



**Perceptions of Schoolteachers' Involvement in Educational Decision- Making
in the State of Qatar.**

Submitted by

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the perspectives of selected high school administrators and schoolteachers regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in light of the recent educational reform initiatives in the State of Qatar. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews that centered on schools' developmental and implemental decisions related to educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, schools' administrative policies for teachers, and for students. Participants included 182 school administrators and 480 schoolteachers who completed the 40-item questionnaire while five school administrators and five schoolteachers participated in the interviews. Findings demonstrate that school administrators were more enthusiastic than schoolteachers about schoolteachers' involvement in making decisions related to school's educational goals and policies. School administrators and schoolteachers recorded some similar responses regarding schoolteachers' involvement in decision-making in the area of curriculum and administrative policies for students but there were differences between schoolteachers and administrators in several areas related to administrative policies for teachers. Findings also indicate differences between the perspectives of male and female school administrators, male and female schoolteachers, and the citizen and expatriate schoolteachers. A number of recommendations are made that highlight the importance of considering schoolteachers' involvement in any educational reform attempting to improve the decision-making process and the educational system.

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be praise in the hereafter: and he is full of wisdom, acquainted with all things”*

(36:1, The Holy Quran).

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Decision-making is an essential element in the administration of educational organizations worldwide existing in most of the activities done by administrators, such as planning, constructing, and mentoring. It has been suggested that administration is decision-making (March, 2010) and “a way of life for school administrators” (Lunenburg, 2010). Many researchers have dealt with the decision-making process in organizations and with school administrators’ responsibility in empowering schoolteachers to be involved in the decision-making process. Reeves (2006) emphasizes the role of an administrator as an architect who starts with a vision, but has to depend on other expertise and workers to make this vision a reality. He states, “No single person can achieve the essential demands of leadership alone” (p. 28).

Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, Wahlstrom (2004), and Senge (1990) assert that managers have to be experienced and proficient in making decisions related to recruiting, training, evaluating, and developing personnel. They also have to build teams and promote their intellectual growth and communication in a way that helps to meet the organization’s goals. Hallinger and Heck (1996), Marzano (2000), Sebring and Bryk (2000) confirm that managers in organizations should not make decisions by themselves and that employees’ participation in making decisions is beneficial for their organization’s effectiveness. Palmer and Rangel (2011) argue that one of the significant requirements of the “No Child Left Behind” law, in the United States, is the idea that school principals are required to change the way they manage schools and to empower their teachers to participate more in the decision-making process (The Commission on No Child Left Behind, 2007).

Participatory decision-making (PDM) has become a major component in many school systems. Schmuck and Runkel (1985), Sweetland and Hoy (2000), and Martin, Crossland and Johnson (2001), argue that schoolteachers' participation in making decisions can affect the school's efficiency, can lead to teachers and schools' autonomy, and enhance schools' positive climate. They suggest that this is because individuals who are empowered to make educational decisions are more satisfied with the decisions made, more willing to implement them, and more dedicated to the accomplishment of the school's objectives.

However, studies have revealed that people at the lower levels of the educational hierarchy in schools, such as schoolteachers, are dissatisfied with their administrative system and would like to be more involved in making decisions (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Reeves (2006) argues that educational organizations which need development have to change the roles of their staff, shift the source of power from the top of the educational hierarchy to the lower level of the hierarchy, such as schoolteachers, and implement new programs to meet their needs.

Similarly, Chrispeels, Burke, Johnson and Daly (2008) state, "there is a growing recognition that principals cannot lead alone and that school leadership teams are essential to the improvement process" (p. 730). Principals need to seek support from their colleagues and provide opportunities for participatory decision-making in order to achieve the desired goals and objectives. Phillips (1984) and Manga (1996) support this by emphasizing that any efforts to improve schools' administration and the decision-making process have to address all populations who are affected by the decisions made.

1.1 Statement of the Research Problem

Historically, in the State of Qatar, a number of people at the highest level of the hierarchy of the educational structure, such as the Central Office Administration in the Ministry of Education and school principals hold the majority of educational power. The power of those at the lower levels, such as schoolteachers, is limited. In their studies about schools in Qatar, Gunaim (1978), Al-Kobaisi (1979), and Al-Derhim (1984) asserted that school administration in Qatar suffered from the highly centralized system of education in making decisions and that there was a lack of democratic climate and strong relationships between schoolteachers and their school administrators which caused an unhealthy atmosphere and complaints from schoolteachers of being unfairly treated. Based on these studies schoolteachers want to be empowered to make educational decisions and had an urgent need for the establishment of an effective decision-making process that involves all populations affected by the educational decisions in the State of Qatar.

Another study by Al-Musleh (1988) revealed that a traditional view of administration - in which the educational power was rested within the Central Office Administration in the Ministry of Education that neglected the opinions of individuals affected by the decisions made when forming educational decisions - was the dominant school system in Qatar. As a result, he argued, these decisions were often meaningless and unrelated to schools' needs. Al-Musleh suggested that a more collegial and cooperative style of management and participatory decision-making should be applied in schools by minimizing the authority of the Central Office Administration and giving the opportunity to other populations in schools to participate in making decisions.

It is noteworthy that these results were obtained prior to the 2002 systematic Education Reform of Qatar's schools "Education for a New Era" (Supreme Education Council, 2012). The overall structure and organization of the educational system in Qatar changed. The Supreme Educational Council (SEC) which replaced the Ministry of Education and which is in charge of the Qatari education system aims at reducing the degree of control exercised over schools by the Central Office Administration by establishing government schools called Independent Schools with different missions, curricula, instructional strategies, and resources (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012). These schools are funded by the SEC and represent a more decentralized management system of schooling than had existed in the past. The SEC, however, provides school principals, administrators, and schoolteachers of these Independent Schools with general standards and policies, which they have to follow, to help them develop and design their curricula and implement their learning and teaching procedures.

Despite the clear commitment of the Supreme Education Council to develop, enhance and reform the education sector in Qatar, the Qatari education system still needs improvement based on students' low performance in English, mathematics and science based on the Evaluation Institute 2nd annual statistical report on schools in Qatar for the academic year 2006-2007 (Evaluation Institute, 2007).

In order to improve schools, the SEC began offering various training programs for schoolteachers and leadership practices for school administrators to improve the Qatari educational system. It also issued new rules and policies for school administrators and schoolteachers to follow related to school curricula, teaching strategies, textbooks, and teacher's salaries, allowances, and hiring and firing

procedures (Supreme Education Council, 2012). However, Qatar's Third National Human Development Report (2012) indicated that though Qatar spends \$8,585 on average on school education for each of its students yearly, the outcomes are still unsatisfactory (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

The Research and Development Corporation (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012), a non-profit research organization, stated that there still is a centralized educational structure that discourages communication and collaboration between the Supreme Education Council and school administrators and schoolteachers to make effective educational decisions. Furthermore, one of my previous studies revealed schoolteachers' dissatisfaction regarding neglecting their opinions in making decisions and the Supreme Education Council's control over the general educational objectives and implementation of some policies related to schools' administration, curriculum, schoolteachers' PD sessions, salary raise, promotion and bonus systems, and students' assessment systems and disciplinary policy (Abu-Shawish, 2011).

Accordingly, it is important to study the opinions of school administrators and schoolteachers about the current educational decision-making system and the extent to which schoolteachers **should** be involved in making educational decisions in the State of Qatar. This study also attempts to examine if differences exist in the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers in relation to their gender as Independent Schools in Qatar are gender segregated, which could lead to the existence of differences between the opinions of male and female school administrators and schoolteachers regarding the areas, educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers and

administrative policies for students. Thus, gender was considered a variable in this study.

Furthermore, this study attempts to examine if differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers in relation to their nationality due to the issue that the State of Qatar depends on expatriate schoolteachers to cover the shortage of teaching staff and they are selected according to certain criteria different from citizen schoolteachers. This could lead to differences in the perspectives of both groups according to their nationality. Thus, nationality was also considered as a further variable in this study.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study can be seen through different aspects. First, there is deficiency of literature and research on the aspect of presenting the decision-making process in both the Ministry of Education Schools (those schools replaced by the current Independent Schools) and the current Qatari educational context. For instance, Al-Musleh (1988) studied the Ministry of Education Schools exploring the opinions of some central office administrators and school principals toward the extent to which school principals should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. He stated that decision-making in the educational system in Qatar needed continued research and recommended investigating the extent to which other populations, such as schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar.

Furthermore, additional studies on the Ministry of Education Schools related to the administrative organization in the Qatari educational system are concerned

with describing people at the higher educational hierarchy who are in charge of the decision-making process (Gunaim, 1978; Al-Derhim, 1984; Al-Musleh, 1988).

The Social & Economic Survey Research Institute (2012) found that “53 percent of Independent school teachers strongly agree or somewhat agree “school management takes decisions without consulting teachers.” (p. 15). In contrast, the study found 91 percent of the Independent school administrators strongly agree or somewhat agree that “teachers are involved in the decision-making process at the school” (p. 15).

Cherif & Romanowski (2013) and Romanowski, Cherif, Al Ammari and Al Attiyah (2013) studied principals, schoolteachers and parents’ perceptions of Qatar’s Educational Reform and found that participants thought principals and schoolteachers lacked involvement in the reform and that the Supreme Education Council’s top-down approach to decision-making excluded the opinions of principals and schoolteachers. However, there still is a need for more research that investigates school administrators and schoolteachers’ current attitudes about the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in the country.

This study, will serve to provide additional research to further understand and evaluate schoolteachers’ role in making educational decisions in the current Qatari education system by considering the constructs of nationality and gender. It could provide evidence for improving the Qatari system. The comparison between the opinions of school administrators and schoolteachers is also significant. It can aid in discovering possible discrepancies between the perceptions of both groups and may provide useful data for an effective decision-making process. Consequently, this

study is to build upon the findings from the previous studies mentioned above and results from my previous research (Abu-Shawish, 2011) that examined the perceptions of schoolteachers at Qatar's Independent Schools with regards to their satisfaction about the factors of the collegial school management model. Since one element of collegial management is shared decision-making strategies (Singh & Manser, 2002), this study seeks to explore, determine, compare and contrast the opinions of selected school administrators and schoolteachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar and also considers the constructs of nationality and gender. The findings of this study will lay the groundwork for further research in the field of decision-making studies in educational organizations.

1.3 Research Questions

This study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools':
 - A. Educational goals and policies?
 - B. Curriculum and instruction?
 - C. Administrative policies for teachers?
 - D. Administrative policies for students?
2. Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to the four domains mentioned above?

3. Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators in relation to their:
 - A. Gender?
 - B. Nationality?
4. Do differences exist between the perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their:
 - A. Gender?
 - B. Nationality?

1.4 Organization of the Thesis

This study will be organized in the following chapters:

Chapter 1 of this thesis provided an account of the importance of participatory decision-making and the nature of the Qatari educational system. It states the nature of the participatory decision-making problem, the rationale for this study, its significance and the research questions for this study.

Chapter 2 includes background information about the State of Qatar as a country and a brief history of the educational system in Qatari schools.

Chapter 3 presents a review of the literature related to this study and empirical evidence on school administrators and schoolteachers' opinions regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. The discussion in this chapter indicates that participatory decision-making should be a fundamental part of any educational system.

Chapter 4 comprises a description of the research framework and methodology. It deals with the theoretical framework for this study, the research design, methods, and procedures implemented in sampling and data collection and

analysis. It also presents some information regarding the study's validity and reliability, ethical dimensions, and challenges and limitations of the study.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the data analysis from the questionnaire, the Survey open-ended questions and the interviews in relation to the research questions.

Chapter 6 produces a brief summary of the results of this study through a discussion of the results of the data analysis in relation to the research questions and discussion in the introduction and the literature review chapters.

Chapter 7 includes some implications and recommendations for leaders and policy makers in Qatar, how this study contributes to knowledge, and suggestions for further research. It also presents my personal reflection on the thesis journey.

1.5 Conclusion

My own interest in the success of Qatar's reform *Education for a New Era* comes from my work with undergraduate students at Qatar University many who have graduated from Independent Schools in Qatar. I have witnessed their struggles entering the university and often these struggles are the results of being students in the midst of the massive changes in education in Qatar. Fullan (2011) points out the key to reforms are teachers, and if leadership fails involve teachers in the change process, such as in educational reform, it is destined to fail. Furthermore, my position as an instructor and Assistant Dean at Qatar University has provided me with experience working with teachers by providing professional development at various times throughout the academic year and enabled me to spend time in the Independent Schools. During this time, I talked with teachers about the schools, the educational reform, their teaching and leadership issues and some of the challenges

they face. These experiences, coupled with my own previous research on school management and teacher job satisfaction, led me to the realisation of the importance of engaging schoolteachers in the decision-making process and how this can aid in the success of educational reform.

In conclusion, this chapter provides a brief account of the significance of participatory decision-making in enhancing schools' autonomy and efficiency and an account of the lack of participatory decision-making in the Qatari educational system. In addition, the chapter presents the need and significance of this study and the research questions that this study will attempt to answer.

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

To understand the factors that have been instrumental in structuring the educational context of Qatar, it is necessary to know something of the unique geography, history, and economics of the area. This chapter thus presents some geographical facts about the State of Qatar, the historical and economical background, political issues, the early beginnings and the development of the education system in the country, the organizational structure of schools' administration, and educational decision-making in Qatar.

2.2 Geographical Issues

The State of Qatar is a peninsula located halfway along the western coast of the Arabian Gulf. It is bordered by Saudi Arabia to the southwest and the United Arab Emirates to the southeast. Qatar covers a total land area of approximately 11,521 square kilometres with a population of 1,951,591 (Index Mundi, 2012). The most important and largest city in Qatar is Doha. It is the capital and the commercial centre, where most government offices, ministries, and financial and business firms are located.



Figure 1. Map of Qatar (Wikipedia-The Free Encyclopaedia, 2012)

2.3 Historical and Economical Background

Archaeologists have indicated that Qatar had been inhabited for centuries (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012). In the eighteenth century, many migrants, such as Bedouins and Persians, came to Qatar. The dry nature of the desert land led these migrants to work in fishing, pearl diving, cattle grazing, and trading. In 1913, oil was first discovered in Qatar. The discovery of oil changed the pattern of life in Qatar from a traditional economy to a modern economy and led to a cultural change.

Melikian (1981) states, "in less than three decades its relatively simple, austere and well-integrated culture has become a more complex culture with new needs" (p.5) This change attracted many expatriates, such as technicians, clerks, labourers and craftsmen from Pakistan, India and Iran to work in the private sector. Other expatriates came from Egypt, Palestine, Jordan, Sudan and Syria and were employed in the public sector. Westerners work in technological and professional fields while Qataris occupied the oil industry sector (Melikian, 1981; El-Malakh, 1985).

In 1971, Qatar announced its independence and later, became an active member of the Arab League, the United Nations, and the Organization of the Oil-Exporting Countries (OPEC). In 1977, Qatar took over full control of its oil industry. The government has made efforts to ensure that the citizens of Qatar benefit from oil revenues, the gas fields in the north of Qatar and other economic resources, such as agriculture and industry in developing the country. As a result, new government organizations have been established and the medical and technological sectors have been expanded (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012).

The educational sector has also been developed. Qatar has developed a knowledge-based economy believing that oil and gas will not remain forever. A multi-billion dollar investment has been made in academic research projects. The school system has been improved, new schools and universities have been built, training institutions have been established, and an international forum for exploring the most effective forms of creativity and development has been set up. All this has contributed to people's welfare and growth in Qatar. The country also supports international projects as a member of The World Innovation Summit for Education

(WISE). It helps to fund educational projects in Africa, South Asia, South America, and Europe and it encourages countries to win the WISE Nobel prize, which worth \$500,000 (£319,000) (Government of Qatar, Planning Council, 2007).

2.4 Political Issues

The Ministry of Information (1983) described Qatar's government as "an independent sovereign Arab State. Islam is the official religion and Islamic jurisprudence is the basis of the legal system. The system of government is democratic and the official language is Arabic" (p. 23). The Al Thani family rules the State of Qatar. The present Amir of Qatar is Sheikh Tamim Bin Khalifa Al-Thani who is both the ruler and the head of State. The system of government in Qatar is based on the Provisional Amended Constitution of Qatar, which upholds the separation of the legislative, executive and judicial powers. The Council of Ministers is the highest executive body. The Advisory Council consists of 30 members and assists the Amir and the Council of Ministers in drafting regulations and laws. The judiciary system in Qatar enjoys independence in carrying out its duties according to Islamic doctrine that constitutes the basic source of legislation (Al- Misnad, 1985; Abo-Galalah, 1992).

2.5 The Education System in Qatar

2.5.1 The Early Beginnings

In the past, education in Qatar was an individual endeavour enjoyed by wealthy people of the ruling family, merchants and the public, who used to donate money for school buildings, textbooks and stationery. The type of education that was popular at that time was called the Kuttab. Kuttab educators were called the "Mutttawa" and "Mullah" taught children the recitation of the Holy Quran, traditions

of the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him), and the principles of reading, writing, arithmetic, and poetry (Al-Sada, 1986; Nagi, 1980).

In 1913, the first school in Qatar was set up by the Saudi scholar Sheikh Mohammad Bin Mani, and was called Alathariya School. It was considered as an advanced Kuttab as it aimed to teach children the same Kuttab subjects but in greater depth. In 1938, Bin Mani left to return to Saudi Arabia, and the school was closed; however, in 1947, the first semi-formal school “Madrasat Al Islah Al-Mohammadia” was set up in Qatar. The school curriculum included the Holy Quran, Arabic language and grammar, Islamic subjects, Arithmetic, Geography, and English language. This was the first time English was taught in the country (Al-Sada, 1986).

2.5.2 Qatari Educational Development

The beginning of a more formal and comprehensive form of education first began in 1948 when a school for boys opened in Doha and Government support of this school began in 1951 (Brewer, Goldman, Augustine, Zellman, Ryan, & Stasz, 2006). By 1954, there were four primary schools in Qatar with teachers from different Arab countries, such as Egypt, Iraq and Palestine. The first public school for girls opened in 1956 and drafted education regulations that led to the development of the Ministry of Education (MoE) (Brewer, et. al., 2006).

In 1956, school education became compulsory, and it was provided free-of-charge for girls and boys. Later on, Qatar adopted the Charter of the Arab Cultural Unity. The result was a change in the school system to include the following three stages:

- The Elementary Stage: for children from six years old and for six years duration.

- The Preparatory Stage: for primary graduates and for three years duration.
- The Secondary Stage: for preparatory graduates and for three years duration (Al-Sada, 1986).

The country has witnessed significant development in its education as a result of the formation of modern formal schooling. In 2001, the leaders of Qatar hired the RAND Corporation, non-profit research organization, to design and enhance the country's education system so that it could become a world-class system. Beginning in 2002, as a result of RAND's report, a new system of Independent Schools was established. One of the basic aims of establishing these schools was to reduce the degree of control exercised over ministry schools by the central government. These Independent Schools are funded by the central government; however, they are supposed to represent a more decentralized system of schooling than the ministry schools, which had existed in Qatar in the past, by applying the self- management concept. As of 2010, all government schools have been reformed and gradually changed to Independent Schools. The Supreme Education Council (SEC) is in charge of developing the education system in the country. It implements a national framework and standard procedures for schools to follow. School principals, principal assistants, coordinators, and schoolteachers are responsible for implementing the educational objectives assigned by the Supreme Education Council (Supreme Education Council, 2012). A fuller explanation of education decision-making in Qatar will be addressed in section 2.5.4.

In Qatar, the number of students, teachers, administrators, and school buildings has increased in the past three decades. Currently in Qatar, there are 175 Independent Schools each gender segregated for boys with male teachers and

schools for girls with female teachers (Supreme Education Council, n. d.). They provide free education for children from different nationalities whose parents work for the public sector. There are also private Arab and international schools comprised of more than 16,309 teachers from different nationalities (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

The school curriculum has also witnessed comprehensive improvement. With the move to the reformed Independent Schools, there was an adoption of modern mathematics and sciences (which were to be taught in English), improvement of English language courses, implementation of sociology programs, and revision for the Islamic studies and Arabic language textbooks. The primary and preparatory stages focus on the basic literacy and numeracy skills. The secondary stage prepares students for university or for joining the workforce directly. Extra-curricular activities have been improved to include producing scientific equipment, illustrative figures and charts, community service activities, such as planting, anti-smoking campaign, and cleanliness week, literary and cultural activities, such as preparing school magazines and lectures, and athletic activities (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

In 2012, the SEC made a decision to change the language of instruction in mathematics and sciences from English to Arabic in all Independent schools and that all schools, private or public, must teach Arabic, Islamic studies, and Qatari history for Arab students. Qatar University also had to switch the language of instruction for the disciplines of law, international affairs, media, and business administration from English to Arabic (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

Additional progress in the Qatari education system was the establishment of Qatar Foundation for Education, Science and Research and Community Development in 1995 by His Highness the Amir Sheikh Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani. Qatar Foundation is a private, non-profit organization that supports the development of Qatar's education system. Different universities were also set up in the country, such as the University of Qatar, which includes eight colleges: Education, Arts and Sciences, Pharmacy, Shari'a and Islamic Studies, Engineering, Law, Business and Economics, and Medicine, in addition to other Western universities: six US universities, one UK university, and one French university (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

2.5.3 Organizational Structure of Schools' Administration in Qatar

The general formation of the school administration structure, unified by the Supreme Education Council, for Independent Schools in Qatar consists of the following personnel:

Administrators

1. School Principal: The principal is in charge of school's administrative, financial, and technical activities. S/he liaises with the assistant principals to assign tasks to staff and supervise their performance, supervises students' behaviour, holds staff meetings, and forwards reports to the Supreme Education Council.
2. Vice-Principals: Vice-principals in schools are comprised of Vice-Principal for Administrative Affairs, Vice-Principal for Academic Affairs, and Vice-Principal for Kindergarten (in elementary schools). They assist the principal in setting up the school's vision and mission statements,

monitoring the school's progress and the efficiency of the learning and teaching process, prepare the school schedule, overseeing schools' examination procedures, supervising students' attendance and progress records, and overseeing faculty and staff's performance.

3. Coordinators: Coordinators in schools are comprised of a Kindergarten Coordinator, Coordinator of Student Affairs, and Curriculum Coordinators who liaise with the assistant principals to monitor and prepare reports related to school syllabi, textbooks, teaching procedures and resources, quizzes and exams, and teachers' professional development programs.

Teachers

4. Teachers, Class teachers and Assistant teachers (for kindergarten and primary levels): They are supervised and evaluated by the school principal and principal assistants, using classroom observation, teacher portfolio, teacher's participation in school's committees and extracurricular activities, students' results and surveys of students and parents.

Support Staff

5. School Officer: A school officer is in charge of class timing, school transportation, student behaviour and enrolment, and school maintenance.
6. Academic Advisor, Learning Centre Officer, Special Needs Coordinator, Social Specialist, and Psychologist: They all support students and liaise with schoolteachers and students' parents to monitor students' academic, social, mental and psychological problems and suggest solutions to resolve them.

7. School Secretary, Receptionist, Accountant, Storekeeper, Lab-keeper, IT Technician, Librarian, and School Nurse (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

2.5.4 Educational Decision- Making in Qatar

The country's educational decisions, including making final decisions related to schools' main goals and objectives, policies, strategies, learning outcomes, and long term planning, are all proposed by the Supreme Education Council (SEC). A number of consultant institutes in the Supreme Education Council help in making and implementing these educational decisions by surveying the opinions of people in charge of the country's educational process in the SEC, gathering the required information, conducting studies, and selecting the appropriate solutions and procedures for implementing and evaluating them. These institutes are:

- The Education Institute: Oversees and supports the Independent Schools.
- The Evaluation Institute: Develops and conducts tests and exams, monitors student learning and assess school achievement.
- The Higher Education Institute: Provides people with career options and opportunities for higher education either in Qatar or abroad, and administers scholarships and grants for them (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

It is important to note that most research related to schoolteachers' participation in decision-making occurred in the old ministry schools rather than in the Independent Schools under *Education for a New Era*. Abu-Jalalah (1993), for example, found that schoolteachers in Qatar did not participate in any educational decisions related to choosing their teaching methods and textbooks, and teaching subjects or schedule. The schools' curriculum also was not organized well and

teachers were expected to follow and cover the syllabus given to them in a certain period regardless of the allocated time to their classes or the suitability of the content to their students' abilities and needs. Al Hafidh (1973), an expert from UNESCO, confirmed,

Education in Qatar is completely centralized. Policies, curricula, textbooks, plans for expansion, examinations, all emanate from the Central Office and teachers exercise no influence on the shaping of education and policy. Their job is to see that those subordinate to them apply them literally (p. 54).

In 2002, the first cohort of Qatar's Independent Schools opened and were established on the following principles:

- **Autonomy:** Encouraging teachers to be innovative in order to meet their students' and parents' needs within the framework of the curriculum standards.
- **Accountability:** Implementing a comprehensive assessment system for school leaders, teachers and students.
- **Variety:** Encouraging schools to use different kinds of instructional activities and programs.
- **Choice:** Giving parents the opportunity to choose the school that best fits their child's needs (Supreme Education Council, 2012).

Independent Schools in Qatar were to make their own educational decisions regarding their overall objectives, management system, teaching methods, course components, curriculum, teachers' teaching and working load, resources and equipment to be used, types of training sessions for teachers, required extra-curricular activities, hiring firing system for teachers, teachers' evaluation system, and systems of teachers' benefits, vacations, and health insurance. Over the course of the reform, the SEC has instituted new policies that have reduced autonomy in

Independent Schools. The SEC increasingly took over the decision-making process gradually, so autonomy is no longer a characteristic of Independent Schools (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012).

In November 2005 through May 2007, RAND conducted an evaluation that examined on the implementation of *Education for a New Era*. The evaluation was a case study of 12 Independent Schools and four Ministry of Education Schools (Zellman, Constant, & Goldman, 2011). Findings indicated that teachers created student-centred classrooms and implemented standards-based curriculum designed to enhance students' analytic and critical thinking skills in the four core subjects, Arabic, English, Mathematics, and Science (Zellman, Constant, & Goldman, 2011).

At the time of the RAND's evaluation, not all Ministry of Education Schools were converted to Independent Schools. The case study included "extensive classroom observations; interviews with principals and administrators; and focus groups with teachers, students, and parents (Zellman, et. al., 2011, p. 56). RAND looked for evidence that vital elements for reform were being implemented at the school-level. One key finding relevant for this study is "the SEC has also instituted a number of new policies that reduce operator autonomy and variety" (Zellman, et. al., 2011, p. 60).

In summary, the school system in Qatar has been and continues to be centralized. The decision-making authority is in the hands of the Supreme Education Council (SEC). It plans, designs, finances, implements, and evaluates the educational policies and activities in the country. The authority of those affected by the implemented decisions, such as schoolteachers, is very limited. It is noteworthy here that the SEC has recently been abolished and the Ministry of Education and

Higher Education has been established with the intent of making major structural changes to the Independent School System in Qatar (Independent schools to see major changes, 2016). These changes could include cancelling the term 'Independent School' and the position of school operators may also be revoked using directors/principals to run schools. More importantly and relevant for this study, is that this change indicates a more centralized system of governance over the Independent Schools which will impact school principals and schoolteachers in schools regarding decision-making. With this change, we could expect more of classical organizational approach that will filter down to school principals and schoolteachers since policies and procedures will be handed down to schools to implement without question.

As many Independent Schools in Qatar have practiced continuous changes, the need for increasing schoolteachers' empowerment to make educational decisions is significant. But, to what extent should schoolteachers be involved in making these decisions? The current study sought to answer this critical question through the eyes of the school administrators and schoolteachers. The next chapter will review the existing literature on decision-making in educational organizations in order to develop a theoretical base for this study.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Decision-making is a significant process that leads to the achievement of organizational goals and objectives (Everard, Morris & Wilson, 2004; Lunenburg, 2010; March, 2010). Since the idea of organization and the organizational beliefs included in the organization affect the decision-making process, this chapter will present some important concepts related to organization, an overview of some organizational theories, the concepts of educational management and leadership, models of management, decision-making, and empirical evidence on school administrators and schoolteachers' opinions regarding the extent to which school teachers should be involved in making educational decisions. These issues provide the main focus for collecting the quantitative and qualitative data for this study.

3.2 Organization and Developments in Organizational Behaviour

Tran and Tian (2013) state, "organizations are formed by groups of people with the purpose of achieving effects that one person cannot achieve individually" (p. 229). Thus, a group of people is needed in order to work together and achieve the required outcomes. Owens (2003) affirms that the concept "organization" was constructed thousands of years ago. Egyptians, for instance, organized different tasks and activities that required planned objectives, organized structure, and capable leaders and members to help achieve the needed goals. Shafritz and Borick (2010) assert that William Shakespeare contributed to the theory of management and administration through his plays, which dealt with some issues related to personnel management and organizational behaviour. The development of the concept "organization", however, was associated with the appearance of large

industrial organizations with their different structures and the problems they encountered with their structures and management.

All this led to the emergence of different trends and approaches regarding the development of educational organizational behaviour related to writers' different views of organizations' structure and management. These approaches are: the classical organizational approach, the human relations approach, the systems approach, and the contingency (situational) approach (Bass & Bass, 2010; Yukl, 2012). The following section will address these approaches.

3.2.1 The Classical Organizational Approach

The classical approach emphasizes the organization's dictatorial hierarchal leadership, scientific management, formal structure, closed supervision, planning and how work is divided, clear definition of duties and responsibilities, scientific training and analysis of tasks in order to accomplish the designed objectives, and impersonal relationships between the manager and the teachers who must have technical skills and must work in order to get rewards or avoid punishment. This approach is associated with the work of Frederick Taylor (the father of scientific management), Max Weber (Bureaucratic organizations), Henri Fayol (Administrative technique), and Douglas McGregor (Theory X: Classical Management and Theory Y: Humanistic Management) (Sadrul, Sarker, Rafiul, & Khan, 2013).

The writers from a Classical (Formal) Organizational Approach think of the organisation in terms of its purpose and formal structure and were concerned with the improvement of the organisation by increasing efficiency (Mullins, 2011). The best way to increase an organization's efficiency is by setting principles for designing a formal structure that focuses on the hierarchy of management, managers' full

authority, distribution of official timed duties and tasks, and teachers' discipline and unity in order to achieve the required goals (Boone & Bowen, 1984).

The classical organizational approach is evident in Qatar's independent schools in the hierarchy of the educational structure where the SEC is at the apex of the hierarchy setting policies and procedures that are handled down to principals and teachers. In the Independent schools, there is a one way flow of leadership from the top down and a strong centralized system that at times, provides the vision and mission of schools, the curriculum, lessons and even when and how many assessments take place. This is a picture-perfect example of the classical organizational approach.

The classical organizational approach has been criticized by many writers for assuming that all organizations are alike (Thompson & McHugh, 2002); failing to consider the complexity of human behaviour and the "personality factors and for creating an organisation structure in which people can exercise only limited control over their work environment" (Mullins, 2011, p.44); creating large complex systems (Cloke & Goldsmith, 2002); regarding workers as machines; decreasing the psychological growth of people; and neglecting their right to control their own working environments (Hanson, 1985; Scott, 1987). These writers were actually influenced by the human management approach discussed in the next section.

3.2.2 The Human Relations Approach

The human relations approach focuses on a democratic style of management in informal education organizations within a formal structure. It supports Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943); a theoretical framework of people's development and motivation according to a hierarchy of human needs. The human relations

approach values social relations among members, their self-esteem needs, team decisions, informal work groups, upward and downward interaction, shared goals, and agreed outcomes. This approach has been criticized for having a limited view of organisations and how they operate and for focusing too much on human need while neglecting the need for responsibility and organizational task and process (Sims, 2002).

3.2.3 The Systems Approach

The systems management approach regards educational organizations as systems with some connected sub-systems. It follows a socio-technical method, which integrates the classical and human relations management approaches, in addition to other concepts from sociology, psychology and economics in order to analyse human behaviour (Jackson, 2002). The systems approach focuses on the interrelationships between educational organization's structure and teachers' behaviour and views organizations as part of a larger environment and must interact with this environment to enhance the organizations' effectiveness. Criticisms include the inability to respond to conflict in the organization and work environment and that little direct guidance is provided regarding what aspects of the system should be influenced and controlled to attain the system's objectives (Yoon & Kuchinke, 2005; Stewart & Ayres, 2001). An extension of the systems approach is the contingency "situational" approach developed in the following section.

3.2.4 The Contingency (Situational) Approach

The contingency (situational) approach claims that there are different forms of schools' structures and systems of management and that there is no one best design or style of management that can fit all circumstances (Ayman, 2003). The

most appropriate system of management depends upon some situational factors that can affect the management style and actions to be taken in an organization. These factors may include the school's objectives and goals, the degree of the managers' control and their expectations from teachers, teachers' different personalities and manners, the type of tasks to be accomplished by teachers, the kind of technology to be used, and the different features of the external environment (Yukl, 2012). The educational situation may include developing the curriculum and training programs, assessing teachers' and students' progress, and enhancing school-community communication (Duke, 1987). Therefore managers have to modify their behaviour according to the situation's necessities. They must be able to understand and analyse the nature and contingency of the situation and implement the most efficient administrative methods to resolve it by collaborating with subordinates.

The Contingency (Situational) Approach is evident in Qatar's independent schools as we see that principals are willing to include teachers in various decisions and teachers want to be in the decision-making process depending on the particular situation. For example, principals want to engage teachers in decision-making in areas such dealing with curriculum but not in some administrative policies for teachers.

