assessed power

Self-assessed Power and Age. To determine the relationship between the self-assessed power scale and *Age*, *Pearson correlation was conducted. The results show that* age and self-assessed power were positively correlated, $r = .19, p < .01, r^2 = .04$

Self-assessed Power and Years of Experiences. To determine the relationship between the self-assessed power scale and *years of experience*, *Pearson correlation was conducted. The results show that* Years of experience and self-assessed power were moderately positively correlated, $r = .16, p < .01, r^2 = .03$.

The Use of Influence Tactics

In the bivariate analysis, of the six predictor variables analyzed, most personal characteristics did not explain the use of influence tactics construct scales. only two personal characteristics (Age and Years of experience) were significantly correlated with counteracting tactics scale., and both predictor variables explained 3% of the observed variance in counteracting tactics scale.

Years of Experiences. To determine the relationship between the *counteracting* scale and *years of experience*, *Pearson correlation was conducted. The results show that* years of experience and *counteracting* were negatively correlated, $r = .17, p < .01, r^2 = .03$

Age. To determine the relationship between the *counteracting* scale and *age*, *Pearson correlation was conducted. The results show that* Age and *counteracting* were negatively correlated, $r = .16, p < .01, r^2 = .03$

Findings Related to Research Question #6

In order to answer the sixth question, “To what extent do other faculty members’ personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, Previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?”, the researcher established an exploratory model using multivariate relationships to identify the best model for the self-assessed power and use of influence tactics scales by a desire to explain the maximum variance. It resulted in the most fundamental model with the highest explanatory value. This resulted in a fundamental model with the highest explanatory value. To produce potential models, a sequential regression was conducted to determine which variables explained variation to the greatest degree for self-assessed power and influence tactics. A step-wise regression method was used to remove the impact of non-effective predictors in the regression model. According to Pržulj and Momcilovic (2011), step-wise regression is a semi-automated process of building a model by successively adding or removing variables based solely on the t-statistics of their estimated coefficients.

Therefore, step-wise regressions were conducted in which gender was forced in all step-wise selection procedures. For this regression, gender was identified in the first block. Then, all significant predictor variables in the previous bivariate analyses were sequentially added in the next block for each of the key scales. Table 4.10 presents an overview of the multivariate analysis.

Table 4. 10
Summary of The Best Regression Models

Scales	Gender alone as a predictor variable	Additional predictors added in step-wise regression	Total Model R ²
Self-Assessed Power	r ² =.007	Age Years of Experience	R ² =.040*
Reasoning	r ² =.010	Age Years of Experience	R ² =.013
Consulting	r ² =.004	No significant predictors	R ² =.004
Appealing	r ² =.001	No significant predictors	R ² =.001
Networking	r ² =.004	No significant predictors	R ² =.004
Bargaining	r ² =.004	No significant predictors	R ² =.004
Pressuring	r ² =.003	No significant predictors	R ² =.003
Counteracting	r ² =.001	Age Years of Experience	R ² =.044*

* the level of significance at .01

Over eight regression models, the variance of six construct scales (Reasoning, Consulting, Appealing, Networking, Bargaining and Pressuring) were explained 1% and less after adding additional predictors on these models which is almost nothing. Whilst the variance of two construct scales, Self-assessed power and Counteracting tactics scales, were explained after adding additional predictors. More than 3% of the variance of dependent variables were added considerable amounts to improve the predictions. Each of the models will be discussed in the following sections.

Self-assessed power

The stepwise regression was conducted for the self-assessed power with the significant ($p < .01$) predictor variables from the bivariate analyses, the regression produced two proposed models. This selected model contained two variables explaining approximately 4% of the variance for the self-assessed power. The statistics on this model are depicted in Table 4. 11.

Table 4. 11
The Best Model for Self-Assessed Power

Parameter	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	p
Gender	-.062	-0.061	-1.81	.071
Age	0.007	0.117	2.70	.007
Years of experience	.005	.086	2.00	.046

Note. Model Statistic: $R^2 = .040$; $F = 12.241$; $p = 0.00$

Counteracting Tactics Scale

The stepwise regression produced four models. The best model for explaining the counteracting tactics included gender, country of origin and age. This three-variable model explained 4.4% of the observed variance in the dependent variable. The statistics on this model are depicted in Table 4. 12.

Table 4. 12
The Best Model for Counteracting Scale

Parameter	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	p
Gender	-0.047	-0.039	-1.15	.252
Years of Experience	-0.007	0.115	-2.68	.008
Age	-0.006	-0.096	-2.21	.028

Findings Related to Additional Analyses

In addition to the main research questions, we conducted two additional analyses with the data collected from the questionnaire. The purpose of the first additional analysis was to compare the total reliability of seven influence tactic scales on a new questionnaire adopted and developed by the researcher from the original questionnaire developed by Yang (1996). The second analysis was to examine the qualitative data derived from faculty responses to open-ended questions.

Reliability Comparison of the Original and New Questionnaire

One area of explanation deals with the way in which I modified the instrument to include what I was consider essential for modern times. Three modifications were made of the original research instrument constructed by Yang in 1996 which were: 1) revising the wording of the influence tactic items to become a person influences a group of people (rather than only one other person); 2) deleting two unclear items which did not make sense in Saudi context and 3) generating 17 additional items to capture collective influencing actions based on feminist literature. Here, I conducted two analyses to compare among the reliability of Yang's instrument consisting of 31 items, Arabic short version of instrument consisting 29 items and feminist version of the instrument consisting 46 items. Therefore, the survey instrument was improved (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

Reliability Comparison of the Original and New Instrument

Scales	Yang's Instrument*		Modified Version of Instrument**		Feminist Version of Instrument***	
	Number of Items	Alpha	Number of Items	Alpha	Number of Items	Alpha
Reasoning	5	0.81	5	.88	5	0.88
Consulting	4	0.82	4	.82	5	0.87
Appealing	5	0.73	4	.73	5	0.75
Networking	4	0.74	4	.82	9	0.86
Bargaining	4	0.78	4	.92	6	0.86
Pressuring	5	0.63	5	.81	6	0.82
Counteracting	4	0.68	3	.68	10	0.87

* Yang's instrument consists of 31 items

** Modified Version of Instrument consisting of 29 items after revising the wording of the items and deleting two items which did not make sense in Arab context

*** Feminist Version of Instrument consisting 46 items after adding 17 items based on feminist literature.

One area of explanation deals corrected total correlations for 16 new items added by the researcher to determine whether they have high corrected total correlations (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14
The Lowest Scores of the Additional Item Total Corrected Correlation (N=953)

Construct	Items	Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Appealing	11. Before attending faculty meetings, I encourage trusted colleagues to express any concerns they might have.	.20	.81*
Pressuring	17. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to use our titles, positions, power, and resources to support our group goals on educational program development.	.43	.81**
Counteracting	22. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to resolve conflicting points in the educational program.	.44	.87

* The reliability of the appealing scale will increase from 0.75 to 0.81 if this item is deleted.

** The reliability of the pressuring scale will increase from 0.81 to 0.813 if this item is deleted.

The corrected item–total correlation shows how the additional items are correlated with a total scale computed from only the other items. Francis and Whites (2002) recommended that corrected item–total correlations should be above 0.50 for a good scale. Of 16 additional items, only three items are less than the minimum for an acceptable item–total correlation. The full list of total corrected-item correlation for the additional items appears in Appendix M.

The Qualitative Data

This study was primarily designed as a quantitative study using statistical analysis. However, the survey contained two open-ended questions that allowed respondents to express themselves in their own words. Although these data is in no way representative of all Saudi faculty, of the 953 respondents, only 85 chose to write comments. The qualitative data was consistent with the statistical findings related to the

impact of gender on the faculty members' self-assessed power. I subjected these to a qualitative content analysis in an attempt to understand what each faculty member thought worthy of writing about (Appendix N). The following are selected quotations from the faculty responses, corrected for grammar and punctuation:

- "Here, all are given the freedom to suggest and the decision comes as per the agreement of all department members."
- "No, there are no effects based on personal characteristics or my participation in the educational planning process. This is because there is no difference among members based on their country, gender, rank in years, or qualifications."
- "Not at all. I'm a Saudi male assistant professor with more than 20 years of experience, and I've never felt that any of these characteristics helped me in suggesting any new idea, nor did they affect my decision to share my thoughts and opinions on any subject in our department. Most of the time, we are open for any suggestions or ideas from all faculty, provided that they are presented in a professional matter."

Additionally, the qualitative data can be summarized in four major categories. These categories are:

- a) Supporting the existing system.
- b) Gender inequality in the workplace.
- c) other forms of oppression in workplace
- d) Seniority in the workplace.

Supporting the Existing System. Of the 86 faculty comments, 37 of the comments were from system supporters while 49 comments were from opposing people.

In details, those 37 system supporters tend to be men faculty members (63%), which is the dominant group, while 37% of the supporters are women faculty members. Also, 95 % of the system supporters are Saudi faculty members compared to only 5% of non-Saudi faculty members.

On the other hand, 49 system opponents underline that they saw three different types of issues related to gender equity, Seniority in workplace and other forms of oppressions.

Gender Inequality. Twenty-one percent of the comments dealt specifically with gender inequality. What stood apart in this category can best be described as unequal treatment or perceptions of faculty members based on their gender. It arises from differences in socially constructed gender roles. Some participants expressed that they live in a traditionally male-dominant environment in which their voices and opinions are neglected and ignored. The following is a list of selected comments, corrected for grammar and punctuation:

- "Absolutely; Saudi Arabia is a male-dominated society when it comes to power and decisions. As a female faculty member, I feel I have very little power to influence change. Men make the decisions and we mostly just execute them. The segregation, to start with, is a big barrier. You can't be that effective or influential if you participate through a TV circuit! Also, some new faculty members come from very traditional backgrounds, and they might be the first in their family to hold a PhD degree or to even travel abroad, so they are still struggling to see women as equal."
- "Yes, I think it is a cultural issue. For some reason, women's opinions are not always taken under consideration."

- “In the department of religion, female faculty members are not allowed to attend faculty meetings. Last semester, we were asked to put our comments on an agenda of items via email.”
- “Maybe! Being a female is still a little bit of an obstacle. Well, being female is not actually the issue, but rather how the environment treats females. It is all about culture, I guess. However, it is improving positively. Yes, there is not a striking or steady improvement, I would say, yet it is getting better.”

Other Forms of Oppression. The comments dealing with other forms of oppression in workplace made up 31% of the total comments. For example, out of 85 comments, seven faculty members complained in general that the process is not democratic enough.

Seniority in Workplace, most participants (4%) expressed that age and years of experience are the most important personal characteristics which have influenced their participation during departmental meetings.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter provides an interpretation of the findings presented in Chapter 4. The purpose of this study was to understand the level of influence faculty members have and key influence tactics they use in decision making process at Saudi universities. The six research questions guiding the study were:

1. How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?
2. To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?
3. To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?
4. To what extent does the *gender* of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in *self-assessed power* and *the use of influence tactics during the departmental meetings*?
5. To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?
6. To what extent do personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any*

leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?

The relationship between the findings of this study and their implications for practice and research are addressed here. Information is presented in the following major sections: Summary of findings, conclusions & discussions, implications for policy and practice, and implications for future research.

Summary of Findings

Findings Related to Research Question #1

Means and Rank ordering of the eight self-assessed power items was used to answer the question *How do faculty members assess their own power during departmental meetings?* I calculated the mean of each item and ranked from the highest to lowest. Generally, I found that faculty members feel powerful during departmental meetings, with the lowest rank items well passed the midpoint theoretical item in four-point scale.

Findings Related to Research Question #2

Means and rank ordering of the 46 influence tactics was used to answer the question: *To what extent do faculty members report using specific influence tactics during departmental meetings?* The means ranged from 1 to 4 on a frequency scale of Never Used, Rarely, Sometimes and Often. The three highest ranked items were related to *consulting tactics, reasoning tactics* and *appealing tactics* whereas the lowest ranking items were related to bargaining and counteracting tactics. From an examination of the means as shown in tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5, it seems that faculty members' behaviors

might represent the ideal of Saudi social norms and cultural values. Three top tactics which are consulting, reasoning and appealing are the most respectful tactics. Meanwhile the bottom tactics (pressuring, bargaining and counteracting) are the least respectful and unacceptable tactics according to Saudi social norms and are used less frequently.

Findings Related to Research Question #3

Simple regressions were conducted to answer the question: *“To what extent does self-assessed power explain the use of influence tactics for faculty members working in Saudi universities?”* Research question three sought to determine the relationship between the amount of power that faculty members had and their types of tactics they used. After examining the correlations between self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics scales, five influence tactics were correlated with self-assessed power at a level of significance 0.01. This is, faculty who felt powerful reported that they tended to use three tactics: reasoning, consulting, and appealing. Meanwhile, faculty members who felt less powerful tended to use bargaining and counteracting during the departmental meetings.

Findings Related to Research Question #4

Bivariate analyses were implemented to answer the fourth research question: *“To what extent does the gender of faculty members alone explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics during the departmental meetings?”*

To determine the relationship between the self-assessed power scale and gender, the total means of men and women groups for self-assessed power were calculated and t-Test was conducted. Generally, results from an independent samples t-test indicated that, there was a significant effect for gender. Self-assessed power was lower for women.

Overall, women faculty tend to feel less powerful than men faculty during departmental meetings.

On other hand, regarding the relationship between gender and the use of influence tactics construct scales, in all cases women scored lower on all tactics, although some cases were marginally lower. This means that men faculty members were inclined to use influence tactics more than women faculty members during the departmental meetings. However, an independent sample t-test indicated that there is no significant difference between men and women in the use of influence tactics. Although only one of the influence tactics yielded statistically significant results but it was difficult to claim substantive meaning since the difference in women mean and men mean was not substantively significant.

Findings Related to Research Question #5

Bivariate analyses were implemented to answer the fifth research question: “To what extent do other personal characteristics of faculty members (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) individually explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics? Research question five sought to determine the bivariate relationships between the six predictor variables (*country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) and self-assessed power and influence tactics construct scales.

Of 48 bivariate tests, two predictors, age and years of experience, significantly influenced self-assessed power and the use of counteracting tactics. Age and years of

experience have a positive effect on the faculty's power in decision making process. Meanwhile, Age and years of experience have a negative effect on the use of counteracting tactics which were explained 3%.

Findings Related to Research Question #6

Step-wise multiple regression was used to determine a response to the sixth research question: "To what extent do other faculty members' personal characteristics of faculty members (*gender, country of origin, professor rank, years of experiences age, previously appointed in any leadership position, currently appointed in any leadership position*) jointly explain the observed variation in self-assessed power and the use of influence tactics?"

Generally, a model that includes gender age and years of experience is a useful produced model for self-assessed power and the use of counteracting tactics. The three-variable model demonstrated the greatest influence by explaining 4% of the observed variance in two dependent variables, self-assessed power and counteracting tactics.

Conclusions and Discussions

Based on the study findings, three conclusions were drawn and discussed in the following sections:

- Conclusion 1: In Saudi higher education institutions, the power relationships between men and women faculty members are primarily shaped by cultural values.
- Conclusion 2: Saudi societal roles have an impact on interpersonal behaviors used by men and women faculty in educational planning and decision-making settings at Saudi universities.

- Conclusion 3: Gender, age and years of experience and impact the faculty's perception of power and power strategies in Saudi universities.

Conclusion 1: In Saudi higher education institutions, the power relationships between men and women faculty members are primarily shaped by cultural values.

The study results show that women faculty members tend to have less power than men faculty members in Saudi universities. These findings can be explained by the dominant cultural norms and values in societal and organizational contexts which, in the context of Saudi universities, favor men. This finding agrees with previous studies exploring the influence of cultural values on the power relationships between men and women in Saudi Arabia (Albahr, 2015; Al-Munajed, 2009; Alwedinani, 2016; Hamdan, 2005). Johnson-Bailey and Lee (2005) argue that, as academics, women have little power or control over the larger systems in place. Al-Munajed (2009) provides a similar assessment of the Saudi context as “Saudi women do not share sufficiently in the decision-making processes at the highest level of government and educational policies” (p. 62). Furthermore, women faculty members in Saudi Arabia have difficulty fulfilling their goals (Alwedinani, 2016) because the cultural system renders them powerless against men during the negotiation process.

Elyas and Picard (2013) argue that, in Saudi Arabia, tribal values heavily influence cultural and societal norms and have produced a decades-old set of ideals that position the concepts of freedom and gender equality as western notions. In gender roles, these values historically have given men the final say in decisions and demanded that women abide by men's decisions without negotiations (Elyas & Picard, 2013). Although the inclusion of women faculty members in decision making has become increasingly

common, many women still have limited educational opportunities (Alfassi, 2009; Hamdan, 2005). Consequently, women are often underrepresented in powerful positions in universities and throughout Saudi society.

In the present study, women faculty members scored lower than their men counterparts on three items related to power relationships: 1) “My colleagues appreciate the planning ideas on educational program development I share in departmental meetings;” 2) “My colleagues allow me to speak freely about my ideas in departmental meetings;” and 3) “My colleagues listen to my ideas about educational program development in departmental meetings.” The responses to these three items show how Saudi cultural norms feed women’s feeling of powerlessness. This finding confirms Alwedinani’s (2016) explanation of how the gender roles of women faculty members at Saudi universities influence the construction of power relations, which, in turn, inform the gender stereotypes operating in the decision-making process. Alwedinani (2016) builds on the work of Adely (2004), who described the foundation of the Saudi education system in the predominant cultural and social values:

Social reproduction theorists argue that power relations and domination underlie formal education systems. In this theoretical framework, schools serve to support existing power relations and to socialize young people to play their class and gender roles in these relations. ... Feminist social reproduction theorists in turn argue that schools serve to preserve patriarchy and dominant gender relations that relegate women to subordinate roles in society. (Adely, 2004, p. 354)

According to Alasmrai (2016), Saudi higher education institutions must function within highly formalized and social structures designed to ensure strict compliance with

specific interpretations of Islam enforced by restrictive social norms. Consequently, the regulations and policies of educational institutions constrain women's exercise of power in society and hinder their participation in educational planning and decision-making.

Conclusion 2: Saudi societal roles have an impact on interpersonal behaviors used by men and women faculty in educational planning and decision-making settings at Saudi universities.

In the context of the impact of gender on faculty use of influence tactics, this study found that women faculty had lower scores than men faculty for all influence tactics. However, the differences were not statistically significant. The present study also found that the order of each tactic ranked from highest to lowest mean was the same for men and women: consulting, reasoning, appealing, networking, pressuring, bargaining, and counteracting. These findings are consistent with previous studies reporting that there is no significant difference in the use of influence tactics among men and women and that men and women use the same influence tactics (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Lamude, 1993).

In addition, these findings suggest that women professors tend to remain silent during departmental meetings. Their actions speak to the power of small wins in creating substantial change through what is called "strategic silence." (Kandiyoti, 1998; Mohammed, 2002; Pratt, 2013, Smyth, 2007). Strategic silence is a useful tool in interpersonal communication and may be an essential strategy for negotiating gender relations and challenging gender inequity in decision-making processes. According to Smyth's (2007) observation that "If words are important, silences are important too and a reflection of what is excluded from daily exchanges—verbal or written—among

development practitioners [faculty] and policy makers” (p. 583). That is, women faculty consider this strategy useful tool in order to be wise and powerful during meetings.

Strategic silence shows respect to the other people since it allows them to ponder upon an argument, especially in collectivist societies such as Saudi Arabia. In addition to allowing more time for an idea or point to sink, strategic silence gives women faculty more time to think of the next move during and after meetings. This reduces the likelihood that they might repeat earlier statements or movements or that they might contradict themselves.

In the context of the impact of power differences on faculty’s use of influence tactics, the results show that both men and women faculty members who feel that they have more power tend to use the tactics of reasoning, consulting, and appealing during departmental meetings, while faculty members who feel less powerful tend to use pressuring, bargaining and counteracting. The study findings are in line with literature of power and influence tactics in educational planning (Cervero and Wilson, 1994; Yang, Cervero, Valentine, Benson, 1998; Hendricks, 2001, Meng, 2008). Cervero and Wilson (1994) developed a conceptual pattern with two dimensions (consensual vs. conflictual relations among legitimate interests) and two types of power relations (symmetrical vs. asymmetrical). Based on Yang, Cervero, Valentine, & Benson’s (1998) model, out of eight tactics consulting reasoning, consulting, and appealing are the tactics selected in consensual settings, whereas pressuring, bargaining and counteracting are favored as influencing tactics in settings characterized by conflict.

In the context of the impact of social roles on faculty’s use of influence tactics, this study found that men and women faculty members tend to use reasoning, appealing, and consulting more than other tactics. These findings can be explained by Fu and Yukl’s

(2000) and Yang's (2011) conclusions that the cultural values reflected in the societal norms regulating how people relate to each other determine the socially acceptable forms of interpersonal behavior. In exploring the factors related to decision-making tactics, Cervero and Wilson (1994) argue that individuals' location, cultural values, and perceptions of power help decide which influence tactics they use. In this case, Saudi Arabia is an Islamic country with strict social norms that guide the nature of interpersonal relationships, and Saudi cultural and religious practices are closely associated with influence tactics (Akhtar & Mahmood, 2009). All constructions of knowledge and forms of leadership are built on societal norms, giving rise to the great uniformity in religion, education, and other practices observed in the Saudi universities.

Exploring the gender-related differences in men and women's uses of influence tactics, Ryu (2008) argues that a nation's cultural values and norms directly influence the power relations between the genders. In the context of Saudi Arabia, cultural values create a wide power distance between men and women which, according to Alomair (2015), directly affects the likelihood of women holding leadership positions in the field of education in the Middle East. The underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in Saudi universities might, in turn, adversely impact how women faculty perceive power and behave in higher educational institutions. In this vein, Alwedinani (2016) suggests that men and women faculty members behave in a manner they perceive as socially acceptable. Thus, it can be argued that, in the Saudi context, women faculty members might feel the need to behave in a certain manner because women have only recently gained access to the same educational curriculum as men (Hamdan, 2005). However, it is also possible that acceptable and unacceptable tactics force the suppression

of other influence tactics, and the respondents might have given themselves higher ratings in the self-assessment due to social desirability.

In Saudi Arabia, collectivistic cultural values might explain the use of certain influence tactics. Saudi culture considered as collectivistic culture in which shared values, norms and assumptions have an impact on people's behaviors and influence approaches in social and organizational levels. Therefore, faculty members might attempt to behave in ways that ideally represent collectivistic cultural values and their influence approaches tend to be more relations-oriented tactics. Relational tactics should be more predominant to collectivistic culture because of the focus on personal connections and relationships. The cross-cultural literature on influence tactics affirms that consulting and appealing are relational tactics (Fu and Yukl, 2000; Fu et al., 2004; Yang, 2011; Leslie & Gelfand, 2012).

Although reasoning as one of rational tactics should be more common in individual cultures (Leslie & Gelfand, 2012), several studies found that such tactics are used in wide collectivistic cultures due to the focus on task performance and outcomes as much as relationships at higher educational institutions (Fu and Yukl, 2000; Fu et al., 2004; Yang, 2011). In contrast, the least frequently used tactics (bargaining, pressuring, and counteracting) are considered disrespectful and unacceptable tactics which can create interpersonal conflicts and negative workplace relationships in collectivistic cultures (Leslie & Gelfand, 2012).

Conclusion 3: Gender, age and years of experience and impact the faculty's perception of power and power strategies in Saudi universities.

Other researchers have confirmed the influence of personal characteristics,

particularly gender, age and years of experience, on power and influence tactics (Akhtar & Mahmood, 2008; Barbuto, Fritz, & Matkin, 2007; Meng, 2008; Yang, 2011). These claims are consistent with the findings of the present study showing that age and years of experience have positive effects on self-assessed power and seniority and that experienced faculty members tend to be more powerful than others.

The impacts of age and years of experiences on power are supported by the findings of Ryu (2008) and Barbuto et al. (2007) that individuals with longer employment histories with an institution tend to perceive themselves as more powerful. A possible explanation is that senior faculty members have more knowledge and experience than younger faculty members. As described by a women participant in the questionnaire, “Based in my knowledge, their [older and experienced faculty] power is based on their maturity and their logical opinions.” This claim is unsurprising because men and women faculty members who have worked at Saudi universities for many years tend to rise to key managerial positions.

Moreover, this study found that both age and years of experience have negative effects on the use of the influence tactic of counteracting. Younger and new faculty members tend to use counteracting more frequently than senior and expert faculty members. In other words, this tactic tends to be specific to younger faculty, not senior and expert faculty. This finding is consistent with previous studies reporting significant differences in the use of influence tactics among individuals of different ages (Akhtar & Mahmood, 2008; Meng, 2008; Yang, 2011). The literature on the Saudi context revealed that the younger generation of faculty members, both men and female, is challenging some societal and organizational norms, by using counteracting tactics to be included in

the decision-making process (Alwedinani, 2016). However, drawing attention through the use of socially undesirable tactics can adversely influence the attention that Saudi men and women faculty members receive, negatively affecting their standing within the institution and making them less likely to hold positions of power (Kappor & Ansari, 2007).

Implications for Policy and Practice

This study has some policy and practical implications for future works seeking to enhance the power and influence of faculty members in Saudi universities.

Implications for Policy

This study has demonstrated that women faculty members at Saudi universities feel less powerful than their men counterparts. Many women reported that they lack power and feel isolated in meetings, where their ideas are ignored and unappreciated. Therefore, the Saudi government needs to listen to all members of society regardless of gender, race, or religion as it develops policies and reforms to improve the economy and better utilize national resources in the context of the recent regional financial crisis. These steps could enable the country to move into the future with growing recognition of the importance of women's participation in all aspects of society, particularly education. Higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia should focus on including women faculty members in leadership positions to demonstrate to future generations the respect of Saudi universities for the accomplishments and views of women educators. Higher education institutions need to ensure that women feel welcomed and respected in the workplace. This is important because the decision to not respect women, assert power over them, or refuse to acknowledge their accomplishments could adversely impact the presence of

women in the workplace (Hamdan, 2005). Universities could establish agencies to address women faculty members' rights, and this support system could be an effective way to increase their participation in the decision-making process. To achieve the Saudi Vision 2030, women need to be considered to be major parts of society in order to achieve the Saudi Vision 2030 which is a plan described as the most comprehensive social- educational and economic reform package in Saudi Arabia.

Implications for Practice

This study confirmed that faculty members tend to feel empowered during departmental meetings; however, this result does not remain consistent when gender, age, and years of experience are included as predictors. To start building awareness among men and women faculty members, Dr. Abdullah Alquathami, a Saudi professor of sociology from King Saudi University, (2004) stated that studying the African-American movement as an example is a good start to teach us how minorities have survived and recommended that the findings be applied to Saudi higher education. The qualitative results of our study reveal that women faculty members reported that their ideas have been ignored, not appreciated, and not heard by their colleagues. They also said that they are not allowed to speak freely during departmental meetings. In order to address the politics that shape the experiences of the women faculty members and to increase their stake in the decision-making process in Saudi higher educational institutions, they must learn how to negotiate the existing power dynamics.

All parties should continue to improve their influencing, interpersonal communication, and negotiating skills, especially in the context of higher education. Johnson-Bailey (2001) emphasized the importance of negotiation to create a new

educational structure. This requires a commitment to clarify where men and women stand as decision makers. Moreover, faculty members should be aware of the importance of not accepting women's faculty exclusion through three following mechanisms. This can be achieved through

1) Organize a well-planned departmental meeting as these run smoothly while encouraging everyone to participate. Meetings that are confusing, lacking in clear goals, too long, or dominated by one person can make people feel discouraged and unwilling to return. However, a well-planned meeting is energizing, participatory, and inspiring. The following aspects should be ensured to achieve this:

- Invite to the meeting those people who will be affected by the decisions that will be made.
- Increase the per semester meeting frequency of departmental board members.
- Ensure that all departmental board members usually receive the meeting agenda in advance.
- Ensure that all departmental board members usually have an opportunity to discuss important decisions.
- Ensure that all departmental board members are allowed to suggest items that should be placed in the meeting agenda.
- Ensure that all departmental board members decide how decisions will be made between meetings, since many of the group members work between meetings. For instance, will there be committees to make the decisions, or will specific people be assigned the responsibility for making decisions?

2) Increase forms of telecommunication and electronic meetings because, given the various types of technology available, meetings will continue to take on new modes and formats apart from physical ones. Conference calls or teleconferences, video conferences, and online meetings help communicate information in a timely fashion as an alternative to, or in addition to, face-to-face meetings. As with any meeting, order and productivity are paramount.

3) Establish programs to enhance interpersonal communication skills. In such programs, senior and expert faculty members can share their experiences with younger and new faculty members with respect to effective power strategies that can be adopted to negotiate the existing power dynamics.

Implications for Future Research

This quantitative study is a starting point in understanding the faculty's assessment of power and the use of influence tactics. Future research can continue to investigate the findings of this study or approach the research from a different perspective. The following section outlines a few directions for future research.

In this study, I employed quantitative methods to determine the level of power among faculty members at Saudi University. However, interviews and focus groups organized as part of qualitative research studies may provide greater insights into the power dynamics in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia.

I produced a feminist version of the questionnaire "*Power and influence tactics scales- POINTS*", a modified instrument developed by Yang (1996). In this modification, I revised the wording of the items relating to influence tactics. Also, I added additional items for the influence actions based on feminist literature. Future studies could focus on

improving this questionnaire by deleting uncorrelated additional items in the new version of power and influence tactics questionnaire.

I identified faculty members' perceptions about their power and the use of influence tactics in four flagship public universities. Similar studies could be conducted with faculty members from different universities to determine whether there are similar or different perceptions about their self-assessed power and influence tactics.

I conducted this study at the four flagship university. Additional studies could be conducted on different places of Saudi public universities to make comparisons among other universities in Saudi Arabia.

This study included men and women faculty members of Saudi public universities. Future studies could focus on the women faculty to explore their experience in power dynamics at Saudi universities.

The participants in this study comprised 953 faculty members. By increasing the number of participants, future research could provide more information about power dynamics and power strategies in Saudi Arabia.

This study did not address the nationality of the faculty members. Additional research could focus only on faculty from other countries who are working in Saudi universities.

Further, in this study, I only investigated the faculty at four Saudi public universities. Additional studies could compare the faculty at one Saudi public university such as and that at the University of Georgia.

Future research could also investigate why some faculty did not complete the questionnaire. In this study, 1160 faculty members who began the questionnaire did not

complete it. An attempt to identify the reasons for this high non-completion rate might help future researchers address this issue.

Afterwards: Toward Gender Equity and Democracy In Educational Planning

The data in this study highlighted one factor influenced gender equity in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia but the reality is more complex than this. Since I started to conduct this study and collecting data, I have talked to dozens of people working in Saudi universities. Over that, I can envision the future of women faculty in higher education systems. Although progress has been made, few researchers would argue that these have been sufficient in important ways, and all parties should continue to improve their communication skills and negotiating tactics.