Although Contingency theory has several strengths, the theory fails to explain why leaders holding particular leadership styles are effective in some contexts while not in others (Northouse, 2007). The approach is also criticized for being reactive not proactive (Rao & Hari, 2005), for lacking a coherent and consistent theoretical base, and for being primarily a methodology that utilizes other approaches (Montana & Charnov, 2000). Furthermore, in practice, the approach is very complex where the

leader must consider a large number of dimensions and the possibility of managers not engaging in a thorough analysis of these factors (Northouse, 2007).

3.3 Educational Management and Leadership

Educational management centres on the activities and functions undertaken by an educational organization (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). Bush (2011) states, “educational management should be centrally concerned with the purpose and aims of education” (p. 1). It is a continuous process where teachers cooperate and use different resources to achieve the goals of their organization effectively. This process consists of five tasks, including setting the school’s aims and objectives, planning the procedures and methods to achieve the required goals, using available resources, such as people, time and materials, monitoring the process, and developing organizational standards. Yukl and Lepsinger (2005) assert that leading and managing are both important and that leaders are the core for education organizations’ success and to attain that success, they need to provide opportunities for managers and their followers to participate in making decisions and reflect on their practices.

3.4 Educational Management Models

Educational management emerged from management rules and laws applied in industry and commerce in the United States (Bush, 2011). Applying industrial models to educational contexts helped in developing different educational management theories to meet the specific requirements of schools. As educational management was established as an academic domain with its own theories, theorists began to classify their main theories into six major models of educational management based on their experience in schools (Bush, 2003). These models are:

the formal models, the collegial models, the political models, the subjective models, the ambiguity models, and the cultural models (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Formal models “reflect beliefs about the nature of educational institutions and the behaviour of individuals within them” (Bush, 2006, p. 4). They attempt to recommend how an organisation “should or might be managed to achieve particular outcomes more effectively (Simkins, 1999, p. 270). They claim that organizations are hierarchal structures and systems where managers at the apex of the pyramid possess authority because of their official positions and use some reasonable methods to assign people lower down the hierarchy to different tasks in order to achieve some agreed goals. There is little room in this model for teacher involvement in the decision-making process since most decisions originate at the top and are handed down for teachers to implement. These models have been criticized for being rationalistic as much of human behaviour is irrational and normative and formal models only introduce ideas about how organizations should be managed and how workers ought to behave in order to achieve certain outcomes without considering people’s opinions, which may cause conflict (Hewege, 2012).

Collegial models assume that power should be shared among some or all members of an educational organization and organizations must have a horizontal and democratic administrative structure. They suggest a shared vision and goals, common values, collegiality in making decisions that are reached by consensus, and agreement in solving problems (Bush, 2003). Committees and informal groups develop policies based on a consensus that considers the needs, ideas and opinions of all participants (Everard, Morris & Wilson, 2004). This provides a “widespread distribution of influence, rather than it being concentrated in the hands of senior

management (Sykes, 2015, p.18). Since power is shared among those in the organization, teachers have ample opportunities to become involved in decision-making and decisions are often made in a democratic manner. Collegial models provide useful ways for conducting affairs in educational organizations although they have been criticized since they only provide guidelines for how organizations should be managed instead of describing the real nature of organizations, how they act, and the reasons why they are as they are (Webb & Vulliamy, 1996; Little, 1990).

Political models attempt to describe the political nature of educational organizations. They assume that educational organizations are political fields where members practice political activities in order to achieve their desires and needs. The goals of organizations are unstable and ambiguous as interest groups have their own aims, values, and resources, and compete to get what they want by getting reinforcement and support from policy-makers; thus, political models focus on group activity and subgroups rather than the organization as a whole (Bush, 2003). Decision-making is a bargaining process between interest groups and decisions are made after a long process of negotiation. Individuals seeking self-interests results in conflict and disagreement over goals and decisions in these organizations and managers work as mediators between managers of various departments (Sykes, 2015). Regarding teachers and decision-making, the opportunities are limited to those influential teachers who are politically astute. Political models have been criticized for encouraging conflict among sub-groups instead of collaboration to achieve the organization's shared goals and outcomes (Bush, 2003, 1997; Morgan 1997).

Subjective models focus on individuals within educational organizations and their beliefs rather than the total institution or subunits and attempt to serve their needs instead of achieving the organization's goals. Subjective models make the assumption that organizations are the formations of the people within them (Bush, 2006) and stress the meanings placed on events by people within organizations and different interpretations of events rather than the situations and actions themselves. Teachers can be actively involved in decision-making in this model since individual meaning is so vital, teachers can be involved in the decision-making process but because of the emphasis on the significance of individual meanings teachers can be manipulated as leaders seek to impose their own values in the process. The subjective models introduce useful considerations to educational management although they have been criticized because they reflect the supporters' beliefs and attitudes without critical examination of these beliefs (Bush, 2011). Subjective models assume that organisations exist based on individual behaviour and interpretation but the models fail to provide a clear indication of the organization's nature (Bush, 2006). In addition, subjective models regard meanings as very individual with many possible interpretations. Finally, subjective models fail to provide guidelines for managerial actions (Bush, 2006).

Ambiguity models attempt to describe the problematic nature of educational organizations. They assume that there is doubt and no certainty over the organization's goals, objectives, and technology so processes are not understood. There is also no clarity over managers' authority and members' responsibilities, which may lead to an overlap between responsibilities and duties. Members work independently, which makes it difficult for institutions to set priorities (Bush, 2011).

In addition, ambiguity models consider the environment as a cause of uncertainty contributing to the ambiguity of the organization. Teachers involved in decision-making make decisions within formal and informal settings and these decisions are very flexible and often change. These models have been criticized because they exaggerate the degree of ambiguity as, in reality, most schools have broad aims and standard rules and methods to guide staff and students; thus, it is argued that they “provide little guidance to managers in educational institutions” (Bush, 2011, p. 166).

Cultural models focus on the culture of educational organizations and the informal elements rather than the formal structure (Bush, 2011). They emphasize individuals’ shared values, beliefs, and norms that construct the organization’s shared meanings, goals, and cultural characteristics. Thus, there is a strong relationship between the culture of the organization and the structure. Leaders are in charge of defining, generating and maintaining the school culture by implementing their own values and beliefs that arise from their own experiences. The decision-making process reflects the culture in which the organization is embedded or the dominant culture of those in power. Cultural models have been criticized because they only provide guidelines for what is thought to be culturally good. They focus on individuals’ values and beliefs and ignore the structural aspect of the organization (Morgan, 1997). Cultural models include also some ethical problems as managers and the dominant group may influence their school culture by imposing the culture they embrace and their desired values on other less powerful members of the organization (Schein, 1997).

3.5 Decision-making

The decision-making system is the foundation of the management system (Ugurlu, 2013). It is the process of making a selection of a certain action from a set of alternatives in order to solve a problem (Miller & Byrnes, 2001; Verma, 2009). Kuzgun defines decision-making as “an inclination to overcome the current problem when more than one way exists to lead us to an object that is thought to be the satisfier of a requirement” (as cited in Deniz, 2011, p. 106). Galotti, Ciner, Altenbaumer, Geerts, Rupp and Woulfe (2006) add to these definitions the idea that managers make decisions in different ways. Some managers act according to careful understanding and analysis of the situation, establishment of criteria for choosing the best solutions, and assessment of alternative actions and means in order to achieve the required goals. Others act on the basis of desire. Some of them make decisions independently and some ask for assistance. This is related to the individual's personality, feelings, ego, stress, self-esteem, peer pressure, motivation, problem-solving, and leadership style (Klaczynski, Byrnes, & Jacobs (2001); Thunholm, 2008; Rehman & Scholar, 2011).

Ingersoll (2006) argues when the power of decision-making is centred at the higher hierarchical level of the educational organization, in the hands of policy makers and administrators, then the organization's decision-making system is 'centralized'. Individuals in charge of the decisions-making system here make decisions related to the organization's goals and objectives, students, schoolteachers, facilities, curriculum, and funding. On the other hand, when the authority of decision-making is assigned to subunits in the organization, such as teachers and they have voice in the decisions made, the organization is described

as 'decentralized' (Florestal & Cooper, 1997). This latter type of participatory decision-making is what Caldwell (2005) defines as school-based management (SBM) in which schoolteachers share the decision-making authority with the school administrators and policy makers.

Bennet and Bennet (2004) argue that complexity is a key part of organizations and decision-making and because there are numerous elements and relationships involved, it is difficult to understand decision-making in analytic or logical ways. There are complexities in situations that require decisions. In addition, there are human additive factors that influence "how we view a situation, what we look for and how we interpret what we see", all of which "depend heavily on our past experience, expectations, concerns and goals" (Bennet & Bennet, 2008, p. 9).

3.5.1 Teacher Leadership and Participatory Decision- making

The findings of recent studies have shown that 'singular' leadership that focuses on individual decision-making actions rather than collective activities has been a barrier to participative management. Morris (2000) indicates that many schools have been controlled by this traditional style of leadership that places power and decision-making control only with policymakers and leaders. In contrast, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) affirm that at times, the idea of teacher leadership and participatory decision-making, which emerged in England, is supported by researchers. They see it as a move from bureaucratic control to a more professional community as it empowers schoolteachers and encourages them to lead and cooperate in order to contribute to the improvement of their school and community (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor, 2003; Woods, Bennett, Harvey, & Wise, 2004).

Stoll and Fink (1996) refer to teacher leadership as “invitational leadership” because leaders are able to act with schoolteachers who are not in authority and invite them to lead and empower them to take leadership roles. Gronn (2000) agrees that this kind of leadership is changeable and inconstant rather than fixed and constant. This implies that there is no distinction between leaders and followers, that everybody collaborates and shares the tasks, and that all teachers can have the opportunity to become leaders at different times.

Lichtenstein (2000) affirms that participatory decision-making is a style under which “managers have complete trust in subordinates, and much of the decision - making is accomplished by group participation” (p. 31). Van Loveren (2007) points out that participatory decision-making cultures emphasize collective responsibility, joint decision-making, and values and a common mission. Yukl (2012) affirms that participation is concerned with joint decision-making, democratic management, decentralization, and consultation where power is transferred from those in high authority to others in lower levels.

Daft and Marcic (2014) clarify that the degree of participation in decision-making depends on a number of factors, such as “the required level of decision quality, the level of leader or subordinate expertise and the importance of having subordinates commit to the decision” (p. 215). Leaders can analyse the particular situation and determine the appropriate level of participation.

3.5.2 Effects of Participation in Decision-making

Yukl (2012) argues that human needs are important since people respond to them and are motivated by them. Accordingly, we need to understand these needs in order to understand the motivation that affects people’s behaviour in

organizations. One of the most powerful human needs is people's participation in decision-making. The subordinates' psychological needs create a desire to participate in the decision-making process (Owens, 2003). Teachers' involvement in school decision-making was motivational and increased "teachers' ownership of change, giving teachers a voice in school policy and making better use of their professional expertise" (Cheng, 2008, p. 34.)

3.5.3 Styles of Decision-Making

Fullan (2001) argues that leadership can influence schoolteachers' motivation, the quality of teaching, and the school improvement. It also enhances collaborative leadership and participatory decision-making within the school and among people (Harris, 2002). Ugurlu (2013) argues that there is no one universal style or best way to make decisions that fits the requirements of all situations. The quality of the decision or the outcome depends on the decision-makers ability to select participants who are capable to address the problem. Furthermore, the most significant issue that determines the success of participatory decision-making is the leaders' ability to choose the decision-making style that deals with the situation they face according to the features of the problem to be solved, the decision processes adopted, and subordinates' acceptance to the decision made (Ugurlu, 2013).

Scott and Bruce (1995) propose five different decision-making styles: the rational decision-making style, which is related to people's evaluation of the alternatives rationally; the intuitional decision-making style, which emphasizes using emotions and anticipations in the decision-making process; the dependent decision-making style, which focuses on depending on others' recommendations in the decision-making process; the avoidant decision-making style, which means avoiding

making decisions; and the hasty decision-making style, which is related to people's tendency to immediately end the decision-making process.

Owens (2003) argues there is three decision-making styles that can help managers handle different situations. The first style is the Autocratic Decision-Making where managers either make decisions based on gathered information or they get the information they need from their attendants without telling them about the problem. Second, the Consultative Decision-Making style is where managers search for their subordinates' help. They inform others about the problem they encounter and gather their recommendations either individually or in groups. Then, managers make decisions according to the different ideas they collected. Finally, the Group Decision-Making style is where managers share the problem with their subordinates as a group without forcing them to accept their opinion. They all assess a variety of choices to solve the problem and make decisions based on their general agreement.

3.5.4 Fundamental Provisions for Successful Participation

Successful participatory decision-making requires particular prerequisite conditions for leaders and participants (UN-Habitat, 2001). Anderson (2002) points out there are very real constraints that limit teacher involvement. These include teachers often lack time, training and support, lack of expertise, lack of confidence in their own ability, role ambiguity, resistance by administrators, and information and decision-making overload.

Teachers' participation should be valuable and meaningful to the organization, a planned decision-making technique should be prepared and the financial cost should be considered. In addition, managers and subordinates must

have the knowledge and required skills to make effective decisions and all participants should be willing to co-operate with their administrators in the decision-making process. The leaders needs confidence in their decision-making approach and willing to create a climate of trust, understanding, and support from management should be provided. All this is thought to lead to educational organizations' success in achieving their goals and objectives.

Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) propose three techniques for fostering participatory decision-making, they are:

- Developing people: Encouraging teachers and staff to do their job effectively by providing them with the needed theoretical support and different models of practice.
- Setting directions for the organization: Creating shared goals and objectives, following the organization's achievement and enhancing efficient communication.
- Redesigning the organization: Developing a creative culture, adjusting some structures and rules that may threaten the work, and constructing collective methods.

Anderson (2002) argues that there are a number of factors that can affect the improvement of teachers' decision-making process, empowering teachers to participate in making decisions related to them in school. Some of these factors are related to schools, such as the school's vision and mission, school's culture, school's budget, and curriculum and instruction. Other factors are related to teachers, such as teachers' job description, teachers' job security, teachers' professional

development, teachers' rewards system, and teachers' performance evaluation system.

3.5.4.1 Factors Related to Schools

Gabriel and Farmer (2009) argue that a school's vision is the school's goal of what the school should look like in future. It consists of the school's beliefs, aims, goals, and objectives. It also includes the school's mission statement, which includes the actions required to achieve the desired vision. Lee, Bryk, and Smith (1993) highlight the importance of a shared vision and agreed goals among leaders and teachers in schools. They emphasize teachers' participation in constructing their philosophy, mission statement, setting their overall objectives, and evaluating their outcomes. This can help teachers accept the decisions made and their consequences as they are more involved and can assure their implementation as there is a cooperative commitment to the accomplishment of the accepted goals. Day (2000) and Klette (2000) assert that the more a school's vision and aims are accepted and understood, the more effective the learning will be. Schools that set their goals without considering teachers existing beliefs and opinions have not been successful.

Caine and Caine (1999) and Little (2000) argue that teacher leadership can be accomplished in a professional learning community and a collaborative collegial working environment where there is a culture of trust, liberty, support, and strong relationships among teachers and their school management who may feel threatened by teachers' autonomy. Principals' willingness to engage with teachers and teachers' willingness to participate in decision-making are significant factors that may affect the decision-making process; thus, teachers' good communication with

their management can foster and enhance teachers' leadership responsibilities. This can be achieved by "dialogue" and teachers' regular meetings with their heads and administration where schoolteachers are engaged in decision-making and encouraged to critically reflect on their practices, give their feedback, make suggestions, and take risks. It is suggested to increase teachers' motivation, self-esteem, satisfaction, and sense of security and support.

Some studies, however, revealed that a closed climate of shame and blame, limited communication between administration and staff, time pressure and teachers' workload can interfere with teachers' leadership roles and prevent their collaboration and participation in making educational decisions, thus, a positive professional culture has to be enhanced and schoolteachers have to be given enough time to lead, cooperate, plan and discuss their school development strategies (Ovando, 1994).

This collegiality is important and governments and other entities usually has a big role in providing school funding and determining their plans for the upcoming year; thus, governmental decisions regarding any educational budget cuts can have a great influence on the effectiveness of schools as they can affect teachers' pay raise and benefits, workload, class size, materials, textbooks, facilities, activities, and teachers' professional development opportunities.

Handler (2010) affirms the importance of schoolteachers' participation in making decisions regarding curriculum. Ornstein & Hunkins (2004) posits that teachers are generally professionally prepared to make decisions and engage in discussions of curriculum concerning what should be taught, the ordering of content, what ways and by whom. Teachers are able to engage in "planning activities and

assessments, or matching content to standards that is conceptualized as lesson decision-making versus curriculum decision-making” (Handler, 2010, p. 34). However, they may not be prepared to be curriculum leaders that “requires more than a general understanding of psychology, as curriculum leaders must consider developmental, cognitive, emotional, and communicative factors as they relate to the reception and expression of content learning” (Handler, 2010, p. 34). Teachers can make decisions regarding selecting the appropriate plan, materials, and learning activities for their students as they are aware of their students’ needs (Elliott, 1994).

Subban and Sharma (2005) state that administration support is a very important factor that affects schoolteachers’ attitudes and perceptions regarding any curriculum change. More importantly, Al-Kaabi and El-Zaatari (2013) state “the leader needs to share information and ideas about education with all stakeholders involved in the change process; raise their awareness about change; keep them informed; address their concerns; and assist in reducing their feelings of anxiety and frustration” (p. 28). Teachers must understand educational policy and feel a sense of ownership for implementation to take place. The key is that in times of change, schools need effective leaders who can provide support to faculty and staff and also helps in organizing and planning for change (Al-Kaabi, et. al., 2013).

Teachers need to share their knowledge with their leaders and participate in making decisions regarding their students’ needs, setting their educational objectives, and selecting their teaching materials so that they can implement the new curriculum without feeling that it is imposed on them (Hadley, 1999). Lin (2014) supports this view and argues “teachers’ professional knowledge might have a great

influence upon many aspects of schools, including student learning outcome, effects of classroom management, and participation in school decision making” (p. 51)

McGrail (2005) argues that schoolteachers need to understand the reason for the reform change. This will facilitate their adaption to the new curriculum. Gess-Newsome (1999) found that teachers’ willingness to change their current practices can influence the effectiveness of the change process. Troudi and Alwan (2010) confirm that teachers’ participation in developing their curriculum can enhance their morale and decrease any practical problems during implementation.

In addition, schoolteachers have to cooperate with their school administration and participate in designing and developing an appropriate and effective assessment system to measure their students’ achievement. An assessment system is a group of policies, practices, and mechanisms to evaluate students’ learning. It may include tests, quizzes, student portfolios, assignments, and projects.

This cooperation among schoolteachers and school administrators is essential to build collegiality (Barge, 2012). Administrators who involved teachers in decision-making saw a positive impact on teacher motivation, confidence, ownership, reflection, commitment, risk taking, autonomy, and teaching efficacy (Blase & Kirby, 2000). This collegiality also help principals and teachers gain a better understanding of their students’ learning strategies and deficiencies, and make effective decisions regarding reforming their curriculum and assessment methods (Ravela et al., 2009).

Both Anderson (2002) and Donaldson (2006) have found that involving teachers in decision-making at the school level results in improved job satisfaction, more effective work with colleagues and administrators and an improved sense of a

common vision. Consequently, schoolteachers should have a chance to collaborate and make decisions regarding their curriculum and instruction because they should not be simple technicians: “uncritical, ‘objective,’ and ‘efficient distributors of information” who neglect the more critical aspects of culture and schooling” (Giroux & McLaren, 1996, p. 304) but rather facilitators who create opportunities for their students to help them work together, construct their own meanings, and become reflective learners (Burns, 1995; Killen, 1996; Jansen, 2001).

3.5.4.2 Factors Related to Schoolteachers

Fullan & Hargreaves (1992), Darling-Hammond (1994), Guskey (1995), and Ganser (2000) affirm that when designing a professional development (PD) program for enhancing schoolteachers’ leadership skills, leaders should think of the content, the process and the context of the experience because there is not one form of professional development that is better than another or a set of ‘ best practices’ appropriate for all situations.

Researchers worldwide suggest that a high quality teacher professional development program should be implemented in a supportive culture that encourages teacher collegiality, networks, openness and trust (Katzenmeyer & Moller (2001). These programs should create multiple professional development experiences similar to teacher practices in the classroom (Johnson, Monk, & Hodges, 2000) and provide teachers some leadership responsibilities (Lieberman, 1994). Furthermore, professional development programs should provide opportunities for teachers to develop the necessary skills and knowledge to help them lead their own professional development according to their needs (Bush, 1999)

and these programs should be offered by a skilled number of teacher-educators (Clarke, 2000).

Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) argue that professional development should be integrated with the organization's goals, be guided by a coherent long-term plan, assured by teaching and learning studies, is an on-going process that considers the costs and expected benefits and provides adequate time and appropriate resources (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Finally professional development programs should provide intellectual, social and emotional involvement with the educational experience; and is evaluated according to the effectiveness of the educational process (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000; Westchester Institute For Human Services Research, 2008).

Teacher professional development is thought to develop schoolteachers' self-confidence to lead and to make effective decisions (Clemson-Ingram & Fessler, 1997; Choy & Chen, 1998; Grace, 1999). McBride and Grant (2006) emphasize that schoolteachers also need to participate in making decisions regarding their performance evaluation system. Teachers' performance evaluation focuses on monitoring and collecting data in order to enhance the quality of instruction and teachers' professional growth through meaningful and effective feedback, and to achieve the organization's goals and objectives.

Celman (2000) suggests three approaches for teachers' evaluation that include evaluating teacher's knowledge, performance in the classroom, and overall achievement at the educational organization. McBride and Grant (2006) affirm that fair evaluation systems for teachers have to engage them in making decisions regarding their required professional responsibilities such as planning appropriate

curricula, implementing effective strategies, using resources, assessing students and measuring their progress, creating effective learning environment for students, communicating with other teachers and students, and maintaining a long-term professional growth. This is thought to help teachers understand their job expectations well.

Furthermore, Smith and Cronje (1992) and Terry (1997) argue that positive feedback and school's support systems for teachers are important factors for teachers' self-esteem and participation in making effective decisions. School administrators can play an active role in enhancing teachers' performance and their willingness to participate in making decisions regarding their school's assessment system by rewarding high achievers for good performance. Negative evaluation can cause teachers anxiety and stress and can have a negative effect on teachers' performance and decisions.

Solomon and Podgursky (2001) further emphasize that schoolteachers should cooperate with their school administration and make decisions related to their rewards system in order to create a fair system which can enhance teachers' performance, prevent them from feeling incompetent, and avoid creating unfair competition between teachers which may make them question the fairness of the school's evaluation system (Ramirez, 2001). Harvey-Beavis (2003) claims that the most popular rewards system used in schools is the performance-based rewards program to reward or sanction teachers according to their performance evaluation. This program includes three models. The first model is 'merit-pay' which is concerned with individual pecuniary awards based on teachers' performance, and classroom observation (McCollum, 2001). The second model is 'knowledge and skill-

based' compensation, which involves individual pecuniary rewards for acquired qualifications, knowledge and skills (Odden, 2000b). The third model is 'school-based' compensation, which is associated with group-based pecuniary rewards based on students' performance (Odden & Kelley, 2002).

However, Murnane and Cohen (1986) criticize the performance-based rewards system and argue that some principals may give better evaluations than the teachers actually deserve in order to gain their trust and have a good relationship with them. This is thought to affect the relationships among teachers and their feeling of trust in their school administration. All this indicates that teachers' participation in making decisions regarding their rewards system is significant (Holt, 2001).

3.6 Empirical Evidence on School Administrators and Schoolteachers and Educational Decision-Making.

3.6.1 Empirical Evidence in Different Contexts: Teachers and Decision-Making in Different Contexts

Many studies have yielded empirical evidence of the significance of participatory decision-making and of providing schoolteachers with more control and voice in matters related to teaching and learning (Crow, 2006; Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2005; Mualuko, Mukasa, & Judy, 2009; Murphy, 2002).

Karue (1980) and Muraya (1981) confirm that primary schoolteachers in Nairobi were more motivated to work hard to achieve the decisions they made themselves. Wadesango (2012) affirms that secondary schoolteachers in South Africa needed to be more involved in making educational decisions because decisions made without consulting teachers usually lack clarity, are difficult to implement, and their success cannot be guaranteed.

In the United States, Lynch (2010) asserts that there is a significant correlation between teachers' retention in South Eastern North Carolina public schools and their empowerment by school administrators to participate in making educational decisions. Burgess (2012) found that teachers' participation in making decisions in suburban elementary schools in the United States leads to teachers' efficiency. Ngotngamwong (2012) emphasizes a significant correlation between participatory decision-making and teachers' job satisfaction in private international schools in Bangkok. This finding supports previous research in elementary, middle, and high schools in Israeli, that revealed a significant positive relationship between school principals' encouragement for teachers to make decisions and teachers' autonomy and satisfaction at work (Bogler, 2001).

In the United States, Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, and Usdan (1985), and Gyurko (2012) confirm that some principals in public schools are reluctant to allow their teachers to make decisions and, therefore, teachers feel they do not have a voice in educational decisions. Wekesa (1994) argues that this can be due to the issue that some stakeholders and school principals may be in fear of losing their authority in running the school if they allow teachers to control the decision-making process.

In Turkey, Aksoy and Ural (2008), and Gulcan (2011) emphasize that teachers' participation in making decisions in primary and middle schools is not at a satisfactory level as there is no shared decision-making climate in school administration. Furthermore, there is a significant difference between teachers' actual and desired level of participation in decision-making as most teachers reported a lack of a participatory decision-making approach in their schools.

Therefore these researchers suggest that teachers need to be more empowered to participate in the educational decisions.

In the Arab world, Boussif (2010) confirms that in some Middle Eastern countries, such as Tunisia, Kuwait, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), and Saudi Arabia, managers of public and private organizations apply some rigid governmental regulations and autocratic and pseudo-consultative decision-making methods. Ali (1993) and Pateman (1988) argue that the Arab managerial style reflects an intention to create a feeling of consultation among employees rather than to exercise true consultation. The situation is similar in Egypt, where the educational system is described as highly centralized and undemocratic as it hinders teachers' voices in most Egyptian schools in Cairo (Emira, 2010; Gahin, 2001). McGregor (2005) argues that this is because some Arab managers believe that their employees are lazy, do not want to take responsibility, prefer to follow instructions, their primary motivator to work is money and job security, and that managers have to have the complete authority and apply some punishment rules in order to make their subordinates accomplish their goals.

Brown, Carr, Perry, and McIntire (1996) and Schoetzau (1998) found principals in schools in England and the States encouraged participation, a sharing of power, and a distribution of involvement in making decisions. For instance, school principals maintain control over physical and human resources; such as appointing the school head or the new staff, preparing the school budget, organizing teachers' timetables, and choosing building facilities; whereas school teachers participate in making decisions regarding selecting their textbooks, resolving their students' problems, resolving teachers' grievances, and adopting new teaching strategies.

In Kenya, Maranga (1993) and Mualuko, Mukasa, and Judy (2009) affirm that Kenya's educational system is highly centralized and that secondary school teachers are not empowered to participate in making-decisions related to curriculum and instruction, student personnel, school organization, school relations, financial matters, and staff personnel.

Research in Greek primary schools (Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis, 2013) and schools in the UAE (Al Nuaimi, et. al., 2015) found that teachers were most involved with decisions about student issues, less involved with decision dealing with teacher issues and little involvement in managerial issues. In addition, Cheng (2008) studied secondary schools in Hong Kong and found evidence teachers are not always willing to participate in all domains of decisions preferring to "use their professional knowledge to set class learning objectives and select or design instructional materials, which were in the instructional domain than to make other decisions" (p. 42).

3.6.2 Empirical Evidence Regarding Factors that Influence Teachers' Degree of Participation

Several research studies indicated different factors influence schoolteachers' degree of participation in making educational decisions. Johnson (1991) affirms that schoolteachers' participation in making decisions depends on some external factors related to their culture and traditions that may resist decisions from teachers in the lower levels of the school hierarchy. Thus, employee's status in the school hierarchy can affect their level of participation. People who are usually at the higher level of the school hierarchy, such as vice-principals, and heads of departments control the decision-making process with the school principals.

Fung Wu & Tseng (2005) studied teachers in Taiwanese schools and argue that teachers seem to be in favor of participating in decision-making. Somech (2002) conducted research in 600 elementary schools in the northern region of Israel with elementary school principals and found that teacher participation in decision-making differs depending on the type of decision: teachers are more involved in the area of students and instructional issues and less involved in administration and management.

Coble's (2010) findings reveal that elementary schoolteachers in Georgia have greater perceptions of chances for decision-making than middle schoolteachers due to some factors related to the climate of the school, standards and related concerns, daily teaching responsibilities and relevant issues, and staff's experiences. Wadesango (2012) confirms that teaching experience and expertise are identified significant factors for teachers' participation. When school principals are faced with a sensitive incident, they seek help from the mature members of staff who have more knowledge and proficiency.

There are several constraints to teacher involvement in decision-making. Anderson (2002) points out these include the lack of training and support, lack of expertise, lack of confidence in teachers' own ability, lack of time, isolation, resistance by administrators, lack of change skills, role ambiguity, lack of real formal authority, losses in collegiality, and decision-making overload.

3.6.3 Empirical Evidence: Nationality, Gender and Teachers' Decision-Making

There are few studies that address nationality, culture and participation in decision-making. Rugman and Collinson (2009) found that the employee's culture could affect their involvement in decision-making. Miller et. al., (1981) in their study

of overseas companies' managers, discovered that nationality or regional influences on individuals can cause difference in the participation in decision-making. Regarding teachers, Al Nuaimi, Chowdhury, Eleftheriou, & Katsioloudes (2015) found that in the UAE between Emirati and expatriate teachers, there is no difference in their participation in instructional decision-making but differences appeared in decisions about learning, planning and the development of assessment tools and procedures where expats were more involved in these areas. However, Emirati teachers were more involved in decisions that centered on assigning students to classes at the start of a new school year and decisions regarding the instructional budget. In addition, findings indicated that expats participate less in the managerial decisions than their Emirati colleagues.

There are studies that have documented female teachers' differences regarding their participation in their schools' decision-making process (Fung Wu & Tseng, 2005; Brinia, 2012). Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis (2013) found that male teachers in Greece were more involved in decision-making than female teachers. In addition, women were less involved and less willing to be involved than males in school decision-making in the areas that included managerial decisions but were more involved and just as willing to participate in teacher-related decisions (Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis, 2013). Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) support that Indonesian female teachers had less participation in decision-making, especially in managerial decisions.

In a context similar to Qatar, the Abu Dhabi Educational Council (ADEC) found that 71 percent of male teachers compared to 63 per cent female teachers were involved in making the important decisions in their schools (ADEC, 2012). Al

Nuaimi, et. al. (2015) in their study of teachers in the UAE found “no differences between male and female teachers in decision-making participation regarding decisions about planning the learning objectives for the lessons, developing tools and procedures to assess learning students’ progress and developing reports” (p. 652).

However concerning additional decisions about instructional and educational matters, Al Nuaimi et. al. (2015) found a significant difference in decision-making participation between male and female teachers. Male teachers participate more than female counterparts regarding decisions such as “assigning students to classes at the beginning of the year, creating the instructional budget, developing students’ records procedures and practices, choosing instructional materials (e.g. textbooks), designing grading procedures and evaluating the operation of grade levels, departments or committees” (Al Nuaimi, et. al., 2015, p. 652-653).

3.6.4 Empirical Evidence in the State of Qatar

Several studies in the 1980s focused on the Qatari education system and revealed a centralized structure of educational administration and decision-making regarding curriculum and instruction, student personnel, school organization, school relations, financial matters, and staff personnel (Sadiq, 1985).

Al-Derhim (1984) focused on exploring school staff’s perceptions regarding the climate of their elementary and intermediate schools in Qatar in relation to staff’s position and location and type of school. The data was gathered by using a questionnaire with 533 participants in 48 elementary and intermediate schools. The research results revealed that there was a difference between the perceptions of school administrators and teachers regarding the school’s climate in some of the

boys' schools. Administrators believed their relationship with teachers was satisfactory whereas teachers believed they had a formal relationship with the school administrators as it is guided by policies and regulations that may have hindered teachers' involvement in making educational decisions. In the girls' schools, school administrators' and teachers' seemed to have had positive social relationships and a collegial system in making decisions. The findings suggest that some of the schools located in the suburbs and villages had a closed and unfriendly climate, and a highly centralized administration structure imposed by the Ministry of Education. However, the school administration of some schools located in the city attempted to have a more cooperative atmosphere and good communication with their employees.

Another study focused on the Qatari educational system was by Sadiq (1985) who investigated the problems female school principals face in some of the girls' schools in Qatar in relation with the school size, location, level, and principal's experience in administration. A questionnaire was administered to 52 elementary, preparatory, and secondary school principals. The findings indicated that female school principals were dissatisfied with the formal and uncooperative relationship they had with their teachers in all schools where the questionnaire was administered as this relationship was guided by regulations imposed by the Central Office Administration in the Ministry of Education. The results indicated school principals' discomfort in most schools with the centralized educational system in Qatar, which neglected their opinions and their teachers' perceptions and prevented them from participating in the decision-making process. As a result, the decisions made were

usually seen by administrators as ineffective, insufficient and unrelated to the school's real needs.