Communication skills become essential instruments for spreading the interests of women through education, even as the mainstream education process denies women adequate representation in the planning of programs for higher education. It is noteworthy that the planning stages of a higher education program are very critical because such programs remain unchanged over a longer period (Bingham & Nix, 2012). As a result, women—whether they are educators or faculty members in the Saudi higher education—remain in a disadvantaged position because society does not recognize their equality with men or their decision-making ability. If used positively, communication may be a proper avenue through which women educators may adequately inspire change in society. They can do so by influencing the young hearts and minds of college students, as well as the adult learners in institutions of higher education.

To gain visibility in program planning during decision making process, women need to acquire and learn power tactics which could be used to influence the decision-

making process during planning. At this stage, the influence tactics would result in designing of the programs which would help future female students and faculty to gain empowerment and learn about their rights. Saudi women who serve as faculty members can take advantage of the recent political developments that are somehow supporting women's empowerment. These include setting up coeducational universities and developing more universities for women in Saudi Arabia. Women faculty members can influence the curriculum and teaching methodologies that will result in female students knowing how to bring symmetry—and more assertive personalities—into future negotiations.

However, we do not yet know how influential men and women faculty are in making important curriculum decisions and what types of negotiation tactics those professors use while planning educational programs. In other words, this study concentrates on discussing such program planning influences among men and women faculty members at universities in Saudi Arabia.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A
CONTENT OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC
LANGUAGES

The subsequent pages are facsimiles from the online collection tool..



UNIVERSITY OF
GEORGIA

English ↕

Faculty Decision Making

Dear Faculty Member,

The recent decades have been a time of change in Saudi Arabia, with increased attention to men's and women's changing roles in society triggering a response from both conservative and progressive parties. The Saudi government has advocated for increased roles for women. However, some scholars and journalists have argued that women's increased participation represents a fundamental threat to Islamic and social values.

No matter what your political opinions are, I am sure you all agree with the role of universities in guiding our country through the process of change. While this role is important, it is sometimes unclear.

In order to help us to fill this row, we need to understand how faculty decision making is handled within our university environment. Your inputs in this survey is helpful to produce kind of data; ultimately move us to model of decision making in the future.

Thank you in advance for your participation and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mohammed Alasmrai

Ph.D Candidate in Lifelong Educational, Administration and Policy

University of Georgia

&

Lecturer in University of Tabuk

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Research Information Sheet

This sheet provides the purpose of the research and your rights as a research participant.

The purpose of the Questionnaire

The purpose of this study is to understand who is guiding our universities at the faculty level. This research will involve a broad range of faculty members working in Saudi public universities.

This questionnaire has two aims. The first aim is to measure the nature of decision making within Saudi Universities. The second aim is to explore issues related to power and influence in decision making. This study is expected to contribute to the enhancement of the roles of both men and women faculty members in educational decision making.

Completing the Questionnaire

As a participant in this study, you will complete an online questionnaire composed of 58 questions about the influence tactics that you have used during the planning process. Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study or refuse to participate at any time without penalty or a loss of benefits to which you would otherwise be entitled. You may skip any questions that you feel uncomfortable answering. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the online questionnaire.

Confidentiality

All of your responses will be confidential. Your questionnaire responses may be assigned a "cookie" that has no meaning outside the survey website. If you do not complete this survey in one sitting, you will be able to return to it and complete it at another time.

Internet communication may be less secure, and there is a limit to the confidentiality that it can guarantee.

However, once the researcher receives the survey, standard procedures will be followed and only a summary of the data will be reported.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, you can email me at maa810@uga.edu or my major professor Dr. Thomas Valentine at tvnj@uga.edu.

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UNIVERSITY OF
GEORGIA

English ↕

Section I: The characteristics of faculty meetings in Saudi Universities

In this section, since different universities or even different departments within a university use different models of faculty meetings, we would like to know the nature of the faculty meetings in our department and how our department approach these decisions.

1) Approximately, how many times do your departmental board members meet per semester?

2) Approximately, how many faculty members are involved in our departmental meetings?

Men faculty members

Women faculty members

3) Do departmental board members usually receive the meeting agenda in advance?

Yes

No

4) Do departmental board members usually have an opportunity to discuss important decisions?

Yes

No

4) Can departmental board members be allowed to suggest items that should be placed in the meeting agenda?

Yes

No

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English ↕

Section II: Self-Assessed Power

In this section, you will read about statements that describe how powerful you are when you are in the faculty meeting. Read each statement and click on the button that best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My colleagues appreciate my planning ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. My colleagues listen to my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. My colleagues challenge my ideas on educational program development in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. My colleagues ignore my opinions during faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I am an opinion leader in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. My colleagues allow me to speak freely about my ideas in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. My colleagues respect my ideas in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I expect my efforts to have an influence over my colleagues in faculty meetings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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UNIVERSITY OF
GEORGIA

English ↕

Do you think your personal characteristics (i.e. gender, country of origin, Age, professor rank and years of experiences) has affected you and your participation in the educational planning process? how?

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UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

English ↕

Section III: The Influence Tactics Used Before Attending Faculty Meetings

In this section, you will read about influence tactics used before attending faculty meetings, read each tactic and click on the button that best describes the frequency to which you use the following influence:

	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to get support from other departments that are instrumental to our plans.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with trusted colleagues to modify a plan I will be proposing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Before attending faculty meetings, I encourage trusted colleagues to express any concerns they might have.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees the internal operations of the organization in order to obtain support for developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to tie our request to others made by popular people in the organizational unit to gain support for our ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Before attending faculty meetings, I call like-minded people to informal meetings to discuss our ideas for educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Before attending faculty meetings, I make sure that my trusted colleagues remind other colleagues of how we have helped them in the past, to imply that we now expect compliance with our request for developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now with our ideas on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
9. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to use our titles, position, power and resources to support our group goals on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the dean of our college if our thoughts on developing the educational program are ignored.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the Ministry of Education if our thoughts on developing the educational program are ignored.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to send an official letter to the department chairman about our positive thoughts on the development of the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to delay carrying out the conflicting points around developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to resolve conflicting points in our the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to agree to say nothing during the faculty meeting.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to refuse to vote during the faculty meeting in order to attract attention to educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
17. During faculty meetings, I convince other faculty members that my planning ideas on developing the educational program are viable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. During faculty meetings, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that support my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. During faculty meetings, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. During faculty meetings, I convince my colleagues members based on my own professional experience in planning the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. During faculty meetings, I show other faculty members the relationship between my planning ideas on educational program development and past practices in our organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members for suggestions on my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
25. During faculty meetings, I indicate that I am open to other faculty members' ideas about educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. During faculty meetings, I suggest that other faculty members are qualified individuals for a task that I want done on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. During faculty meetings, I wait until my colleagues are in a good mood before presenting my ideas on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. During faculty meetings, I make sure that other faculty members have a good impression of me before making my request on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. During faculty meetings, I make other faculty members feel that what they want done is extremely important.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. During faculty meetings, I appeal to other faculty members' values while presenting my ideas on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. During faculty meetings, I ask my colleagues to help influence other faculty members in the development of the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. During faculty meetings, I link what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
33. During faculty meetings, I obtain moral support from other people when presenting my ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. During faculty meetings, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. During faculty meetings, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support of my thoughts on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. During faculty meetings, I offer to do some work for other faculty members in return for their support on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37. During faculty meetings, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38. During faculty meetings, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their support for my ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
33. During faculty meetings, I obtain moral support from other people when presenting my ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. During faculty meetings, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. During faculty meetings, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support of my thoughts on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. During faculty meetings, I offer to do some work for other faculty members in return for their support on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37. During faculty meetings, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38. During faculty meetings, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their support for my ideas on educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39. During faculty meetings, I repeatedly remind other faculty members about things I want done for educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
40. During faculty meetings, I insist that other faculty members support my plan for program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Never Used	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
41. During faculty meetings, I raise my voice when telling my colleagues about the tasks that I would like to see for educational program development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
42. During faculty meetings, I challenge other faculty members to do the work my way or to come up with a better plan for developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
43. During faculty meetings, I insist that other faculty members do the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
44. During faculty meetings, I take action while other faculty members are absent to implement my ideas on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45. During faculty meetings, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my ideas on developing the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
46. During faculty meetings, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to carry out requests that I do not agree with.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



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English ↕

Section IV: Background Information

1) What is your gender?

Male

Female

2) What is your year of birth? (for example 1975)

3) What is your country of origin?

Saudi Arabia

Other Arab Nations

Non-Arab Islamic Nations

Non-Arab and Non Islamic Nations

Others

4) What is your current rank?

Other

Assistant Professor

Associate Professor

Full Professor

5) What college are you working in?

Colleges of Sciences, Technical, and Engineering Sciences

Colleges of Arts

College of Education

College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences

Colleges of Law and Business

Colleges of Medicine and Health Sciences

6) How many years have you been as a professor?**7) Are you currently appointed to any leadership positions within your college or university?**

Yes

No

8) Have you been appointed to any leadership positions within your college or university?

Yes

No

Any Additional comments about faculty decision making in departmental faculty meetings or any thoughts related to this topic

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We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.

سعادة عضو هيئة التدريس الموقر/ه:
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد،

انطلاقاً من الحرص على إيجاد بيئة عمل مثالية من خلال بناء علاقات إيجابية بين أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات الحكومية السعودية والتي تساعدهم على طرح أفكارهم بحرية وتقبل وجهات النظر المختلفة أثناء الاجتماعات سواء على مستوى القسم، الكلية أو الجامعة فقد تم إعداد دراسة بعنوان " سياسة التخطيط الاستراتيجي في صناعة القرار التربوي: أساليب التأثير المستخدمة من قبل أعضاء هيئة التدريس أثناء اجتماعات الأقسام أو الكليات بالجامعات الحكومية السعودية " لاستكمال متطلب الحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في التربية بقسم القيادة التعليمية والتطوير المنظمي بجامعة جورجيا بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية.

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التعرف على مستوى تأثير عضو هيئة التدريس في عملية صناعة القرار، وأيضاً التعرف على أساليب وتقنيات التأثير المستخدمة من قبل عضو هيئة التدريس لتأثير على عملية صناعة القرار أثناء الاجتماعات على مستوى القسم، الكلية أو الجامعة.

إن تعاونكم وإجابكم الموضوعية على بنود الاستبانة يعزز مصداقية البحث العلمي ويساعد على الوصول إلى نتائج صحيحة. لذا أمل منكم التكرم بالإجابة على أسئلة الاستبانة بدقة. مع العلم أن كافة المعلومات المقدمة منكم ستكون سرية، ولن تستخدم إلا لغرض البحث العلمي فقط.

مع العلم أنه لا يوجد أي سؤال متعلق بهويتك الشخصية إلا أنه في حال تم ذكر أي معلومة خاصة بهويتك ستكون محفوظة بسرية تامة. مشاركتك تطوعية ويمكنك عدم الإجابة على أي سؤال أو الانسحاب من الاستبيان في أي وقت وأيضاً يمكنك التوقف في أي لحظة وإغلاق الاستبيان كما يمكن العودة لتكملة ما تبقى من الأسئلة في أي وقت. مدة هذا الاستبيان لا تزيد عن ٧ دقائق.

في حال لديكم أي استفسار بإمكانكم التواصل معي عبر البريد الإلكتروني بعنوان maa810@uga.edu شاكرًا لكم ولوقتكم المُعطى، وتقبلوا خالص شكري وتقديري.

الباحث: محمد بن عوض الأسمرى

عضو هيئة تدريس بقسم التربية وعلم النفس بجامعة تبوك

طالب دكتوراه في القيادة التعليمية والتطوير المنظمي بجامعة جورجيا بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية .



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القسم الأول: طبيعة اجتماعات القسم أو الكلية
في هذا القسم، ستجد مجموعة من الأسئلة التي تصف طبيعة اجتماعات مجلس القسم. أرجو الإجابة عن كل سؤال من الأسئلة التالية :

تقريباً كم عدد المرات التي يجتمع فيها أعضاء مجلس القسم في الفصل الدراسي الواحد؟

تقريباً، كم عدد أعضاء هيئة التدريس المشاركين باجتماع مجلس القسم؟

العدد التقريبي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس من الإناث

العدد التقريبي لأعضاء هيئة التدريس من الذكور

هل يطلع أعضاء مجلس القسم على جدول أعمال الاجتماع قبل انعقاده بوقت كاف؟

نعم

لا

هل يطلع أعضاء مجلس القسم على جدول أعمال الإجتماع قبل انعقاده بوقت كاف؟

نعم

لا

هل يُتاح لأعضاء مجلس القسم وقت كافٍ لمناقشة القرارات المهمة؟

نعم

لا

هل يُسمح لأعضاء مجلس القسم إقتراح بند أو أكثر في جدول أعمال إجتماع مجلس القسم لمناقشته أثناء الاجتماع القادم ؟

نعم

لا

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القسم الثاني: تأثير عضو هيئة التدريس في عملية صنع القرار:

في هذا القسم ستجد مجموعة من العبارات التي تبين مدى كرتك على التأثير أثناء الاجتماع على مستوى القسم أو الكلية. أرجو قراءة كل عبارة وتحديد إلى أي مدى تتفق معها:

موافق جدا	موافق	غير موافق	غير موافق جدا	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	١. أجد التدبير من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أثناء عرض أفكار المتعلقة بتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٢. يستمع زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس لأفكار المتعلقة بتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٣. يعتمد زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس التشكيك في أفكار المتعلقة بتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٤. يتجاهل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أفكار المتعلقة بتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٥. أعتبر نفسي من أحد قادة الرأي بالقسم أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٦. يسمح زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس لي بالحديث بحرية خلال عملية تخطيط وتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٧. أجد الاحترام من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس لأرائي المتعلقة بتطوير البرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	٨. أصمى وجهودي بالقسم أو بالجامعة لها تأثير إيجابي على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أثناء اجتماع القسم أو الكلية.

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٢,١ أي من خصائصك الشخصية كعضو هيئة التدريس (مثلا الجنس، بلد المنشأ، العمر، درجة الأستاذية أو الرتبة، سنوات الخبرة و التخصص) ترى له تأثير على مستوى مشاركتك في عملية التخطيط والتطوير للبرامج التربوية أثناء اجتماع القسم؟ لماذا؟

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القسم الثالث وما قبل الأخير: أساليب التأثير المستخدمة

في هذا القسم ستجد مجموعة من أساليب التأثير المستخدمة قبل وأثناء حضور اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، والهدف منها هو تعزيز ورفع مستوى التأثير على الآخرين خلال عملية صناعة القرار على مستوى القسم أو الكلية. أرجو قراءة كل أسلوب ومن ثم تحديد مدى استخدامه له

	لم استخدمها		
	نادرا	بعض الأحيان	
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتشجيع بقية الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس على التعبير بحرية عن أي آرائهم من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالعمل معا لتحديد الخطوة أو المقترح الخاص بتطوير البرنامج التربوي المقدم من الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نُشكل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي تحالف من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على تأسيس علاقة عمل جيدة باللجنة الخارجية المسؤولة عن مراقبة أعمال الكلية من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على ربط طلبنا بأخرين مؤثرين في الجامعة من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، أدعو زملائي الذين يشاركوني الرأي إلى اجتماع غير رسمي من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتذكير زملائنا الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالمساعدات المأمنية التي قُدمت لهم من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتقديم يد العون لزملائنا من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين بالقسم مستقبلا من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نتفق أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على استخدام مساحياتنا الممنوحة من العمل من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نتفق أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على استخدام أسلوب التهديد من خلال تقديم شكوى لعمادة الكلية في حالة تجاهل سماع أفكارنا من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نتفق أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على استخدام أسلوب التهديد من خلال تقديم شكوى لإدارة الجامعة في حالة تجاهل سماع أفكارنا من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على إرسال خطاب موقع لرئيس القسم يحتوي على رأي موحد من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على التأخير في تقديم بدائل حول النقاط المختلف عليها من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على تقديم بدائل مختلفة حول النقاط المختلف عليها من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نتفق أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على الامتناع عن الحديث نهائيا من أجل جذب الانتباه.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم أو الكلية، نتفق أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على الامتناع عن الحضور والتصويت أثناء اجتماع القسم من أجل جذب الانتباه.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

لم استخدمها مطلقا	نادرا	بعض الأحيان	غالباً
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أفتح زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بإمكانية تطبيق أفكارى المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أعرض لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الحقائق والبيانات الإحصائية من جداول ورسومات التي تدعم افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، استخدم الحجج المنطقية لأفتح بها زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بمنطقية افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أثبت لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس كفايتي في تطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أوضح لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس العلاقة بين عمالي بالجامعة وافكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أحث زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس على إبداء مقترحاتهم المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أسأل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين عن مخاوفهم من أفكارى المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، يكون تركيزي تجاه تعديل افكاري بناء على المداخلات المقدمة من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
لم استخدمها مطلقا	نادرا	بعض الأحيان	غالباً
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أصم على إبداء موافقتي لأفكار زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أذكر بأن هنالك من هو ذو كفاءة عالية لإتمام مهمة من المهام المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أنتظر حتى يكون الجو العام للاجتماع مناسباً ل طرح افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أجعل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يأخذون فكرة طيبة عني قبل طرح افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أجعل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يشعرون بأن ما أرفع إنجازاه هو بالغ الأهمية نحو تطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، استحث القيم الأخلاقية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس عند طرح أفكار متعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أصم على جعل مجموعة من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يساعدوني على التأثير على زملاء آخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس من أجل دعم افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أصم على ربط الأعمال التي أرفع من بعض الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس القيام بها بأعمال سابقة تم إنجازها من قبل أناس مؤثرين من إدارة الجامعة.			
لم استخدمها مطلقا	نادرا	بعض الأحيان	غالباً
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أصم على الحصول على دعم معنوي من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس عند عرض افكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أطلب من بعض زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس إقناع بقية الزملاء بافكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أعد بدعم زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم المستقبلية في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض المساعدة لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أعرض بعض الخدمات والمساعدات لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الذين دعوا افكاري المطروحة في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض الإطراء لبعض الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أمام الآخرين من أجل كسب دعمهم لأفكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أذكر زملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بشكل دائم بالمهام التي أرفع بها والمتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أسر على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتطبيق الافكار التي أرفع بها والمتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.			

لما استخدمها	بعض الأحيان		غالباً
	نادراً	غالباً	
خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم بتغيير نبرة صوتي أمام من أعضاء هيئة التدريس عند إخبارهم بمهام التي أُرغب في رؤيتها والمتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أتحدى زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتقديم اقتراحات بديلة أفضل من المقدمه حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أُلح على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتطبيق أفكارني بناء على قوانين وأحكام الجامعة والقسم المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم باتخاذ إجراء عملي عندما يكون بعض زملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس غير حاضرين للاجتماع من أجل تنفيذ أفكارني المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم بإخفاء بعض المعلومات عن الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس حتى يتم قبول أفكارني المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
خلال اجتماع القسم، أخبر زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس برفضني للأفكار المختلف عليها والمتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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UNIVERSITY OF
GEORGIA

العربية

القسم الرابع والأخير: المعلومات الديموغرافية

الجنس

ذكر

أنثى

في أي عام ميلادي ولدت؟ (مثلا ١٩٧٥)

بلد المنشأ

المملكة العربية السعودية

إحدى الدول العربية الأخرى

إحدى الدول الإسلامية الغير عربية

إحدى الدول الغير إسلامية الآسيوية أو الأفريقية

إحدى الدول الغير إسلامية الأوروبية أو الأمريكية وغيرها

رتبة عضو هيئة التدريس

أخرى

أستاذ مساعد

أستاذ مشارك

أستاذ

اهتماماتي البحثية تدرج تحت:

التخصصات العلمية والهندسية والتقنية

التخصصات الأدبية (كلية الآداب)

التخصصات الإنسانية (كلية التربية)

التخصصات بكلية الزراعة والبيئة والتخطيط والإعمار

التخصصات بكلية الشريعة والقانون وإدارة الأعمال

التخصصات المسحية والطبية

كم عدد سنوات الخدمة بالجامعة كعضو هيئة تدريس؟

هل أنت مكلف حالياً بمهمة من المهام القيادية بالكلية أو الجامعة (ك رئيس/ة قسم أو وحدة أو عمادة ... الخ)

نعم

لا

هل تم تكليفك سابقاً بأية مهمة من المهام القيادية بالقسم الكلية أو الجامعة (ك رئيس/ة قسم أو وحدة أو عمادة ... الخ)

هل أنت مكلف حالياً بمهمة من المهام القيادية بالكلية أو الجامعة (ك رئيس/ة قسم أو وحدة أو عمادة ... الخ)

نعم

لا

هل تم تكليفك سابقاً بأية مهمة من المهام القيادية بالقسم الكلية أو الجامعة (ك رئيس/ة قسم أو وحدة أو عمادة ... الخ)

نعم

لا

هل لديك أي إضافة أو تعليق بخصوص عملية إتخاذ القرار في مجالس القسم أو الكلية

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UNIVERSITY OF
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نشكرك لاستطلاعك جزءاً من وقتك للإجابة عن هذا الاستبيان.
تم تسجيل استجابته.

APPENDIX B
BRAINSTORMING SESSION: SELF-ASSESSED POWER
OUTCOMES

Appendix B

Brainstorming session1: self assessed power

Faculty's Self-Assessed Interpersonal Power.

- 146. I feel other faculty members value my planning ideas
- 147. I feel other faculty members hear my voice during the planning process.
- 148. I feel other faculty members question my planning ideas*.
- 149. I feel my input is never solicited in planning context*
- 150. I feel others allow me to speak freely my ideas in the program planning process.
- 151. I feel my ideas are respected by others in the planning process.
- 152. I expect my ideas are implemented in the program planning process.
- 153. my ideas are validated.
- 154. other faculty do enough to get me involved in the planning process
- 155. Other faculty members are listened to my thoughts.
- 156. I feel I have a large network of faculty and contacts.
- 157. My efforts have been mentioned during the planning process.
- 158. My efforts have been mentioned during the planning process.
- 159. I expect my efforts have influence over my colleagues.
- 160. I feel like I do not have the opportunity to discuss others' inputs in the planning process. *
- 161. I feel like other faculty are really making the important decisions in the planning process. *

*Mean scores following the reversal of negative item scores

APPENDIX C

OLD AND NEW INFLUENCE TACTICS ITEMS

Items were modified

Appendix C

Old and New Influence Items

Constructs	Yang's original items	Proposed items	Rationale
Reasoning	1. Convincing <the person> that your plan is viable.	1. Convincing other faculty members that my planning ideas are viable.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	2. Presenting <the person> with facts, figures, and other data that support your plan.	2. Presenting other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	3. Using logical arguments to convince <the person> to support your plan.	3. Using logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	4. Demonstrating to <the	4. Demonstrating to other	Adapted and made

	person> your competence in planning the program.	faculty members my competence in planning the program.	to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	5. Showing <the person> the relationship between your plan and past practices in your organization.	5. Showing other faculty members the relationship between my planning ideas and past practices in our organization.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
Consulting	6. Asking <the person> for suggestions about your plan.	6. Asking other faculty members for suggestions about my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	7. Asking <the person> if he or she has any special concerns about your plan.	7. Asking other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members

	8. Indicating your willingness to modify your plan based on input from <the person>.	8. Indicating my willingness to modify my planning ideas based on input from other faculty members.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	9. Indicating that you are receptive to <the person's> ideas about your plan.	9. Indicating that I am receptive to other faculty members' views about my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
Appealing	10. Saying that <the person> is the most qualified individual for a task that you want done.	10. Saying that other faculty members are the most qualified individuals for a task that I want done.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	11. Waiting until <the person> is in a receptive mood before making a request.	11. Waiting until other faculty members are in a receptive mood before making a request.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group

			members
	12. Making <the person> feel good about you before making your request.	12. Making other faculty members feel good about me before making my request.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	13. Making <the person> feel that what you want done is extremely important.	13. Making other faculty members feel that what I want done is extremely important.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	14. Appealing to <the person's> values in making a request.	14. Appealing to other faculty members' personal values in making a request.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
Networking	15. Getting other people to help influence <the person>.	15. Getting other people to help influence other faculty members.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed

			to reflect one influence group members
	16. Linking what you want <the person> to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.	16. Linking what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	17. Obtaining support from other people before making a request of <the person>.	17. Obtaining support from other people before making a request of other faculty members.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	18. Asking other people in your organization to persuade <the person> to support your plan.	18. Asking other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
Exchanging	19. Promising to support future efforts by <the	19. Promising to support future efforts by other	Adapted and made to fit response

	person> in return for his or her support.	faculty members in return for their support.	scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	20. Offering to do some work for <the person> in return for his or her support.	20. Offering to do some work for other faculty members in return for their supports.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	21. Offering to do a personal favor in return for <the person's> support for your plan.	21. Offering to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	22. Offering to speak favorably about <the person> to other people in return for his or her support.	22. Offering to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their supports.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members

Pressuring	23. Repeatedly reminding <the person> about things you want done.	23. Repeatedly reminding other faculty members about things I want done.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	24. Simply insisting that <the person> do what you want done.	24. Simply insisting that other faculty members do what you want done.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	25. Raising your voice when telling <the person> what you want done.	25. Raising your voice when telling other faculty members what you want done.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	26. Challenging <the person> to do the work your way or to come up with a better plan.	26. Challenging other faculty members to do the work my way or to come up with a better plan.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group

			members
	27. Demanding that <the person> do the things you want done because of organizational rules and regulations.	27. Demanding that other faculty members do the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
Counteracting	28. Communicating your plan in an ambiguous way so that <the person> is never quite clear about it.	28. Communicating my planning ideas in an ambiguous way so that other faculty members are never quite clear about it.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	29. Taking action while <the person> is absent so that he or she will not be included in the planning process.	29. Taking action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included in the planning process.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	30. Withholding information that <the	30. Withholding information that other	Adapted and made to fit response

	person> needs unless he or she supports your plan.	faculty members need unless they support my planning ideas.	scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members
	31. Telling <the person> that you refuse to carry out those requests that you do not agree with.	31. Telling other faculty members that I refuse to carry out those requests that I do not agree with.	Adapted and made to fit response scale, and changed to reflect one influence group members

APPENDIX D

CRITIQUE SESSION: COLLECTIVE ACTIONS

Appendix D

Critique Session: Collective Actions

Items Pool

Networking (9 items)

1. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people form coalitions and make reciprocal agreement with other departments instrumental in our plans.
2. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees internal operations of the organization
3. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie my unnoticed, unsupported, or untried proposal to a widely accepted program and ride its coat tail.
4. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie our request onto others made by popular people in the organizational unit.
5. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people ally ourselves with other powerful people in the organization who agree with our position.
6. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people lobby through organizational friends of the boss-people to whom he or she listens.
7. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would ask other people to provide the person with evidence supporting our group plan or proposal that we want them to support.
8. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people would have informal meetings to discuss our plans.
9. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people strategize and think about the decision made and crafting arguments.

Counteracting (15 items)

10. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if he or she did not give in to my request.
11. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Ministry of Education if he or she did not give in to my request.
12. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if another group do not support our plans.
13. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Ministry of Education if another group do not support our plans.
14. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people stop working with them until they gave in. (exclude others in the professional settings- crafting a position paper among themselves).
15. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people send a letter or

proposal or paper which includes several signatures.

16. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse other colleagues' requests to work with us until the support our plans.
17. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to carry out those requests that we do not agree with. stellar delay tactics
18. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people delay carrying out those requests that we do not agree with.
19. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.
20. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people develop alternative of plans against plans that we do not agree with in.
21. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to alter the ways implemented the ways implemented of those requests that we do not agree with.
22. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people take action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included in the planning process.
23. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to say nothing.
24. During program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to vote to pay attention.

Pressuring (7 items)

25. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people (people with shared visions) use their power to support the group purpose.
26. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people prepare their immediate environment in ways that communicate power and influence. (more specific) (alternatives means)
27. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use our titles, position power and resources to support our group goals.
28. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people create online petitions to support our plans.
29. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use email campaigns to support our plans.
30. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use social media (e.g. twitter, FaceBook ... etc) to share and support our plans and ideas.
31. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people remind co-workers of their role in helping them secure their current position.

Reasoning (4 items)32. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to persuade other faculty members.

33. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to write and present our work including facts and argument to support our plans.

34. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work to highlight inconsistencies in the ideas or plans of others faculty members.

35. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would work together to write a detailed plan that justified a suggested plan.

Appealing (4 items) (A group influence an individual: Department Head)

36. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people encourage other faculty members (Department Head) to express any concerns or doubts about a plan or course of action that we have proposed.

37. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people invite other faculty members (Department Head) to suggest ways they could help to implement.

38. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to modify a proposal or plan to deal with faculty members' concerns (Department Head's concerns) and incorporate their suggestions.

39. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people help those we work with (Department Head) to find common values and aims which strengthen their commitment to us and to our goals.

APPENDIX E
REFINING INDIVIDUAL AND COLLECTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS ITEMS
OUTCOMES

Appendix E

Grouping and Refining Items to Measure Individual and Collective Influence

Tactics

Reasoning

1. During attending program planning meeting, I Convince other faculty members that my planning ideas are viable.
2. During attending program planning meeting, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that explain my planning ideas.
3. During attending program planning meeting, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas.
4. During attending program planning meeting, I demonstrate to other faculty members my competence in planning the program.
5. During attending program planning meeting, I showing other faculty members the relationship between my planning ideas and past practices in our organization.

Consulting

6. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members for suggestions about my planning ideas.
7. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas.
8. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate my willingness to modify my planning ideas based on input from other faculty members.
9. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate that I am receptive to other faculty members' ideas about my planning ideas.
10. During attending program planning meeting, I say that other faculty members are the most qualified individuals for a task that I want done.

Appealing

11. During attending program planning meeting, I wait until other faculty members are in a receptive mood before making a request.

12. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel good about me before making my request.
13. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel that what you want done is extremely important.
14. During attending program planning meeting, I appeal to other faculty members' values in making a request.
15. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people encourage other faculty members (Department Head) to express any concerns or doubts about a plan or course of action that we have proposed.
16. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to modify a proposal or plan to deal with faculty members' concerns (Department Head's concerns) and incorporate their suggestions.

Networking

17. During attending program planning meeting, I get other people to help influence other faculty members.
18. During attending program planning meeting, I link what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.
19. During attending program planning meeting, I obtain support from other people before making a request of other faculty members.
20. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas.
21. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people form coalitions to make reciprocal agreement with other departments instrumental in our plans.
22. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees internal operations of the organization
23. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie our request onto others made by popular people in the organizational unit.
24. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people would have informal meetings to discuss our plans.

25. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people strategize and think about the decision made and crafting arguments.

Bargaining

26. During attending program planning meeting, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support.

27. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do some work for other faculty members in return for their supports.

28. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas.

29. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their supports.

30. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people remind my co-workers of how we have helped them in the past to imply that now we expect compliance with our request.

31. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now.

32. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people let other faculty know that they will receive appropriate credit if they help make a project or activity successful.

Pressuring

33. During attending program planning meeting, I repeatedly remind other faculty members about things I want done.

34. During attending program planning meeting, I simply insist that other faculty members do what you want done.

35. During attending program planning meeting, I raise my voice when telling other faculty members what I want done.

36. During attending program planning meeting, I challenge other faculty members to do the work on my way or to come up with a better plan.

37. During attending program planning meeting, I demand that other faculty members do

the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations.

38. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use our titles, position power and resources to support our group goals.

39. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people create online petitions to support our plans.

Counteracting

40. During attending program planning meeting, I communicate my planning ideas in an ambiguous way so that other faculty members are never quite clear about it.

41. During attending program planning meeting, I take action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included in the planning process.

42. During attending program planning meeting, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my planning ideas.

43. During attending program planning meeting, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to carry out those requests that I do not agree with.

44. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if he or she did not give in to my request.

45. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Ministry of Education if he or she did not give in to my request.

46. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people send a letter or proposal or paper which includes several signatures.

47. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people delay carrying out those requests that we do not agree with.

48. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.

49. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to say nothing.

50. During program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to vote to pay attention.

APPENDIX F

WORKSHEET: CULTURAL CRITIQUE SESSIONS

Appendix F

Cultural Critique Session

Items to Measure Individual and Collective Influence Tactics	العبارات التي تقيس تكتيكات التأثير الفردية والجماعية	Corrections
1. During attending program planning meeting, I Convince other faculty members that my planning ideas are viable.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقنع أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين بأهمية أفكاري	
2. During attending program planning meeting, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that explain my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أعرض لأعضاء هيئة التدريس الحقائق والرسومات والبيانات الأخرى التي توضح افكاري	
3. During attending program planning meeting, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، استخدم حجج منطقية لأقنع بها أعضاء هيئة التدريس لكي يدعموا أفكاري	
4. During attending program planning meeting, I demonstrate to other faculty	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أوضح لأعضاء هيئة التدريس كفاءتي في تخطيط البرنامج	

members my competence in planning the program.		
5. During attending program planning meeting, I show other faculty members the relationship between my planning ideas and past practices in our organization.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أظهر لأعضاء هيئة التدريس العلاقة بين أفكاري وممارساتي في الجامعة.	
6. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members for suggestions about my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أسأل أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين لاقتراحات حول أفكاري	
7. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أسأل أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين إذا كان لديهم أي مخاوف بخصوص أفكاري للبرنامج التعليمي.	
8. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate my willingness to modify my planning ideas based on input from other faculty members.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أوجه ارادتي صوب تعديل أفكاري بناء على المدخلات من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين	

<p>9. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate that I am receptive to other faculty members' ideas about my planning ideas.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أشير إلى موافقتي لأفكار أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين.</p>	
<p>10. During attending program planning meeting, I say that other faculty members are the most qualified individuals for a task that I want done.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أذكر بأن هناك من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أكفأ من ي للمهمة التي أرغب بإنهائها.</p>	
<p>11. During attending program planning meeting, I wait until other faculty members are in a receptive mood before making a request.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أنتظر حتى يكون زملاء القسم في مزاج حسن قبل عرض أفكاري الخاصة بالبرنامج التربوي أوي التدريبي</p>	
<p>12. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel good about me before making my request.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أجعل زملائي يأخذون فكرة طيبة عني قبل عرض أفكاري الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>13. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أجعل أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالقسم</p>	

that what you want done is extremely important.	يشعرون بالأهمية الشديدة لما أقوم به.	
14. During attending program planning meeting, I appeal to other faculty members' values in making a request.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، استحث القيم الأخلاقية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس عند عرض أفكارى الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	
15. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people encourage other faculty members (Department Head) to express any concerns or doubts about a plan or course of action that we have proposed.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركنى الرأي بتشجيع رئيس القسم أو بقية أعضاء هيئة التدريس عن التعبير عن أي مخاوف أو عقبات بشأن الخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	
16. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to modify a proposal or plan to deal with faculty members' concerns (Department Head's concerns) and incorporate their suggestions.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركنى الرأي بالعمل معا لتعديل الخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي بناء على المقترحات المقدمة من رئيس القسم أو بعض أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالقسم	

17. During attending program planning meeting, I get other people to help influence other faculty members.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أبحث عن أشخاص لهم تأثير على أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالقسم.	
18. During attending program planning meeting, I link what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أعمل على ربط الأعمال التي أريد من بعض أعضاء هيئة التدريس القيام بها بالجهود المبذولة من قبل أناس مؤثرين من إدارة الجامعة.	
19. During attending program planning meeting, I obtain support from other people before making a request of other faculty members.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أحصل على دعم معنوي من زملائي بالقسم عند عرض أفكاري الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح	
20. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أطلب من بعض زملائي بالقسم بإقناع بقية الزملاء بأفكاري الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	
21. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نشكل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي تحالف من أجل	

<p>minded people form coalitions to make reciprocal agreement with other departments instrumental in our plans.</p>	<p>بناء رأي موحد حول أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>22. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees internal operations of the organization</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركنا الرأي على تأسيس علاقة عمل جيدة باللجنة الخارجية المسؤولة عن مراقبة اعمال الكلية من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>23. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie our request onto others made by popular people in the organizational unit.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركنا الرأي على ربط طلبنا بأخرين مؤثرين في الجامعة من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>24. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people would have informal meetings to discuss our plans.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نجتمع أنا ومن يشاركنا الرأي بشكل غير رسمي من أجل مناقشة أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	

<p>25. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-minded people strategize and think about the decision made and crafting arguments.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نجتمع أنا ومن يشاركنا الرأي بشكل غير رسمي من أجل التفكير وضع استراتيجيات بخصوص القرار الصادر للبرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح. نفس 25</p>	
<p>26. During attending program planning meeting, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أعد بدعم أعضاء هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم مستقبلية في مقابل دعمهم للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>27. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do some work for other faculty members in return for their supports.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض المساعدة لأعضاء هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم في مقابل دعمهم للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>28. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض الخدمات الإنسانية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس الذين دعموني في أعداد البرنامج التربوي أو التدريبي في مقابل دعمهم للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح..</p>	

<p>29. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their supports.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أتقدم بالمدح لبعض أعضاء هيئة التدريس أمام الآخرين من أجل كسب دعمهم لمقترحاتي للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>30. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people remind my co-workers of how we have helped them in the past to imply that now we expect compliance with our request.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتذكير زملائي الآخرين بالقسم بما قدمنا لهم من مساعدات ماضية من أجل كسب دعمهم لمقترحاتي للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>31. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتقديم يد العون لزملائنا الآخرين بالقسم مستقبلاً من أجل كسب دعمهم لمقترحاتي للخطة الخاصة بالمقرر التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>32. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people let other faculty know that they will receive</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي نتفق على افهام الآخرين بانهم سيحصلون على</p>	

<p>appropriate credit if they help make a project or activity successful.</p>	<p>مكافئة عندما يساعدوننا في إنجاز العمل او المهمة</p>	
<p>33. During attending program planning meeting, I repeatedly remind other faculty members about things I want done.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، بشكل دائم أذكر زملاء القسم بالأمر والافكار التي أريدها في البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>34. During attending program planning meeting, I simply insist that other faculty members do what you want done.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أصر على قيام زملاء القسم بإتمام العمل بالشكل الذي أريده في البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>35. During attending program planning meeting, I raise my voice when telling other faculty members what I want done.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقوم بتغيير نبرة صوتي أمام زملاء القسم عند إخبارهم بالأمر التي أرغب في رؤيتها في البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>36. During attending program planning meeting, I challenge other faculty members to do the work on my way or to come up with a better plan.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أتحدى زملاء القسم بتقديم اقتراحات بديلة أفضل من المقدمة لهذا البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	

<p>37. During attending program planning meeting, I demand that other faculty members do the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أُلح على زملاء القسم بالقيام بتطوير البرنامج التدريبي أو التربوي كما أريده بسبب قوانين وأحكام الجامعة والقسم.</p>	
<p>38. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use our titles, position power and resources to support our group goals.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي باستخدام صلاحياتنا الممنوحة من العمل من أجل دعم أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح</p>	
<p>39. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people create online petitions to support our plans.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بكتابة عريضة معارضة في حالة عدم سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح نفس رقم 44</p>	
<p>40. During attending program planning meeting, I communicate my planning ideas in an ambiguous way so that other faculty members are never quite clear about it.</p>	<p>اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقوم بعرض أفكارني الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح بشكل غامض من أجل الحصول على موافقة عليها</p>	

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41. During attending program planning meeting, I take action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included in the planning process.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقوم باتخاذ إجراء عندما يكون بعض زملاء القسم غير حاضرين للاجتماع من تنفيذ أفكار الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	
42. During attending program planning meeting, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my planning ideas.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أقوم بإخفاء بعض المعلومات عن الزملاء بالقسم حتى يتم قبول أفكار الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	
43. During attending program planning meeting, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to carry out those requests that I do not agree with.	اثناء حضور اجتماع القسم، أخبر زملائي برفضى للأفكار المختلف عليها والخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح	
44. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of our college if he or she did not give in to my request.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالتهديد من خلا تقديم شكوى لوزارة التربية (عمادة الكلية) في حالة عدم سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	

<p>45. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if he or she did not give in to my request.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالتهديد من خلا تقديم شكوى لوزارة التربية (عمادة الكلية) في حالة عدم سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>46. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Ministry of Education if he or she did not give in to my request.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالتهديد من خلا تقديم شكوى لوزارة التربية (التعليم العالي) في حالة عدم سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>47. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people send a letter or proposal or paper which includes several signatures.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي في إرسال خطاب موقع يحوي على بناء رأي موحد حول أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.</p>	
<p>48. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people delay carrying out those requests that we do not agree with.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على التأخير في تقديم بدائل مختلفة حول النقاط المختلف عليها في البرنامج التدريبي أو التربوي.</p>	

<p>49. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتقديم بدائل مختلفة حول النقاط المختلف عليها في البرنامج التدريبي أو التربوي.</p>	
<p>50. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to say nothing.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالامتناع عن الحديث نهائياً.</p>	
<p>51. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to vote to pay attention.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالامتناع عن التصويت من أجل جذب الانتباه.</p>	

APPENDIX G**TRANSLATION AND BACK TRANSLATION****OUTCOME**

- 1) Translating the English version to Arabic,
- 2) Back Translation: two or three Saudi people not observing the English version of the survey will translate the Arabic version into English.
- 3) Assessment for clarity and correctness (subjective evaluation) through comparing both English versions

Items	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
1. During attending program planning meeting, I convince other faculty members that my planning ideas are viable.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أقنع زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين بأهمية أفكارني حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I persuade my colleagues about the importance of my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I persuade my colleagues that my thoughts on developing the educational program are doable.
2. During attending program planning meeting, I present other faculty members with facts, figures, and other data that explain my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعرض لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الحقائق والبيانات الإحصائية من جداول ورسومات التي تدعم صحة افكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I introduce facts and statistical data from tables and graphics that support my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I show my colleagues statistical facts and figures that support my thoughts on the educational program's development.
3. During attending program planning	خلال اجتماع القسم، استخدم الحجج	During the faculty meeting, I use	During the faculty meeting, I use

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meeting, I use logical arguments to convince other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	المنطقية لأقنع بها زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بمنطقية أفكارني حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	reasoning to convince my colleagues about my ideas on the educational program's development.	logical arguments to persuade my colleagues that my thoughts on developing the educational program are sensible.
4. During attending program planning meeting, I demonstrate to other faculty members my competence in planning the program.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أثبتت لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس كفاءتي في تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I prove to my colleagues my capacity and ability for developing the educational program.	During the faculty meeting, I prove to my colleagues that I capability for the educational program's development.
5. During attending program planning meeting, I show other faculty members the relationship between	خلال اجتماع القسم، أظهر لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالعلاقة بين أفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج	During the faculty meeting, I show my colleagues the relationship between my ideas on the educational	During the faculty meeting, I show my colleagues the relationship between my ideas on program

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my planning ideas and past practices in our organization.	التربوي وأعمال في الجامعة.	program's development and my work at the university.	planning and my work at the university.
6. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members for suggestions about my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أحث زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس على إبداء مقترحاتهم وآرائهم حول أفكار المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I encourage my faculty members to give their suggestions and opinions about my ideas on the educational program's development	During the faculty meeting, I urge my colleagues to introduce their suggestions and opinions on my ideas on developing the educational program.
7. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other faculty members if they have any special concerns about my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أسأل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين إذا كان لديهم أي مخاوف بخصوص أفكار حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I ask my colleagues if they had any concerns about my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I ask my colleagues if they had concerns about my ideas on the educational program's development.

Items	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
8. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate my willingness to modify my planning ideas based on input from other faculty members.	خلال اجتماع القسم، يكون تركيزي اهتمامي تجاه تعديل أفكارني حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي بناء على المدخلات المقدمة من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس.	During the faculty meeting, I focus on modifying my ideas related to the educational program's development based on the input generated from my colleagues.	During the faculty meeting, my interests' focus is on modifying my ideas on the educational program's development based on my colleagues' views.
9. During attending program planning meeting, I indicate that I am receptive to other faculty members' ideas about my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعمل على إبداء موافقتي لأفكار زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I show my approval of the ideas given by faculty members about the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I show my agreement on my colleagues' views on developing the educational program.
10. During attending program planning meeting, I say that other faculty	خلال اجتماع القسم، أذكر بأن هناك من الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس ذو	During the faculty meeting, I recall that there are highly efficient colleagues	During the faculty meeting, I mention that my colleagues have a higher

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members are the most qualified individuals for a task that I want done.	كفاءة عالية لإتمام مهمة من المهام المرتبطة بعملية تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	who are able to complete the task associated with the process of the educational program's development.	capability of developing the educational program.
11. During attending program planning meeting, I wait until other faculty members are in a receptive mood before making a request.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أنتظر حتى يكون زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس في مزاج حسن قبل طرح فكرة حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I present my ideas regarding the educational program's development when my colleagues were in a good mood.	During the faculty meeting, I wait until my colleagues were in good mood to present my ideas on developing the educational program.
12. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel good about me before making my request.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أجعل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يأخذون فكرة طيبة عني قبل طرح أفكار حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I give my colleagues a great impression about me prior to presenting my ideas on the educational	During the faculty meeting, I make my colleagues have a good impression of me for developing the

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		program's development.	educational program.
13. During attending program planning meeting, I make other faculty members feel that what you want done is extremely important.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أجعل زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يشعرون بأن ما ارغب إنجازه هو بالغ الأهمية.	During the faculty meeting, I make my colleagues feel that what I want to accomplish is critical.	During the faculty meeting, I make my colleagues feel the importance of what I want done.
14. During attending program planning meeting, I appeal to other faculty members' values in making a request.	خلال اجتماع القسم، استحثت القيم الأخلاقية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس عند طرح فكرة حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I emphasize the ethical values when discussing the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I emphasize my colleagues' values while presenting my ideas on developing the educational program.
15. Before program planning meeting, I	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن	Before attending the faculty meeting, I	Before attending the faculty

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and like-minded people encourage other faculty members (Department Head) to express any concerns or doubts about a plan or course of action that we have proposed.	يشاركني الرأي بتشجيع رئيس القسم وبقية أعضاء هيئة التدريس عن التعبير بحرية عن أي مخاوف أو شكوك بشأن الخطة المقدمة بتطوير التربوي.	encourage the chairman and the rest of the faculty members to freely express any concerns or doubts about the plan proposed for the educational program's development.	meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view encourage the department head and other colleagues to freely express any concerns or doubts about plans submitted to developing the educational program.
16. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people work together to modify a proposal or plan to deal with faculty members' concerns	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالعمل معا لتعديل الخطة أو المقترح الخاص بتطوير البرنامج التربوي بناء على المقترحات	Before attending the faculty meeting, I work with colleagues who support my ideas to modify the plan proposed based on the suggestions	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view modify the plan or suggestions on the educational

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(Department Head's concerns) and incorporate their suggestions.	المقدمة من رئيس القسم أو بعض الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس.	given by the chairman and other faculty members.	program's development based on the department head's or other colleagues' views.
17. During attending program planning meeting, I get other people to help influence other faculty members.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعمل على جعل مجموعة من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يساعدوني على التأثير على زملاء آخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس.	During the faculty meeting, I work on inspiring faculty members to help me influence other colleagues.	During the faculty meeting, I ask my colleagues to help influence other faculty members in the development of the educational program.
18. During attending program planning meeting, I link what I want other faculty members to do with efforts made by influential people in the organization.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعمل على ربط الأعمال التي أرغب من بعض الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس القيام بها بأعمال سابقة تم إنجازها من قبل أناس مؤثرين من إدارة الجامعة.	During the faculty meeting, I use the previous work achieved by influential colleagues to make a connection and win support for my work.	During the faculty meeting, I connect the work I want to be done with previous work that had been done by powerful people at my university.