Al-Musleh's (1988) study also highlighted the centralized educational system in Qatar and focused on determining and comparing the opinions of some administrators in charge of the Qatari educational system at the Central Office Administration and the opinions of selected school principals toward the extent to which principals should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. It attempted to explore the factors that tend to influence the opinions of the respondents of each group, such as their gender, nationality, level of education, level of administrative position, and years of experience in their current positions. A questionnaire was specially developed to answer the research questions and administered to 373 participants.

The findings indicated school principals' strong desire to be involved in the decision-making process. Individuals at the Central office Administration and school principals agreed that both should have equal degrees of participation and involvement. The mean score of the opinions of the respondents indicated that participants stated that school principals should have equal degrees of participation in making-decisions as administrators at the Central Office and that principals should exercise the major authority in making educational decisions. In addition, the study revealed that the respondents' gender, nationality, level of education, and level of administrative position had no effect on the opinions of each group. Years of experience also did not have influence on the opinions of school principals, however, it had a significant influence on the opinions of administrators at the Central office as

those with several years of experience were more aware of the school principals' and schoolteachers' major role in developing the education system in Qatar.

Al-Musleh (1988) suggested the necessity of developing a participatory decision-making system that involves all those affected by the educational decisions in Qatar. He concluded that understanding the decision-making in the educational system in Qatar needed continued research that measured the extent to which other populations, such as teachers, should be involved in the decision-making process.

Regarding decision-making in the midst of the current reform in Qatar, Romanowski, Cherif, Al Ammari, & Al Attiyah (2013) reported that principals indicated there was a "lack of principals and teachers involvement in the decision-making regarding the reform" (p. 116). Cherif & Romanowski (2013) found that "principals themselves are challenged by the frequent changes in policies and procedures and the top-down nature of the decision-making process at the SEC lack of principals and teachers' involvement in the decision-making regarding the reform" (p. 7). Regarding the current Independent Schools, these researchers argue that there should be an increased involvement of faculty in decision-making and principals should be allowed to make decisions about issues relevant related to their particular school.

3.7 Western Theories in a Qatari Context

Ball Maguire and Braun (2012) point out over the past 20 years there have been numerous international attempts to raise educational standards and improve learning. In response, the focus has been on how well policies are implemented and less attention on how schools deal with the policy demands. This raises an important concern regarding the use of Western theories, concepts and literature. Theories

and concepts are often embraced without much thought given to the appropriateness of the knowledge to the particular cultural context.

The issue is the local culture is not considered or ignored. This is particularly true regarding educational leadership where the content and methods used in education for educational leaders have been “borrowed more or less directly from Western societies . . . even when there is neither a conceptual nor empirical validation of the knowledge base in the receiving culture” (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996, p. 110). Keep in mind that these approaches and methods are Western and that it is often the case that countries simply adopt management structures or approaches that “fashioned in different cultural setting while giving little consideration to their cultural fit” (Dimmock & Walker, 2000, p. 147).

Dimmock and Walker (2005) state leadership models developed in the West are insufficient to take into consideration the complexities of “cultural diversity across organizations located in different societies influenced by contrasting traditions and educational values” (p. 74). The adoption of western educational leadership theories and practices into different cultural contexts can raise tensions between indigenous culture and the practical aspects of the theories (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). This can often develop into “an intellectual resistance that is expressed in the form of questioning, criticism or cynicism” (Cherif, Romanowski & Nasser, 2011, p. 474) and lead to significant problems in the implementation stage (Dimmock & Walker, 2005).

Concerning the reform in Qatar, the embracing of Western theories and concepts was evident in the suggested change to a decentralized system. This change spawned several consequences. First, the role of the SEC (now Ministry of Education) from a very centralized and controlling role to one that allows schools

and school principals to make decisions. This is and was a difficult transition (most would argue the transition was never achieved). Second, the role of the school principals needed to be changed allowing for input from schoolteachers and this requires a different approach to decision-making and leadership that is quite different from the norm in the Arab world. Finally, schoolteachers would have to learn a new role in decision-making, similar as principals, which is quite different from what they are familiar with. This is important since the clash between a Western view of decision-making and the Arab understanding is a main reason for the return back to a more centralized system.

3.8 Conclusion

In sum, considerable research has been carried out that focuses on the opinions of schoolteachers and school administrators about the extent to which schoolteachers should participate in the decision-making process. There are few studies exist in the context of Qatar that directly examine teacher decision-making. Qatar has undergone an extensive and systematic education reform (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012; Rand-Qatar Policy Institute. 2007). An additional study conducted on Qatar's educational reform stated that the Qatari education management system is still insufficient and the outcomes are still unsatisfactory (RAND-Qatar Policy Institute, 2009).

Decisions are still being made at the national level in regard to the structure of the Qatari education system. This study will therefore contribute empirical evidence related to school administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives regarding the degree to which schoolteachers should participate in making educational decisions that may inform policy and as well as contribute to the

academic literature base. It attempts to answer the following questions: to what extent do school administrators and schoolteachers believe schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in the State of Qatar? Do differences exist between the opinions of the two groups named above? Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators and do differences exist between the perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their gender and nationality?

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, research methodology and procedures are examined by developing the concept of paradigm and analysing the relationship between particular paradigms and research methodologies. This includes a significant description for the philosophical background and methodological framework used in this study to explore school administrators (i.e. school principals, vice-principals and coordinators) and schoolteachers' perceptions about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari schools. It also includes a description of the data collection methods, the sampling technique, and data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with a discussion about establishing a good quality research study, ethical concerns, and the limitations of this study.

4.2 Methodological Framework

There are different methodological approaches used to conduct educational research that are based on a variety of philosophical, ontological, and epistemological understandings. Researchers' beliefs and views are embedded in their theoretical perspective. Creswell (2005) argues that researchers must understand the philosophical foundations and the ontological and epistemological assumptions which instruct their research methodology and data collection methods and that their perceptions of knowledge and social reality affect their examination of the conjunction between the phenomena and social behaviour. Answering the ontological question, "What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 108) is the first step for

researchers to deal with a research problem. The epistemological view, the theory of knowledge, what constructs this knowledge, whose knowledge it is and what should be known about it (Wellington et al., 2005) must be coherent with the ontological view.

In general, researchers in the social and behavioural sciences have different beliefs about how knowledge is constructed and how we recognize it. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) categorize research into three groups:

1. Quantitatively oriented social and behavioural research (QUANs) related to the positivist paradigm that includes numerical data and analyses to describe the phenomenon of interest or looks for differences among groups and variables. QUAN researchers believe that a theory refers to “a unified, systematic explanation of a diverse range of social phenomena, employing deductive logic which involves arguing from the general to the particular” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 23) and that “social research should adopt a scientific method, that this method is exemplified in the work of modern physicists, and that it consists of the rigorous testing of hypotheses by means of data that take the form of quantitative measurements” (p.5).
2. Qualitatively oriented social and behavioural research (QUALs) is related to the constructivist paradigm and includes narrative data and analyses. QUAL researchers and constructivists believe that they “construct the meaning of the phenomena under investigation” (p.6) “employing inductive knowledge which involves arguing from the particular to the general” (p.25).
3. Mixed methodologies (MM) related to the pragmatist paradigm that includes both numeric and narrative data and analyses to answer the research

questions. It is defined as “ a type of research design in which QUAL and QUAN approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences” (p.7).

There are arguments against the use of a mixed methods approach to research that are primarily based on the qualitative and quantitative debate (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002). One aspect of the argument against utilizing a mix methods approach to research is based on the idea that quantitative and qualitative research paradigms are incompatible on the philosophical level (Haase & Myers, 1988). In addition, the qualities of the data (Objective Close - ended data Subjective Open - ended data), data collection tools, sample size, type of data produced, validity and bias and the methods of analysis contradict each other (Symonds & Gorard, n.d.). However, researchers have increasingly documented the benefits of combining both quantitative and qualitative data collection in a single study (Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). Since all research methods “have limitations, the use of multiple methods can neutralize or cancel out some of the disadvantages of certain methods” (Jick, 1979; cited in Creswell, et. al, 2003, p. 164). Furthermore since social phenomena are very complex, different types of research methods are required in order to better understand these complexities (Greene & Caracelli, 1997).

I chose a mixed methods approach for this study and qualitative and quantitative research methods were combined because the goal of this study is to gain understanding of the world (Haase & Myers, 1988). I believe that in order to truly understand the decision-making process that occurs in the Independent Schools, I would need to gain insights provided from both qualitative and quantitative research. These methods offer the best chance to obtain well-developed and useful

participants' responses. I think this study would greatly benefit by, first, collecting quantitative data, analysing the data and, then based on this data, following up with qualitative data collection (interviews). I would argue that this can reduce the chances of any "gaps" developing in the information or collected data. Also, I think the qualitative interviews allowed me to build on the quantitative data by probing and collecting additional information. Furthermore, using several methods for data collection provides triangulation, increases the validity of the study, and provides answers from the participants from several perspectives.

4.2.1 The Positivist Paradigm

Positivism assumes that the "world conforms to permanent and unchanging laws and rules of causation and happenings" (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014, p. 81) and the complex world can be understood by reducing phenomena to become simpler or basic understandings by focusing on impartiality, measurement, objectivity and repeatability (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014). Positivism assumes that reality can be understood by quantitatively measuring independent facts (Healy & Perry, 2000). In other words, positivist research only deals with what can be seen or measured.

The social reality for positivists is empirical facts exist separately from personal thoughts and are ruled by stable patterns and cause and effect laws (Marczyk, DeMatteo, & Festinger, 2005). Lincoln and Guba (2000) point out that the positivist framework sustains that reliable knowledge must be grounded on direct observation or manipulation of phenomena through empirical means.

Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin (2014) state that "positivism could be regarded as a research strategy and approach that is rooted on the ontological principle and

doctrine that truth and reality is free and independent of the viewer and observer” (p. 81). Positivism assumes that “social observations should be treated as entities in much the same way that physical scientists treat physical phenomena” (Tuli, 2010, p. 98). The researcher is to collect and interpret data objectively resulting in research findings are usually observable and quantifiable. Researchers who work within this paradigm explain “in quantitative terms how variables interact, shape events, and cause outcomes” (Tuli, 2010, p. 100).

With respect to the present study, the first phase of the study utilizes quantitative methods to determine the thoughts of a large group of participants, in this case school administrators and schoolteachers. These results reduced and restructured the issue of schoolteachers and their role in decision-making in schools and then qualitative methods can then be used to probe these issues in order to gain a more complex understanding of the phenomena.

4.2.2 The Interpretive Paradigm

Nesfield-Cookson (1987) defines life as inner experiences related to individuals with freedom, moral responsibility, and unique ability to interpret their experiences in the universe as living organisms. Crotty (1998) argues that it is through social interactions within everyday social experiences that one can begin to understand individuals’ perceptions and social reality.

The interpretive approach stresses individuals’ (or school administrators and schoolteachers) ability to construct meaning and create their social world and reality (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001; Grix, 2004; Mertens, 2005; Rowlands, 2005;). Reality is a subjective phenomenon as “the social world is governed by normative expectation and shared understanding and hence the laws that govern it are not

immutable” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 23). It allows us to have a deep insight into “the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it” (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). Therefore, “social reality is based on people’s definition of it” (Neuman, 1997, p. 69).

Researchers in the interpretive paradigm attempt to understand this social reality through the eyes of the participants in their natural state (Bryman, 2001; Patton, 2002) rather than explain phenomena through theirs in a manipulated context (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983). Therefore, reality is seen as multi-layered and complex because people interpret events and situations differently which result in multiple interpretations and perspectives of a single situation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2009).

With respect to the present study, the second phase of the study aims to understand and interpret the nature of school administrators and schoolteachers’ perceptions and social reality. Thus, the focus here is to understand how truth, meaning, and knowledge are interpreted, and uncover individuals’ awareness of social reality in order to determine some standards to attempt to establish a consistent image of a common and cooperative approach among school administrators and schoolteachers.

4.3 Research Methodology

Ernest (1994) defines research as an organized and critical approach to generate knowledge. Methodology refers to ‘how evidence is gathered and meaning derived from it’ (Anderson & Burns, 1989, p. 45). Research methods are the techniques and procedures used to collect and analyse data related to the research questions (Crotty, 1998). This process must be guided by the researcher’s view of

knowledge and theory. Educational research is part of the social inquiry domain that includes different views and paradigms to explore reality.

Within the philosophical basis of this study, this study employs a mixed method design integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to question, understand, and explain the diverse social and natural realities related to school administrators and schoolteachers' experiences with the educational decision-making process in the specified context of the study.

4.4 Research Design

Creswell and Clark (2006) point out that a mixed methods approach is “practical” because it allows the researcher to utilize all the possible methods in order to address the particular research topic. “It is also ‘practical’ because individuals tend to solve problems using both numbers and words, they combine inductive and deductive thinking, and they (e.g., therapists) employ skills in observing people as well as recording behavior” (Creswell & Clark, 2006, p. 10).

In this study, a mixed methods procedure is used to collect, analyse, and report research. This allows the researcher “to give equal priority to both quantitative and qualitative research, emphasize qualitative more or emphasize quantitative more” (Molina-Azorin, 2015, p. 342).

This study was broken into two phases. Phase one utilized a mixed method approach to collect quantitative and qualitative data concurrently in an effort to offset the weaknesses inherent within each method with the strengths of the other method. A quantitative survey instrument was used with school administrators and schoolteachers in order to determine if the two groups have similar or differing thoughts regarding teachers and decision-making. The questionnaire used in this

study also provides statements for participants' responses and then allows participants to provide additional information that may not have been addressed in the quantitative part of the questionnaire and the qualitative aspect allows for a more in-depth understanding of the groups perceptions. See Figure 2.



Figure 2. Research Phases

Phase two used semi-structured interviews to collect additional data based on the results from the data analyses of the questionnaires. Semi-structured interview questions were constructed and interviews were conducted with several individuals who participated in the survey to learn more details about their survey and probe deeper to gain complex understandings. In addition, the use of several methods provides triangulation by combining the qualitative and quantitative approaches; survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with school administrators and schoolteachers.

Finally, all collected data is then integrated during the interpretation phase. This integration strengthens the knowledge claims of the study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). The integrating of both quantitative and qualitative data aids in gaining a deeper understanding of the issue of teacher decision-making problems and allow for multiple types of interpretations. In addition, this integration helped address a range of exploratory and confirmatory questions, and provided stronger

inferences and a variety of views regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should participate in the educational decision-making process.

4.5 Phase 1 Survey

4.5.1 Sampling Technique

Arikunto (2010) explains that sample is the representation of the population that will be examined by the researcher. Sampling is the process of selecting units from a predefined population of interest for a particular research study so that by studying the particular sample the researcher could possibly generalize the findings back to the original population. The sample size is the number of subjects involved in the research on which the study was conducted (Aron & Aron, 2002).

The current study will be carried out in a sample of Secondary Independent Schools in Doha, the capital city of Qatar. In this study, I used the *Probability Proportional to Size Sampling* which is a sampling technique used with surveys applied in homogeneous populations since there is a segregation between male and female students in the Qatari educational system in addition to the concern that the schoolteachers and school administrators of schools are from the same gender. The advantage of using this kind of sampling is to give a probability (i.e., random representative) sample. It is most useful when the sampling units vary considerably in size because it assures that those in larger sites have the same probability of getting into the sample as those in smaller sites, and vice versa. This method also facilitates planning for fieldwork because a pre-determined number of respondents are reported in each unit selected and staff can be allocated accordingly (Thompson, 2012).

Sampling:

1. All Independent Secondary Schools in Doha- Qatar were listed in an Excel file.
2. Schools were classified into two strata (Female Independent Schools & Male Independent Schools), since there is segregation between male schools and female schools in Qatar.
3. The percentage of each strata in the population was calculated to determine the percentage of each strata in the sample which should be approximately equal to the percentage of the strata in the population (proportional sample).
4. For practical reasons (proximity and/or accessibility), the sample size was determined by 18 Independent Schools (out of 48 Independent Schools since not all Ministry of Education Schools were converted to Independent Schools) that leads to 37.5% of population. This sample did not include schools for blind or deaf or technical and religious schools as these schools have their own educational system and not included with the Qatari Independent Schools.
5. Since the percentage of independent male schools (50%) is equal to the percentage of female independents schools in the population, the number of male schools was equal to the number of female schools in the sample (9 each).

4.5.2 Participants

The 18 schools in this study were selected from each strata (9 male / 9 female) as follows:

1. All male schools were listed in a table (as shown in Tables 1 and 2)
2. The number of teachers and administrators was calculated in each school
3. The running cumulative population was calculated. The last number in this column was the total population of the male schools (1406 principals and teachers).

4. The average total population of the male schools was 1406 divided by 9 the sample from the male schools. The result, 156, is called “*The Sampling Interval SI*”.
5. A random number was chosen between (1) and the SI (156) using Excel software. This is the *Random Start (RS)*. In this sample, the RS is 56.
6. The following series was calculated: RS; RS + SI; RS + 2SI; RS + 3SI; RS + 4SI; RS + 5SI; RS + 6SI; RS + 7SI; RS + 8SI (56, 212, 368, 524, 680, 836, 992, 1148, 1304)
7. Each number of these 9 numbers refers to a cumulative population in the list of schools.
8. The first number in the series (56) is included in school 1, which holds numbers from 1 to 68. The second number in the series (212) is included in school 5, which holds numbers from 206 to 223 and so on.
9. Continuing in this manner, the desired number of schools was selected. In this study, the selected male schools were numbers 1, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 17, 19, and 23.
10. From those 9 schools that were selected, all teachers and administrators were selected to complete the survey questionnaire.
11. Steps from 1- 9 were repeated with the female schools.

'Tables 1 and 2 show the information about the schools used in the process and the random number series used for sampling'

Table 1: Drawing a Sample Using Probability Proportional to Size Sampling Technique (Strata: Male Independent Schools)					
Male Independent Schools	No. of Administrators	No. of Teachers	Teachers/ Administrators	Cumulative Population	The Random Start (RS)
1	9	59	68	68	56

2	8	32	40	108	
3	7	33	40	148	
4	10	48	58	206	
5	4	13	17	223	212
6	12	58	70	293	
7	11	69	80	373	368
8	12	69	81	454	
9	11	48	59	513	524
10	10	43	53	566	
11	10	64	74	640	
12	12	76	88	728	680
13	10	53	63	791	
14	14	54	68	859	836
15	11	53	64	923	
16	8	17	25	948	
17	12	53	65	1013	992
18	7	32	39	1052	
19	13	40	53	1105	1148
20	11	47	58	1163	
21	11	31	42	1205	
22	11	45	56	1261	
23	11	40	51	1312	1304
24	13	81	94	1406	

Table 2 Drawing a Sample Using Probability Proportional to Size Sampling Technique (Strata: Female Independent Schools)					
Female Independent Schools	No. of Administrators	No. of Teachers	Teachers/Administrators	Cumulative Population	The Random Start (RS)
1	14	59	73	73	38
2	10	16	26	99	
3	11	53	64	163	
4	13	76	89	252	213
5	10	38	48	300	
6	14	55	69	369	
7	11	63	74	443	388
8	11	58	69	512	
9	11	78	89	601	563
10	13	21	34	635	
11	11	36	47	682	
12	12	52	64	746	738
13	12	53	65	811	
14	11	54	65	876	
15	13	40	53	929	913

16	9	62	71	1000	
17	14	73	87	1087	
18	11	65	76	1163	1088
19	12	70	82	1245	
20	11	69	80	1325	1263
21	11	16	27	1352	
22	12	56	68	1420	
23	11	60	71	1491	1438
24	12	71	83	1574	

Sampling Interval (SI) = Cumulative population/Number of sites = 1574/9 = 175

Random Start (RS) = 38

This study was carried out at 18 Independent Secondary Schools (9 female and 9 male schools) in Doha. Out of 201 administrators, 182 completed a 40-item questionnaire and a short demographic survey; representing a response rate of 90.5%. The same survey was distributed to 1022 teachers and a total of 480 teachers completed the survey; representing a response rate of 44%. The total number of respondents to the survey was 632; representing a response rate of 52.4%. 51.6% of the administrators were males and 48.4% were females; 53.6% of the teachers were males and 46.4% were females. Most of the participants were expatriates (61.0% administrators and 87.1% teachers). This reflects the large percentage of the expatriate population who lives in the State of Qatar. Most of the participants held a bachelor degree (86.3% administrators and 82.2% teachers), and most administrators (72.0%) had from one to three years of experience in their current positions, while 77.6% teachers had more than 10 years' experience of teaching.

Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics on the demographic variables for the 632 participants based on their gender, nationality, education level, and years of experience.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on the Demographic Variables

		Position					
		Administrators (N = 182, 28.8%)		Schoolteachers (N = 450, 71.2%)		Total (N = 632)	
		Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %
Gender	Male	94	51.6%	241	53.6%	335	53.0%
	Female	88	48.4%	209	46.4%	297	47.0%
Nationality	Citizen	71	39.0%	58	12.9%	129	20.4%
	Expatriate	111	61.0%	392	87.1%	503	79.6%
Education	Diploma	4	2.2%	14	3.1%	18	2.8%
	Bachelors	157	86.3%	370	82.2%	527	83.4%
	Masters	13	7.1%	50	11.1%	63	10.0%
	Others	8	4.4%	16	3.6%	24	3.8%
Experience	1 to 3 years	131	72.0%	30	6.7%	161	25.5%
	4 to 10 years	37	20.3%	71	15.8%	108	17.1%
	more than 10 years	14	7.7%	349	77.6%	363	57.4%

4.5.3 Construction of the Questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, this study aims to complement Al-Musleh's study (1988) and build upon the results from other studies. In his study, Al-Musleh focused on exploring the perspectives of some central office administrators and school principals toward the extent to which school principals should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. He argued that decision-making in the educational system in Qatar needed additional research and recommended investigating the extent to which other populations, such as teachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. His research was based on some educational decision statements derived from the Ministry of Education administration's policies and tasks suggested from the major problems facing the educational system in Qatar and indicated through different official publications in Qatar. These educational decision statements covered the following domains:

- Curriculum and instruction.

- Staff personnel.
- Pupil personnel.
- Physical facilities.
- School-community relations.

With respect to the present study, the focus is to understand the views of selected school administrators and schoolteachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. Considering Al-Musleh's questionnaire (1988), I adapted the five domains making each relevant to this study. The physical facilities domain is irrelevant today because all Independent Schools are equally provided with new buildings so this was removed. The domains of staff and pupil personnel were developed into two more specific categories, school's administrative policies for teachers and school's administrative policies for students. Considering the domain of school-community relations, the domain was expanded to include school's educational goals and policies. Finally, the domain curriculum and instruction was adopted from Al-Musleh's questionnaire.

Using these new domains, I designed a new questionnaire. The domains I used related to schools' developmental decisions (e.g. planning educational goals and policies) and implemental decisions (e.g. activities to accomplish these educational goals and other general decisions). These domains were the following:

1. School's educational goals and policies.
2. Curriculum and instruction.
3. School's administrative policies for teachers.
4. School's administrative policies for students.

Following Bryman, 2004 and Punch, 2000 recommendations, I administered a questionnaire in order to gather a large amount of quantitative and qualitative data for analysis in a standardized way from a large number of participants by asking them exactly the same questions.

The survey included both closed questions (quantitative data) and open-ended questions (qualitative data) where school administrators and schoolteachers could respond freely. It included the following three parts:

Part One (Demographic data): Participants were asked to provide information related to their current position, gender, nationality, level of education, and years of experience in their current position in order to explore between the opinions of the respondents of each group.

Part Two (The degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar): This section consisted of 40 decision statements, distributed into four sections, and was designed to explore the participants' perspectives about the current educational decision-making process in Qatar with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions in their Qatari Independent Schools. The decision statements were developed by drawing upon the literature review from Al-Musleh's study (1988), the Supreme Education Council's annual statistical report on schools in Qatar, school administration's policies and tasks, and the major problems facing the educational system indicated through different official publications in Qatar.

The four sections were regarding school's educational goals and policies (8 items); curriculum and instruction (10 items); schools administrative policies for teachers (16 items); schools administrative policies for students (6 items). The

respondents were asked to identify their views and to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement in the questionnaire by circling one of the five-point rating scale questionnaire, ranging from five (Totally) to one (Not at all). The meaning of each number was identified clearly in the questionnaires. The rating scale adopted was as follows

5 Totally	4 Considerably	3 Moderately	2 Slightly	1 Not at all
Decisions should be totally made by schoolteachers.	Decisions should be made by both teachers and school administrators, but teachers should have the major authority.	Decisions should be made by both schoolteachers and school administrators. Both groups should have equal influence in the decision-making process.	School administration should have the major power in making decisions while teachers should have limited participation.	Decisions should be made by school administrators and schoolteachers should not be involved.

Part Three: This part included four open-ended questions to allow for school administrators and teachers' more open-ended responses and observations regarding their involvement in making educational decisions related to their school's educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers, and administrative policies for students, and to provide more details than the closed items (Dornyei, 2007).

The survey questionnaire was initially constructed in English, translated into Arabic, and then back-translated to English in order to check for accuracy. It was administered in Arabic. The purpose of constructing the questionnaire in English was that the thesis would be written in English and also the educational jargon in English needs to be translated back to Arabic since there are no direct words for some of the educational concepts.

Next, I compared the original questionnaire and the back translated questionnaire to determine the differences in wording. This was important in order to enhance the reliability of the survey items (Nunan & Bailey, 2008). The data for open-ended questions was collected in Arabic (the participants' native language), analysed, and then translated to English. Finally, the survey was revised based on feedback from my thesis supervisors, who advised me to eliminate double-barrelled items, where a single question asks the participants about more than one issue but only allows for one answer.

4.5.4 Piloting the Questionnaire

According to Adams, Anne and Cox, Anna (2008) "it is essential to identify potential problems before the expensive, time-consuming, full-scale research is undertaken" (p. 10). The questionnaire was piloted in order to check the clarity, formation, and presentation of the questionnaire items (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2009; Punch, 2009). It was piloted with 10 school administrators and 10 teachers in two different Secondary Independent Schools in Qatar. The researcher knew the schools or the researcher knew someone who worked at these schools that provided easy access where the piloting could take place.

The questionnaire was presented in Arabic (participants' native language) and after it was completed, the researcher had an informal discussion with the administrators and teachers on the formation of the questions, their clarity and length of the questionnaire. This discussion led to minor changes of the construction of some sentences in part one (demographic data) and the open-ended questions in part three, however, the basic content of the questionnaire remained the same (see Appendix A for the final survey).

4.5.5 Administrating the Questionnaire

I took the responsibility of distributing the questionnaire to the 18 Secondary Independent Schools. I met every school administrator and then met school coordinators who have direct contact with the teachers and explained everything to them. The questionnaires were left with coordinators who in turn explained everything for the participant teachers. The main aim of the study was explained to the participants and they notified that their participation was voluntary and that they had the option of ceasing to participate at any time with no penalty.

Participants were given the opportunity to ask the coordinator questions before answering the questionnaire and were asked to sign an informed consent sheet that included a brief explanation of the aims of the study (Appendix B). The informed consent, demographic survey, and questionnaire were administered in Arabic, the participants' native language, and the questionnaire was in private, without my presence, to preserve their anonymity. After the survey questionnaire was completed, I collected all research protocol materials from the schools participants and checked them to make sure they included the questionnaires, the demographic information, and the informed consent forms.

4.6 Data Analysis

4.6.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The researcher, using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) for Windows version 20.0, entered all quantitative data, stopping at every fifth entry to check for accuracy and to detect any recording errors that might have occurred. The quantitative data was then analysed using descriptive statistics. The Mann-Whitney test was then employed to determine any significant differences between

the school administrators and schoolteachers, and also gender and nationality (Kinnear & Gray, 2008).

4.6.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

All qualitative data gathered from school administrators and schoolteachers' comments from the survey questionnaire were analyzed in the original Arabic and then translated into English language. The responses were uploaded into two excel sheets, one for school administrators and another one for schoolteachers to analyse through the development and application of codes and categories as defined by Saldaña (2009), a code is a word or a short phrase that sums up a portion of an interview transcription, while a category includes a group of codes. I gave each participant a number and the participants' comments were divided into main categories. Each category contained a number of codes in order to be able to see reoccurring patterns and each code was given a letter (Creswell, 2008). Each category was marked with a different colour so that I could ensure that all related codes were gathered under the appropriate category. Table 4 shows samples of the coded comments from administrators and schoolteachers and Table 5 lists the 8 major categories that emerged from the data analysis (See appendices D and E for samples of the coding of school administrators and schoolteachers' comments and categories).

Table 4: The Coding of School Administrators' and Schoolteachers' Comments				
Administrator number	Raw Data	Code	Letter	Category
1	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions since they link the student with the school administration, can discover students' skills, and make decisions related to	a) Significant role: SR	SR	Degree of teachers' participation

	students' professional and career development.			
2	Increase teachers' participation and focus on the significance of teachers' involvement in the development process. For example, they have to participate in selecting what to teach because of their experience. Today, most educational decisions are imposed by the Supreme Education Council and everyone must apply them without discussion.	Select what to teach=WT	WT	Nature of teachers' participation

School administrators and schoolteachers' 8 major Categories as shown in Table 5 (See Appendix E for the major categories and codes for school administrators and schoolteachers' comments).

Table 5: Major Categories for School Administrators and Schoolteachers' Comments
Major Categories
Degree of teachers' participation
Nature of teachers' participation
Reasons for teachers' participation
Nature of school administration's role
Nature of SEC role
Nature of SEC control
Nature of school administration's control
Reasons for teachers' non-participation

4.6.3 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2009) emphasize “validity is an important key to effective research. It is a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative research” (p. 133). Zeller (1988) affirms that any research instrument should be checked for validity to tell whether the items measure what they are supposed to measure and if the data serve the main aim for which they were collected. He states, “a measure is valid if it does what it is intended to do. Alternatively stated, an indicator

of some abstract concept is valid to the extent that it measures what it purports to measure” (p. 322).

In order to establish validity for this questionnaire, the purpose of the study and the research questions were reviewed and considered when examining the participants and their background. This was to assure that the questions would be appropriate for the sample. With this understanding of the topic and audience, decision statements were generated and aligned to the research questions and details were given to how each statement was written keeping in mind the audience.

This achieves content validity, which is “the degree to which elements of an assessment instrument are relevant to and representative of the targeted construct for a particular assessment purpose” (Haynes, Richard & Kubany, 1995, p. 2). In other words, does the questionnaire measure what it was intended to measure? This is about the researcher’s ability to develop questions that reflect the subject being researched and to assure the key elements of the subject are not excluded.

The statistical reliability for the survey questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of internal consistency for the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated for the questionnaire as a whole and separately for four factors: educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers, and administrative policies for students. As shown in Table six, these analyses produced a 0.964 alpha coefficient value for the whole questionnaire, 0.885 value for both educational goals and policies and curriculum and instruction factors, 0.956 value for the administrative policies for teachers factor and 0.80 value for administrative policies for students factor. Based on the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, the Instrument has very high reliability.

Category	Alpha Coefficient
Whole questionnaire	0.964
Educational goals and policies	0.885
Curriculum and instruction	0.885
Administrative policies for teachers	0.956
Administrative policies for students	0.80

4.7 Phase 2 Interviews

As stated earlier, in this study, my ontological and epistemological assumptions were informed by the mixed methods tradition that included the interpretive paradigm of reality and knowledge for phase 2. This theoretical approach argues that knowledge and social reality are socially constructed and subjective.

4.7.1 Sampling

There were 27 participants who completed the questionnaire and provided their contact details to participate in the interviews. I contacted them all. Several refused, others did not reply or made excuses, and 16 agreed to participate in the interviews. I used purposive sampling to select participants for the semi-structured interviews, based on the quality of the participants' open-ended responses on the questionnaire, those suggested that schoolteachers should be more involved in making educational decisions, and administrators and schoolteachers who were unenthusiastic for increasing schoolteachers' involvement in making decisions in some aspects.

There were 10 participants for the actual interviews, five male and five female. I decided that it is important to assure that the number of female and male participants were equal for the interviews since the issue of gender was being examined in this study. The participants worked for Independent Secondary Qatari schools, were of different positions, gender, and nationality, citizen and expatriate

male and female administrators (Principals, Vice-Principals, and Coordinators) and schoolteachers. See Table 7 for participants' details.

Participants	Gender	Nationality	Position	Willing to participate and provided contact details	Accessible	Has the relevant information
A1	F	Citizen	Principal	√	√	√
A2	F	Expatriate	Vice-Principal	√	√	√
A3	M	Citizen	Principal	√	√	√
A4	M	Expatriate	Vice-Principal	√	√	√
A5	F	Expatriate	Coordinator	√	√	√
T1	M	Qatari	Teacher	√	√	√
T2	M	Expatriate	Teacher	√	√	√
T3	F	Qatari	Teacher	√	√	√
T4	F	Expatriate	Teacher	√	√	√
T5	M	Expatriate	Teacher	√	√	√

4.7.2 Data Collection Semi-Structured Interviews

The second data collection method in this study was interviews. This method was chosen because it is flexible, can be used with different people and with small groups, allows new questions to be brought up during the interviews (Rose & Grosvenor, 2001), enables the researcher to deviate to maximize the information collected (Adams & Cox, 2008), and helps the researcher understand others' perspectives and approach "people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality" (Punch, 2005, p. 168). Kvale (1996) argues there are various advantages for using interviews. He states, "interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, sees the certainty of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasizes the social situatedness of research data" (p. 14). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) state,

An interview maybe regarded as an unusual method in that involves the gathering of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. In this

sense, it differs from the questionnaire where the respondent is required to record in some way her response to a set of questions (p. 351).