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19. During attending program planning meeting, I obtain support from other people before making a request of other faculty members.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعمل على الحصول على دعم معنوي من زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس عند عرض أفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I work on getting moral support from my faculty members when viewing my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I ask my colleagues to support me on developing the educational program.
20. During attending program planning meeting, I ask other people in our organization to persuade other faculty members to support my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أطلب من بعض زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس إقناع بقية الزملاء بأفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي.	During the faculty meeting, I ask some of my colleagues to convince the rest of the faculty members about my ideas on the development of the educational and training program.	During the faculty meeting, I ask my colleagues to convince other faculty members about developing the educational program.
21. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نُشكل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and	Before attending the faculty meeting, my

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minded people form coalitions to make reciprocal agreement with other departments instrumental in our plans.	تحالف من اجل بناء رأي موحد حول أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	I who share the same perspective establish a team for the purpose of building a unified opinion around our educational program's development.	colleagues and I who share the same view forme an alliance to build a unified opinion on developing the educational program.
22. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees internal operations of the organization	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على تأسيس علاقة عمل جيدة باللجنة الخارجية المسؤولة عن مراقبة اعمال الكلية من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective establish a good working relationship with the external committee responsible for monitoring the work of the college in order to obtain support for our ideas	Before attending the faculty meeting, I and my colleagues who share the same view work to establish a good working relationship with the external committee responsible for monitoring the

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		for the educational program's development.	work of the college in order to obtain support for developing the educational program.
23. Before attending program planning meeting, I and like-minded people tie our request onto others made by popular people in the organizational unit.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نعمل أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي على ربط طلبنا بأخرين مؤثرين في الجامعة من أجل الحصول على دعم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective work to link our request with influential people working in our university to gain support for our ideas for the educational program's development.	Before attending the faculty meeting, I and my colleagues who share the same view request support from influential people in our university for our ideas on the development of the educational program
24. Before attending program planning meetings, I and like-	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، أدعو من يشاركننا الرأي إلى	Before attending the faculty meeting, I invite whoever	Before attending the faculty meeting, I invite

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minded people would have informal meetings to discuss our plans.	اجتماع غير رسمي من أجل مناقشة أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	shares the same perspective to an informal meeting to discuss our ideas for the development of the educational program.	my colleagues who share the same view to an informal meeting to discuss ideas for developing the educational program.
25. During attending program planning meeting, I promise to support future efforts by other faculty members in return for their support.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أعد بدعم زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم المستقبلية في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I promise to support my colleagues with their future agenda in return for their support of my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I promise to support my fellow faculty members in their future in exchange for their support of my thoughts on developing the educational program.
26. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do	خلال اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض المساعدة لزملائي من أعضاء	During the faculty meeting, I offer assistance to my	During the faculty meeting, I offer some help to my

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<p>some work for other faculty members in return for their supports.</p>	<p>هيئة التدريس في أعمالهم في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>colleagues in return for their support of my ideas on the educational program's development.</p>	<p>fellow faculty members in their work in exchange for their support of my thoughts on developing the educational program.</p>
<p>27. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to do a personal favor in return for other faculty members' support for my planning ideas.</p>	<p>، خلال اجتماع القسم ، أعرض بعض الخدمات والمساعدات لزملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الذين دعموا أفكاري المطروحة في مقابل دعمهم لأفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>During the faculty meeting, I offer assistance to my colleagues in return for their support of my ideas on the educational program's development.</p>	<p>During the faculty meeting, I present some of the services and assistance of my fellow faculty members who supported my ideas raised in return for their support on my thoughts on developing the educational program.</p>

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28. During attending program planning meeting, I offer to speak favorably about other faculty members to other people in return for their supports.	<p>خلال اجتماع القسم، أقدم بعض الإطراء لبعض الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس أمام الآخرين من أجل كسب دعمهم لأفكاري حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>During the faculty meeting, I compliment my colleagues in front of others in order to gain their support for my ideas on the educational program's development.</p>	<p>During the faculty meeting, I offer praise for some faculty colleagues in front of others in order to gain their support for my thoughts on developing the educational program.</p>
29. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people remind my co-workers of how we have helped them in the past to imply that now we expect compliance with our request.	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتذكير زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالمساعدات الماضية التي قُدمت لهم من أجل كسب دعمهم لأفكارنا الخاصة</p>	<p>Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective remind other colleagues about the last aid given to them in order to gain support for our own ideas for</p>	<p>Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view remind other colleagues of the last assistance provided to them in order to gain their</p>

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	بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	developing the educational program.	support for developing the educational program.
30. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتقديم يد العون لزملائنا من أعضاء هيئة التدريس الآخرين بالقسم مستقبلا من كسب دعمهم لأفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective offer assistance for the rest of the faculty members in the future to gain support for our own ideas for developing the education program.	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view offer a helping hand to other faculty members in the department in the future to gain their support for developing the educational program.
31. During attending program planning meeting, I repeatedly	خلال اجتماع القسم، أذكر زملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس	During the faculty meeting, I always remind my	During the faculty meeting, I always remind my

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remind other faculty members about things I want done.	يشكل دائم بالأمور والمهام التي أربب بها في البرنامج التربوي..	colleagues about the tasks that I want in the educational program's development.	colleagues about things and tasks that I want to be done in developing the educational program.
32. During attending program planning meeting, I simply insist that other faculty members do what you want done.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أصر على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتطبيق الأفكار التي أربب بها حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I insist that my colleagues apply the ideas that I proposed regarding the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I insist on my fellow faculty members applying the ideas they wanted to about developing the educational program.
33. During attending program planning meeting, I raise my voice when telling other faculty members what I want done.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم بتغيير نبرة صوتي أمام من أعضاء هيئة التدريس عند إخبارهم بالمهام التي أربب في رؤيتها	During the faculty meeting, I change my vocal tone the moment I told my colleagues about the tasks that I would like to see for the	During the faculty meeting, I chang my voice in front of the faculty when telling them the tasks that I want to see for developing

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	حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	educational program development.	the educational program.
34. During attending program planning meeting, I challenge other faculty members to do the work on my way or to come up with a better plan.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أتحدى زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتقديم اقتراحات بديلة أفضل من المقدمة لهذا البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I challenge my colleagues to generate alternative proposals better than the ones provided for this educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I challenge my colleagues to suggest better alternative proposals for developing the educational program.
35. During attending program planning meeting, I demand that other faculty members do the things I want done because of organizational rules and regulations.	خلال اجتماع القسم، ألح على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بتطبيق أفكارى حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي والتي ارغب بها بناء على قوانين وأحكام الجامعة والقسم.	During the faculty meeting, I urge my colleagues to apply my ideas on the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I urge my colleagues to implement my ideas about developing an educational program that would build on regulations and the

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			requirements of the university and the department.
36. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people use our titles, position power and resources to support our group goals.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي باستخدام صلاحياتنا الممنوحة من العمل من أجل دعم أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي .	Before attending the faculty meeting, colleagues and I who share the same perspective use our given power to support our ideas on the educational program's development.	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view use the rights granted to support our ideas on developing the educational program.
37. During attending program planning meeting, I take action while other faculty members are absent so that they will not be included	خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم باتخاذ إجراء عملي عندما يكون بعض زملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس غير حاضرين للاجتماع من أجل تنفيذ أفكاري الخاصة	During the faculty meeting, I take practical action against colleagues who were not present at the meeting held to show my ideas on	During the faculty meeting, I take practical actions when some colleagues were not present for the meeting to implement my own

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in the planning process.	بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	the educational program's development.	ideas on developing the educational program.
38. During attending program planning meeting, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my planning ideas.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أقوم بإخفاء بعض المعلومات عن الزملاء من أعضاء هيئة التدريس حتى يتم قبول أفكارني حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I keep hiding some information from my colleagues until my ideas on the educational development program were approved.	During the faculty meeting, I hide some information from colleagues until my thoughts on developing the educational program were accepted.
39. During attending program planning meeting, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to carry out those requests that I do not agree with.	خلال اجتماع القسم، أخبر زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس برفضني للأفكار المختلف عليها حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	During the faculty meeting, I tell my colleagues about the ideas I disagree with regarding the educational program's development.	During the faculty meeting, I told my fellow faculty members about reject controversial ideas on developing the

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			educational program.
40. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of our college if he or she did not give in to my request.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالتهديد من خلال تقديم شكوى لعمادة الكلية في حالة تجاهل سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, I and my colleagues who share the same perspective warn the dean if our ideas regarding the education program's development were ignored.	Before attending the faculty meeting, I and my colleagues who share the same perspective warn the dean that our ideas regarding the education program's development were being ignored.
41. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people would threaten to notify Deanship of faculty and staff affairs if he or she	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالتهديد من خلال تقديم شكوى لوزارة التربية في حالة تجاهل سماع أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective warn the faculty members by complaining to the Ministry of	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view threaten through a complaint sent to

Items	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
did not give in to my request.	البرنامج التربوي والتدريبي المقترح.	Education in case our voices and ideas were totally ignored.	the Ministry of Education in case our thoughts on developing the educational program were ignored.
42. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people send a letter or proposal or paper which includes several signatures.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي في إرسال خطاب موقع لرئيس القسم يحوي رأي إيجابي موحد حول أفكارنا الخاصة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective send an official letter to the department chairman about our unified positive thoughts on the educational program's development.	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view send a letter to the department head, including uniform positive ideas for developing the educational program.
43. Before program planning meeting, I	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نعمل أنا ومن	Before attending the faculty meeting,	Before attending the faculty

Items	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
<p>and like-minded people delay carrying out those requests that we do not agree with.</p>	<p>يشاركني الرأي على التأخير في تقديم بدائل مختلفة حول النقاط المختلف عليها في تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>other colleagues and I who share the same perspective do not provide immediate suggestions about conflicting ideas on the educational program's development.</p>	<p>meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view work to delay presenting different alternative plans on the conflicting points around developing the educational program.</p>
<p>44. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people suggest different plans against to what we do not agree with.</p>	<p>قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بتقديم بدائل مختلفة حول النقاط المختلف عليها حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective offer alternatives if our ideas reached a disagreement with others.</p>	<p>Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view offer different alternative plans on the conflicting points around developing the</p>

Items	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
			educational program.
45. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people agree to say nothing.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالامتناع عن الحديث نهائياً.	Before attending the faculty meeting, other colleagues and I who share the same perspective abstain from talking.	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view decline to talk.
46. Before program planning meeting, I and like-minded people refuse to vote to pay attention.	قبل انعقاد اجتماع القسم، نقوم أنا ومن يشاركني الرأي بالامتناع عن الحضور والتصويت من أجل جذب الانتباه حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.	Before attending the faculty meeting, I and colleagues who share the same perspective abstain from coming and voting in order to attract attention to the educational program's development.	Before attending the faculty meeting, my colleagues and I who share the same view decline to attend and vote in order to attract attention to our ideas about developing the educational program.

Items to Measure Self-assessed power	Arabic	Translator 1	Translator 2
Other faculty members value my planning ideas.	زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يقدرّون طرّحي للأفكار.	My colleagues appreciated my ideas.	My colleagues appreciated my ideas.
Other faculty members hear my voice during the planning process.	زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يستمعون لصرّتي أثناء عملية التخطيط للبرنامج التربوي.	My colleagues listened to my voice during the planning process for the educational program.	My colleagues listened to my voice during the planning process for the educational program.
Other faculty members question my planning ideas.	زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يشككون في أفكاري المتعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي.	My colleagues were skeptical of my ideas regarding the educational program development.	My colleagues questioned my ideas regarding the educational program development.

<p>My input is never solicited in planning context.</p>	<p>طرحي من أفكار متعلقة بتطوير البرنامج التربوي لم يسترعي اهتمام أحد.</p>	<p>My ideas about the educational program development were ignored.</p>	<p>My ideas about the educational program development were left aside by my colleagues.</p>
<p>I am one of an opinion leader in the faculty members.</p>	<p>أعتبر من قادة الفكر والتطوير بالقسم.</p>	<p>My opinion carries weight in the department.</p>	<p>My colleagues believe I am an opinion leader in the department.</p>
<p>Other faculty members allow me to speak freely my ideas in the program planning process.</p>	<p>زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يسمحون لي بالحديث بحرية خلال عملية تخطيط وتطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>My colleagues allowed me to speak freely during the planning of the educational program's development.</p>	<p>My colleagues acknowledged that I should speak freely during the planning of the educational program's development.</p>

<p>My ideas are respected by other faculty members in the program planning process.</p>	<p>زملائي الآخرين من أعضاء هيئة التدريس يحترمون آرائي حول تطوير البرنامج التربوي.</p>	<p>My colleagues respected my views on the educational program's development.</p>	<p>My colleagues respected my opinions on the educational program's development.</p>
<p>I expect my efforts have influence over my colleagues</p>	<p>أتوقع بأن جهودي لها تأثير على زملائي من أعضاء هيئة التدريس.</p>	<p>I think that my efforts had an impact on my colleagues.</p>	<p>I believe that my efforts had an influence on my colleagues in the department.</p>

APPENDIX H
PILOT STUDY

Pilot Study Results

		Statistics							
		Power	Reasoning	Consulting	Appealing	Networking	Bargaining	Pressuring	Counteracting
N	Valid	38	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
	Missing	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mean		2.8618	3.1389	3.0000	3.0324	2.7500	2.3657	2.1111	2.0185
Std. Deviation		.56412	.52333	.53184	.50681	.66144	.77133	.68429	.68907
Variance		.318	.274	.283	.257	.438	.595	.468	.475

The sample information and histograms of each construct frequency of the pilot study can be seen in the following sections.

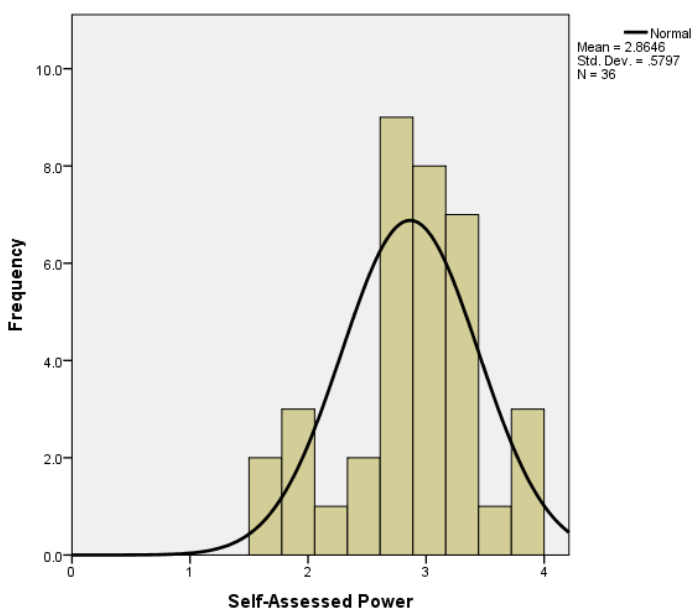
Table #

Background of the Pilot Study Sample

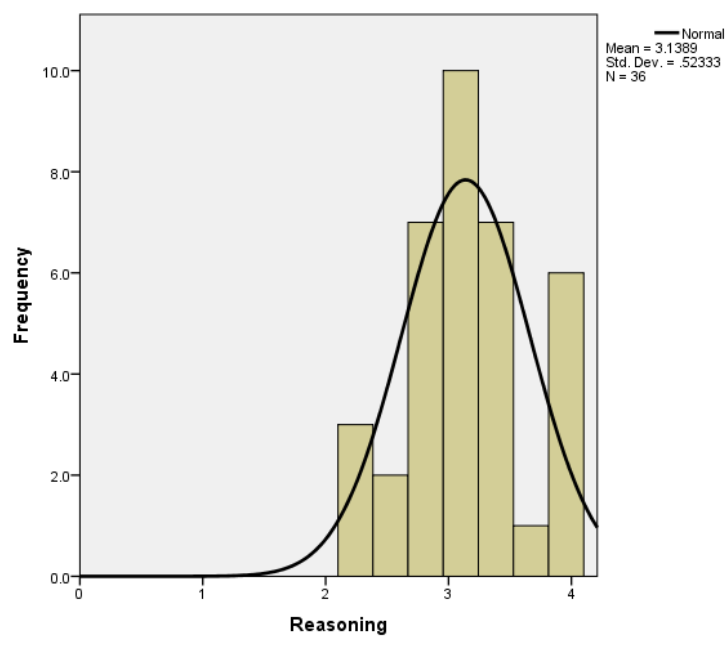
Background of the pilot study sample			Frequency	
Predictors	Categories	N	%	
Gender	Male	18	50	
	Female	18	50	
National Origin	Saudi	33	92	
	Other Arb Nations	3	8	
	None Arab Islamic nations	0	0	
	None Arab and none Islamic	0	0	

Background of the pilot study sample			Frequency
Predictors	Categories	N	%
	nations		
	others	0	0
Professor Rank	Assistance	23	64
	Associate	7	19
	Professor	4	11
	others	2	6
Major	Human Science	25	70
	Scientific Science	7	19
	Medical Science	4	11
Leadership position	YES	13	36
	NO	23	64

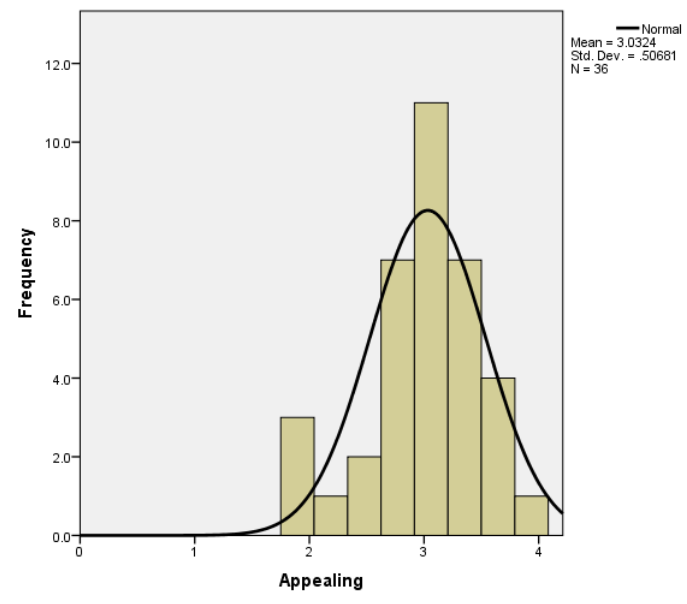
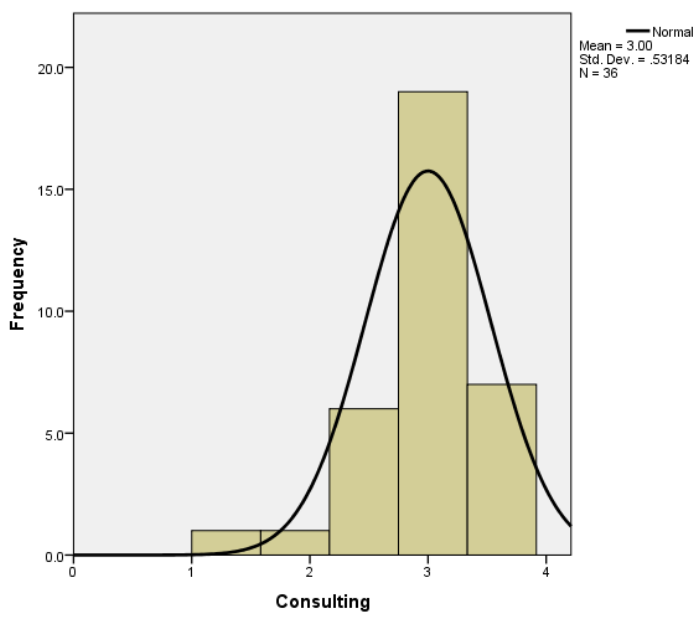
Pilot Study

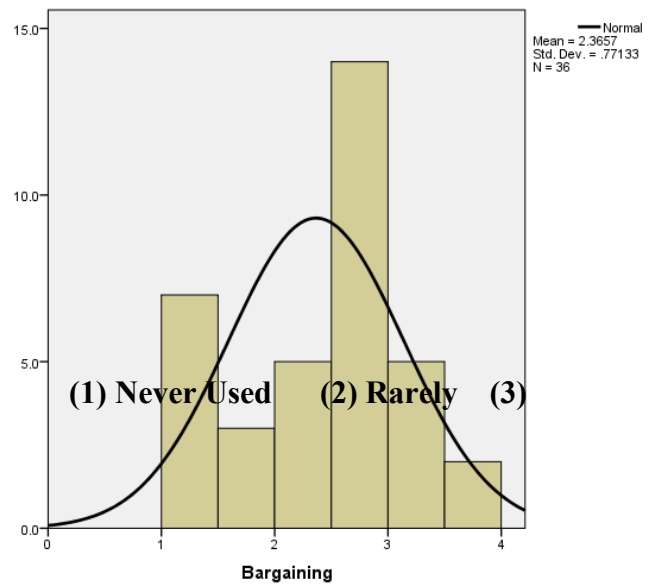
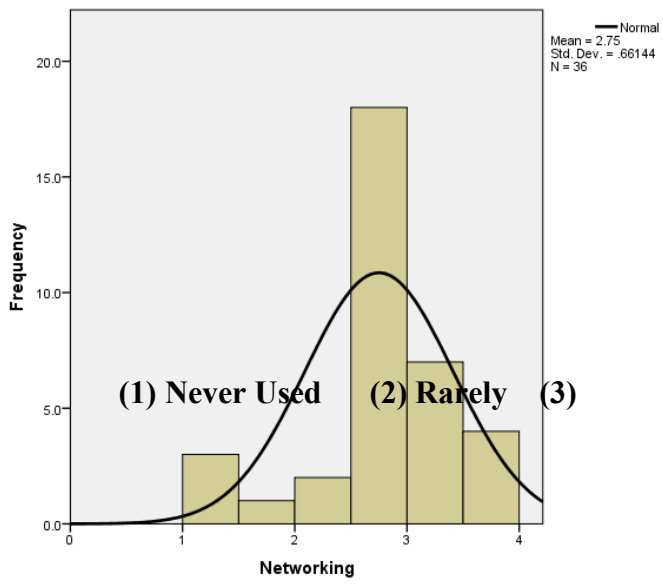


(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly Agree

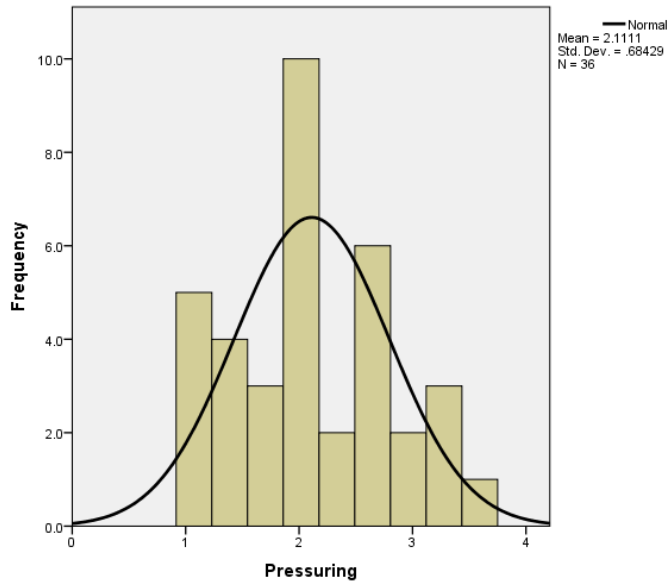


(1) Never Used (2) Rarely (3) Sometimes (4) Often

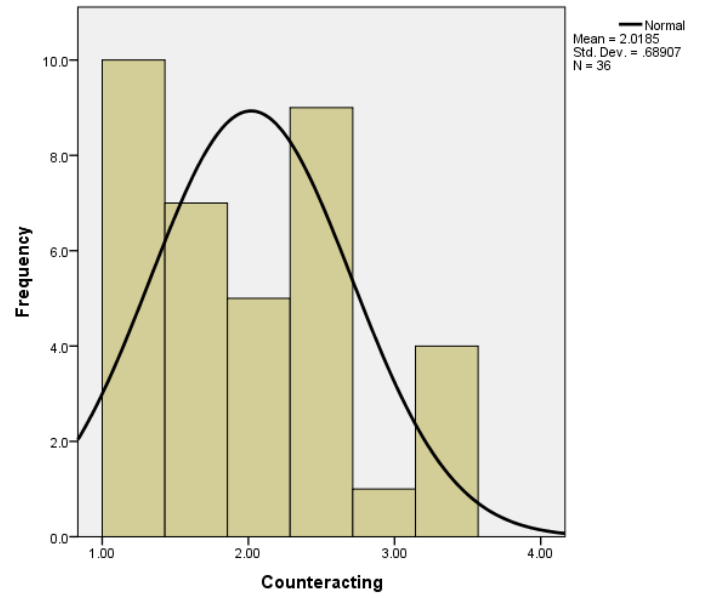




(1) Never Used (2) Rarely (3)



(1) Never Used (2) Rarely (3)



(1) Never Used (2) Rarely (3)

Inter-correlation Among 8 Constructs

Correlations

		Power	Reasoning	Consulting	Appealing	Networking	Bargaining	Pressuring
Power	Pearson Correlation	1	.245	.348*	.228	-.196	.082	.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.150	.038	.181	.253	.635	.285
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Reasoning	Pearson Correlation	.245	1	.505**	.212	.000	-.040	.320
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.150		.002	.214	1.000	.818	.057
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Consulting	Pearson Correlation	.348*	.505**	1	.223	-.012	-.063	.166
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.002		.192	.944	.716	.333
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Appealing	Pearson Correlation	.228	.212	.223	1	.416*	-.045	-.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.181	.214	.192		.012	.793	.993
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Networking	Pearson Correlation	-.196	.000	-.012	.416*	1	.516**	.255
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.253	1.000	.944	.012		.001	.133
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Bargaining	Pearson Correlation	.082	-.040	-.063	-.045	.516**	1	.364*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.635	.818	.716	.793	.001		.029
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Pressuring	Pearson Correlation	.183	.320	.166	-.002	.255	.364*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.285	.057	.333	.993	.133	.029	
	N	36	36	36	36	36	36	36

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

APPENDIX I
IRB APPROVAL

Phone 706-542-3199



APPROVAL OF PROTOCOL

January 6, 2017

Dear [Thomas Valentine](#):

On 1/6/2017, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	Toward Equity in Educational Planning: The Use And Effectiveness of Influence Tactics among Men and Women Faculty in Saudi Universities
Investigator:	Thomas Valentine
IRB ID:	STUDY00004087
Funding:	None
Documents Reviewed:	Protocol, Recruitment Message, Consent Form, Data Collection Materials
Review Category:	Exempt 2

The IRB approved the protocol from 1/6/2017 to 1/5/2022.

In conducting this study, you are required to follow the requirements listed in the Investigator Manual (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

Dr. Gerald E. Crites, MD, MEd
University of Georgia
Institutional Review Board Chairperson

APPENDIX J
INVITATION LETTER

Invitation Letter

Dear Faculty Member,

The recent decades have been a time of change in Saudi Arabia, with increased attention to men's and women's changing roles in society triggering a response from both conservative and progressive parties. The Saudi government has advocated for increased roles for women. However, some scholars and journalists have argued that women's increased participation represents a fundamental threat to Islamic and social values.

No matter what your political opinions are, I am sure you all agree with the role of universities in guiding our country through the process of change. While this role is important, it is sometimes unclear.

In order to help us to fill this row, we need to understand how faculty decision making is handled within our university environment. Your inputs in this survey is helpful to produce kind of data; ultimately move us to model of decision making in the future.

By clicking [Survey Link] you agree to participate in this survey.

Thank you in advance for your participation and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mohammed Alasmrai

Ph.D Candidate in Lifelong Educational, Administration and Policy

University of Georgia

&

Lecturer in University of Tabuk

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Research Information Sheet

This sheet provides the purpose of the research and your rights as a research participant.

The purpose of the Questionnaire

The purpose of this study is to understand who is guiding our universities at the faculty level. This research will involve a broad range of faculty members working in Saudi public universities.

This questionnaire has two aims. The first aim is to measure the nature of decision making within Saudi Universities. The second aim is to explore issues related to power and influence in decision making. This study is expected to contribute to the enhancement of the roles of both men and women faculty members in educational decision making.

Completing the Questionnaire

As a participant in this study, you will complete an online questionnaire about the influence tactics that you have used during the planning process. Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study or refuse to participate at any time without penalty or a loss of benefits to which you would otherwise be entitled. You may skip any questions that you feel uncomfortable answering. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the online questionnaire.

Confidentiality

All of your responses will be confidential. Your questionnaire responses may be assigned a “cookie” that has no meaning outside the survey website. If you do not complete this survey in one sitting, you will be able to return to it and complete it at another time.

Internet communication may be less secure, and there is a limit to the confidentiality that it can guarantee. However, once the researcher receives the survey, standard procedures will be followed and only a summary of the data will be reported.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, you can email me at maa810@uga.edu or my major professor Dr. Thomas Valentine at tvnj@uga.edu.