This study adopted a semi-structured interview procedure because it enables the respondents to express themselves and “to speak and express their minds” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 113). Semi-structured interviews help the researcher fill in any gaps in knowledge from other research methods and build on data collected from the participants’ responses from other methods and are well suited to explore values, attitudes, perceptions and experiences of the participants (Barriball & While, 1994). These interviews also allow researchers to uncover and interpret underlying meanings in participants’ words (Radnor, 2002).

The interviews were less systematic than structured interviews but more organized than unstructured interviews (Nunan & Bailey, 2008). The interview questions were constructed from the survey questionnaire results and results from the participants’ responses to the open-ended survey questionnaire questions. The questions were initially constructed in English, translated into Arabic, and then back-translated to English. All interviews were conducted in Arabic the participants’ native language.

The interview questions were piloted before the final interviews were conducted in order to check the clarity and formation of the interview questions, and to eliminate ambiguous words (Nunan & Bailey, 2008). I used purposive sampling to select three participants; one school administrator and two schoolteachers; who have completed the survey questionnaire. These participants were excluded from the main study. The pilot interviews were carried out face-to-face and audio recorded. I gained some valuable information regarding the interviews that included taking time to carefully listen to what was said, how it was said, and what was not

said in order to comprehend the interviews. I was able to practice interviews skills, such as probing with additional questions and allowing participants time to think and develop their responses.

4.7.3 Conducting the Interviews

The interviews were semi-structured and there were several questions to be covered that served as an interview guide (See Appendix F for the interview questions). The interviews were held individually, during administrators' and teachers' break, and lasted from 30-45 minutes. Interviews were conducted in Arabic, the participants' mother tongue and audio recorded. During these interviews, participants were given an informed consent sheet to sign (Appendix B) and a cover letter (Appendix G) that included the purpose of the study and the interview questions and participants' permission for recording the interviews was obtained. Assurance of confidentiality and personal safety of interviewees enabled the researcher to establish a relationship of trust with the participants (Berg, 2001).

The participants were asked to answer several open-ended questions related to their perspectives about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers, and students. They were also asked to comment on their own and the collective responses for the open-ended questions and results from the survey questionnaire that included the following:

1. Administrators suggested that schoolteachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' administrative policies for teachers than schoolteachers themselves state.

2. Male administrators suggested that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators state.
3. Male schoolteachers suggested that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female schoolteachers state.
4. Expatriate schoolteachers suggested that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers than citizen schoolteachers state.

I shared with the participants some of the initial findings (see above 1-4) drawn from the quantitative and qualitative survey data in order to develop a more complex and deeper understanding of administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives of schoolteachers' involvement in the decision-making. The results from the interview questions allowed me to go into more depth in some issues, and resulted in unexpected answers that uncovered some information and realities regarding the respondents' attitudes toward the decision-making process in Qatari Independent Secondary Schools.

4.7.4 Qualitative Data Analysis: Interviews

The qualitative data gathered from the ten interviews was transcribed into Arabic and then translated into English by the researcher. The participants' sentences were listened to several times from the recorder and the translation was double checked to make sure that the meaning was not affected. Each transcript

was saved as a separate Microsoft Word document. The first step of analysis involved reading each transcript several times and highlighting the key words or phrases in excerpts that related to the research questions and the open-ended survey's findings. The second step involved giving meaningful codes to each word or phrase and labelling them with a letter in the margin. Each code reflected what was actually said and all codes were grouped into categories that described the data. Each category was marked with a different colour to make sure that the codes were grouped under the correct category (Bryman, 2004). For example, the codes "The most important element in the educational process" (IE), "Know students' learning abilities" (KSA), and "Help decision-makers setting policies for students" (HSP), "Achieve the general goals" (AGG), "Achieve school's goals" (ASG), and "Feel satisfied about policies" (FS) were grouped under the category "Reasons for teachers' participation". In some cases, there were two ideas in one excerpt, therefore, I employed simultaneous coding, where an excerpt could have two or three codes, and all codes were marked with a category that described the data (Saldana, 2009). For instance, the excerpt "Behind any successful educational system, a successful administration and policy which gives all partners in the educational system the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process without exceptions" was given the codes "Successful educational system (SES)", "Successful administration (SA)" and "Successful policy (SP)" and all were marked with the category "Reasons for teachers' participation". (See Appendix H for samples of coding and categorization of the interviews).

Third, all interviews' coding and categories, with their related excerpts, were transferred to a master document and I made sure that all the data was coded and

categorized appropriately. Next, each category with its related codes and all excerpts were marked with a different colour and all related categories were clustered and organized into groups (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). In the last stage, I carried out a final check to ensure that all the excerpts in each group were relevant to the given category (See Appendix I for samples of grouping codes and categories for the interviews).

The interviews provided 48 codes and 11 categories. These categories were:

1. Degree of teachers' current involvement
2. Nature of teachers' participation
3. Nature of SEC control
4. Examples of teachers' non-participation
5. Reasons for teachers' non-participation
6. The extent to which school teachers should be involved
7. Nature of school administration control
8. Nature of school administration's role
9. Nature of SEC's role
10. Reasons for teachers' participation
11. Reasons for teachers' non-participation

I examined all interview data and tried to develop an explanation to account for the identified categories in an insightful way (Ritchie et al, 2014). The responses were grouped according to each interview question. During the analysis, I looked for the categories that were related to others (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) and noticed that several categories emerged from school administrators and schoolteachers' responses. Categories were similar for both administrations and teachers, however,

there were some categories provided by the teachers that differed and centred on the nature of school administrations' control and the reasons for teachers' non-participation in making educational decisions. The categories were then analyzed and relevant quotes were identified in order to support or refute particular findings. The rationale was to provide an accurate account of the administrators and teachers' perception of the degree to which schoolteachers should participate in decision-making.

4.7.5 Trustworthiness

Klein and Myers (1999) call for less normative methodological criteria and broader principles to judge qualitative research. Angen (2000) asserts that validation in interpretative research "is a judgment of trustworthiness or goodness of a piece of research" (p. 378) and he argues for two kinds of validation in qualitative research: ethical validation and substantive validation. Substantive validation refers to the researcher's evidence of comprehensive understanding to form the derived interpretations.

Cohen & Manion (2009) state triangulation "is an attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint and, in so doing, by making use of both quantitative and qualitative data" (p. 112). The use of triangulation helps explain thoroughly the divergent behaviour of individuals from different viewpoints, using a multi-methods approach, makes the researcher feel confident about the research findings, and, accordingly, provide meaningful transferability to other contexts, settings or other similar situations (Cohen, et al, 2009; Robson, 2003).

In this study, I used interviews and questionnaires with open-ended questions to provide triangulation. Moreover, I explained the data analysis methods that were supported by the collected data in details. I transcribed the audio-recorded interviews, coded all data, and documented the procedures I followed to code and analyse the data. The fundamental purpose of using triangulation is to crosscheck the findings to ensure an accurate understanding. I used member checking that allowed participants to provide their feedback regarding my interpretations and findings from the results from the questionnaire and interviews. During interviews, participants were asked about the findings from the questionnaire and upon the completion of the interviews, participants were sent copies of the findings for verification. I also had peer review where my supervisors examined the research processes and data interpretations.

Moreover, my detailed description of the context of the study at Qatari Independent Secondary Schools in Chapter 2 and the participants in Chapter 5 may enable the readers to transfer the information and findings to other similar contexts. All this, I believe, increased the credibility of my study (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Erlandson et al., 1993).

4.8 Ethical Consideration

For this study, I obtained written approval from the Supreme Education Council in Qatar and the University of Exeter's ethical research conduct code that aligns with the ethical guidelines set by the British Educational Research Association (Appendices K and L).

The purpose and activities of the study were clearly explained to the participants through a signed consent form and they were also offered an opportunity

to ask questions. On this form, participants' right to withdraw at any point in the study was explained. Therefore, participants were not under the obligation to continue participating if they were no longer interested (Adams & Cox, 2008). Permission to audio record interviews was obtained. The school administrator and schoolteacher consent form was translated into Arabic to ensure that they understood the form's content. Furthermore, participants' were assured that their names would remain anonymous and all the information received from them would be treated, stored, and reported with confidentiality. As a further ethical consideration, the qualitative data in this study was not identified by the respondents' names but rather represented by numbers. The study, therefore, was conducted with respect to the dignity of the informants (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012).

One area of concern was that schoolteachers might have felt obliged to participate and that their answers might be biased in that they might have provided responses that reflected what their school administrators would want them to say or what they thought I would prefer them to state, instead of their own perceptions. I clearly explained in the consent form, to the teachers and coordinators who distributed the survey questionnaire that choosing to participate in this research study was voluntary. I assured them that the information participants will provide and the results would not be used to evaluate their work or affect their job and would not be reported to their school administrators. I analysed all quantitative and qualitative data myself and securely stored them with a password on my laptop and I was the only one who had access to it. A copy of the overall findings and recommendations will be submitted to the decision-makers in the SEC to offer recommendations for the improvement of the decision-making system in Qatari Independent Schools.

4.9 Limitations of the Research Study

As with all research studies, this study has several limitations that must be considered. First, this study provides respondents' descriptions of their perspectives of the role and degree schoolteachers should have in the decision-making process in their schools. It is important to note that participants' responses cannot always be taken as totally accurate descriptions of what the respondents actually do or really think. Triangulation was used in this study in order to check the results of participants. This provides a cross verification from two or more sources by applying and combining several research methods in the study of schoolteachers' involvement in decision-making. Knowing that participants' views are not stagnant but rather a changing process, this research provides a snapshot of the faculty members' perceptions.

Second, another limitation of this study is that it focuses only on Qatari Secondary Independent Schools and does not include the other types of schools, such as Primary, Preparatory or Secondary Community Schools or Private International Schools. The reason for limiting the study to Independent Schools is that these schools are the only schools that can provide insight into the Qatari educational system and the decision-making system that reflects the implementation of the educational reform. Since the community and private schools are not directly impacted by the reform, although these schools are still under the SEC umbrella, only Independent Schools could provide information about the educational decision-making in the state of Qatar. Regarding the selection of only Secondary Schools, these were selected because this is the stage where most reform initiatives were made because of the country's awareness of the fact that students in this stage are

preparing for their university life and studies and these years play a critical role in their success in the future. Furthermore, the age of these students is closer to the students whom I work with at Qatar University.

Third, one limitation has to do with the decision-making questionnaire. It is possible that the four decision-making categories may not have adequately or entirely included all the decision-making areas in which schoolteachers should be involved. The other drawback lies within the researcher's subjectivity that is inherited in analysing the data. There is always the possibility that this researcher might have misinterpreted or mislabelled the data that emerged from the results of the interviews. In order to reduce the researcher's subjectivity or bias, there is a need to establish credibility. Several steps were included in this study to provide trustworthiness. These included the use of triangulation of the data and member checking previously discussed within section 4.8 of this study. Upon the completion of the interviews, data was analysed and members were contacted to confirm particular aspects of the data.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the ontological and epistemological foundation for this study in relation to the main aim of the study that is to explore school administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives and experiences with the educational decision-making process in Secondary Independent Schools in Qatar. The research's methodological framework, data collection and data analysis methods, and ethical guidelines were all explained thoroughly. In the next chapter, the findings of the analysis will be presented and explained.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

This research examined the views of selected school administrators and teachers in Qatar with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari Independent Schools. A survey questionnaire was used and 182 administrators and 480 teachers completed the survey questionnaire. The survey included demographic information, a 40 item questionnaire and two narrative questions related to school administrators and schoolteachers' observations regarding teachers' involvement in making educational decisions and recommendations to enhance the decision-making process in their schools. 35 school administrators and 78 schoolteachers answered the narrative questions. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with five school administrators and five schoolteachers.

In this chapter, I will present the results of this study through a presentation of the research questions, the characteristics of the sample, results of the data analysis in relation to the research questions and an integration of the results of the survey questionnaire and interviews.

5.2 Results of the Questionnaire Data Analysis in Relation to the Research Questions

5.2.1 Question 1: What are the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools':

- A. Educational goals and policies?**
- B. Curriculum and instruction?**

C. Administrative policies for teachers?

D. Administrative policies for students?

To answer these questions, frequencies, percentages and medians were calculated for each item in each of the following domains: Educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers, and administrative policies for students (See Appendix L for Frequencies and Percentages). The median for each criteria was: Not at all = 1.00-1.80; Slightly = 1.81-2.60; Moderately = 2.61-3.40; Considerably = 3.41-4.20; Totally = 4.21-5.0

5.2.1.1 Educational Goals and Policies

Q1. A. Perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies. This scale included eight items and the Cronbach's Alpha for this scale is 0.885. Table 8 presents the percentages for each of the five-point rating scales from the questionnaire and median for this scale.

	Administrators (N=182)					Median/5
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	
Educational goals and policies	%	%	%	%	%	
School Vision and Mission	15.9	24.2	28.6	12.6	18.7	3.00
School goals and objectives	22	39	15.4	11.5	12.1	4.00
Providing school with new equipment and facilities	15.9	28.6	21.4	19.8	14.3	3.00
New instructional supplies and materials	20.3	36.3	19.8	14.8	8.8	4.00
Determining school's budget	5.5	9.9	19.8	21.4	43.4	2.00
Finding ways to improve school administrators and teachers' communication and cooperation	8.8	30.2	41.2	12.6	7.1	3.00

Organizing meeting for staff and faculty to discuss different matters	22	37.9	25.8	6	8.2	4.00
Providing the media with school news	10.4	15.9	25.8	24.2	23.6	3.00
Mean	15.1	27.7	24.7	15.4	17.0	3.25
Schoolteachers (N=480)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median/5
Educational goals and policies	%	%	%	%	%	
School Vision and Mission	5.8	23.1	38.7	9.3	23.1	3.00
School goals and objectives	6.9	22	31.3	15.3	24.4	3.00
Providing school with new equipment and facilities	11.8	27.3	27.6	14.2	19.1	3.00
New instructional supplies and materials	20.3	36.3	19.8	14.8	8.8	4.00
Determining school's budget	3.3	8.2	18.4	12.7	57.3	1.00
Finding ways to improve school administrators and teachers' communication and cooperation	7.8	27.3	37.1	17.8	10	3.00
Organizing meeting for staff and faculty to discuss different matters	9.6	28	32	13.6	16.9	3.00
Providing the media with school news	4	19.3	26.4	19.1	31.1	2.00
Mean	7.6	23.3	30.2	13.9	25.0	2.75

Table 8.1: Combined Percentages for Administrators and Schoolteachers' Totally and Considerably (T/C) and Slightly and Not at all (S/N), Educational Goals and Policies

	Admin T/C	Teachers T/C		Admin S/N	Teachers S/N
School's Vision and Mission	40.1	28.9		31.3	32.3
Providing school with new equipment and facilities	44.5	39.1		17.3	22.1
Ways to improve school administrators and schoolteachers' communication and cooperation	39.0	35.1		19.7	27.8
School's goals and objectives	61.0	28.9		23.6	39.7
New instructional supplies and materials,	44.5	39.1		23.6	23.6
Organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters	59.9	37.6		8.8	30.5
Providing the media with school's news	26.3	22.3		47.8	50.2
Determining school's budget	15.4	11.5		64.8	70

Table 8.1 illustrates the combined percentage of Totally and Considerably (T/C) and Slightly and Not at all responses (S/N) for both administrators and schoolteachers. All percentages that total 50% or higher are shaded in blue and are considered to as reasonably strongly held positions. Percentages highlighted in red represent large differences (more than 20%) between administrators and teachers.

Overall, the findings indicate that administrators and teachers agree on teacher involvement in decision-making on six of the eight domains. However, administrators indicated a strong position regarding the extent to which teachers should be involved in making decisions about the school's goals and objectives while teachers do not seem to think they should be more involved in this decision. Also, administrators indicated a stronger position than teachers regarding teachers' involvement in organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters.

Regarding schoolteachers, findings indicated that teachers did not have a strong position about the majority of these decision-making domains except for their non-involvement in providing the media with school's news and determining school's budget. Both administrators (slightly less) and teachers were in agreement about the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in these areas. Also, it is evident that both groups indicate that schoolteachers should not be more involved in determining the school's budget.

5.2.1.2 Curriculum and Instruction

Q1. B. Perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' curriculum and instruction. This scale included ten items and the Cronbach's

Alpha for this scale is 0.89. Table 9 presents the percentages for each of the five-point rating scales from the questionnaire and the median for this scale.

Table 9 Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions Related to Schools' Curriculum and Instruction

Administrators (N=182)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median/5
Curriculum and instruction	%	%	%	%	%	
Reforming the syllabus	25.3	40.7	8.8	13.7	11.5	4.00
Choosing what to include or not in the new syllabus	25.3	25.8	18.1	17	13.7	4.00
Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade	22	31.3	12.1	15.4	19.2	4.00
What to include or not in the course assessment	19.8	27.5	16.5	14.3	22	3.00
Preparing school calendars and final exam Schedules	20.3	33	15.4	8.2	23.1	4.00
Determining the class size	9.9	16.5	15.9	19.8	37.9	2.00
Selecting the appropriate teaching methods	47.3	31.9	14.8	0.5	5.5	4.00
What to include or not in tests and exams	33.5	29.7	17.6	9.3	9.9	4.00
Organizing educational trips for students	15.9	27.5	31.9	15.4	9.3	3.00
Planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools	26.9	40.7	22.5	3.8	6	4.00
Mean	24.6	30.4	17.4	11.8	15.8	3.50
Schoolteachers (N=480)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median/5
Curriculum and instruction	%	%	%	%	%	
Reforming the syllabus	18.9	32.7	24.2	10.2	14	4.00
Choosing what to include or not in the new syllabus	16.9	30.7	18.2	14.9	19.3	3.00
Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade	18.2	28.7	15.1	15.1	22.9	3.00
What to include or not in the course assessment	15.3	27.3	24.7	12.9	19.8	3.00
Preparing school calendars and final exam Schedules	14.9	26.9	22.4	14.2	21.6	3.00
Determining the class size	10	22.2	18.2	13.6	36	3.00
Selecting the appropriate teaching methods	40.9	36	15.8	4	3.3	4.00
What to include or not in tests and exams	30.4	33.8	21.1	9.3	5.3	4.00
Organizing educational trips for students	11.6	30	38.9	12.9	6.7	3.00
Planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools	15.3	46	28	7.1	3.6	4.00
Mean	19.2	31.4	22.7	11.4	15.2	3.40

Table 9.1: Combined Percentages for Administrators and Schoolteachers' Totally and Considerably (T/C) and Slightly and Not at all (S/N), Curriculum and Instruction.

	Admin T/C	Teachers T/C		Admin S/N	Teachers S/N
Reforming the syllabus	66	51.6		25.2	24.2
Choosing what to include or not in the new syllabus	51.1	47.6		30.7	34.2
Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade	53.3	46.9		34.6	38
What to include or not in the course assessment	47.3	42.6		36.4	32.7
Preparing school calendars and final exam Schedules	53.3	41.8		31.3	35.8
Determining the class size	26.4	32.2		57.7	49.6
Selecting the appropriate teaching methods	79.2	76.9		6	7.3
What to include or not in tests and exams	63.2	64.2		19.2	14.6
Organizing educational trips for students	43.4	41.6		24.7	19.6
Planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools	67.6	61.3		10.7	10.7

In Table 9.1, there are no large differences in responses between administrators and teachers. However, administrators demonstrate strong “Totally and considerably” (T/C) responses on seven of the ten decision-making domains in curriculum and instruction compared to teachers who recorded 4 strong T/C responses. Thus, administrators were slightly more enthusiastic than teachers about the extent to which teachers should be involved in making decisions in areas related to curriculum and instruction.

Administrators indicated that teachers should be more involved in developing and reforming the syllabus, selecting textbooks and the appropriate teaching methods, developing tests and preparing school calendars and final exam schedules and planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools. Teachers were in agreement by producing a strong response for increasing teachers' involvement in decisions related to reforming the syllabus, selecting the

appropriate teaching methods, what to include or not in tests and exams, and planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools. One area that administrators recorded a strong response is determining class sizes where administrators thought teachers should not be involved.

In summary, administrators and schoolteachers' common strong responses demonstrated that schoolteachers should be more involved in making decisions related to the majority of areas dealing with curriculum and instruction, except for determining class size, what to include or not in the course assessment and organizing educational trips for students.

5.2.1.3 Administrative policies for teachers

Q1. C. Perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' administrative policies for teachers. This scale included sixteen items and the Cronbach's Alpha for this scale is 0.956. Table 10 presents the percentages for each of the five-point rating scales from the questionnaire and the median for this scale.

Table 10 Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions Related to Schools' Administrative Policies for Teachers

	Administrators (N=182)					Median /5
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	
Administrative policies for teachers	%	%	%	%	%	
Promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school	11.5	20.9	15.4	18.7	33.5	2.00
Hiring teachers	19.2	29.1	23.1	12.1	16.5	3.00
Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects	11	28	25.8	15.9	19.2	3.00
Assigning teachers to teach specific classes	9.9	29.7	28	14.8	17.6	3.00

Table 10 Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions
Related to Schools' Administrative Policies for Teachers

Administrators (N=182)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median /5
Determining teachers' teaching load	11	30.8	25.8	18.1	14.3	3.00
Designing teachers benefits	4.9	13.2	22.5	20.9	38.5	2.00
Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences	10.4	20.9	26.9	23.1	18.7	3.00
Handling teachers infraction of school rules	8.8	17.6	23.1	22	28.6	2.00
Assigning teachers to be coordinators	12.1	15.4	24.2	26.4	22	3.00
Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration	17	27.5	25.3	13.2	17	3.00
Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	12.6	27.5	28.6	13.7	17.6	3.00
Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	12.1	26.9	28.6	14.8	17.6	3.00
Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	15.9	30.8	17.6	19.2	16.5	3.00
Transferring teachers from a school to another.	11.5	14.8	17.6	15.9	40.1	2.00
Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	13.7	24.2	25.3	18.1	18.7	3.00
Reforming the school administration.	13.7	23.1	27.5	15.9	19.8	3.00
Mean	12.2	23.8	24.1	17.7	22.3	2.81

Table 10 Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions
Related to Schools' Administrative Policies for Teachers

Schoolteachers (N=480)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median /5
Administrative policies for teachers	%	%	%	%	%	
Promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school	7.3	20.9	15.4	18.7	33.5	2.00
Hiring teachers	4.9	29.1	23.1	12.1	16.5	3.00
Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects	6.7	15.6	22.9	11.6	42.7	2.00
Assigning teachers to teach specific classes	5.6	16.4	22	16.7	40	2.00
Determining teachers' teaching load	9.1	17.6	21.3	11.3	43.1	2.00
Designing teachers benefits	6.2	17.6	27.8	12.9	36.2	3.00
Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences	5.6	23.1	26.4	13.8	27.6	3.00
Handling teachers infraction of school rules	6	15.6	20.7	10	47.6	2.00
Assigning teachers to be coordinators	6.4	18.2	30.9	17.1	28.2	3.00
Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration	7.3	14.4	24	17.6	38	2.00
Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	5.3	20.9	22.2	18.4	32	2.00
Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	8.4	23.8	29.1	15.1	24.7	3.00
Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	10.2	22	32.4	18.7	21.6	3.00
Transferring teachers from a school to another.	8.7	20.7	26.4	14.9	29.6	3.00
Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	11.6	22.4	29.3	14.2	23.8	3.00

Reforming the school administration.	6.4	14	20.2	15.3	41.8	2.00
Mean	7.2	19.8	26.9	16.9	24.9	3.00

Table 10.1: Combined Percentages for Administrators and Schoolteachers' Totally and Considerably (T/C) and Slightly and Not at all (S/N), Administrative Policies for Teachers

	Admin T/C	Teachers T/C		Admin S/N	Teachers S/N
Promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school	40.1	28.2		52.2	52.2
Hiring teachers	39	34		28.4	28.6
Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects	46.7	22.3		35.1	54.3
Assigning teachers to teach specific classes	39	22		32.4	56.7
Determining teachers' teaching load	39.6	26.7		32.4	54.4
Designing teachers benefits	18.1	23.8		59.4	49.1
Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences	31.3	28.7		41.8	41.4
Handling teachers infraction of school rules	26.4	21.6		50.6	57.6
Assigning teachers to be coordinators	27.5	24.6		48.4	45.3
Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration	44.5	21.7		30.2	55.6
Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	40.1	26.2		31.3	50.4
Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	39	32.2		32.4	39.8
Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	50.7	32.2		35.7	40.3
Transferring teachers from a school to another.	26.3	29.4		56	44.5
Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	37.9	34		36.8	38
Reforming the school administration.	36.8	20.4		35.7	57.1

In Table 10.1, administrators recorded 7 Strong Totally and Considerably (T/C) and 4 Seldom and Not at all (S/N) responses regarding the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making related to administrative policies for teachers. The strong S/N responses were in relation to schoolteachers' involvement in promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school, designing teachers' benefits, handling teachers' infraction of school rules and transferring teachers from a school to another, all traditional roles of administrators. However, the administrators indicated a strong response T/C for increasing schoolteachers' involvement in assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.

Schoolteachers recorded 8 strong responses in the Seldom and Not at all (S/N) area. Two of the teachers' responses were the same areas as administrators. These were promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school and handling teachers' infraction of school rules. Teachers recorded 6 more strong S/N responses than administrators in several areas they thought teachers' degree of involvement should not be increased. These are 1) assigning teachers to teach specific subjects; 2) assigning teachers to teach specific classes; 3) determining teachers' teaching load; 4) involving teachers in evaluating the school administration; 5) participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators; and 6) reforming the school administration.

There were 13 decision areas that demonstrated large differences (more than 20%) between administrators and teachers recorded in both T/C (7 areas) and S/N (6 areas). Regarding the T/C areas, administrators demonstrated more enthusiasm for increasing teachers' involvement in promoting specific teachers to administrative

level at school; assigning teachers to teach specific subjects; assigning teachers to teach specific classes; determining teachers' teaching load; involving teachers in evaluating the school administration; participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators; and assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school. However, regarding the differences in the S/N responses, schoolteachers demonstrated that they should be less involved in decision-making than indicated by administrators in the six domains mentioned above.

5.2.1.4 Administrative policies for students

Q1. D. Perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' administrative policies for students. This scale included sixteen items and the Cronbach's Alpha for this scale is 0.80. Table 11 presents the percentages for each of the five-point rating scales from the questionnaire and the median for this scale.

Table 11 Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions Related to Schools' Administrative Policies for Students

Administrators (N=182)						
	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median /5
Administrative policies for students	%	%	%	%	%	
Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	21.1	37.8	22	12.4	6.7	4.00
Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school.	18.9	34.2	34.7	8.4	3.8	4.00
Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process	25.1	36.7	24.4	7.8	6	4.00

including homework and projects.							
Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	15.1	32.4	38.9	9.8	3.8	3.00	
Suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.	10.7	25.8	26	16.9	20.7	3.00	
Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	19.1	30	26.9	8.9	15.1	3.00	
Mean	18.3	32.8	28.8	10.7	9.3	3.50	

Schoolteachers (N=480)

	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	Median /5
Administrative policies for students	%	%	%	%	%	
Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	29.7	30.8	21.4	11	7.1	4.00
Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school.	23.6	35.2	27.5	8.8	4.9	4.00
Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.	26.4	37.4	21.4	4.9	9.9	4.00
Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	18.1	31.9	27.5	14.3	8.2	3.50
Suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.	13.2	14.3	28.6	17.6	26.4	3.00
Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	23.1	30.2	18.1	6	22.5	4.00

Mean	22.3	29.9	24.1	10.4	13.2	3.33
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Table 11.1: Combined Percentages for Administrators and Schoolteachers Totally and Considerably (T/C) and Slightly and Not at all (S/N), Administrative Policies for Students

	Admin T/C	Teachers T/C		Admin S/N	Teachers S/N
Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	58.9	60.5		19.1	18.1
Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school.	53.1	58.8		12.2	13.7
Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.	61.8	63.8		13.8	14.8
Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	47.5	50		13.6	22.5
Suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.	36.5	27.5		37.6	44
Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	49.1	53.3		24	28.5

In Table 11.1, there are no large differences in responses between administrators and teachers in either the T/C or S/N responses. However, administrators (3) and schoolteachers (5) recorded strong T/C responses on 5 of the 6 decision-making areas in the Administrative Policies for Students domain. Administrators and schoolteachers indicated a strong T/C response to the areas of rewarding specific students for their achievement in school, contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school and

determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.

Teachers recorded a slightly strong response to participating in solving students' problems in the school and assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects compared to administrators.

5.2.1.5 Summary of the Results of Question1:

Results of question 1 showed the following:

1. Regarding school's educational goals and policies, there were three large differences between administrators and schoolteachers. Administrators indicated that teachers should be more involved 61.0 T/C compared to the teachers' 28.9 T/C percentage in school's goals and objectives. Administrators and teachers also disagreed on teachers' role in organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters where administrators indicated that teachers should be more involved than teachers. This is supported with S/N responses where there is a large difference when teachers indicated that they should not be involved in organizing meetings for staff and faculty and administrators recorded a low S/N response thinking teachers should be more involved. Administrators recorded a strong position regarding the inclusion of teachers in the decision-making process in areas dealing with school's goals and policies. Schoolteachers did not have a strong position about the majority of these decision-making domains except for their non-involvement in providing the media with school's news and determining school's budget. Administrators also recorded a strong response for not increasing schoolteachers' involvement in determining the school's budget.

2. There are no large differences in responses between administrators and teachers regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions related to curriculum and instruction. However, administrators were more enthusiastic about teachers' involvement in making decisions related to curriculum and instruction compared to teachers. Administrators indicated strong responses on eight of the ten decision-making domains in curriculum and instruction (7 T/S and 1 S/N) that indicates their support for teachers' involvement in decision-making except for determining the class size. Teachers recorded four strong responses out of the ten decision-making domains in curriculum and instruction (4 T/S). These domains are similar to the ones indicated by the administrators, including increasing teachers' involvement in reforming the syllabus, selecting the appropriate teaching methods, what to include or not in tests and exams, and planning procedures for dealing with students' low performance in schools.
3. Administrators recorded 7 Strong T/C and 4 S/N responses regarding the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making related to administrative policies for teachers. Teachers recorded 8 strong responses in the Slightly and Not at all (S/N) area. There were 13 decision areas that demonstrated large differences (more than 20%) between administrators and schoolteachers recorded in both T/C (7 areas) and S/N (6 areas). Regarding the T/C areas, administrators demonstrated more enthusiasm for increasing teachers' involvement in decision-making in this domain. However, the differences in the S/N responses, between the response of administrators and schoolteachers, indicated that administrators were more willing than teachers to

increase teachers' involvement in decisions about administrative policies for teachers, including assigning schoolteachers to teach specific subjects, assigning schoolteachers to teach specific classes, determining teachers' teaching load, involving teachers in evaluating the school administration, participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administration, and reforming the school administration.

4. Both administrators (3 T/C) and teachers (5 T/C) indicated strong responses regarding their desire to increase schoolteachers' involvement in the decision-making about administrative policies for students. Both recorded strong responses for rewarding specific students for their achievement in school, contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school, and determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects. Teachers recorded strong responses for two additional areas; participating in solving students' problems in the school and assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects. There were no large differences in responses between administrators and teachers in either the T/C or S/N responses.

5.3 Question 2: Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools':

- A. Educational goals and policies?**
- B. Curriculum and instruction?**
- C. Administrative policies for teachers?**

D. Administrative policies for students?

Prior to running the statistical test, it was important to explore the data to check for any problems with its normality (Kinnear & Gray, 2008). Komogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed that the data were not normally distributed (Table 12).

	Position	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		Shapiro-Wilk			
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Educational goals and policies	Administrator	.093	182	.001	.983	182	.030
	Teacher	.045	450	.028	.984	450	.000
Curriculum and instruction	Administrator	.086	182	.002	.982	182	.018
	Teacher	.067	450	.000	.980	450	.000
Administrative policies for teachers	Administrator	.077	182	.011	.983	182	.029
	Teacher	.091	450	.000	.951	450	.000
Administrative policies for students	Administrator	.076	182	.011	.981	182	.014
	Teacher	.066	450	.000	.985	450	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Since the data was ordinal (rather than interval), and the normality was not represented in the data, the non-parametric test “Mann-Whitney” was used to compare the average mean for the two groups in relation to the four areas (Tables 13 & 14).

	Position	N	Median	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Educational goals and policies	Administrator	182	3.25	364.25	66293.00
	Teacher	450	2.75	297.19	133735.00
Curriculum and instruction	Administrator	182	3.50	326.07	59345.00
	Teacher	450	3.40	312.63	140683.00
Administrative policies for teachers	Administrator	182	2.81	359.94	65509.50
	Teacher	450	2.47	298.93	134518.50
Administrative policies for students	Administrator	182	3.33	314.48	57235.00
	Teacher	450	3.50	317.32	142793.00

Table 14: Test Statistics				
	Educational goals and policies	Curriculum and instruction	Administrative policies for teachers	Administrative policies for students
Mann-Whitney U	32260.000	39208.000	33043.500	40582.000
Wilcoxon W	133735.000	140683.000	134518.500	57235.000
Z	- 4.185	-.839	-3.805	-.177
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.402	.000	.859
Effect Size (r)	0.166	0.033	0.151	0.007

With regard to schools' educational goals and policies, administrators, on average, were more enthusiastic than schoolteachers in teachers' involvement in decision-making (Administrators: Mdn = 3.25; teachers: Mdn = 2.75, $U=32,260$, $p<.001$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.166$), which is considered a very small difference. This means that the difference between groups was probably not meaningful. With regard to schools' curriculum and instruction, there were no differences between administrators (Mdn = 3.50) and teachers on items in this category (Mdn=3.40) ($U = 39,208$, $p<0.402$). With regard to schools' administrative policies for teachers, administrators provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn = 2.81) than teachers (Mdn = 2.47) ($U=13,4518$, $p<.001$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.151$), which is considered a very small difference. This means that the difference between groups was probably not meaningful. Regarding schools' administrative policies for students, there were no differences between administrators (Mdn = 3.50, Mean Rank = 326.07) and teachers on items in this category (Mdn=3.40, Mean Rank=312.63) ($U = 39,208$, $p<0.402$).

In summary, the results of question 2 showed the following:

1. Administrators provided higher ratings than schoolteachers on items related to school's educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers.
2. There were no differences between the perceptions of administrators and schoolteachers on items related to curriculum and instruction and administrative policies for students.

5.4 Question 3

3A: Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators in relation to their gender?

To test the normality of data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were used and showed that the data was not normally distributed (Table 15).

Table 15: Test of Normality for Categories
(Male and Female School Administrators)

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Educational goals and policies	Male	.115	94	.004	.973	94	.049
	Female	.076	88	.200*	.979	88	.153
Curriculum and instruction	Male	.161	94	.000	.945	94	.001
	Female	.093	88	.056	.967	88	.024
Administrative policies for teachers	Male	.058	94	.200*	.981	94	.193
	Female	.119	88	.004	.956	88	.004
Administrative policies for students	Male	.088	94	.067	.979	94	.128
	Female	.111	88	.009	.970	88	.041

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Since the data was ordinal (rather than interval), and the normality was not represented in the data, the non-parametric test "Mann-Whitney" was used to compare the average mean of the two groups (male and female administrators) in relation to the four domains as follows (Tables 16 & 17):

	Gender	N (182)	Median	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Educational goals and policies	Male	94	3.38	103.86	9762.50
	Female	88	2.81	78.30	6890.50
Curriculum and instruction	Male	94	3.65	100.25	9423.50
	Female	88	3.10	82.15	7229.50
Administrative policies for teachers	Male	94	3.00	98.64	9272.00
	Female	88	2.75	83.88	7381.00
Administrative policies for students	Male	94	3.33	91.30	8582.50
	Female	88	3.42	91.71	8070.50

	Educational goals and policies	Curriculum and instruction	Administrative policies for teachers	Administrative policies for students
Mann-Whitney U	2974.500	3313.500	3465.000	4117.500
Wilcoxon W	6890.500	7229.500	7381.000	8582.500
Z	-3.274	-2.318	-1.890	-.052
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.020	.059	.958
Effect Size (r)	0.130	0.092	0.075	0.002

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

With regard to schools' educational goals and policies, male administrators provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn =3.38) than female administrators (Mdn = 2.81) (U=2,974, $p<.001$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.130$), which should be counted as a very small difference. This means that the difference between male and female administrators on schools' educational goals and policies was probably not meaningful. With regard to schools' curriculum and instruction, male administrators provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn = 3.65) than female administrators (Mdn=3.10) (U = 3,313, $p< 0.020$). The effect size in this case was ($= 0.092$), which should be counted as a very small difference. This means that the difference between male and female administrators on schools' curriculum and instruction was probably not meaningful. Regarding schools' administrative policies for teachers, there were no differences between

male administrators (Mdn = 3.00) and female administrators on items in this category (Mdn=2.75) (U = 3,465, p<0.059). There were also no differences between male administrators (Mdn = 3.33) and female administrators on items related to schools' administrative policies for students (Mdn=3.42) (U = 4,117, p< 0.958).

The results of question 3A showed the following:

1. Male administrators think teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators.
2. There were no differences between male and female administrators on items related to schools' administrative policies for teachers and schools' administrative policies for students.

3B: Do differences exist between the perspectives of school administrators in relation to their nationality?

Komogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to test the normality of the data and showed that the data was not normally distributed (Table 18).

Table 18. Test of Normality (Citizen and Expatriate School Administrators)

	Nationality	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Educational goals and policies	Citizen	.093	71	.200*	.961	71	.026
	Expatriate	.099	111	.009	.984	111	.200
Curriculum and instruction	Citizen	.076	71	.200*	.979	71	.287
	Expatriate	.115	111	.001	.973	111	.024
Administrative policies for teachers	Citizen	.104	71	.054	.967	71	.057
	Expatriate	.066	111	.200*	.988	111	.411
Administrative policies for students	Citizen	.111	71	.029	.971	71	.095
	Expatriate	.087	111	.040	.977	111	.053

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance./ a . Lilliefors Significance Correction

As the result of normality was not achieved, Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the average mean of the two groups (Citizen and Expatriate administrators) in relation to the four domains as follows (Tables 19 & 20).

	Nationality	N (182)	Median	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Educational goals and policies	Citizen	71	3.38	100.99	7170.50
	Expatriate	111	3.00	85.43	9482.50
Curriculum and instruction	Citizen	71	3.40	88.54	6286.00
	Expatriate	111	3.50	93.40	10367.00
Administrative policies for teachers	Citizen	71	3.06	94.32	6696.50
	Expatriate	111	2.81	89.70	9956.50
Administrative policies for students	Citizen	71	3.50	97.99	6957.00
	Expatriate	111	3.33	87.35	9696.00

	Educational goals and policies	Curriculum and instruction	Administrative policies for teachers	Administrative policies for students
Mann-Whitney U	3266.500	3730.000	3740.500	3480.000
Wilcoxon W	9482.500	6286.000	9956.500	9696.000
Z	-1.947	-.608	-.577	-1.331
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.052	.543	.564	.183
Effect Size (r)	0.032	0.029	0.026	0.009

A. Grouping Variable: Nationality

With regard to schools' educational goals and policies, there were no differences between citizen administrators (Mdn = 3.38) and expatriate administrators on items in this category (Mdn=3.00) (U = 3,266, $p < 0.052$). With regard to schools' curriculum and instruction, there were no differences between citizen administrators (Mdn = 3.40) and expatriate administrators on items in this category (Mdn = 3.50) (U = 3,730, $p < 0.543$). Regarding schools' administrative policies for teachers, there were no differences between citizen administrators (Mdn = 3.06) and expatriate administrators on items in this category (Mdn=2.81) (U =

3,740, $p < 0.564$). With regard to schools' administrative policies for students, there were no differences between citizen administrators (Mdn = 3.50) and expatriate administrators on items in this category (Mdn = 3.33) ($U = 3,480$, $p < 0.183$). The results of question 3B showed that there were no differences between citizen and expatriate administrators on items related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, schools' administrative policies for teachers, and schools' administrative policies for students.

5.5 Question 4

4A: Do differences exist between the perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their gender?

As the data was not normally distributed based on the Komogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, as shown in Table 21, Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the average mean of the two groups of teachers (male and female) in relation to the four domains as follows (Tables 22 & 23).

Table 21: Test of Normality (Male and Female Teachers)

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		Shapiro-Wilk			
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Educational goals and policies	Male	.056	241	.064	.984	241	.009
	Female	.090	209	.000	.970	209	.000
Curriculum and instruction	Male	.082	241	.000	.980	241	.002
	Female	.084	209	.001	.974	209	.001
Administrative policies for teachers	Male	.093	241	.000	.961	241	.000
	Female	.124	209	.000	.922	209	.000
Administrative policies for students	Male	.073	241	.003	.985	241	.013
	Female	.063	209	.044	.982	209	.010

a. Lilliefors's Significance Correction

Table 22: Mann-Whitney Test Ranks (Male and Female Teachers)

	Gender	N (450)	Median	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Male	241	3.00	262.56	63278.00

Educational goals and policies	Female	209	2.38	182.76	38197.00
Curriculum and instruction	Male	241	3.40	232.76	56094.00
	Female	209	3.20	217.13	45381.00
Administrative policies for teachers	Male	241	3.00	260.07	62676.00
	Female	209	2.06	185.64	38799.00
Administrative policies for students	Male	241	3.50	230.84	55631.50
	Female	209	3.33	219.35	45843.50

Table 23: Test Statistics

	Educational goals and policies	Curriculum and instruction	Administrative policies for teachers	Administrative policies for students
Mann-Whitney U	16252.000	23436.000	16854.000	23898.500
Wilcoxon W	38197.000	45381.000	38799.000	45843.500
Z	-6.498	-1.272	-6.057	-.937
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.203	.000	.349
Effect Size (r)	0.346	0.060	0.286	0.044

A. Grouping Variable: Gender

With regard to schools' educational goals and policies, male teachers provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn =3.00) than female teachers (Mdn = 2.38) (U=16,252, $p < .000$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.346$), which should be counted as a small difference. This means that the difference between male and female teachers on schools' educational goals and policies was probably not meaningful. With regard to schools' curriculum and instruction, there were no differences between male teachers (Mdn = 3.40) and female teachers on items in this category (Mdn = 3.20) (U = 23,436, $p < 0.203$). Regarding schools' administrative policies for teachers, male teachers provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn = 3.00) than female teachers (Mdn = 2.06) (U = 16,854, $p < 0.000$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.286$), which should be counted as a small difference. This means that the difference between male and female teachers on schools' administrative policies for teachers was probably not meaningful. With regard to

schools' administrative policies for students, there were no differences between male administrators (Mdn = 3.50) and female administrators on items in this category (Mdn = 3.33) (U = 23,889, $p < 0.349$).

In summary, the results of question 4A showed the following:

1. Male teachers provided higher ratings on the average of all items related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female teachers.
2. There were no differences between male and female teachers on items related to schools' curriculum and instruction and schools' administrative policies for students.

4B: Do differences exist between the perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their nationality?

Komogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed that the data was not normally distributed (Table 24).

		Nationality	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
			Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Educational goals and policies		Citizen	.160	58	.001	.935	58	.004
		Expatriate	.052	392	.012	.986	392	.001
Curriculum and instruction		Citizen	.124	58	.027	.948	58	.014
		Expatriate	.067	392	.000	.982	392	.000
Administrative policies for teachers		Citizen	.164	58	.001	.856	58	.000
		Expatriate	.083	392	.000	.958	392	.000
Administrative policies for students		Citizen	.083	58	.200*	.976	58	.291
		Expatriate	.069	392	.000	.986	392	.001

To compare the average mean of two groups of teachers (Citizen and Expatriate) in relation to the four domains, Mann-Whitney test was used (Tables 25 and 26).

		Nationality	N (450)	Median	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
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Educational goals and policies	Citizen	58	2.19	186.82	10835.50
	Expatriate	392	2.81	231.22	90639.50
Curriculum and instruction	Citizen	58	2.85	184.86	10722.00
	Expatriate	392	3.40	231.51	90753.00
Administrative policies for teachers	Citizen	58	1.81	176.81	10255.00
	Expatriate	392	2.63	232.70	91220.00
Administrative policies for students	Citizen	58	3.33	219.76	12746.00
	Expatriate	392	3.50	226.35	88729.00

	Educational goals and policies	Curriculum and instruction	Administrative policies for teachers	Administrative policies for students
Mann-Whitney U	9124.500	9011.000	8544.000	11035.000
Wilcoxon W	10835.500	10722.000	10255.000	12746.000
Z	-2.429	-2.551	-3.056	-.361
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.011	.002	.718
Effect Size (r)	0.115	0.120	0.144	0.017

- Grouping Variable: Nationality

With regard to schools' educational goals and policies, expatriate teachers (Mdn=2.81) provided higher ratings on items in this category than citizen teachers (Mdn = 2.19) (U = 9,124, $p < 0.015$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.115$). With regard to schools' curriculum and instruction, expatriate teachers provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn=3.40) than citizen teachers (Mdn = 2.85) (U = 9,011, $p < 0.011$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.120$). Regarding schools' administrative policies for teachers, expatriate teachers provided higher ratings on items in this category (Mdn=2.63) than citizen teachers (Mdn = 1.81) (U = 8,544, $p < 0.002$). The effect size in this case was ($r = 0.144$). With regard to schools' administrative policies for students, there were no differences between citizen schoolteachers (Mdn = 3.33) and expatriate schoolteachers on items in this category (Mdn = 3.50) (U = 11,035, $p < 0.718$).

The results of question 4B showed the following:

1. Expatriate schoolteachers had small ratings than citizen schoolteachers on items related to school's educational goals and policies, school's curriculum, and schools' administrative policies for teachers.
2. There were no differences between citizen and expatriate schoolteachers on items related to schools' administrative policies for students.

5.6 Summary of Results of the Survey Questionnaire

Responses to the first research question of this study indicated that school administrators had strong responses (61.0 T/C) compared to the schoolteachers' (28.9 T/C) percentage regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions related to their school's educational goals and policies. In addition, there were large differences between administrators and schoolteachers in the areas of school's goals and objectives and organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters.

Responses to the second research question indicated that there were differences between the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and administrative policies for teachers. School administrators are more enthusiastic than schoolteachers and think that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to teachers' hiring and promoting policies, teaching load, professional development, assessment, and reforming the structure of their school administration.

Analysis of the responses to the third research question indicated that male administrators are more enthusiastic than female administrators and think that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools'

educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum. However, analysis identified no differences between citizen and expatriate administrators' views on schoolteachers' participation in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, schools' administrative policies for teachers, and schools' administrative policies for students. Both citizen and expatriate school administrators think that teachers should "moderately" be involved in making decisions related to the items mentioned above.

Responses to the fourth research question revealed that male teachers are more enthusiastic than female teachers and think that schoolteachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers. However, there were no differences between male and female teachers on items related to schools' curriculum and instruction and schools' administrative policies for students. Both male and female teachers think that teachers should "moderately" be involved in making decisions related to the items mentioned above.

Furthermore, expatriate schoolteachers are more enthusiastic than citizen schoolteachers and think that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers. However, analysis identified no differences between citizen and expatriate schoolteachers on items related to schools' administrative policies for students. Both citizen and expatriate schoolteachers agree that teachers should be "moderately" involved in making decisions related to the item mentioned above.

5.7 Survey Open-ended Questions

The survey questionnaire included two narrative questions related to school administrators and schoolteachers' observations regarding teachers' involvement in making educational decisions and recommendations to enhance the decision-making process in their schools. 35 school administrators and 78 schoolteachers answered the narrative questions.

5.7.1 School Administrators' Perceptions

5.7.1.1 Degree of Teachers' Participation

There were eight administrators who stressed the teachers' role in making educational decisions. In particular, two principals (A1, 2) argued that teachers should have a *significant role* in making decisions and three administrators (A3, 4, 6) called for *increasing teachers' participation* in making decisions. Moreover, several administrators (A5, 7, 8) recommended *activating the role of teachers in making decisions, giving them more opportunity to be involved in making decisions because they are linked to the educational process closely, and involving teachers more in the decision-making process because they are the most essential element in school.*

The administrators' comments indicate the significance of activating teachers' role in making educational decisions and the importance of giving them more opportunity to be involved in the decision-making process because they are considered to be the most important element in school and directly connected to the educational field.

5.7.1.2 Nature of Teachers' Participation

There were five administrators (A2, 3, 4, 13, 16) who highlighted the nature of teachers' participation in the decision-making process. One principal (A2) emphasized teachers' participation in making decisions related to *all students' issues* instead of *the SEC imposing strict policies and regulations on teachers and leaves students with lenient disciplinary policies*.

Other principals (A3, 4) expressed a concern regarding the SEC imposing decisions on teachers, *which should be applied without discussion*, specifically about the curriculum content, and suggested *teachers' participation in selecting what to teach because of their experience and participation in issues related to teachers as this proved to help accomplishing the school's goals*.

Another principal (A13) argued that there should be a kind of regularity and agreement between school administration and teachers. *Teachers have to participate in making decisions related to all academic issues and some administrative issues, however, school administration has to make decisions related to all administrative issues and give their recommendations only regarding academic issues. A school should help everybody work in harmony to achieve its vision*.

5.7.1.3 Reasons for Teachers' Participation

There were ten administrators (A1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14) who provided reasons for teachers' participation in making educational decisions. These reasons relate to the view that *they are the most important element in the educational process* (A3), *they link the student with the school administration* (A6), *can discover students' skills and make decisions related to students' professional and career development* (A8), *and have a strong relationship with students* (A11).

5.7.1.4 Nature of Supreme Education Council Control

There were seven administrators who expressed a concern about the SEC's control over a variety of areas relevant to their schools and positions as principals. In particular, five principals expressed a concern regarding the SEC imposing educational decisions on teachers. The following administrator (A3) describes this concern,

Increase teachers' participation and focus on the significance of teachers' involvement in the development process. For example, they have to participate in selecting what to teach because of their experience. Today, most educational decisions are made by the Supreme Education Council and everyone has to apply them without discussion.

This administrator argues that the SEC imposes decision on teachers regarding curriculum content. Yet, the administrator believes that decisions should include teachers about what to teach because of their experience. Instead, teachers must unquestionably accept SEC decisions.

Another administrator (A17) confirmed that *educational decisions are made by the SEC and teachers are only asked to give recommendations*. One administrator indicated that there is no formal avenue for teachers to engage with the SEC in decision-making and suggested that one should be arranged. This administrator (A23) states,

I think schools should arrange for regular meetings between representatives from the SEC and teachers to cooperate in making educational decisions instead of SEC imposing policies on schools.

Another administrator (A21) suggested allowing teachers to be involved in the decision-making process: *Teachers' job description should give them more opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.*

Furthermore, there is some indication that the SEC utilizes a “one-size-fits-all” model when working with schools:

Schools differ from each other and teachers’ role in making decisions depends on their relationship with their school administration. Regarding schools’ calendar, salaries, promotions, etc., these decisions are made by the Supreme Education Council and neither teachers nor administrators have the power or authority to modify or even change them.

This administrator (A16) argues that schools differ and a great deal of decision-making depends on the administration-teacher relationship. However, regarding issues such as the school calendar, salaries and promotions there is no space for teachers and administrators to make any decisions because the SEC directly makes decisions. The SEC ‘s decisions hinder the principal’s ability to include teachers in decision-making and even they themselves cannot make decision because the SEC imposes decision that apply for all schools without ever considering the possible differences in schools.

Furthermore, several administrators continued developing this theme of SEC control by providing a specific example of a policy that illustrates the SEC imposing decision-making process. One administrator (A2) wrote:

Teachers should be given a significant role in making educational decisions and encouraged to make decisions related to all students' issues. For example, SEC imposes strict policies and regulations on teachers and leaves students with lenient disciplinary policies.

The quote points out that the SEC is inconsistent with their policies imposing strict regulations on teachers and more lenient policies for students. This is especially important with decisions about student behaviour. The following administrator’s (A21) comment illustrates this concern:

The problem lies in the inappropriate disciplinary policy imposed by the Supreme Education Council for students' negative behaviour. It places the teacher in a position of humiliation in front of the students.

Since the discipline of students directly impacts teaching and learning, administrator (A21) believes that this particular imposed SEC policy place teachers in humiliating situation. The administrators written comments indicate that the SEC makes educational decisions about teachers, students, the classroom and the many aspects of the schools and teachers but teacher input into decisions are limited to providing recommendations to decisions and policies made by the SEC.

5.7.1.5 Nature of Supreme Education Council Role

There were two administrators who expressed their concern about the job description of teachers that hinders teachers' involvement in making decisions. The following principal (A14) describes this concern:

The teacher is the foundation of the teaching process and he has to participate in making decisions, but his job description places him at the bottom of the decision-making hierarchy.

This principal affirms that the SEC needs to look back and review the job description policy for teachers so that they are given an opportunity to participate in making decisions and have a larger role in the decision-making hierarchy. Another principal (A18) continued developing this concern and asserted that the SEC needs *to review teachers' workload and job description to give them more opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.*

5.7.1.6 Nature of School Administration's Role

There were six administrators who identified the role of the school administration in the decision-making process. In particular, two principals argued that all educational issues should be assigned to teachers. The following administrator (A12) states: *the school administration needs to leave decisions related to educational issues to teachers.*

Another principal (A15) asserted that school administration needs to promote the decision-making process and support teachers and encourage them to make decisions by offering effective decision-making workshops. This principal wrote, *the schools should encourage teachers to participate in making decisions and arrange workshops to train teachers make decisions.*

Furthermore, two administrators confirmed the significance of creating a cooperation strategy between the SEC and the school administration and teachers to make educational decisions. One administrator (A20) argued that *school administration should gain teachers' feedback and recommendations regarding SEC regulations via surveys and results always need to be shared with the SEC.* Another principal (A23) proposed *arranging regular meetings between representatives from the SEC and teachers to cooperate in making educational decisions instead of SEC imposing policies on schools.*

Finally, one administrator (A19) expressed a concern about teachers' neglected efforts and achievements and urged the school administration to give a *careful consideration to their contributions* in the educational field so that they are *encouraged to participate in making decisions in their schools.*

5.7.2 Schoolteachers' Perceptions

5.7.2.1 Degree of Teachers' Participation

The teachers' role in making educational decisions was emphasized by 35 of the 78 schoolteachers. In particular, 14 teachers argued that teachers should have a significant role in making decisions, eight teachers (T25, 28, 30, 36, 58, 62, 63, 65) stated that *teachers should be more involved in the decision-making process*, and three teachers (T24, 26, 31) called for *giving teachers more opportunity to be*

involved in making educational decisions. One teacher (T48) emphasized that *this important role is ignored*, one teacher (T66) argued that *teachers' role in making decisions should be more activated*. However, seven teachers (T8, 9, 10, 11, 23, 37, 43) stated that *teachers are not involved in the decision-making process*.

5.7.2.2 Nature of Teachers' Participation

There were 24 schoolteachers whose comments related to the nature of teachers' participation in the decision-making process. In particular, 14 teachers (T3, 12, 13, 14, 47, 50, 52, 59, 60, 61, 71, 72, 76, 77) highlighted teachers' participation in making decisions related to students' different issues, such as helping students decide upon their specialization and the disciplinary policy for students. One teacher (T50) suggested that *teachers should be allowed to communicate with parents regarding their son's behaviour*.

Seven teachers (T4, 28, 29, 58, 74, 75, 77) argued that teachers should be involved in making decisions related to *academic issues* and four of these (T4, 58, 74, 75) emphasized teachers' participation in making decisions related to *all academic issues*. Other teachers stated specific academic issues where teachers should be involved in decision-making, such as *choosing the textbooks* (T14, 34, 48, 50, 71, 76), *curriculum content* (T12, 14, 34, 48), and *resources and course assessment* (T12).

Other teachers asserted greater teachers' participation in making decisions related to teachers' issues, such as *the workload for teachers* (T3), *choosing the appropriate professional development sessions* (T34), and *vacation dates which should be aligned with vacation dates in other international and private schools so*

teachers in Government schools don't feel less privileged than the other teachers (T27).

Another teacher (T 77) stated that this is especially *in making decisions related to students' disciplinary policy and academic issues*, and one teacher (T12) indicated that *the teacher is the most important element in the education process and that his participation in making decisions related to the curriculum content, resources, course assessment, the student's level of performance, and disciplinary policy is extremely important*.

5.7.2.3 Reasons for Teachers' Participation

There were eight teachers who provided reasons for teachers' participation in making educational decisions. These reasons relate to different issues and can be presented in four groups. First, the teacher's role is considered important because *teachers are the most significant elements in education* (T12, 19, 40, 53) and *important partners* (T67) *in the educational process*. The second group relates to the vision and mission of the school because *teachers can achieve the school's goals* (T15) and *develop the educational process* (T38). Third, group three is teachers' leadership skills because *they can help implement educational decisions* (T41). Finally, group four addresses students' issues because *teachers have direct contact with students* (T53).

5.7.2.4 Reasons for Teachers' Non-Participation

There were six teachers who stated factors that may hinder teachers' participation in making educational decisions. These factors relate to different issues and can be presented in three groups. First, the school's leadership style is important because teachers stated that *school's bureaucracy* (T15), *negligence of teachers'*

recommendations (T19, 22) and *administrators' feeling of being incompetent to make these decisions* (T17) can hinder teachers' participation in making decisions. The second group relates to the teachers' role in the decision-making process because they feel *they are the weakest element in the decision-making process* (T22). Third, group three relates to teachers' issues because *they lack job security* (T15), *have a big teaching load* (T20), and *feel less privileged than other teachers in other private and international schools* (T27).

5.7.2.5 Nature of School Administration and Supreme Education Council's Control

There were eleven teachers who emphasized the school administration and Supreme Education Council's control over the decision-making process in their school. They argued that *decisions are made by the SEC without any kind of involvement or cooperation with the teachers* (T11, 35), *decision-making is solely in the hands of the school administration and the SEC who just impose decisions on teachers the way they like* (T6), *teachers' main role is limited to the teaching duties and its related tasks* (T5) and *to apply the decisions made by the higher decision makers* (T10) and that *their feedback about the SEC's decisions is useless* (T56) and *never considered* (T55).

Other teachers expressed a desire that *school administrators and teachers cooperate to make decisions together instead of the school administration imposes decisions on teachers* (T78), and that *teachers should be informed about the SEC's new educational decisions* (T53) and involved in the decision-making process because *this is not the case now. Most of the time teachers are surprised by the new decisions that are made by the SEC* (T49). One teacher (T27) stated:

There should be a kind of collaboration between SEC and schoolteachers in making educational decisions to avoid SEC's imposing decisions without involving teachers in these decisions.

5.7.2.6 Nature of School Administration's Role

There were 20 teachers who identified the role of the school administration in the decision-making process. One teacher (T75) argued that all administrative issues should be assigned to school administration. This teacher states:

The teacher is the most significant element in school. However, teachers have to make decisions related to all academic issues and school administrators have to make decisions related to all administrative issues.

Other two teachers emphasized that school administration should make decisions related to some teachers and students' issues, such as *having a common framework to deal with all teachers' issues* (T67) and *revising the disciplinary policy for students and making strict policies which protect teachers and their dignity in school* (T68).

Seven teachers asserted that *teachers should be consulted before making any educational decisions* (T2), there should be a kind of *collaboration between school administrators and teachers in making decisions in school* (T64, 70) *instead of the school administration imposes decisions on teachers* (T78), and that *these decisions should be considered seriously* (T1, 46) *and implemented* (T4). One teacher (T16) suggested *following teachers' job hierarchy and considering their last evaluation report when assigning them decision-making tasks in the school*. Another teacher (T20) recommended offering effective professional development decision-making sessions for all teachers to achieve the required outcomes. This teacher wrote:

School administration needs to prepare professional development sessions about decision-making and to inform teachers about the importance of being part of this process to achieve the required educational outcomes.

Finally, seven teachers affirm that school administration *should form committees to discuss and make educational decisions* (T39, 57), *arrange for regular meetings with the teachers* (T7, 42, 54, 69, 73) and *use surveys to gain their feedback before making the last decisions* (T7). All this is supposed to encourage teachers to take part and collaborate with the school administration in making educational decisions.

5.8 Interviews' Results

The semi-structured interviews included a set of prescribed questions related to school administrators and schoolteachers' perceptions regarding teachers' current involvement in the decision-making process in their schools and other questions based on the participants' responses and results from the survey questions. Five school administrators and five schoolteachers participated in the interviews.

5.8.1 School Administrators' Responses

5.8.1.1 Degree of Schoolteachers' Current Involvement

There were two administrators (A1, 4) who reported that, currently, teachers have some involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals, such as the school's vision and mission, and three administrators (A2, 3, 5) indicated that teachers have no involvement in making these decisions *because these decisions are made according to general guidelines set by the SEC* (A3). One administrator (A5) stated:

The school's name "Independent Schools" is just a name and is not what it means because there are general and unified educational policies set by the SEC for all Independent Schools.

Furthermore, there were five school administrators who reported that teachers have significant involvement in making decisions related to instruction and choosing the appropriate teaching methods in the classroom. However, teachers have no involvement in making decisions related to choosing the curriculum or textbooks to teach as these are all unified in all Independent Schools for all students. The school administration and teachers only give their feedback regarding the curriculum and textbooks and all the recommendations are transferred to the SEC who will make the last decision. One administrator (A2) stated:

An announcement was sent to all Independent Schools in Qatar that there will be a unified curriculum and textbooks for all these schools. This idea was useless. The SEC chooses the curriculum without considering what is happening actually inside the classroom or students' different abilities. Recently, the SEC attempts to involve some experienced schoolteachers from Independent Schools to assist in choosing the curriculum.

Moreover, three administrators (A1, 2, 4) stated that teachers have limited involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers and two administrators (A3, 5) mentioned that teachers have no involvement in making these decisions. For example, policies related to *teachers' hiring and promotion, workload, professional development, yearly evaluation, and students' disciplinary actions are all set by the SEC even the school administration has to follow these policies* (A3). Another administrator (A5) indicated that teachers have a big workload, do different tasks for the school, the SEC and the Evaluation Institute, and attempt to restructure some wrong practices. This administrator stated,

The educational process is all full of duties and load for teachers and every year there are changes as a result of some kinds of shortcomings in the

current practices which require teachers to work hard to restructure these practices.

Finally, there were five administrators who indicated that teachers have some involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for students, such as *organizing students' trips and suggesting the names of students to be honoured according to their academic performance and the kind of academic support for the students with poor academic performance.* However, there are some general policies set by the SEC, which schools need to apply, such as the students' evaluation system and disciplinary policy. One administrator (A2) stated that *the mini internal tests are prepared by the teachers but according to general policies and guidelines set by the SEC and the international tests are totally prepared by the SEC.* Another administrator (A1) reported that *the disciplinary policy for students that is set by the SEC is useless even the school administration does not agree with most of its items. The policy for students' using mobile phones in the classroom, for example, and students' fights with teachers need to be revised.* Another administrator (A3) declared that *the school administration usually meets with the schoolteachers to explain the SEC's policy and find out the appropriate ways to implement it. The school administration sometimes negotiates with the SEC and attempts to modify the disciplinary policy to make sure it is appropriate and to save teachers' dignity in front of the students.* Therefore, teachers' involvement in making decisions related to students *would help decision-makers set policies for students and help teachers apply these policies (A3).*

5.8.1.2 The Extent to Which Schoolteachers Should be Involved

There were five administrators (A1, 2, 3, 4, 5) who indicated that teachers, currently, have good involvement in making decisions related to instruction and

choosing the appropriate teaching methods in the classroom. However, they suggested that teachers need to be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals, vision and mission, the curriculum and textbooks, and administrative policies for students *in order to feel satisfied about these policies* (A5) and *achieve the required educational goals* (A4). One administrator (A2) stated that *teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to the curriculum content, tests' content, the school's vision and mission statements, and students' disciplinary policy*. This is due to the fact that *teachers are the ones involved in real educational situations in the classroom. They are like doctors who know the real problems and the only ones to cure these problems* (A2), *close to the students and know their learning abilities* (A3).

There were three administrators (A1, 4, 5) who stated that teachers' involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers should be limited to giving recommendations only and two administrators (A2, 3) who suggested that teachers should have no involvement in making these decisions. One administrator (A2) mentioned that *teachers should not be involved in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers, such as teachers' hiring, promotion and yearly evaluation policies* as these decisions are *made by the SEC*. Another administrator (A3) stated that *the SEC is the one to set the policies for the decisions related to teachers even the school administration has to follow these policies. The school administration usually meets with teachers to inform them about these policies which they have to be aware of*.

5.8.1.3 Responses in Relation to the Survey Findings

The following section includes some questions based on the school administrators' responses and results from the survey questions.

1. Administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' administrative policies for teachers than teachers themselves state.

Two administrators (A2, 3) stated that most teachers are assigned to different duties and workload, they *are not enthusiastic for school's administrative responsibilities as they prefer to teach and go home and they are not satisfied about the determined administrative policies for teachers at the same time, therefore, their involvement would help them feel satisfied and help implementing these policies* (A2). Another administrator (A4) indicated that *there are some teachers who have a big workload but, still, they like to be involved in making educational decisions if given the chance to do so*. Another administrator (A1) mentioned that *teachers' involvement in making decisions related to teachers would help decision-makers setting these policies, but would teachers' recommendations be considered?* Most of these policies were set before teachers were hired that's why teachers would not ask for their involvement in making these decisions (A1, 5).

2. Male administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators state.

There were two administrators (A1, 5) who stated that some male administrators are not so active as the female administrators and they know that the degree of male teachers' involvement in making these decisions is weak that's why

male administrators suggested teachers' involvement in helping them make these decisions. In contrast, *female administrators and teachers are already involved in modifying some of these determined decisions that's why they would not ask for teachers' more involvement in making these decisions* (A4). Another reason for female administrators not asking for female teachers' more involvement in making these decisions is their belief that *male teachers have more time than female teachers who are always busy with their family responsibilities* (A2). Finally, there were three administrators (A1, 3, 5) who indicated that female administrators are more realistic than male administrators because they know that these policies are already determined and that all schools have to apply these policies.

3. Male teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female teachers state.

There were two administrators (A1, 4) who highlighted the issue that male teachers have the same opinion as the male administrators who suggested teachers should be more involved in making these decisions so that *they won't feel that these decisions are imposed on them* (A3). One administrator (A4) stated that it is true that some male teachers might be interested in leadership responsibilities, however, *female teachers are more productive if they are given the opportunity and if they have the time* (A3) *and more realistic* (A1) than male teachers as female teachers prefer to save some of their time for *their families* (A2, 4, 5). Administrator 5 even gave an example and stated that *only male teachers participate in the testing committees that mark students' exam papers for the international exams in higher*

levels, but female teachers are not involved and they are happy about it because they are busy.