سعادة عضو هيئة التدريس الموقر/ه:

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد،

انطلاقاً من الحرص على إيجاد بيئة عمل مثالية من خلال بناء علاقات إيجابية بين أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعات الحكومية السعودية والتي تساعدهم على طرح أفكارهم بحرية وتقبل وجهات النظر المختلفة أثناء الاجتماعات سواء على مستوى القسم ، الكلية أو الجامعة فقد تم إعداد دراسة بعنوان "سياسة التخطيط الاستراتيجي في صناعة القرار التربوي: أساليب التأثير المستخدمة من قبل أعضاء هيئة التدريس أثناء اجتماعات الأقسام أو الكليات بالجامعات الحكومية السعودية " لاستكمال متطلب الحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في التربية بقسم القيادة التعليمية والتطوير المنظمي بجامعة جورجيا بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية.

{I://SurveyLink?d=}\$لتعبئة الاستبيان}

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التعرف على مستوى تأثير عضو هيئة التدريس في عملية صناعة القرار، وأيضا التعرف على أساليب وتقنيات التأثير المستخدمة من قبل عضو هيئة التدريس لتأثير على عملية صناعة القرار أثناء الاجتماعات على مستوى القسم، الكلية أو الجامعة.

إن تعاونكم وإجابتمكم الموضوعية على بنود الاستبانة يعزز مصداقية البحث العلمي ويساعد على الوصول إلى نتائج صحيحة. لذا أمل منكم التكرم بالإجابة على أسئلة الاستبانة بدقة. مع العلم أن كافة المعلومات المقدمة منكم ستكون سرية، ولن تستخدم إلا لغرض البحث العلمي فقط.

مع العلم أنه لا يوجد أي سؤال متعلق بهويتك الشخصية إلا أنه في حال تم ذكر أي معلومة خاصة بهويتك ستكون محفوظة بسرية تامة. مشاركتك تطوعية ويمكنك عدم الإجابة على أي سؤال أو الانسحاب من الاستبيان في أي وقت وأيضا يمكنك التوقف في أي لحظة وإغلاق الاستبيان كما يمكن العودة لتكملة ما تبقى من الأسئلة في أي وقت. مدة هذا الاستبيان لا تزيد عن ٧ دقائق .

في حال لديكم أي استفسار بإمكانكم التواصل معي عبر البريد الإلكتروني بعنوان maa810@uga.edu

شاكرًا لكم ولوقتكم المُعطى، وتقبلوا خالص شكري وتقديري .

الباحث: محمد بن عوض الأسمرى

عضو هيئة تدريس بقسم التربية و علم النفس بجامعة تنوك

طالب دكتوراه في القيادة التعليمية والتطوير المنظمي بجامعة جورجيا بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية .

APPENDIX K

THE FREQUENCY OF INFLUENCE TACTICS ITEMS

Table 4.3

Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Items

Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Construct
1	33. During faculty meetings, I indicate that I am open to other faculty	3.23	.912	Consulting
2	34. During faculty meetings, I suggest that other faculty members are	3.14	.944	Consulting
3	27. During faculty meetings, I use logical arguments to convince other	3.05	.987	Reasoning
4	30. During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members for suggestions	3.03	1.008	Consulting
5	35. During faculty meetings, I wait until my colleagues are in a good	2.96	1.019	Appealing
6	24. During faculty meetings, I indicate my willingness to modify my	2.94	.977	Consulting
7	33. During faculty meetings, I make other faculty members feel that what	2.93	.974	Appealing
8	38. During faculty meetings, I appeal to other faculty members' values	2.89	1.046	Appealing
9	28. During faculty meetings, I convince my colleagues members based	2.75	1.023	Reasoning
10	26. During faculty meetings, I present other faculty members with facts,	2.70	1.063	Reasoning

Table 4.3 (continued)

Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Item				
Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Construct
11	25. During faculty meetings, I convince other faculty members that my	2.63	.980	Reasoning
12	31. During faculty meetings, I ask other faculty members if they have	2.62	1.064	Consulting
13	36. During faculty meetings, I make sure that other faculty members	2.62	1.109	Appealing
14	29. During faculty meetings, I show other faculty members the	2.61	1.050	Reasoning
15	41. During faculty meetings, I obtain moral support from other people	2.55	.985	Networking
16	10 Before attending faculty meetings, I work with trusted colleagues to	2.53	1.022	Networking
17	9. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people	2.49	.989	Appealing
18	11. Before attending faculty meetings, I encourage trusted colleagues	2.41	1.062	Networking
19	40. During faculty meetings, I link what I want other faculty members	2.35	1.041	Networking
20	48. During faculty meetings, I ask my colleagues to help influence	2.25	1.041	Networking

Table 4.3 (continued)

Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Item

Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Construct
21	47. During faculty meetings, I repeatedly remind other faculty members	2.20	.997	Pressuring
22	22. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to	2.20	1.02	Counteractin
23	42. During faculty meetings, I ask other people in our organization to	2.11	.983	Networking
24	13. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to	2.05	.998	Networking
25	12. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to	2.03	1.01	Networking
26	14. Before attending faculty meetings, I call like-minded people to	2.02	1.00	Networking
27	17. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to	2.01	1.00	Pressuring
28	16. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to	1.99	1.03	Bargaining
29	54. During faculty meetings, I tell other faculty members that I refuse to	1.94	1.03	Counteractin
30	51. During faculty meetings, I insist that other faculty members do the	1.89	1.00	Pressuring

Table 4.3 (continued)

Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Item				
Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Construct
31	48. During faculty meetings, I insist that other faculty	1.83	.950	Pressuring
32	49. During faculty meetings, I raise my voice when telling	1.82	.965	Pressuring
33	43. During faculty meetings, I promise to support future	1.76	.985	Bargaining
34	15. Before attending faculty meetings, I make sure that my	1.75	.931	Bargaining
35	46. During faculty meetings, I offer to speak favorably	1.74	.954	Bargaining
36	44. During faculty meetings, I offer to do some work for	1.73	.986	Bargaining
37	20. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-	1.70	.912	Counteracting
38	45. During faculty meetings, I offer to do a personal favor	1.66	.951	Bargaining
39	21. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-	1.62	.883	Counteracting
40	52. During faculty meetings, I take action while other	1.59	.870	Counteracting

Table 4.3 (continued)

Rank Order Listing of Influence Tactics Item				
Rank	Item Language	M	SD	Co nst
41	50. During faculty meetings, I challenge other faculty members to do the work my way or to come up with a better plan for	1.59	.887	Pres surin
42	23. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to agree to say nothing during the faculty meeting.	1.46	.803	Co unt
43	18. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the	1.45	.819	Co unt
44	53. During faculty meetings, I withhold information that other faculty members need unless they support my ideas on	1.39	.777	Co unt
45	24. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to refuse to vote during the faculty meeting in order to	1.36	.731	Co unt
46	19. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the	1.36	.754	Co unt

APPENDIX L
BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EIGHT PREDICTOR VARIABLES AND EIGHT
KEY SCALES (SELF-ASSESSED POWER AND INFLUENCE TACTICS SCALES)

Self-Assessed Power

Table 4. 7
Correlations of Predictors Variables with Self-Assessed Power

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	r ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.09	t=-2.7	.007**	.008
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.15	t= 4.56	.000**	.023
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.11	t=3.06	.002**	.01
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s =.141	.000**	.017
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s =-.01	.809	-----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=.16	.000**	.026
Age	Pearson		r= .19	.000**	.035

** Significant at level .01

Table 4. 8
Correlations of Predictor Variables with Reasoning Construct

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.17	t=-3.11	.002**	.011
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.20	t= 3.61	.000**	-----
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.18	t=3.25	.001**	.012
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s =.103	.001**	.012

Field of Interests	Spearman	$r_s = .01$.841	-----
Years of Experiences	Pearson	$r = .08$.021**	.006
Age	Pearson	$r = .12$.000**	.014

** Significant at level .01

Consulting Tactics Scale

In the bivariate analysis, of the eight predictor variables analyzed, three were significantly correlated with reasoning tactics. The strongest explanatory variable was previously appointed in any leadership positions, which explained 1.5% of the observed variance in Consulting Tactics. The other statistically significant correlates were: currently appointed in any leadership positions (1%), and less than 1% for Age (Table 4.9).

Table 4. 9

Correlations of Predictor Variables with Consulting Tactics

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.04	$t = -0.7$.487	-----
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.19	$t = 3.68$.000**	.015
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.16	$t = 3.08$.002**	.01
Professor Rank	Spearman		$r_s = .04$.219	-----
Field of Interests	Spearman		$F = -.01$.764	-----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		$r = .08$.12	.007
Age	Pearson		$r = .09$.006**	.009

** Significant at level .01

Appealing Tactics Scale

In the bivariate analysis, no predictor variable displayed a significant correlation with Appealing Tactics (table 4.10).

Table 4.10
Correlations of Predictor Variables with Appealing Construct

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.07	t=-1.41	.158	-----
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.06	t= 1.21	.226	-----
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.12	t=2.46	.014	-----
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s =-.03	.444	-----
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s =0.02	.58	-----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=.01	.685	-----
Age	Pearson		r= -.00	.955	-----

** Significant at level .01

Networking Tactics Scale

Currently appointed in any leadership position was the only variable yielding significant correlation with networking tactics. The variable accounted for 1.2% of the variance for networking tactics (table 4.11).

Table 4. 11
Correlations of Predictor Variables with Networking Construct

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.08	t=-1.81	.07	----
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.09	t= 1.95	.052	----
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.16	t=3.51	.000**	.013
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s =-.03	.323	-----
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s =.08	.017	-----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=-.05	.113	-----
Age	Pearson		r= -.06	.70	-----

** Significant at level .01

Bargaining Tactics Scale

Four of the eight predictor variables were significantly correlated with bargaining tactics. Years of experience explains 1.7% of the variance, professor rank explains 1.2% of the variance and country of origin explains 1.1% of the variance. The values for the significant variables are outlined in Table 4.12.

Table 4. 12
Correlations of Predictor Variables with Bargaining Construct

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.18	t=-3.41	.001**	.011
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	-0.12	t= -2.29	.022	----

Table 4. 12

Correlations of Predictor Variables with Bargaining Construct

Predictor Variable	Tests	Mean Difference	Test Statistic		
			Results	p	R ²
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	-0.01	t=0.25	.804	----
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s =-.09	.008**	.01
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s =.06	.061	----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=.13	.000**	.017
Age	Pearson		r= .14	.000**	.02

** Significant at level .01

Pressuring Tactics Scale

Of the predictor variables, no predictor variable was significantly correlated with pressure tactics (table 4. 13).

Table 4. 13

Correlations of Predictor Variables with Pressuring Construct

Predictor Variable	Tests	Mean Difference	Test Statistic		
			Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.09	t=-1.9	.058	----
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.01	t= 0.25	.804	----
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.09	t=1.84	.067	----
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s = -.03	.381	----
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s =.06	.077	----
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=-.08	.015	----
Age	Pearson		r= -.08	.02	----

** Significant at level .01

Counteracting Tactics Scale

Four predictor variables were significantly correlated with counteracting tactics. Years of experience explains 2.6 % of the variance while age explains 2.6% of the variance. Also, professor rank explains 1.2% of the variance while country of origin explains 1.1% of the variance. (table 4.14).

Table 4. 14

Correlations of Predictor Variables with Counteracting Construct

Predictor Variable	Test Statistic				
	Tests	Mean Difference	Results	p	R ²
Country of origin	t-Test	-0.12	t=-2.83	.005**	.011
Previously appointed in leadership position	t-Test	-.05	t= -1.26	.211	--
Currently appointed in leadership position	t-Test	0.02	t=0.59	.556	--
Professor Rank	Spearman		r _s = -.11	.001**	.012
Field of Interests	Spearman		r _s = .05	.161	--
Years of Experiences	Pearson		r=-.17	.000**	.028
Age	Pearson		r= -.16	.000**	.026

** Significant at level .01

APPENDIX M
THE FULL LIST OF CORRECTED-ITEM CORRELATION OF ADDITIONAL
ITEMS

Table 4. 15

The full list of corrected-item correlation of additional items

Items	Corrected-item correlation
11. Before attending faculty meetings, I encourage trusted colleagues to express any concerns they might have. *	.20
9. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to get support from other departments that are instrumental to our plans.	.51
10. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with trusted colleagues to modify a plan I will be proposing.	.55
12. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to establish a working relationship with a board or external committee that oversees the internal operations of the organization in order to obtain support for developing the educational programs.	.59
13. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to tie our request to others made by popular people in the organizational unit to gain support for our ideas on educational program development.	.63

Table 4. 15

The full list of corrected-item correlation of additional items

Items	Corrected-item correlation
14. Before attending faculty meetings, I call like-minded people to informal meetings to discuss our ideas for educational program development.	.59
15. Before attending faculty meetings, I make sure that my trusted colleagues remind other colleagues of how we have helped them in the past, to imply that we now expect compliance with our request for developing the educational program.	.60
16. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to offer to help other faculty members in the future in return for their help now with our ideas on developing the educational program.	.55
17. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to use our titles, position, power and resources to support our group goals on educational program development.	.43
18. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the dean of our college if our thoughts on developing the educational program are ignored.	.73

Table 4. 15

The full list of corrected-item correlation of additional items

Items	Corrected-item correlation
19. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to warn the faculty members that we will complain to the Ministry of Education if our thoughts on developing the educational program are ignored.	.73
20. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to send an official letter to the department chairman about our positive thoughts on the development of the educational program.	.61
21. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to delay carrying out the conflicting points around developing the educational program.	.67
22. Before attending faculty meetings, I work with like-minded people to resolve conflicting points in our the educational program.	.44
23. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to agree to say nothing during the faculty meeting.	.64
24. Before attending a faculty meeting, I work with like-minded people to refuse to vote during the faculty meeting in order to attract attention to educational program development.	.71

APPENDIX N

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

SELECTED RESPONDENTS' ANSWERS ON OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Selected Respondents' Answers On Open-Ended Questions

Do you think your personal characteristics (i.e. gender, country of origin, Age, professor rank and years of experiences) has affected you and your participation in the educational planning process? how?	Gender	Nationality
Yes, my professor rank and years of experiences affected	M	None Saudi
Here, all are given the freedom to suggest and the decision comes as per the agreement of all department members.	M	Saudi
No, there are no effects based on personal characteristics or my participation in the educational planning process. This is because there is no difference among members based on their country, gender, rank in years, or qualifications.	M	Saudi Faculty
Not at all. I'm a Saudi male assistant professor with more than 20 years of experience, and I've never felt that any of these characteristics helped me in suggesting any new idea, nor did they affect my decision to share my thoughts and opinions on any subject in our department. Most of the time, we are open for any suggestions or ideas from all faculty, provided that they are presented in a professional matter.	M	None Saudi Faculty
Absolutely; Saudi Arabia is a male-dominated society when it comes to power and decisions. As a female faculty member, I feel I have very little power to influence change. Men make the decisions and we mostly just execute them. The	F	Saudi Faculty

<p>segregation, to start with, is a big barrier. You can't be that effective or influential if you participate through a TV circuit!</p> <p>Also, some new faculty members come from very traditional backgrounds, and they might be the first in their family to hold a PhD degree or to even travel abroad, so they are still struggling to see women as equal.</p>		
<p>Yes, I think it is a cultural issue. For some reason, women's opinions are not always taken under consideration.</p>	F	None Saudi Faculty
<p>In the department of religion, female faculty members are not allowed to attend faculty meetings. Last semester, we were asked to put our comments on an agenda of items via email.</p>	F	Saudi Faculty
<p>Maybe! Being a female is still a little bit of an obstacle. Well, being female is not actually the issue, but rather how the environment treats females. It is all about culture, I guess.</p> <p>However, it is improving positively. Yes, there is not a striking or steady improvement, I would say, yet it is getting better.</p>	M	Saudi Faculty