4. Expatriate teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers than citizen teachers state.

There were five administrators (A1, 2, 3, 4, 5) who highlighted the fact that the number of citizen teachers is less than the number of expatriate teachers in Independent Schools and *both have different criteria related to some aspects, such as their hiring and promotion policies, etc., that's why expatriate teachers would like to have more involvement in making these decisions (A4) and they even handle big workload and work hard to prove their abilities (A5) as these decisions will affect them later and affect their contracts (A2, 3).* One administrator (A1) stated:

I think non-Qatari teachers would like to have more involvement in making educational decisions in their schools to prove themselves in their jobs and to keep their contracts for a longer time than Qatari teachers who do not have such concern regarding their job security.

In contrast, citizen teachers know that most educational decisions, especially these decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers are made by the SEC and they all have to apply them. One administrator (A3) gave examples of these decisions. He mentioned that:

When Independent Schools were established, the school administration used to specify the school's budget and needs; however, today there is a change as the SEC specifies the school's budget. The disciplinary policy for students' behaviour is another example as it is set by the SEC and teachers have to follow this policy.

Finally, there were two administrators (A2, 5) who stated that the citizen teachers are the ones who have big role in most meetings organized by the SEC and most expatriate teachers have a smaller role in these meetings, that's why expatriate teachers would like to have more involvement in making these decisions and a big role in their schools.

5.8.2 Schoolteachers' Responses

5.8.2.1 Degree of Schoolteachers' Current Involvement

There were three teachers (T1, 2, 5) who stated that, currently, teachers have limited involvement in making decisions related to school's educational goals as *the school administration collects teachers' recommendations and, then, sets the school's vision and mission statements according to general guidelines set by the SEC* (T1). Furthermore, there were two teachers (T3, 4) who indicated that teachers have no involvement in making these decisions. One teacher (T4) asserted that *teachers are not involved in making decisions related to school's educational goals and policies because these are made by the SEC*. Another teacher (T3) reported that *teachers are always asked to fill in survey questionnaires during the whole academic year about the determined educational goals and decisions but teachers' opinions and recommendations are not considered*.

In addition, there were five schoolteachers who indicated that teachers have good involvement in making decisions related to instruction and choosing the appropriate teaching methods in the classroom, however, teachers have no involvement in making decisions related to choosing the curriculum or textbooks to teach as these decisions are made by the SEC, but they can report problems they face and give their feedback through meetings and surveys to the school

administration who will transfer their concerns to the SEC to make the final decision.

One teacher (T2) even expressed a concern regarding the syllabus and the time specified to cover some topics. This teacher (T2) stated:

The time and number of classes specified by the SEC to teach one topic are inefficient, as sometimes some topics need more time to be taught than the time specified by the SEC. The electronic website is another problem which is imposed by the SEC and which we have to use to upload our lesson plans and teaching materials though this system is very slow and it includes specific types of exercises or quizzes, such as the multiple choice questions only.

Moreover, five teachers reported that teachers have no involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers. For example, *they do not make decisions related to their hiring or promotion policies, yearly evaluation policy for teachers, or their timetables and teaching load as these are set by the SEC. They are uploaded with their workload which hinders their focus on teaching or even thinking about any administrative work (T3).*

Another teacher (T1) gave more examples about teachers' non-involvement in making these decisions. She stated:

The academic year is very long, for 10 months, with a big workload for teachers, so teachers feel really tired and exhausted by the end of the year, but what we have for our summer break is 45 days only. The timetable and workshops for teachers are other examples, as teachers are not involved in making decisions related to their timetables or the workshops they need to attend. I think teachers' working hours and the duration of each class should be decreased.

Another teacher (T5) stated:

Teachers usually have from 3-4 teaching classes a day, a communication hour with students and their parents to answer their inquiries by phone, the administrative work, office hours, the PD sessions for teachers, teachers' evaluation every week, correcting students' HW, and students' exams during the whole academic year until the end of July. So, teachers' work for 24 hours a day, therefore, their promotion and bonus policies, and their summer holiday which is 45 days only should be all reviewed.

Finally, five teachers reported that teachers have limited involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for students, such as *honouring good students or suggesting the type of support for students with low academic performance, but they do not participate in students' evaluation policy, especially the SEC's National Test which includes items that do not reflect what the students actually learned, and teachers do not participate in making decisions related to students' disciplinary policy which is set by the SEC and which has long useless procedures. Another thing is the Art and Physical Education lessons. These lessons are very important for students but there was a decision to cancel these lessons in all Independent Schools (T4)*. Another teacher indicated that (T3) *teachers are not involved in making decisions related to the kind of academic or non-academic activities for students, such as forcing students to do research or participating in specific kinds of sports activities.*

5.8.2.2 The Extent to Which Schoolteachers Should be Involved

There were five schoolteachers (T1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) who indicated that teachers, currently, have good involvement in making decisions related to instruction and choosing the appropriate teaching methods in the classroom. However, teachers need to be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals, vision and mission, the curriculum, textbooks and student's evaluation system, administrative policies for teachers, and administrative policies for students because *teachers are the most important elements in the educational process (T1), can help implement the educational decisions (T5), can achieve the school's goals and develop the educational process (T3), they act as communication channels between the students and the school administration and know students'*

different learning abilities (T2), they are assigned different duties and there are many inaccurate practices in the current educational system which they need to develop (T4) that's why they should be more involved in making these decisions.

5.8.2.3 Responses in Relation to the Survey Findings

The following section includes some questions based on the schoolteachers' responses and results from the survey questions.

1. Administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' administrative policies for teachers than teachers themselves state in areas, such as school's goals and objectives, organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters, and providing the media with school's news.

There were two teachers (T1, 5) who reported that in order for teachers to have a real participation in the decision-making process, they need to be given the chance and encouraged through holding regular formal meetings with the school administration and the SEC, and forming committees and involving teachers in these committees to make the final decision. However, *this is actually not applied because teachers' role in the decision-making process is ignored (T3), most decisions are made by the SEC, and teachers are uploaded with big workload so they do not have time to participate in the decision-making process (T4).* One teacher (T2) stated:

This is strange because administrators know that most educational decisions are imposed by the SEC and teachers know this that's why they do not bother themselves asking to be involved in making educational decisions.

2. Male administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators state.

There were two teachers (T1, 5) who mentioned that male administrators would like teachers to help them with their administrative responsibilities than female administrators because they believe male teachers have more leadership abilities and skills and more time than female teachers. *It is true that female teachers are more active than male teachers (T2) but female administrators prefer to be in charge of the decision-making responsibilities because they think they are more aware of the SEC's policies and educational decisions (T3), and they believe female teachers have big workload as they always organize many different school activities for students in addition to their teaching duties (T4) and family responsibilities (T5).*

3. Male teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female teachers state.

There were five schoolteachers (T1, 2, 3, 4, 5) who indicated that male administrators and teachers would like male teachers to have more involvement in making educational decisions than female administrators and teachers because they consider male teachers to have more leadership abilities and skills *and more time for these responsibilities than female teachers who have other family responsibilities (T3, 5) and sometimes reluctant or cautious to make these educational decisions as they are aware of the fact that most of these decisions are made by the SEC and the school administration (T2).*

4. Expatriate teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers than citizen teachers state.

There were two teachers (T2, 5) who mentioned that some citizen teachers are not encouraged to be more involved in making educational decisions because they know the SEC sets these educational policies and they all must apply them. However, three other teachers (T1, 3, 4) indicated that expatriate teachers would like to be more involved in making educational decisions to prove themselves as decision makers in their schools and to feel satisfied about their work atmosphere and job, in general, as if they are in their countries. This is one of the reasons expatriate teachers would not mind to have more workload and responsibilities in their schools. The following teacher's comment (T3) illustrates this view:

Non-Qatari teachers compare the educational decision-making system in their countries to the educational decision-making system in Qatar and would like to participate in making decisions and have more responsibilities in their school to feel satisfied about their work.

5.9 Conclusion: Integrating the Findings

In the following section, the findings from Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this study are integrated in order to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the perceptions of school administrators and schoolteachers regarding the decision-making in Independent Schools. Based on findings from phase one and two of this study, most administrators indicated the importance of and an enthusiasm for increasing teachers' involvement in the decision-making process in a variety of areas related to students and academic issues and some administrative issues because of their experience, their relationship with students and that teachers are the "in-between" the administration and students. Administrators were also more enthusiastic than schoolteachers about increasing their involvement in preparing the school's calendars and final exam schedules, involvement in school's goals and objectives and organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters.

Considering gender, male administrators indicated that teachers should be more involved in schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than the female administrators. However, there were no differences between male and female teachers on items related to schools' curriculum and instruction and schools' administrative policies for students. This could be that male and female administrators agree that teachers have the knowledge needed to participate in these areas. Regarding nationality, there were no differences between citizen and expatriate administrators' views on schoolteachers' degree of participation in making decisions. However, expatriate schoolteachers were more enthusiastic than citizen schoolteachers and indicated that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers.

The open-ended survey questions and interviews demonstrated a concern that the SEC provides no formal means for teachers to make decisions and that teachers' job description prevent their involvement in decision-making. In addition, the SEC makes most decisions that must be followed and they prevent principals from engaging teachers in the decision-making process. Findings from interviews demonstrated a diverse perception regarding the amount of teacher's involvement in decision-making and the areas they are or are not involved. Several administrators pointed out that teachers may not want to be involved in decision-making while others stated that teachers would like to have this opportunity. However, the majority of administrators indicated the benefits of involving teachers in decision-making. The findings from interviews demonstrated that male administrators suggest that

teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators citing a variety of reasons for this claim.

When it comes to teachers, findings from interviews demonstrated similar responses regarding their involvement in decision-making in area of curriculum possibly because they believe they are qualified and possess the needed knowledge in these areas. There were differences between teachers and administrators in several areas regarding policies for teachers and schools' goals and policies.

There was a range of views regarding what teachers thought as to their current role in decision-making. However, most written comments indicated that teachers indicated that they need a more active role or some role in the decision-making process. As to the types of decisions, teachers' written responses indicated they were involved in some decisions about students but would like to be more involved in decisions about *all academic issues, choosing the textbook and resources and course assessment*. Some teachers want more involvement in some decisions related to teachers, such as workload for teachers and choosing professional development sessions.

Teachers indicated during the interviews that they were involved in making decisions because they are important elements in education, and have direct contact with students and this adds to the argument that administrators involve teachers in decision-making when teachers have the knowledge to add significant input. But teachers also indicated that the Supreme Education Council's control over the decision-making process, leadership style, the school's bureaucracy, the negligence of teachers' recommendation, their view that they are the weakest element in the

decision-making process and the lack of job security were hindrances to teacher decision-making.

Regarding gender, male teachers indicated during the interviews that they should be more involved in decisions regarding educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female teachers. Also, expatriate schoolteachers are more enthusiastic than citizen schoolteachers and think that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers. Citizen and expatriate teachers have a different perspective on decision-making where non-citizens have a share, interest, and are more at risk than citizens. For example, expatriate teachers might want to be more involved in the decision-making about administrative policies for teachers because of their job security. However, citizen teachers understand well the role and power of the SEC where the teachers' role is to carry out SEC decisions.

In summary, the involvement of teachers in the decision-making process is not static but rather varies from school to school. It can be argued that the particular administrator views toward teachers' involvement in decision-making, their leadership style, the commitment of teachers, the decision-making hierarchy and numerous other issues could influence the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

As previously mentioned in earlier chapters, the educational system in Qatar has gone through numerous changes. RAND's study indicated a wide range of existing problems in the centralized public educational system. After several years of implemented educational reform and policies based on RAND Corporation's extensive study and Qatar's reform Education for a New Era, there still existed a centralized educational structure that discouraged communication between the Supreme Education Council, school principals and schoolteachers (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012). Furthermore, the Supreme Education Council's 6th annual statistical report for the academic year 2010 revealed a contrast between school administrators' satisfaction and schoolteachers' dissatisfaction regarding the degree of their involvement in making decisions in their schools (Supreme Education Council, 2012). Therefore even after years of educational reform, it is evident that school administrators and teachers seemed to have mixed views about the educational decision-making system in Qatar, the schoolteachers' role in this process, and the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in their schools.

With that in mind, the purpose of the current study was to explore the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in the context of Qatari Independent Schools in light of the recent educational reform initiatives in Qatar. The data previously presented in the Data Presentation and Analysis Chapter highlighted some educational decision-making categories that were derived from

Independent school administration's policies and tasks. These educational decision-making categories included the school's educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, school's administrative policies for teachers, and school's administrative policies for students. In what follows, findings from this study are discussed by examining the results from the data analysis in relationship to the research questions; by addressing how gender and nationality influence administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives on the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making by linking to relevant past studies and applying various leadership models when appropriate.

6.2 Discussion of the Data Analysis in Relation to the Research Questions

6.2.1 The perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions and the differences between the perspectives of both groups.

As stated in the Introduction Chapter, there is deficiency of research regarding schoolteachers' involvement in the decision-making process in the current Qatari educational context. In order to develop insight into this issue, the current study implemented a five-point rating scale questionnaire and conducted interviews to examine school administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, curriculum and instruction, administrative policies for teachers, and administrative policies for students. The findings produced useful data related to schoolteachers' involvement in making educational decisions related to the four previously mentioned aspects of decisions in schools.

6.2.1.1 Educational Goals and Policies

Regarding schools' educational goals and policies, there were two large differences between administrators and teachers. Administrators and teachers disagreed about teachers' involvement in the decision-making of school's goals and objectives with administrators indicating their thought that teachers should be more involved in this area. School administrators and schoolteachers also disagreed about increasing schoolteachers' involvement in organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters. Again, administrators indicated that schoolteachers should be more involved. However, both administrators and teachers recorded a strong response for not increasing teachers' involvement in determining the school's budget.

The results from the interviews indicated that teachers currently have limited or no involvement in making these decisions because these decisions are made according to general guidelines proposed by the SEC. Therefore, one can see that the SEC's centralized system still exists in Independent Schools and this concentrates most decision-making about educational goals and policies with the Supreme Education Council allowing for some decision-making by school principals or members of the administrative managerial teams. Because of the dominant role of the SEC, it could be that teachers have grown accustomed to being excluded from the decision-making process understanding that their role is the implementation of school policies. This exclusion from the decision-making process could possibly lead teachers to develop a belief that this lack of involvement is the norm and the 'appropriate' level of involvement for teachers and teachers could possibly develop a lack of confidence in their abilities to participate since exclusion is the norm. In

addition, culture can influence styles of leadership and cultural issues can play a role in leadership and the relationship between leaders and others (Jogulu, 2010). Arar (forthcoming) points out that the way principals interact with teachers is affected by Arab cultural norms that focus on social hierarchies and control.

Holmberg and Akerblom (2006) point out that members of the same cultural groups are likely to have comparable implicit theories of leadership because of shared cultural values and beliefs. The key is that culturally contingent attributes influence leadership. For example, what is viewed as leadership strength in one culture may be understood quite differently in another and considered a hindrance. Since Qatar and the Independent School are very diversity, issues dealing with diversity and leadership should be considered.

Overall, this study found that administrators and teachers think there should be some type of participatory or group decision-making system that includes collaboration between the SEC, the school administration and teachers in areas related to curriculum and instruction and some administrative policies for students. This aligns with previous research on Qatari Independent Schools that demonstrated “teachers and administrators both overwhelmingly say that they strongly agree or somewhat agree teachers and the administration work together as a group at the school” (Social & Economic Survey Research Institute, 2012, p. 15).

6.2.1.2 Curriculum and Instruction

Regarding the schools’ curriculum, school administrators recorded strong “Totally and Considerably” (T/C) responses (50% or higher) for 7 of the 10 areas where teachers should be involved in making educational decisions about their curriculum and instruction. Schoolteachers recorded strong T/C responses on 4 of

the 10 areas also indicating that their involvement should be increased in decision-making compared to administrators.

This indicates that both school administrators and teachers were enthusiastic about increasing teachers' participation in making decisions related to the curriculum, such as choosing their textbooks. In the interviews, teachers justified their lack of involvement by focusing on the SEC for using the same model for all schools and their own acceptance of the SEC model of leadership.

However, teachers did play a role in some decisions regarding curriculum and instruction. The interview results illustrated that there was at times similar views of school administrators and schoolteachers that teachers did have significant involvement in decision-making related to instruction and choosing appropriate teaching methods in their classrooms. Handler (2010) points out in her study that in the US, it is often thought by principals and teachers that teachers are generally professionally prepared to engage in decisions about curriculum and instruction. This is reflected in the findings of this study when administrators wanted teachers to be involved in decisions about curriculum and instruction because they are an essential part of the school and have the necessary experience. However, Handler (2010) also found that the findings in her study and others documented in the literature indicate that, "most teachers do not have the comprehensive knowledge, nor the desire, to meet the demands of effective curriculum leadership" (p. 37). This may provide insight to the current role of teachers in decision-making in the Independent Schools.

This can create a contingency situational approach to leadership which considers the appropriate system of management depending upon situational factors (Owens, 2003). In this particular situation, factors, such as teachers'

knowledge, skills and experiences with curriculum and instruction play a role in shaping the administrator's leadership style to one where teachers' involvement is important because they have the necessary knowledge and with that knowledge can play an important role.

Overall findings from this study indicated that teachers want to be more involved in some decision-making areas because they indicated that their involvement could help with their work atmosphere and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Cherif & Romanowski (2013) state teachers' leadership skills and involvement in decision-making are important because teachers are the ones who implement educational decisions. This is supported by Mualuko, Mukasa, & Judy (2009) who found that teachers in secondary school in Kenya expressed a need to be involved in decision-making and this involvement had several advantages that included, improved teacher output, improved management decisions because of the use of expertise knowledge, improved staff morale and employee relations, developed schoolteachers' sense of ownership and increased their job satisfaction.

More relevant to the Qatari context, Troudi & Alwan's (2010) study conducted in the United Arab Emirates emphasized that teachers need to share their knowledge with their leaders, be given more control and voice in matters related to teaching and learning, and be empowered to reflect upon their current practices regarding their curriculum in order to facilitate the implementation of educational practices and policies and decrease problems during implementation. This involvement of teachers in curricular and instructional decision-making is consistent with the concept of teachers as curriculum leaders (Handler, 2010; Toll, 1993).

Rand's 2005 study found that teachers' complaints in Qatari Independent Schools about the additional workload for developing curriculum and materials and administrators and parents' concerns about teachers' ability to perform this task coupled with the concern that curriculum materials were not always completely aligned with the curriculum standards, led the SEC to introduce a list of textbooks for schools to use, but still encouraged teachers to seek diversity in the instructional materials they used in their classrooms (Zellman, et. al, 2011).

Teachers started complaining about returning to the old centralized Ministry school system where they had to cover the imposed rigid curriculum in assigned and specific time. Students lacked motivation, they were bored, there was no time for teacher-student interaction, and they sought private tutoring (Social & Economic Survey Research Institute, 2011; Cherif & Romanowski, 2013). This is an interesting situation where teachers want their voices to be heard but seem to actively work at silencing their voice by not wanting to engage in the process that they view as time consuming. Regarding teachers and curricular decision-making, Handler (2010) points out "much of the work on this subject makes clear that teacher involvement does not lead to active engagement or successful curricular change" (p. 33). Teachers' attitudes toward decision-making and the work involved could be one of the reasons for this lack of success.

6.2.1.3 Administrative Policies for Students

Regarding the schools' administrative policies for students, both administrators (3 T/C) and schoolteachers (5 T/C) recorded strong responses for increasing schoolteachers' involvement in decision-making regarding administrative policies for students. The only area that was not recorded with a strong response by

both groups was teachers' involvement in suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.

An open-ended survey response by an administrator and an interview comment made by a teacher suggested the SEC policy led to teacher humiliation or a lack of dignity because of the policy that favoured students. School administrators agreed with this view and showed support for teacher involvement in this area by proposing internal disciplinary policies. Although administrators indicated their willingness to increase teachers' involvement in making decisions regarding student discipline, no administrator in the interviews mentioned teacher involvement in their own development of the schools' internal disciplinary policies where administrators could have involved teachers. More importantly, the comments from participants concerning teacher humiliation in particular situations might indicate possible problems centring on how teachers are viewed by the SEC, students and parents.

Responses from both administrators and teachers seem to indicate a rather trivialized involvement of teachers regarding their input into administrative policies for students. Examples provided, such as organizing students' trips, suggesting the names of students to be honoured according to their academic performance and suggesting the type of support for students with low academic performance seem somewhat limited and seem to reflect a participation with influence that does not move beyond their classrooms and school. This is reinforced when teachers do not participate in the evaluation of students, such as when the SEC develops National Tests. These decisions are directly relevant to them as classroom instructors and yet they seem to have no voice in these decisions. Similarly, these teachers do not

participate in decision-making by the SEC, such as the cancellation of the Art and Physical Education lessons. Therefore, it is important to consider how the SEC and principals value teachers' opinions and thoughts. The issue of how teachers in Independent Schools are viewed might be a significant issue that is embedded within all aspects of teacher decision-making.

6.2.1.4 Administrative Policies for Teachers

Regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions related to the schools' administrative policies for teachers, administrators indicated differences in their opinions with teachers in their "Totally and Considerably" (T/C) responses in seven areas; promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school, assigning teachers to teach specific subjects, assigning teachers to teach specific classes, determining teachers' teaching load, involving teachers in evaluating the school administration, participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators, and assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.

Schoolteachers recorded eight strong responses in the Slightly and Not at all (S/N) area. Two of the teachers' responses were the same areas as administrators. These were promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school and handling teachers' infraction of school's rules. Teachers recorded six more strong S/N responses than administrators in several areas they thought teachers' degree of involvement should not be increased. These are 1) assigning teachers to teach specific subjects; 2) assigning teachers to teach specific classes; 3) determining teachers' teaching load; 4) involving teachers in evaluating the school administration;

- 5) participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators; and
- 6) reforming the school administration.

Responses to the survey open-ended questions revealed the willingness of some school administrators to increase teachers' involvement in making decisions related to hiring and promoting policies, teaching load, and assessment. This willingness seemed to emerge from the administrators' understanding that the teachers' job description placed them at the bottom of the decision-making hierarchy limiting their role to teaching duties, supporting students, and preparing activities for students which could hinder their involvement in making these decisions. However, it seems that some school administrators desire the SEC to develop a more democratic style of management policy for some areas that might allow teachers to be involved in the policies that directly impact their role as teachers. Because the SEC sets specific fixed regulations and policies related to administrative policies for teachers, school administrators emphasized the necessity of the SEC reviewing teachers' job descriptions so that they are given more opportunity to participate in making decisions.

School administrators may not want to take the ownership of allowing schoolteachers to be involved with administrative policies that directly involve teachers. They may not really want teachers' input or desire teachers' participation with real influence. The results from the interviews indicated that school administrators think that teachers' involvement in making decisions related to schools' administrative policies relevant to teachers should be limited to providing their feedback and giving recommendations. Thus based on the administrators' perceptions, they seem more comfortable with a situational approach where they

have the ability to shift the level of teacher participation depending on the particular situation and circumstances. School administrators who recognize that teachers have different duties, a large workload and the fact that the SEC already makes these decisions provided the justification for this limited or situational influence. This could be also related to some school administrators' fear of losing their authority in running the school if they allow teachers to control these decisions. These results align with the results from Boussif (2010) and Wadesango (2012) who found the situation in most Arab countries and in South Africa is one where policy makers apply some strict governmental regulations on schools to keep some form of control.

Teachers seem to support this view of a lack of real influence in the decision-making process in their responses to the survey open-ended questions when they provide their thoughts, opinions and experiences. They state that their recommendations were neglected, expressing their view of being the weakest element in the decision-making process, knowing their lack of job security and that other teachers in other private schools have input into decisions.

The results from the interviews indicated that school administrators and teachers had concerns regarding the current top-down decision-making process and the new organization for the Qatari education system. The new system was designed to reduce the degree of control exercised over schools by establishing the Independent Schools with different missions, curricula, instructional strategies, and resources (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012). These schools were funded by the SEC and were supposed to represent a more decentralized management system of schooling than had existed in the past. However, it seems that as one administrator (A3) stated, 'Independent Schools' is just a name.

Administrator (A3) thought *Education For a New Era* needed a strong vision and a clear implementation strategy. Administrators (A1, A2, A5) continued to state that schoolteachers in the Independent Schools were enthusiastic and expressed a desire for change and to have a more participatory system that shifts the role of leaders from a top-down approach providing teachers with more autonomy and a greater involvement in the decision-making process.

These findings reflect similar results from studies conducted over thirty years ago. For example, these results coincide with the Sadiq (1985) findings regarding some of the problems facing the Qatari educational system thirty years ago. The study highlighted school principals' discomfort with the centralized educational system that neglected their opinions and their teachers' perceptions regarding the schools' general educational goals. This resulted in unsatisfactory decisions unrelated to the school's real needs and creating uncooperative relationships with their teachers in school. Furthermore, Al-Musleh (1988) indicated that school principals have a strong desire to be involved in the decision-making process and that all engaged parties should have equal degrees of participation and involvement in setting schools' goals.

That the findings of the present study are so similar to these older studies indicates that although years and elements of reforms have past, the educational system in Independent Schools in Qatar does not seem to evidence real change. Although the buildings are new and equipped with current technology, there seems to be a constant tension between centralization and decentralization of schools and leadership. While reform calls for a decentralized governance and leadership, Independent Schools seem to cling to centralization.

Administrators and teachers in this study expressed the importance of teachers' involvement in decision-making and in educational reform. This thinking aligns with educational research regarding teachers' involvement in educational reform. Researchers claim that one key element of successful educational reform is the role of the teacher (Margolis & Nagel, 2006; Bailey, 2000; Lieberman, 1997). It is often the case that successful implementation of educational reform is determined by teachers' acceptance, involvement in and their degree of ownership of the reform (Carless, 2001; Markee, 1997). However, Bailey (2000) argues a central problem is that "teachers' perspectives have been a missing factor in the development of innovations ... the content and process of change are typically not in the hands of practitioners; change is assumed to be possible without their expertise, and their perspectives on change are frequently ignored" (p. 112).

Cherif & Romanowski (2013) found that principals in Qatar Independent Schools were challenged by the top-down nature of the decision-making process at the SEC. In this study, this seems to be the case as the extent to which teachers should be involved in making decisions in Qatari Independent Schools is influenced by a formal top-down approach. This is evident in the hierarchal and vertical structures and relations between the SEC, administrators and teachers. In the current study, teachers presented possible solutions that would increase their involvement in making decisions related to their school's educational goals. These included forming committees, offering effective professional development in decision-making for teachers, and arranging regular meetings to allow for teachers' feedback in order to achieve the required goals and outcomes. These teachers stated that they play an essential role in the effectiveness in educational reform.

Some view their role as teachers as an an element in the educational process and could possibly provide worthwhile help to decision-makers in order to set educational policies and then they can implement these policies.

In addition, when examining Qatar's Independent Schools' structure and teachers, there is a concern regarding the degree to which schoolteachers' should be involved in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers. The majority of teachers who enter the Independent Schools are expatriates mostly from other Arab countries. These teachers enter the classroom with a wide range of educational backgrounds and teaching experiences. Many are unqualified. According to the Supreme Education Council (2011), more than 30% of teachers in Qatar are not qualified to teach; 31% of teachers in Qatar have no formal qualifications to teach, including 35% of teachers who are in Independent Schools.

Therefore, issues about the qualifications and abilities of these teachers could be directly linked to two issues. First, administrators could be aware of the teachers' lack of qualifications and lack confidence in teachers' ability to engage in decision-making. As discussed earlier, administrators state that they want to involve schoolteachers in decision-making but they submit to the SEC and there is no evidence of this involvement, for example, in their internal student disciplinary policy. Second, one comment made by a participant in the study might indicate a concern about the value of teachers' input. This participant mentioned that the administration should provide professional development sessions about decision-making and inform teachers about the importance of the process. Some teachers' lack of qualifications coupled with the suggestion for professional development on decision-making might indicate the teachers' possible lack of confidence in her/his ability to

adequately participate in the decision-making process. This may then affect the perspectives of administrators and teachers towards the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions.

6.3 Differences between the perspectives of school administrators and the perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their gender.

The results of the survey questionnaire and interviews demonstrate some discrepancy between the views of male and female administrators and the views of male and female teachers regarding the extent to which teachers should be involved in making educational decisions in their schools. Male administrators were more enthusiastic than female administrators and indicated that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum. Male teachers were also more enthusiastic than female teachers and indicated that schoolteachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers.

Three male teachers commented during the interviews about the divergence between the opinions of the male and female administrators and teachers. They indicated that male teachers would like to have more involvement in making decisions than female teachers suggesting that male teachers need to satisfy their leadership needs. More than 30 years ago, Al-Derhim (1984) also revealed that, in Qatari schools, male teachers indicated their need to have more involvement in making educational decisions. In addition, males need to receive satisfaction from their work and to have a more informal relationship with their school administration to enhance their degree of involvement in the decision-making process. Al-Derhim

(1984) argues male teachers prefer a human relations informal collegial approach to leadership that meets psychological and social needs and allows for involvement in decision-making.

It can be argued that the perceived need for a human relations approach to leadership is based on a cultural argument where men are raised to believe they are superior and natural leaders needed to be involved in decision-making unlike women who are perceived to be busy with their family responsibilities, lack leadership skills and the time needed to be involved in the process (Romanowski & Al-Hassan, 2013). An important issue here is that women themselves could possibly believe that they are not as good leaders as men. Findings indicated that women reported less enthusiasm than men regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. This is an area for further research.

There are some commonly held views of women in Arab world. First, Arab women are considered by many as the upholders of cultural values and traditions. Since Arab culture places importance on motherhood and domesticity (Kazemi, 2000), the understanding of Arab women is very traditional, emphasizing reproductive functions (Jamali, Sidani, & Safieddine, 2005). Second, many Arab women are hesitant to leave these caretaker roles to take leadership positions because they face challenges regarding balancing time and energy between work and home (Romanowski & Al-Hassan, 2013). Finally, World Bank (2003) points out that family laws and traditions create an unequal balance of power in the home that affects women's access to work and leadership positions. This paradigm positions men as having the responsibility to support and protect their wives. This is used to justify the man's full authority and control over his wife's interactions in public

(Sabbagh, 2005) and this could often limit “the woman’s opportunities for leadership positions to those where females are segregated from men” (Romanowski & Al-Hassan, 2013, p. 3).

In the current study, results from the interviews revealed that, at times, female teachers seemed to be reluctant or cautious to ask for female teachers’ greater involvement in making educational decisions or taking on leadership responsibilities. The reasons given for this hesitation were family commitments, difficulties of balancing traditional family duties and work responsibilities and the traditional cultural attitude that leadership is ‘men’s work’. Furthermore, as confirmed by the Arab Human Development Report (2005), in the Arab world, “The prevailing masculine culture and values see women as dependents of men” (p. 91). The report continues stating, “as a result, men take priority both in terms of access to work and the enjoyment of its returns” (p.91). These societal perceptions and cultural beliefs, which are based on gender roles and discrimination, narrow definitions of women’s role, and the workplace structure, which favour men, tend to act as a “glass ceiling” (Boatwright & Forrest, 2000) and an invisible barrier that lead women to doubt their abilities and prevent them from being involved in making educational decisions and, thus, affect the degree to which they should be involved in the decision-making process (Shakeshaft, 1993; Young & Kochan, 2004; Northouse, 2007).

It is noteworthy that the State of Qatar has made great efforts to encourage gender equality in all fields and increase the number of women in many influential leadership positions (Felder & Vuollo, 2008). For fast-developing regions, such as the Middle East, development of leaders is a high priority on the national agenda. For example in Qatar, “Qatari women (females with Qatari citizenship) will likely play

a key role in the country's economic future" (Felder & Vuollo, 2008, p. 1). Because of the increase in population and the low percentage of Qataris compared to the expatriate population (Hyslop, 2010), there is a perceived need for expatriate women to assume various leadership positions because of the lack of Qatari women (Romanowski & Al-Hassan, 2013). In Qatar, women are better educated than men on average and they are entering the labour force in increasing numbers. More importantly, Qatari women are holding important leadership positions (Felder & Vuollo, 2008).

The leadership role played by HH Sheikha Mozah bint Nasser Al-Missnad, the mother of HH The Emir, Sheikh Tamim bin Hamad Al Thani, and President of the Supreme Council for Family Affairs, to support women and foster their role in society and in public life has encouraged some women to become involved in the national advancement process, prove their competency at work like men, and meet their family obligations at the same time. However, there are still some gender gaps, cultural factors, traditional barriers, and a focus on the traditional that have an impact on the social position of women, and thus decrease the extent to which they feel should be involved in the decision-making process (SCFA, 2004; Breslin & Jones, 2010).

Johnson (1991) points out that teachers' participation in making decisions can be determined by some external factors related to their culture and traditions and this might play a role in placing teachers in the lower levels of the school hierarchy. This is certainly the case with some woman and families in the Arab world where women are viewed as having less ambition and lacking leadership skills and decision-making abilities because they are stereotyped as dependent and obedient

and leadership roles are regarded as contradicting with their womanhood (Stelter, 2002; Joasil, 2008).

The Qatari society, as an Arab and Islamic society, has preserved its cultural and traditional morals and values that consider the family to be the most important element in society. Simultaneously, Qatar has a national vision that aims at developing Qatar into an advanced country with high standards of living for this generation and the coming generations by 2030. Thus, Qatari society and organizations possibly need to develop and improve some common goals and objectives to achieve their future vision (GSDP, 2009) including some change in the thinking behind some of the societal and cultural values about gender and gender roles. Stelter (2002) points out that future successful organizations will need not only to understand leadership in terms of gender but also the contribution that gender provides to the workforce and the effectiveness of organizations.

6.4 Differences between the perspectives of school administrators and perspectives of schoolteachers in relation to their nationality

The results of the survey questionnaire illustrated that there were no differences between the views of citizens and expatriate school administrators in relation to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, schools' administrative policies for teachers, and schools' administrative policies for students.

However, expatriate schoolteachers indicated that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum, and schools' administrative policies for teachers than citizen

schoolteachers because they suggested that expatriate schoolteachers need to prove themselves and feel satisfied about their work atmosphere so they would not mind having more responsibilities. In addition, some expatriate teachers might be more accustomed to different leaderships styles than those experienced in the Independent Schools. Thus, expatriate teachers supported the development of leadership that enhances participatory decision-making within the school and among people and that encourages them to lead and cooperate in order to contribute to the improvement of their school and the whole community. On the contrary, citizen teachers understand that policymakers propose most educational decisions and are more accepting that the role of all schools is to accept and implement the decisions.

In the current study, some school administrators commented during the interviews on the differences between the opinions of the citizen and expatriate schoolteachers about the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. They highlighted the fact that the number of citizen schoolteachers is less than the number of expatriate schoolteachers in schools and that citizen and expatriate schoolteachers have different criteria related to their hiring and promotion policies. In addition, some citizen teachers have more significant positions than expatriate teachers as all principals of Independent Schools must be citizens, with a background in education, in order to gain policy influence. The SEC usually provides professional development to these citizens to enable them to carry out their duties according to the specified principles and policies. Other citizen teachers have more prominent roles, such as participating in most meetings organized by the school administration and the SEC to discuss educational issues and make educational decisions. Therefore, it may be that expatriate teachers would

like a larger role in the decision-making because these decisions could possibly have an impact on their retention, contracts, and job security. One school administrator stated that expatriate teachers would like to be more involved in making educational decisions to prove themselves in their jobs and to keep their contracts for a longer time than citizen teachers who do not have such concern regarding their job security.

It is worth noting here that one of the most important goals for the “Education for a New Era” reform was to promote an autonomous approach in Independent Schools in hiring, recruiting, and retaining schoolteachers where school principals and schoolteachers in the past system were assigned to their positions by the Ministry of Education. However, the population of Qatari nationals is small (278,000) representing a mere 12 per cent of the total population in Qatar (Snoj, 2014). This makes it difficult to provide the human capital needed for the educational reform. As a result of the 2003 Iraq War that forced many expatriates to leave their jobs in Qatar returning to their home countries, the government initiated the Qatarization to decrease dependence on foreign labour (Al-Subaiey, 2010). The program is designed to provide employment for Qatari male and female citizens by replacing expatriates in critical positions in the private and public sectors. The government’s main objective is that at least 20 per cent of employees in all sectors should be Qatari and that “a vacant position must be offered first to a Qatari national and, if it cannot be filled by a Qatari national, then to a non-Qatari Arab, followed by a non-Arab foreigner” (Winckler, 2000, p.24). The Qatarization program also favoured citizens in terms of their benefits and salaries in order to encourage them to seek education and increase capacity, especially, in the teaching profession.

One of the challenges faced by Independent Schools was the perception of some citizen teachers towards the working conditions and demanding work in these schools compared with the past Ministry schools. The school year, which is divided into two teaching semesters of 17 weeks each, begins in September and ends in mid-July. Teachers attend school for more than seven hours per day, are required to engage in several professional development activities after school, and to be experts in using educational technology. These teachers are also required to deal with students' different learning abilities, engage in curriculum planning, keeping informed about new teaching strategies, working with curriculum and professional standards, additional paperwork created by the educational reform and a need to focus on meeting the learning needs of individual students unlike teaching in the past in Ministry schools (Romanowski, 2015).

Al-Subaiey (2010) describes Qatarization as “quantity Qatarization” instead of “quality Qatarization.” This means that some citizen schoolteachers are placed into various positions yet they might be unqualified. However, there is a large number of expatriate teachers who have the qualifications and are able to meet the needs and requirements of Independent Schools, yet they receive considerably lower average salaries than teachers who are Qatari citizens.

Al-Obaidli's study (2010) revealed that expatriate teachers have concerns regarding a lack of job security and the effect of Qatarization on their job permanency in Independent Schools. Expatriate teachers are sponsored employees who could lose their sponsorship and be deported; their employers are thus in a powerful position over their employees. This often creates a tension between citizens and expatriate teachers and also creates a system where citizen teachers and

administrators have all the power. This system clearly impacts how expatriate teachers express their voice on many issues and would seem to impact on the degree to which they think they should be involved in making decisions and how they may respond to any change for decision-making.

This could create a situation where a transactional leadership style emerges and teachers agree with the administrators in return rewards, resources or the avoidance of negative consequences (Bass, et. al., 2003). The situation that occurs in the Independent Schools is where expatriate teachers are willing to engage in school and support reforms and the principals for additional benefits (supplemental pay), job security or other benefits.

6.5 Summary of Key Findings

This chapter discussed the findings of this study in light of the research questions and relevant knowledge in the literature review related to the field of school administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in educational decision-making. Barrera-Osorio, Fasih, Patrinos & Santibanez (2009) argue, "decentralizing decision-making encourages demand for a higher quality of education and ensures that schools reflect local priorities and values" (p. 2). The Qatar educational reform "Education for a New Era" was designed in theory to provide a more decentralized governance system replacing the previously centralized system (Brewer, et. al., 2007). However, findings from this study indicate that there is a continuation of a centralized system. It is also important to note that the findings in this study coincide with those of previous studies conducted the 1980s and 1990s (EI- Sheikh & Salama, 1982; Al-Siddiqi, 1983; Al-Derhim, 1984; Al-Misnad, 1985; Al-Musleh, 1988; 1993). Thus, this

indicates that in spite of the reform, changes and suggestions for a decentralized school system, Qatari Independent Schools seem to return to a centralized system.

It can be argued in this study that Qatari Independent Schools are influenced by a top-down approach evident in the hierarchical and vertical structures and relations. It is clear from participants' responses that the SEC is at the apex of the educational pyramid decision-making process followed by school administrators and then schoolteachers. All groups have a clear understanding of their role and its relationship to the SEC. Figure 3 illustrates the educational pyramid of the decision-making process in Independent School in Qatar.

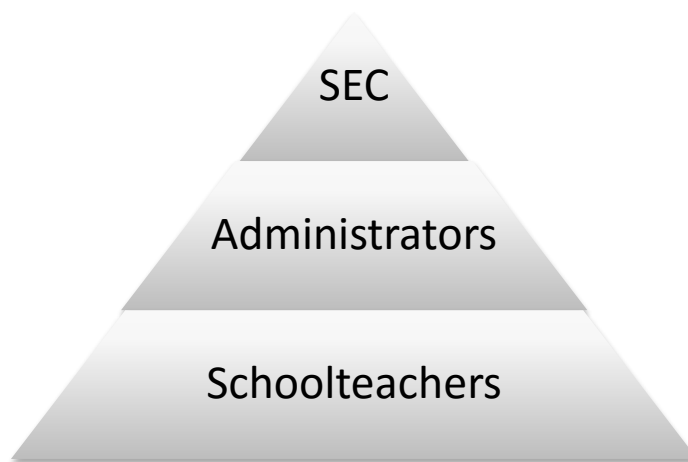


Figure 3. The Educational Pyramid of the Decision-Making Process in the Independent Schools in Qatar

As illustrated, the SEC is on the top of the decision-making pyramid and seems to utilize absolute authority to make and pass down decisions that includes supervision, planning and division of work, clear definition of duties and responsibilities in order to accomplish the designed objectives all developed and imposed by the SEC. The SEC utilizes a top-down approach to management that requires administrators and teachers to implement those decisions. The administrators are directly accountable to the SEC. In spite of this leadership

structure, school administrators and schoolteachers indicate, although to different degree, the desire for more input into decision-making or possibly closing of the gap between the school administrators and schoolteachers' roles in relation to decision-making.

The findings of this study demonstrate that school administrators were more enthusiastic than schoolteachers about schoolteachers' involvement in making decisions related to school's goals and policies. These findings indicate that administrators have more confidence in schoolteachers participating in these areas than schoolteachers. This could be the result of a system that traditionally alienates schoolteachers from the decision-making process. As the reform develops and teachers are asked to be involved in decision-making, they revert back to the way things used to be and this could account for the lack of confidence. More importantly, the SEC's top-down approach to leadership has also alienated schoolteachers and they have learned that they have no role in decision-making because these types of decision are for the SEC and leaders in the schools. Hence, we see the schoolteachers indicating less enthusiasm because in the past (and possibly currently) their voices have not been heard or taken seriously.

It can be inferred that at times, participants in this study desire a collegial management model (Bennett, Crawford, Levacic, Glover, & Earley, 2000) where power is shared among some or all members of an educational organization through a horizontal and democratic administrative structure which incorporates participatory decision-making processes. This seems to be the case for schoolteachers who want to have a say in the circumstances of their teaching positions and for administrators who provide collegial management model and desire input from teachers regarding

curriculum issues. This is evident in the findings of this study. School administrators and schoolteachers recorded some similar responses regarding increasing schoolteachers' involvement in decision-making in the area of curriculum and administrative policies for students. These are two areas of decision-making that teachers are well informed about and directly involved in. Therefore, the administrators in this study possibly recognize that this knowledge can be useful for making decision in these areas and teachers are confident in their knowledge and abilities to contribute positively in these areas.

Also, there were differences between schoolteachers and administrators in several areas related to administrative policies for teachers. Administrators were more enthusiastic about teachers' involvement in decision-making about administrative policies for teachers. Administrators demonstrated more enthusiasm for increasing teachers' involvement in promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school; assigning teachers to teach specific subjects and classes; determining teachers' teaching load; involving teachers in evaluating the school administration; participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators; and assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school. For example, the administrators indicated that they would welcome schoolteacher's involvement in resolving conflict between teachers and administrators. However, this involvement would be completely new for teachers in independent schools and most teachers have not experienced involvement in resolving conflict. Schoolteachers would probably do well, if taught how to engage in the resolving of conflict but for most of these teachers, this is not even an idea

they would consider since they probably have no prior knowledge regarding this issue.

Currently, the level of involvement varies between administrators and teachers and it seems in the Independent Schools there is a singular leadership that focuses on individual decision-making actions rather than collective activities. Keep in mind, this teacher involvement is limited to the school level and never really reaches the level of the Supreme Education Council. In addition, it is important to note that involvement in decision-making needs to be genuine. Two teachers mentioned during the interviews that the administration and SEC often trivialized the involvement for schoolteachers in the sense that when they were asked for input, their input and suggestions were never seriously considered or used in the decision-making process.

Cultural models of leadership (West-Burnham, 1997) provide some insight into the leadership embedded within Independent Schools. Cultural models focus on the culture of educational organizations and their informal elements rather than their formal structure. The cultural model stresses that shared values affect the way people behave and their view of others' behaviour. Leaders are in charge of defining, generating and maintaining the school culture by implementing their own values and beliefs that rise from their own experiences. This becomes an important element because of the citizen and expatriate school administrators and schoolteachers' cultures that are embedded in Independent Schools. With such diverse cultures represented within the Independent Schools, the issues of whose culture is developed in the school, whose values are represented and whose culture is valued are all issues that need to be addressed.

Nationality was a factor regarding school administrators and schoolteachers' perspectives toward the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. Both citizen and expatriate schoolteachers indicated that they support some sort of participatory or group decision-making system although the degree of involvement and reasons for involvement might be influenced by issues such as job security, inequality between citizen and expatriate teachers and Qatarization. Findings also indicate differences between the perspectives of the citizen and expatriate schoolteachers as expatriate schoolteachers wanted to have more involvement in making educational decisions than citizen schoolteachers. Expatriate schoolteachers' lack of security could be the reason they would like to have a voice in the school policies that affect them directly while citizens have complete security and may not desire this involvement.

Finally, male administrators and male schoolteachers think schoolteachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum than female administrators and female schoolteachers. It can be argued that the culture plays a role in these findings to some degree. There is a clear division in Qatar regarding males and females that is clearly reflected in these findings. Males could be more confident as leaders because they have more opportunities to develop their leadership skills and this confidence could be a reason they are willing to listen to others and have others involved in decision-making. On the other hand, females might lack confidence, experience and the negative view of females as leaders and decision makers in Qatari culture could be a reason for these findings.

The findings of this study provide some insights into the current decision-making system in the Independent Schools in Qatar, school administrators and schoolteachers' perceptions about schoolteachers' role in this system and the degree to which they consider they should be involved in the educational decision-making process. In addition, the findings raise other relevant issues regarding school leadership and decision-making. The following chapter discusses this study's contributions to the knowledge base, the implications of this study and provides recommendations for additional research.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

In Qatar, there were growing concerns about the current centralized educational system. Cherif and Romanowski (2013) in their study of Qatar's educational reform point out "in practice, the system is becoming more centralized and schools must follow changes from upper spheres of decision makers, of whom there seem to be too many" (p. 15). This neglects school administrators and schoolteachers' opinions and perceptions regarding their schools and excludes them from involvement in the decision-making process. Thus, there was an urgent call for a more decentralized educational system and a participatory decision-making process that includes all those involved in the educational system in Qatari Independent Schools (Rand Objective Analysis, Effective Solutions, 2012).

The current study was conducted to build upon the literature regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Independent Schools in the current Qatari educational context. Accordingly, this study set out to highlight the role of teachers' involvement in making decisions for any educational system that strives for an effective and efficient educational decision-making process. It attempted to develop a better understanding of the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions from the perspectives of school administrators and schoolteachers in a Qatari context.

The findings from survey questions and interviews revealed that there is a centralized system that exists in the Qatari Independent school system. In addition, findings from quantitative data points out areas where school administrators and

schoolteachers think strongly about where schoolteachers should or should not be involved in decision-making and also where administrators and schoolteachers disagreed about the areas teachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari Independent Schools. This concluding chapter will present the implications of this study, recommendations, contribution to knowledge, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research, and my personal reflection on the thesis journey.

7.2 Contribution to Professional Knowledge

The current study has produced additional knowledge on the subject of decision-making in Independent Schools in Qatar by presenting school administrators and schoolteachers' perceptions about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. There are no current studies that directly address the issue of teacher involvement in decision-making in the Independent Schools in Qatar. Findings from this study revealed the decision-making domains that both teachers and administrators agree, disagree and domains they thought were important for schoolteachers' greater involvement. For example, both teachers and administrators were in agreement and indicated strong responses on three areas of decision making regarding administrative policies for students, such as rewarding specific students for their achievement in school, contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school, and determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.

Both phases of this study provided responses from teachers and administrators to 40 areas where decisions are made in schools demonstrating what

current school administrators and teachers think about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making. This knowledge can aid the SEC and principals in developing a system where teachers can become more involved in the decision-making process in the Independent Schools. In addition, this research provides insight into the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Independent Schools in Qatar. This knowledge seems to indicate that it may vary from each particular setting.

Furthermore, this study provides knowledge regarding the centralized hierarchical structure that still exists in these schools in spite of an educational reform designed for a decentralized system. For example, findings from open-ended survey questions and interviews indicate that the SEC through policies and practice limit the amount of involvement principals and teachers have in decision-making within the Independent Schools.

The study also sheds light on the issues of gender and decision-making. The issue that male administrators think teachers should be more involved in schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than the female administrators is an important finding. In addition, male teachers were more enthusiastic than female teachers indicating that schoolteachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers is another important finding. Regarding nationality, expatriate schoolteachers demonstrated more enthusiasm than citizen schoolteachers and think that teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers. These

findings add to the overall understanding of decision-making in schools in the Qatari context.

Finally, the questionnaire used is specifically designed for this study and could possibly serve as an important instrument for gathering data to measure the extent to which other populations, such as students and parents, suggest they should be involved in making educational decisions, not only in Qatar, but in other contexts that share Qatar's educational aspects.

7.3 Recommendations

As stated earlier, despite the importance of the study of participatory decision-making and teachers' involvement in making educational decisions, there has been limited literature and research on the aspect of presenting the decision-making process and the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making decisions in the current Qatari educational context. Therefore, several recommendations that could inform policy makers, administrators and teachers who seek to enhance the decision-making system in their educational organizations.

1. School administrators think that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to teachers' hiring and promoting policies, teaching load, professional development, assessment, and reforming the structure of their school administration among other areas. If administrators think teachers should have more involvement, then administrators must encouraged this involvement, provide leadership opportunities, form committees, and offer joint decision-making opportunities so teacher develop the confidence to participate in decision-making in areas that they might not be able to contribute.

2. Based on the open-ended survey responses and interviews, the SEC could possibly examine and change teachers' job descriptions to allow teachers a larger role in the decision-making hierarchy and provide a formal avenue for teachers to engage with the SEC in decision-making. The SEC could provide more autonomy for principals allowing them to include teachers in decision-making relevant to their particular school. In order for this to occur, there is a need to reduce the centralized role of the SEC toward a more decentralized decision-making structure. Furthermore, it is suggested that the SEC's attempt to move away from what one participant called "a one-size-fits-all" approach to schools allowing for more autonomy for administrators to make decisions on matters relevant to their particular school setting. Additional areas that need to be looked at are the school's bureaucracy, negligence of teachers' recommendations and their place at the bottom of the decision-making hierarchy, teachers' heavy workload and daily teaching responsibilities and how teachers are viewed regarding their ability to participate in the decision-making process.
3. Anderson (2002) points out that when it comes to decision-making, teachers must do more than simply participate. It was mentioned in the teachers' open-ended responses and interviews that some times teachers felt that their feedback and input to the SEC were never considered and useless. It is important that teachers are assured that they are heard and the ideas they present have been communicated to those making final decisions. Teachers need to see evidence that their involvement is taken seriously and they can

have a sense of ownership in the process. Therefore, teachers and administrators need to have authentic input into the decision-making process.

7.4 Recommendations for Further Research

In light of the results of this study, several areas related to educational decision-making can be addressed by future research. First, all findings in this study are based on gender segregated schools. This study does not take into consideration the possible influence this could have on participants' view of the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making. Research studies that address female school administrators working with female schoolteachers and male school administrators working with male schoolteachers in gender segregated schools should be conducted in order to determine how this might impact findings from this study.

Second, one issue that surfaced in this study and briefly discussed in the previous chapter is the issue of confidence. Research should be conducted to determine if the level of confidence the SEC, school administrators and schoolteachers themselves have in the schoolteachers' abilities to make decisions and offer opportunities for teachers to get involved in decision-making plays a role in teacher involvement in decision-making. Furthermore, research should be conducted in this or similar cultural contexts on how confident these groups are concerning female schoolteachers' knowledge, skills, and abilities to provide input into the decision-making process.

Third, the findings revealed some discrepancy in schoolteachers' perceptions about the degree to which they should be involved in making educational decisions due to some traditional, societal, cultural, and political factors. There is a need to

examine thoroughly how these factors affect school administrators and schoolteachers' roles and the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in decision-making. In addition, research on the effectiveness of schoolteachers' decision-making and influences that either aid or hamper teachers decision-making would be beneficial.

Fourth, these findings indicated that there were no differences in the perceptions of citizen and expatriate school administrators about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. Thus, it would be of interest to study the motives and reasons behind these findings. Although not fully reported in this study, there is often a tension that exists between citizen school administrators and schoolteachers and expatriate schoolteachers and administrators. Research directly addressing the influence of nationality and other related issues is particularly important in the Independent Schools' diverse settings.

Fifth, there is an interesting aspect of these findings that should be examined. That is, how stakeholders view schoolteachers and the impact of this perception on schoolteachers' degree of involvement in decision-making.

Sixth, there is a need to explore the extent to which other populations, such as students, parents and other stakeholders should be involved in making educational decisions, not only in Qatari schools, but also in other similar educational contexts.

Seventh, women reported less enthusiasm than men regarding the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions. There could be several arguments as to the reasons for this finding. However, how women view themselves as leaders and if this view influences their desire to participate in

decision-making would be a worthwhile area to study particularly in this particular context.

Finally, additional research that compares and contrasts private schools in Qatar with Independent Schools in areas, such as the overall decision-making process, schoolteachers' involvement or lack of involvement and the areas where teachers are involved in the decision-making could prove useful.

7.5 Final Reflection

In this section, I reflect on my thesis journey that is valuable for my personal and professional life. This journey has enhanced my perceptions as I learned to thoroughly examine peoples' perspectives moving beyond their apparent reactions in order to discover possible motivations that may influence their attitudes, beliefs, and roles in schools. Also, this study provided insight into the importance of providing voices to teachers and others who I work with regarding the decision-making process. This newly gained knowledge and skills will prove useful as the Assistant Dean for Student Affairs in the College of Education at Qatar University. Furthermore, this thesis has aided in the development of my research skills as I learned how to design and conduct quantitative and qualitative research, use different data collection methods to answer my research questions, analyse data and present results and ideas in writing. From this study, my goal is to publish results and present findings at local workshops and international conferences. Finally, I will continue to conduct research, adding to my knowledge and contributing to academic knowledge in education.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Survey Questionnaire

Perceptions of Schoolteachers' Involvement

in Educational Decision- Making in the State of Qatar

The aim of this questionnaire is to investigate the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari Independent Schools. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and your personal data will be processed in accordance with current data protection legislation and the University's notification lodged at the Information Commissioner's Office. Your personal data will be treated in the strictest confidence and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties. The results of the research will be published in anonymised form. Should you have any questions, please feel free to email me at r.khalid@qu.edu.qa or phone me at +974 44035442. Thank you.

Part One

Demographic Data

1. Your current position: (a) School principal (b) Vice-principal
(c) Coordinator (d) Schoolteacher

2. Your gender: (a) Male (b) Female

3. Your nationality: (a) Citizen (b) Expatriate

4. Your level of education: (a) Diploma (b) Bachelor degree
(c) Masters (d) Others (please specify) -----

5. Years of experience in your current job as a:
School principal ----- Vice-principal -----
Coordinator ----- Schoolteacher -----

6. Name of your school:

Part Two

The Degree to Which Schoolteachers Should be Involved in Making Educational Decisions in Qatar

This section surveys your opinion regarding the extent (degree) to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to selected decision-making areas in Qatar. Levels of teachers' participation range between five degrees of involvement as follows:

- **5 = Totally** = means decisions should be totally made by schoolteachers.
- **4 = Considerably** = means decisions should be made by both teachers and school administrators, but teachers should have the major authority.
- **3 = Moderately** = means decisions should be made by both schoolteachers and school administrators. Both groups should have equal influence in the decision-making process.
- **2 = Slightly** = means school administration should have the major power in making decisions while teachers should have limited participation.
- **1 = Not at all** = means decisions should be made by school administrators and schoolteachers should not be involved.

1. Please read the following decision statements carefully and indicate your opinion with respect to **the extent to which schoolteachers' should be involved in making each decision** by circling ONE level of involvement only:

Section One: (School's educational goals and policies):

	Statements	Tot ally	Consider ably	Moderatel y	Slightl y	Not at all
1	Designing school's vision and mission statements.	5	4	3	2	1
2	Designing school's educational goals and objectives	5	4	3	2	1
3	Providing the school with new equipment and facilities.	5	4	3	2	1
4	Providing the school with new instructional supplies and materials.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Determining the school's budget.	5	4	3	2	1

6	Findings ways to improve school administrators and teachers' communication and cooperation.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Organizing meetings for staff and faculty to discuss different matters.	5	4	3	2	1
8	Providing the media with school news.	5	4	3	2	1

Section Two: (Curriculum and instruction):

	Statements	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all
9	Reforming the syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Choosing what to include or not include in the new syllabus.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade level.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Choosing what to include or not include in the course assessment process.	5	4	3	2	1
13	Preparing school calendars and final exams schedules.	5	4	3	2	1
14	Determining the class size.	5	4	3	2	1
15	Selecting the appropriate teaching methods.	5	4	3	2	1
16	Determining what to include or not include in tests and exams.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Organizing educational trips for students.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Planning procedures for dealing with students with low performance in the school.	5	4	3	2	1

Section Three: (Administrative Policies for Teachers):

	Statements	Totally	Considerably	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all
19	Promoting specific teachers to the administration level at school.	5	4	3	2	1
20	Hiring teachers.	5	4	3	2	1
21	Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects.	5	4	3	2	1
22	Assigning teachers to teach specific classes.	5	4	3	2	1
23	Determining teachers' teaching load.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Designing teachers' benefits, raise and rewarding systems.	5	4	3	2	1
25	Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences.	5	4	3	2	1
26	Handling teachers' infraction of school's rules.	5	4	3	2	1
27	Assigning teachers to be coordinators.	5	4	3	2	1
28	Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration.	5	4	3	2	1
29	Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	5	4	3	2	1
30	Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	5	4	3	2	1
31	Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	5	4	3	2	1

3 2	Transferring teachers from a school to another.	5	4	3	2	1
3 3	Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	5	4	3	2	1
3 4	Reforming the school administration.	5	4	3	2	1

Section Four: (Administrative Policies for Students):

	Statements	Total y	Consider ably	Moderat ely	Slightl y	Not at all
3 5	Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	5	4	3	2	1
3 6	Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behavior in school.	5	4	3	2	1
3 7	Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.	5	4	3	2	1
3 8	Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	5	4	3	2	1
3 9	Suspending a student because of his disruptive behavior or ignorance of school's rules.	5	4	3	2	1
4 0	Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	5	4	3	2	1

Part Three:

- 1. Do you have any other comments about schoolteachers' involvement in making educational decisions in your school?**

- 2. What recommendations can you provide to enhance the decision-making process in your school?**

Part Four: (Contact Details for Follow-Up) (Optional):

- If you are interested in taking part in a follow-up interview, will you please provide your contact information?**

- Name:
- Email:
- Work number:
- Mobile Number:

Thank You

Appendix B: Consent Forms



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

School Principal's / Head teacher's Consent Form

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- There is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation.
- Any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications and I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me.
- The researcher will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.
- The information, which I give, or teachers give will be treated as confidential. It will be seen ONLY by the researcher and her research supervisors, and will be shared in an anonymised form.

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher

Contact phone number of researcher: (00974 - 44035442).

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

The researcher, Reem Khalid, the researcher (r.khalid@qu.edu.qa)

OR

The supervisor, Dr. Philip Durrant, Lecturer in Language Education/Pathway Leader EdD TESOL (Exeter)
(P.L.Durrant@exeter.ac.uk).

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Schoolteachers' Consent Form

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

- There is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation.
- Any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications and I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me.
- The researcher will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.
- The information, which I give, will be treated as confidential. It will be seen **ONLY** by the researcher and her research supervisors, and will be shared in an anonymised form.

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher

Contact phone number of researcher: (00974 – 44035442)

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

The researcher, Resm Khalid, the researcher. (r.khalid@qu.edu.qa)

OR

The supervisor, Dr. Philip Durrant, Lecturer in Language Education/Pathway Leader EdD TESOL (Exeter)
(P.L.Durrant@exeter.ac.uk).

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.



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**“Involvement of School Teachers in Educational Decision- Making
in the State of Qatar”**

Informed Consent

The main objective of this form is to provide you with information which may affect your decision in participating in this study. Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

- **Who is conducting the study?**

Ms. Reem Khalid is a PhD student under the supervision of Dr. Philip Durrant, a Lecturer in Language Education/Pathway Leader EdD TESOL (Exeter). The title of her thesis is “Involvement of School Teachers in Educational Decision- Making in the State of Qatar”. The goal of this research study is to explore, determine, compare and contrast the opinions of selected school administrators and teachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar and she would like to invite you to participate in her research study.

- **What will you be asked to do in the study?**

If you decide to participate in this study, you will need to complete a survey questionnaire where you will be asked to give your opinion regarding the extent (degree) to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to selected decision-making areas in Qatar. Your participation won't take more than 30 minutes.

- **Are there any risks related to your participation?**

We do not expect you to face any problems in case you participate in this study.

- **Are there any benefits?**

If you agree to participate in this study, you will participate in the decision-making process in Qatar and in other areas by helping educators developing a decision-making system based on valid and accurate information.



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- **How will the researcher maintain the privacy and confidentiality of the collected data?**

The findings of this study will be presented only in summary form without mentioning participants' identity. It will not be possible to know who chooses to participate in this study or completed the questionnaire and who did not. You will not be asked to write your name on the questionnaire.

You will be only asked to provide your contact information, at the end of the questionnaire, in case you are interested in being interviewed. The interview will be scheduled according to the time convenient for you and, if you agree, it will be audio taped. The information you will provide for the interview will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this numbers will be kept in a file on the researcher's lap top and only the researcher will be able to log in to her lap top with her password and see the stored list or data.

- **What will happen in case you decide to continue or withdraw from this study?**

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time, without giving reasons. If you choose not to participate in this study, this will have no effect on the services or benefits you are currently receiving from your school.

- **Voluntary participation consent:**

Your completion and return of the questionnaire indicates that:

- You have read and understood the information and the procedures described above
- Your consent to participate in this study
- The interviews will be audio recorded and that you can request that the recording be stopped at any time.

If you have any concerns about the study that you would like to discuss, please feel free to contact Reem Khalid, the researcher (90974 – 44035442 or r.khalid@qu.edu.qa). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Dr. Philip Durrant, Lecturer in Language Education/Pathway Leader EdD TESOL (Exeter) (P.L.Durrant@exeter.ac.uk).



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Note: Please keep a copy of this form whether or not you agree to participate in this study.

Researcher's name: Reem Khalid

Signature: *Reem Khalid*

Date: *24-4-2013*

Appendix C: Samples of School Administrators' Coding

Category	Code		Raw Data	Administrator number
Degree of teachers' participation	a) Significant role: SR	SR	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions since they link the student with the school administration, can discover students' skills, and make decisions related to students' professional and career development.	A
Degree of teachers' participation	a) Significant role: SR	SR	Teachers should be given a significant role in making educational decisions and encouraged to make decisions related to all students' issues, for example The SEC imposes strict policies and regulations on teachers and leaves students with lenient disciplinary policies.	B
Nature of teachers' participation	Nature of teachers' participation: Students' Issues SI	SI	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions since they link the student with the school administration, can discover students' skills, and make decisions related to students' professional and career development.	A
Nature of teachers' participation	Nature of teachers' participation: select what to teach=WT	WT	Increase teachers' participation and focus on the significance of teachers' involvement in the development process. For example, they have to participate in selecting what to teach because of their experience. Today, most educational decisions are now imposed by the Supreme Education Council and everyone has to apply them without discussion.	C
Reasons for teachers' participation	Reasons for: Link students with admin LA	LA	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions since they link the student with the school administration, can discover students' skills, and make decisions related to students' professional and career development.	A

Reasons for teachers' participation	Reasons for: Discover students' skills DS	DS	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions since they link the student with the school administration, can discover students' skills, and make decisions related to students' professional and career development.	A
Nature of SEC control	SEC control: Strict policy on teachers=SP	SP	Teachers should be given a significant role in making educational decisions and encouraged to make decisions related to all students' issues, for example The SEC imposes strict policies and regulations on teachers and leaves students with lenient disciplinary policies.	B
Nature of SEC control	SEC control: Lenient disciplinary on students=LD	LD	Teachers should be given a significant role in making educational decisions and encouraged to make decisions related to all students' issues, for example The SEC imposes strict policies and regulations on teachers and leaves students with lenient disciplinary policies.	B
Nature of SEC role	Nature of SEC role: Review decision-making hierarchy=RH	RH	The teacher is the foundation of the teaching process and he has to participate in making decisions, but his job description places him at the bottom of the decision-making hierarchy.	N
Nature of SEC role	Nature of SEC role: Review work load=RL	RL	The work load for teachers should be reviewed and teachers' job description should give them more opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.	R
Nature of school administration's role	Nature of school administration's role: leave educational issues to teachers =ET	ET	School administration needs to leave decisions related to educational issues to teachers.	L
Nature of school administration's role	Nature of school administration's role: All Administrative issues= AI	AI	Teachers are only asked to give recommendations regarding the educational decisions imposed by the ESC. I think teachers have to participate in making decisions related to all academic issues and some administrative issues, however, school administration has to make decisions related to all administrative issues and give their recommendations only regarding academic issues. A	M

			school should help everybody work in harmony to achieve its vision.	
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Appendix D: Samples of Schoolteachers' Coding

Category	Codes		Raw Data	Teacher Number
Degree of teachers' participation	Significant role= SR	SR	The teacher should have a significant role in making decisions related to the workload and the disciplinary policies for students.	3
Degree of teachers' participation	Significant role= SR	SR	Teachers should collaborate with administrators in the decision-making process and have a significant role in making decisions related to all academic issues and these decisions should be implemented.	4
Nature of teachers' participation	Nature of teachers' participation: Teachers' issues = TI	TI	The teacher should be involved in making decisions related to the workload and the disciplinary policies for students.	3
Nature of teachers' participation	Nature of teachers' participation: All academic issues= AI	AI	Teachers should collaborate with administrators in the decision-making process and have a significant role in making decisions related to all academic issues and these decisions should be implemented.	4
Nature of school administration's role	Nature of school administration's role: Cooperate with teachers=CT	CT	Administrators and teachers should all cooperate in the decision-making process and teachers' decisions should be considered seriously.	1
Nature of school administration's role	Nature of school administration's role: Cooperate with teachers=CT	CT	There should be a kind of collaboration between school administration and teachers and teachers should be consulted before making any educational decision.	2

Nature of school administration's control	Nature of school administration's control: make decisions= MD	MD	The teacher's role is limited to the teaching duties and its related tasks. Decision-making in general is limited to the SEC and the school administration.	5
Nature of school administration's control	Nature of school administration's control: Impose decisions=ID	ID	Decision-making is solely in the hands of the school administration and the SEC who just impose decisions on teachers the way they like.	6
Nature of SEC control	Nature of SEC control: Impose decisions=ID	ID	Teachers are not involved in making decisions related to the students' issues or the curriculum content. They just apply the decisions imposed by the higher decision makers.	10
Nature of SEC control	Nature of SEC control: Impose decisions=ID	ID	Teachers are not involved in making decisions. They have to have a significant role in the decision-making process. All the decisions are imposed by the school administration and the SEC without any involvement of the teachers in this process.	11
Reasons for teachers' participation	Reasons for teachers' participation: Significant element = SE	SE	The teacher is the most important element in the education process. His participation in making decisions related to the curriculum content, resources, course assessment, helping students decide upon their specialization, and disciplinary policy is extremely important.	12
Reasons for teachers' participation	Reasons for teachers' participation: Achieve school's goals = AG	AG	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions in order to achieve the school's goals. School's bureaucracy and	15

			teachers' lack of job security can hinder their participation in the decision-making process.	
Reasons for teachers' non-participation	Reasons for teachers' non-participation: School's bureaucracy = SB	SB	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions in order to achieve the school's goals. School's bureaucracy and teachers' lack of job security can hinder their participation in the decision-making process.	15
Reasons for teachers' non-participation	Reasons for teachers' non-participation: lack of job security= LJS	LJS	Teachers should have a significant role in making educational decisions in order to achieve the school's goals. School's bureaucracy and teachers' lack of job security can hinder their participation in the decision-making process.	15

Appendix E: The Major Categories and Codes for School Administrators and Schoolteachers' Comments

Table 5: Major Categories and Coding for School Administrators and Schoolteachers' Comments		
Major Categories	School administrators' Codes	Schoolteachers' Codes
Degree of teachers' participation	Significant role: SR Increase participation: IP Significant involvement: SGI Activate their role: AR Given more opportunity: GO More involvement: MI	Significant role: SR Extremely important: EI No involvement: NI Given more opportunity: GO More involvement: MI Ignored role: IR More activated: MA
Nature of teachers' participation	Students' Issues: SI Select what to teach: WT Teachers' issues: TI Give recommendations: GR All academic issues: AI Depends on relationship: DR	Teachers' issues: TI Students' Issues: SI All academic issues: AI Teaching duties: TD Curriculum content: CC Resources: R Course Assessment: CA Textbooks: TB
Reasons for teachers' participation	Link students with admin: LA Discover students' skills: DS Make decisions related to students' professional and career development: PD Accomplish school's goals: AG Involved in the field: IF Linked to the educational process: LP Essential element: EE Important element: IE Strong relationship with students: SR Foundation of teaching process: FP	Significant element: SE Achieve school's goals: AG Develop the educational process: DEP Help implement decisions: HID Direct contact with students: DCS Implement SEC's decisions effectively: IDE Important partners in the educational process: IP
Nature of school administration's role	leave educational issues to teachers: ET All Administrative issues: AI Enhance healthy atmosphere: EA Encourage to make decisions: ED Arrange teachers' workshops: AW	Cooperate with teachers: CT Gain feedback: GF Arrange meetings: AM Follow job hierarchy: JH Consider teachers' evaluation report: CTE

	<p>Consider teachers' contributions: CC Gain feedback: GF Share feedback with SEC: SF Arrange regular meetings: AM Cooperate with teachers: CT</p>	<p>Prepare professional development sessions: PDS Form committees: FC Encourage teachers: ET Consider teachers' role: CTR Inform teachers with the SEC's new decisions: ITD Teachers' issues: TI Students' issues: SI Administrative issues: ADI</p>
Nature of SEC role	<p>Review decision-making hierarchy: RH Review work load: RL Review job description: RJ</p>	
Nature of SEC control	<p>Strict policy on teachers: SP Lenient disciplinary on students: LD Imposed decisions: ID Position of humiliation: PH</p>	<p>Make decisions: MD Impose decisions: ID</p>
Nature of school administration's control		<p>Make decisions: MD Impose decisions: ID</p>
Reasons for teachers' non-participation		<p>School's bureaucracy: SB Lack of job security: LJS Administrators feel offended: AFO Administrators feel not competent: ANC Teachers are neglected: TN Teaching load: TL The weakest element in the decision-making process: WE Recommendations are not seriously considered: RNC Teachers feel less privileged than the other teaches: LP</p>

Appendix F: The Interview Questions

1. Describe teachers' current involvement in making decisions related to your

school's:

- Educational goals and policies?
Can you give me an example of that?
- Curriculum and instruction?
Can you give me an example of that?
- Administrative policies for teachers?

Can you give me an example of that?
- Administrative policies for students?

Can you give me an example of that?

2. Do you think that teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school's:

- Educational goals and policies?
In what ways?
- Curriculum and instruction?
How could this happen?
- Administrative policies for teachers?
In what ways?
- Administrative policies for students?
How could this happen?

3. As you know, I carried out a survey about the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in schools. The next few questions are related to the findings from that survey. I would be interested in hearing your views on these findings. In your opinion, why do you think that:

- Administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' administrative policies for teachers than teachers themselves state?
- Male administrators suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' curriculum and instruction than female administrators state?
- Male teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies and schools' administrative policies for teachers than female teachers state?
- Non Qatari teachers suggest that teachers should be more involved in making decisions related to schools' educational goals and policies, schools' curriculum and instruction, and schools' administrative policies for teachers than Qatari teachers state?

4. Do you have any other comments?

Appendix G: Interview Cover Letter

Dear Participants,

The aim of this interview is to investigate the degree to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari Independent Schools. The interview will focus on the following issues:

1. Your perceptions about schoolteachers' current involvement in making decisions related to your school's:

- Educational goals and policies.
- Curriculum and instruction.
- Administrative policies for teachers.
- Administrative policies for students.

2. Your opinion about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to the four domains mentioned above.

3. Your comments on some of your responses for the open-ended questions and results from the survey questionnaire.

The interview will be scheduled according to the time convenient for you and it will be audio taped. So, if you have any objection or any other inquiries please don't hesitate to contact me.

Thank you very much

Reem Khalid

Mobile:

Email:

Appendix H: Samples of Coding and Categorization of the interviews

Coding of Interview One

A Female Vice-Principal

- Me: As you know I am conducting a study about the involvement of school teachers in educational decision- making in the State of Qatar and I would like to ask you some questions related to this issue.
- VP: ok.
- Me: What do you think of teachers' current involvement in making decisions related to your school's educational goals and policies?
- VP: Teachers in our school are involved in making some decisions related to the school's educational goals and policies.
- Me: Can you give me some examples of these decisions?
- VP: Hmm, they participate in forming the vision and mission statements of the school according to the general guidelines set by the SEC, but they are not involved in making decisions related to the school's budget.
- Me: And why is that?
- VP: Because these are set by the SEC.
- Me: So, do you think that teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school's educational goals and policies?
- VP: NO, they should not. They should have a limited involvement in making these decisions.
- Me: Why?
- VP: Teachers can only give their recommendations regarding the school's vision and mission statements and the school administration has the right to accept or refuse these recommendations because they are the ones to know the general educational goals set by the SEC.
- Me: What about teachers' current involvement in making decisions related to curriculum and instruction?
- VP: Hmm, in the past, teachers in each school used to choose the curriculum and textbooks to use in their classroom which they thought to be appropriate for their students' level. However, nowadays the SEC make these decisions and the

Comment [RIZI KA1]: Degree of teachers current involvement/ Some involvement (S)

Comment [RIZI KA2]: School's educational goals and policies

Comment [RIZI KA3]: Nature of teachers participation/ Form the vision & mission statements (VM)

Comment [RIZI KA4]: Nature of SEC control/ Set general guidelines (SGG)

Comment [RIZI KA5]: Examples of teachers participation/ School's budget (SB)

Comment [RIZI KA6]: Reasons for teachers participation/ Decisions set by the SEC (SSC)

Comment [RIZI KA7]: The extent to which school teachers should be involved: limited involvement (LI)

Comment [RIZI KA8]: Nature of teachers participation/ Give recommendations (GR)

Comment [RIZI KA9]: Nature of school administration control/ accept or refuse recommendations (ARR)

Comment [RIZI KA10]: Nature of SEC control/ Set Educational Goals (SEG)

curriculum and the textbooks are all unified in all Independent Schools for all students. Sometimes the SEC invites some teachers with teaching experience only to participate in determining the criteria for choosing the correct textbooks.

- Me: Ok, what about instruction?
- VP: Teachers have a good involvement in making decisions related to choosing the appropriate teaching methods and instruction in their classroom according to the general criteria set by the SEC and some teachers are given special workshops to help them choose these teaching methods in the classroom.
- Me: So, do you think that teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school's Curriculum and instruction?
- VP: Yes, teachers need to have more involvement in making decisions related to choosing the appropriate curriculum content and textbooks to teach in the classroom. However, they already have a good involvement in making decisions related to the teaching methods they use in their classrooms as I mentioned before.
- Me: In your opinion, how could teachers have more involvement in making decisions related to choosing the appropriate curriculum content and textbooks?
- VP: I think a committee must be formed which includes the subject coordinator and teachers to suggest different textbooks and the appropriate curriculum content, then, the school administration should forward this recommendation to the SEC who will meet with the committee members for further discussion and for making the last decision.
- Me: What about teachers' current involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers?
- VP: Hmm, teachers have a limited involvement in making these decisions.
- Me: What do you mean by limited involvement?
- VP: Some decisions, such as teachers' hiring, promotion, and workload are made by the school administration according to the general regulations and policies set by the SEC, but regarding teachers' evaluation, each teacher usually evaluates herself then, sits with the course coordinator to discuss this suggested evaluation and the final evaluation is decided by the course coordinator and the vice-principal for academic affairs.

Comment [RIKZ KA11]: Nature of SEC control/ Decide the curriculum and textbooks (DT)

Comment [RIKZ KA12]: Curriculum and instruction

Comment [RIKZ KA13]: Nature of teacher participation/ determine the criteria for choosing textbooks (DT)

Comment [RIKZ KA14]: Degree of teacher current involvement/ good involvement (G)

Comment [RIKZ KA15]: Nature of SEC control/ set general criteria (SG)

Comment [RIKZ KA16]: Nature of teacher participation/ choose the appropriate teaching methods and instruction (DI)

Comment [RIKZ KA17]: Nature of school administration role/ Arrange teacher workshops (RI)

Comment [RIKZ KA18]: curriculum and instruction

Comment [RIKZ KA19]: The extent to which school teachers should be involved: more involvement (MI)

Comment [RIKZ KA20]: Nature of school administration role/ Form a committee (FC)

Comment [RIKZ KA21]: Nature of school administration role/ Form a committee (FC)

Comment [RIKZ KA22]: curriculum and instruction

Comment [RIKZ KA23]: Degree of teacher current involvement/ Limited involvement (LI)

Comment [RIKZ KA24]: Administrative policies for teachers

Comment [RIKZ KA25]: Administrative policies for teachers

Comment [RIKZ KA26]: Nature of school administration control/ Make decisions related to teacher hiring/promotion/workload (MDT)

Comment [RIKZ KA27]: Nature of SEC control/ set general regulations (SG)

Comment [RIKZ KA28]: Nature of teacher participation/Evaluate themselves (SI)

Comment [RIKZ KA29]: Nature of school administration role/ Discuss suggested evaluation (DI)

Comment [RIKZ KA30]: Nature of school administration control/ decide teacher final evaluation (DT)

Comment [RIKZ KA31]: administrative policies for teachers

Appendix I: Samples of Grouping Codes and Categories for the Interviews

Degree of Teachers' Current Involvement

Good involvement (G)

"Teachers have a good involvement in making decisions related to choosing the appropriate teaching methods and instruction in their classroom according to the general criteria set by the SEC"

Limited involvement (L)

"Teachers have a limited involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for teachers"

Nature of teachers' participation

1. Give recommendations (GR)

"Teachers have a good involvement in making decisions related to choosing the appropriate teaching methods and instruction in their classroom according to the general criteria set by the SEC"

"Teachers make decisions related to the students to be honored according to their academic p

Nature of SEC control

1. Set general guidelines (SGG)

Decides the curriculum and textbooks (DCT)

"The SEC make these decisions and the curriculum and the textbooks are all unified in all Independent Schools for all students"

Set general criteria (SGC)

"The general criteria is set by the SEC"

Examples of teachers' non-participation

1. School's budget (SB)

"Teachers are not involved in making decisions related to the school's budget"

The extent to which school teachers should be involved

1. Limited involvement (LI)

“Teachers involvement in making decisions related to school’s administrative policies for teachers should be limited to giving recommendations only.”

More involvement (MI)

“Teachers should have more involvement in making decisions related to school’s educational goals and policies.”

Nature of school administration control

1. Accept or refuse recommendations (ARR)

Make decisions related to teachers’ hiring-promotion-workload (MDT)

“As teachers’ hiring, promotion, and workload are made by the school administration”

Make final decision (MFD)

“The final decision is for them”

2. Assign different duties and full load to teachers (ADFL)

“The educational process is all full of duties and load for teachers and every year there are changes as a result of some kinds of shortcomings in the current practices which require teachers to work hard to restructure these practices.”

Nature of school administration's role

1. Form a committee (FC)

Make decisions related to teachers’ evaluation (DTE)

“The final yearly evaluation for teachers is decided by the course coordinator and the vice-principal for academic affairs”.

Reasons for teachers’ participation

“Non-Qatari teachers would like to have more involvement in making educational decisions in their schools to prove themselves in their jobs”

Keep their contracts (KC)

“Keep their contracts for a longer time than Qatari teachers who do not have such concern regarding their job security.”

Reasons for teachers' non-participation

1. Decisions set by the SEC (SSEC)

“Decisions related to school’s educational goals and policies are set by the SEC”.

“Would teachers’ recommendations be considered? I think this is the reason why teachers do not bother themselves asking for their involvement in making these decisions”.

Grouping Codes and Categories for the Schoolteachers’ Interviews

Degree of teachers' current involvement

1. Limited involvement (LI)

“Teachers have limited involvement in making decisions related to school’s educational goals and policies”

“Teachers have limited involvement in making decisions related to administrative policies for students”.

Nature of teachers' participation

1. Give recommendations (GR)

Honor good students (HGS)

“They make decisions related to honoring good students or suggesting the type of support for students with low academic performance”

Nature of SEC control

1. Make educational decisions (MED)

“Administrators know that most educational decisions are imposed by the SEC”

Choose the curriculum (CC)

“The SEC chooses the curriculum without considering what is happening actually in the classroom and students’ abilities.”

The extent to which school teachers should be involved

1. More involvement (MI)

“Teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school’s educational goals and policies”

“Teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school’s curriculum”.

“Teachers should be more involved in making educational decisions related to school’s administrative policies for teachers”

Nature of school administration's role

“Teachers should be given the chance and should be well prepared through workshops to have administrative and leadership responsibilities”

1. Set school's educational goals (SEG)

“Teachers have no involvement in making decisions related to school’s educational goals and policies as these are set by the school administration and the SEC”

Nature of SEC's role

1. Decrease teachers' working hours (DWH):

Decrease class's duration (DCD):

“I think teachers’ working hours and the duration of each class should be decreased”

2. Gain teachers' feedback (GTF)

“In order to encourage teachers to participate in the decision-making process, the SEC needs to give teachers a chance to participate through regular formal meetings and committees”

Nature of school administration control

Give big workload (GBW)

“teachers are given big workload and do not have time for the administrative work”.

Reasons for teachers' participation

1. The most important element (IE)

“Teachers are the most important element in the educational process”

2. Know students' abilities (KSA)

“Teachers know their students different learning abilities”

Reasons for teachers' non-participation


1. Teachers are neglected (TN)

“Teachers are neglected in the decision-making process”.

Decisions are imposed by the SEC (SECID)

“Administrators know that most educational decisions are imposed by the SEC and teachers know this that’s why they do not bother themselves asking to be involved in making educational decisions”

Appendix J: SEC Ethical Approval

<div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> A brief research documentation </div>			
			
Research Sample	Research title	Research team members	Organization
School administrators and teachers in Independent Secondary schools (boys & girls).	An Exploratory Study of Schoolteachers' Involvement in Educational Decision-Making in the State of Qatar	Reem Khalid	Exeter University/ UK
Research Timeframe			
Estimated completion date		Starting date	
September 2015		April 2013	
<p>❖ Research abstract :-</p> <p>Decision-making has become an essential element in the administration of educational organizations in many countries as it exists in most of the activities done by administrators, such as planning, constructing, and mentoring. Many researchers believe that educational organizations which need to improve schools' administration and the decision-making process have to address all populations who are affected by the decisions made, change the roles of their staff, shift the source of power from the top of the educational hierarchy to the human elements at the lower level of the hierarchy, such as teachers, and implement new programs to meet their needs. Researchers also argue that teachers' participation can affect the school's efficiency, can lead to teachers and schools' autonomy, and enhance schools' positive climate. Furthermore, managers cannot manage schools alone. They have to seek support from their colleagues and provide opportunities for participatory decision-making in order to achieve the desired goals and objectives. As the Qatari schooling system in Qatar provides an excellent example of the Arabic country which has become a central point of international business and educational activities, it is important to study the opinions of school administrators and teachers about the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatari independent schools.</p>			

❖ **Research Objectives:-**

My study seeks to explore, determine, compare and contrast the opinions of selected school administrators and teachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. An exploratory study will be adopted in this research and quantitative and qualitative data will be collected in order to answer the following research questions.

❖ **Research Questions:-**

1. What are the opinions of school administrators and schoolteachers towards the extent to which school teachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools':
 - A. Educational goals and policies?
 - B. Curriculum and instruction?
 - C. Administrative policies for teachers?
 - D. Administrative policies for students?
2. Do significant differences exist between the opinions of the two groups named above?
3. Are there any practical implications drawn from the opinions of the respondents?

❖ **Research methodology and tools:-**

1. A questionnaire will be used to collect quantitative and qualitative data for analysis from school administrators (i.e. school principals, vice-principals and coordinators) and schoolteachers in a number of Secondary Independent Schools in Qatar. Participants will be given a consent form to read and the aim of the research study will be clearly explained to them. They will be made aware of their right to withdraw any time they want so they will not be under the obligation to continue in the study if they are no longer interested. Furthermore, the information I will receive from all participants will be treated as highly confidential. They will not be asked to write their names on the questionnaire. Their completion and return of the questionnaire will indicate that they have read and understood the information and the study procedures described in the form and their consent to participate in the study. All collected data will be kept in a file on the researcher's lap top and only the researcher will be able to log in to her lap top with her password and see the stored information. Participants will be also asked to keep a copy of the consent form. In case they decline to participate, this will be respected in the study. The data will be analyzed thoroughly using Predictive Analytics Software (PASW 20).

2. Participants who will complete the questionnaire will be asked to provide their contact information, at the end of the questionnaire, in case they are interested in being interviewed. The purpose of the interviews will be explained to the interviewees clearly and their permission for recording the interviews will be obtained. Assurance of confidentiality and

personal safety of interviewees will enable me establish a relationship of trust with the participants. The qualitative data will be analyzed using Computer packages "Computer Assisted Qualitative data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) NVIVO 7" or "by hand" based on the number of the school administrators and teachers who will accept to be interviewed. The interviews will be tape-recorded, transcribed, coded, categorized, analyzed, summarized and checked against the evidence resulted from the questionnaire. Honesty, integrity and confidentiality will be considered when analyzing the quantitative and qualitative data.



Facilitating the task of field-based research in schools

Dear Principal,

We would like to bring to your kind attention that the Researcher/s whose name and data are mentioned below is/are in the process of carrying a field-based research that necessitates access to your school.

- **Researcher/s name :** Reem Khalid

Research title: An Exploratory Study of Schoolteachers' Involvement

in Educational Decision- Making in the State of Qatar

- **Research objectives:** This study seeks to explore, determine, compare and contrast the opinions of selected school administrators and teachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar.
- **Research sample:** The participants of this study are male and female secondary school administrators and schoolteachers in independent high schools in Qatar.

You are kindly requested therefore, to facilitate his/their task. Please note that the data will be confidential and for scientific research purpose only.

Thank you for your cooperation


Dr. Abdulaziz Ali Al Saadi
Director of Policy Analysis and Research Office
Supreme Education Council



Commitment

I, the undersigned : Reem Khalid

Responsible for the current field research, pledge that I will provide the Policy Analysis and Research Office in the Supreme Education Council, with a printed and electronic copies of the research after its completion, and adhere to the approved implementation plan and to the confidentiality of information and data.

Name : Reem Khalid

Contact number: 0097444035442

E-mail address : r.khalid@qu.edu.qa

Organization: Exeter University/ UK

DATE : 23-4-2013

Signature : Reem Khalid

Appendix K: University of Exeter Ethical Approval

STUDENT HIGHER-LEVEL RESEARCH
DISSERTATION/THESIS



Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSERTATION/THESIS

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications> and view the School's Policy online.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). **DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND**

Your name: Reem Khalid Z K Abu-Shewish.

Your student no: 590064781

Return address for this certificate: Doha- Qatar / P.O. Box 414

Degree/Programme of Study: EdD in TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): Dr. Philip Durrant

Your email address: rka201@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: 00974-44873855
00974- 55532267

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my dissertation / thesis (delete whichever is inappropriate) to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed: Reem Khalid date: 24-4-2013

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must not be included in your work. It can be kept for your records.

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee
updated: April 2012

Certificate of ethical research approval DISSERTATION/THESIS

Your student no: 590064781

Title of your project: "Involvement of School Teachers in Educational Decision- Making in the State of Qatar"

Brief description of your research project:

My study seeks to explore, determine, compare and contrast the opinions of selected school administrators and teachers with respect to the extent to which schoolteachers should be involved in making educational decisions in Qatar. An exploratory study will be adopted in this research and quantitative and qualitative data will be collected in order to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the opinions of school administrators and schoolteachers towards the extent to which school teachers should be involved in making educational decisions related to schools:
 - A. Educational goals and policies?
 - B. Curriculum and instruction?
 - C. Administrative policies for teachers?
 - D. Administrative policies for students?
2. Do significant differences exist between the opinions of the two groups named above?
3. Are there any practical implications drawn from the opinions of the respondents?

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

The participants of this study are male and female secondary school administrators and schoolteachers in independent schools in Qatar.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

- a) **Informed consent**: Where children in schools are involved this includes both head teachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. a blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents:

An English translation of the Arabic consent form which will be used in the study is attached to this certificate.

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee
updated: April 2012

b) anonymity and confidentiality

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

1. A questionnaire will be used to collect quantitative and qualitative data for analysis from school administrators (i.e. school principals, vice-principals and coordinators) and schoolteachers in a number of Secondary Independent Schools in Qatar. Participants will be given a consent form to read and the aim of the research study will be clearly explained to them. They will be made aware of their right to withdraw any time they want so they will not be under the obligation to continue in the study if they are no longer interested. Furthermore, the information I will receive from all participants will be treated as highly confidential. They will not be asked to write their names on the questionnaire. Their completion and return of the questionnaire will indicate that they have read and understood the information and the study procedures described in the form and their consent to participate in the study. All collected data will be kept in a file on the researcher's lap top and only the researcher will be able to log in to her lap top with her password and see the stored information. Every reasonable effort will be made to ensure that no output will provide information which might allow any participant or school to be identified from names, data, contextual information, or a combination of these. Participants will be also asked to keep a copy of the consent form. In case they decline to participate, this will be respected in the study. The data will be analysed thoroughly using Predictive Analytics SoftWare (PASW 20).
2. Participants who will complete the questionnaire will be asked to provide their contact information, at the end of the questionnaire, in case they are interested in being interviewed. The purpose of the interviews will be explained to the interviewees clearly and their permission for recording the interviews will be obtained. Assurance of confidentiality and personal safety of interviewees will enable me establish a relationship of trust with the participants. The qualitative data will be analyzed using Computer packages "Computer Assisted Qualitative data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) NVIVO 7" or "by hand" based on the number of the school administrators and teachers who will accept to be interviewed. The interviews will be tape-recorded, transcribed, coded, categorized, analyzed, summarized and checked against the evidence resulted from the questionnaire. Honesty, integrity and confidentiality will be considered when analyzing the quantitative and qualitative data.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

To ensure confidentiality, participants' personal details will be kept separate and secure. Participants who will be interviewed will be assigned a code or a numerical key (participant 1, participant 2) and all codes, names and contacts will be kept on the University U-drive. Audio data will be downloaded from recording devices at the earliest possible opportunity, and then deleted immediately from those devices. All data will be kept on my laptop, on a password protected dropbox account and stored against these codes rather than against participants' names. It will be downloaded to my laptop in order to work on it, uploaded back to dropbox for storage and, crucially, deleted from my laptop at times when it is most vulnerable, e.g. in case of travelling with it.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

To affirm participants' protection from being exposed to any kind of harm, permission will be obtained from the Supreme Education Council before distributing the questionnaire and carrying on the interviews with the school administrators and schoolteachers. This I believe will help participants feel relaxed, safe and secured to express their real opinions regarding their current decision-making system in Qatar.


This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor

This project has been approved for the period: 30/4/13 until: 30/9/15

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature):  date: 30/4/13

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: D/12/13/23
Signed:  date: 3/5/13
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee

Appendix L: Frequencies and Percentages of Involving Schoolteachers in Making Educational Decisions Related to Schools' Educational Goals and Policies, Curriculum and Instruction, Administrative Policies for Teachers and Administrative Policies for Students.

	Position										
	Administrators (N=182)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Educational Goals and Policies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
School Vision and Mission	29	15.9	44	24.2	52	28.6	23	12.6	34	18.7	3.06
School goals and objectives	40	22.0	71	39.0	28	15.4	21	11.5	22	12.1	3.47
Providing school with new equipment and facilities	29	15.9	52	28.6	39	21.4	36	19.8	26	14.3	3.12
New instructional supplies and materials	37	20.3	66	36.3	36	19.8	27	14.8	16	8.8	3.45
Determining school's budget	10	5.5	18	9.9	36	19.8	39	21.4	79	43.4	2.13
Finding ways to improve school administrators and teachers' communication and cooperation	16	8.8	55	30.2	75	41.2	23	12.6	13	7.1	3.21
Organizing meeting for staff and faculty to discuss different matters	40	22.0	69	37.9	47	25.8	11	6.0	15	8.2	3.59
Providing the media with school news	19	10.4	29	15.9	47	25.8	44	24.2	43	23.6	2.65
Mean											3.09
Curriculum and Instruction	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Reforming the syllabus	46	25.3	74	40.7	16	8.8	25	13.7	21	11.5	3.54
Choosing what to include or not in the new syllabus	46	25.3	47	25.8	33	18.1	31	17.0	25	13.7	3.32
Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade	40	22.0	57	31.3	22	12.1	28	15.4	35	19.2	3.21
What to include or not in the course assessment	36	19.8	50	27.5	30	16.5	26	14.3	40	22.0	3.09
Preparing school calendars and final exam schedules	37	20.3	60	33.0	28	15.4	15	8.2	42	23.1	3.19
Determining the class size	18	9.9	30	16.5	29	15.9	36	19.8	69	37.9	2.41
Selecting the appropriate teaching methods	86	47.3	58	31.9	27	14.8	1	.5	10	5.5	4.15
What to include or not in tests and exams	61	33.5	54	29.7	32	17.6	17	9.3	18	9.9	3.68
Organizing educational trips for students	29	15.9	50	27.5	58	31.9	28	15.4	17	9.3	3.25

	Position										
	Administrators (N=182)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Planning procedures for dealing with students and low performance in schools	49	26.9	74	40.7	41	22.5	7	3.8	11	6.0	3.79
Mean											3.36
Administrative Policies for Schoolteachers	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school	21	11.5	38	20.9	28	15.4	34	18.7	61	33.5	2.58
Hiring teachers	35	19.2	53	29.1	42	23.1	22	12.1	30	16.5	3.23
Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects	20	11.0	51	28.0	47	25.8	29	15.9	35	19.2	2.96
Assigning teachers to teach specific classes	18	9.9	54	29.7	51	28.0	27	14.8	32	17.6	2.99
Determining teachers' teaching load	20	11.0	56	30.8	47	25.8	33	18.1	26	14.3	3.06
Designing teachers benefits	9	4.9	24	13.2	41	22.5	38	20.9	70	38.5	2.25
Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences	19	10.4	38	20.9	49	26.9	42	23.1	34	18.7	2.81
Handling teachers infraction of school rules	16	8.8	32	17.6	42	23.1	40	22.0	52	28.6	2.56
Assigning teachers to be coordinators	22	12.1	28	15.4	44	24.2	48	26.4	40	22.0	2.69
Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration	31	17.0	50	27.5	46	25.3	24	13.2	31	17.0	3.14
Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	23	12.6	50	27.5	52	28.6	25	13.7	32	17.6	3.04
Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	22	12.1	49	26.9	52	28.6	27	14.8	32	17.6	3.01
Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	29	15.9	56	30.8	32	17.6	35	19.2	30	16.5	3.10
Transferring teachers from a school to another.	21	11.5	27	14.8	32	17.6	29	15.9	73	40.1	2.42
Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	25	13.7	44	24.2	46	25.3	33	18.1	34	18.7	2.96
Reforming the school administration.	25	13.7	42	23.1	50	27.5	29	15.9	36	19.8	2.95
Mean											2.86
Administrative policies for students	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	

	Position										
	Administrators (N=182)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	54	29.7	56	30.8	39	21.4	20	11.0	13	7.1	3.65
Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school.	43	23.6	64	35.2	50	27.5	16	8.8	9	4.9	3.64
Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.	48	26.4	68	37.4	39	21.4	9	4.9	18	9.9	3.65
Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	33	18.1	58	31.9	50	27.5	26	14.3	15	8.2	3.37
Suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.	24	13.2	26	14.3	52	28.6	32	17.6	48	26.4	2.70
Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	42	23.1	55	30.2	33	18.1	11	6.0	41	22.5	3.25
Mean											3.38

	Position										
	Schoolteachers (N=450)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Educational Goals and Policies	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
School Vision and Mission	26	5.8	104	23.1	174	38.7	42	9.3	104	23.1	2.79
School goals and objectives	51	11.3	141	31.3	136	30.2	42	9.3	80	17.8	3.09
Providing school with new equipment and facilities	31	6.9	99	22.0	141	31.3	69	15.3	110	24.4	2.72
New instructional supplies and materials	53	11.8	123	27.3	124	27.6	64	14.2	86	19.1	2.98
Determining school's budget	15	3.3	37	8.2	83	18.4	57	12.7	258	57.3	1.88
Finding ways to improve school administrators and teachers' communication and cooperation	35	7.8	123	27.3	167	37.1	80	17.8	45	10.0	3.05
Organizing meeting for staff and faculty to discuss different matters	43	9.6	126	28.0	144	32.0	61	13.6	76	16.9	3.00
Providing the media with school news	18	4.0	87	19.3	119	26.4	86	19.1	140	31.1	2.46
Mean											2.75

	Position										
	Schoolteachers (N=450)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Curriculum and Instruction	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Reforming the syllabus	85	18.9	147	32.7	109	24.2	46	10.2	63	14.0	3.32
Choosing what to include or not in the new syllabus	76	16.9	138	30.7	82	18.2	67	14.9	87	19.3	3.11
Selecting a certain textbook for a certain grade	82	18.2	129	28.7	68	15.1	68	15.1	103	22.9	3.04
What to include or not in the course assessment	69	15.3	123	27.3	111	24.7	58	12.9	89	19.8	3.06
Preparing school calendars and final exam schedules	67	14.9	121	26.9	101	22.4	64	14.2	97	21.6	2.99
Determining the class size	45	10.0	100	22.2	82	18.2	61	13.6	162	36.0	2.57
Selecting the appropriate teaching methods	184	40.9	162	36.0	71	15.8	18	4.0	15	3.3	4.07
What to include or not in tests and exams	137	30.4	152	33.8	95	21.1	42	9.3	24	5.3	3.75
Organizing educational trips for students	52	11.6	135	30.0	175	38.9	58	12.9	30	6.7	3.27
Planning procedures for dealing with students and low performance in schools	69	15.3	207	46.0	126	28.0	32	7.1	16	3.6	3.62
Mean											3.28
Administrative Policies for Schoolteachers	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Promoting specific teachers to administrative level at school	33	7.3	70	15.6	103	22.9	52	11.6	192	42.7	2.33
Hiring teachers	22	4.9	74	16.4	99	22.0	75	16.7	180	40.0	2.30
Assigning teachers to teach specific subjects	30	6.7	79	17.6	96	21.3	51	11.3	194	43.1	2.33
Assigning teachers to teach specific classes	25	5.6	79	17.6	125	27.8	58	12.9	163	36.2	2.43
Determining teachers' teaching load	41	9.1	104	23.1	119	26.4	62	13.8	124	27.6	2.72
Designing teachers benefits	28	6.2	70	15.6	93	20.7	45	10.0	214	47.6	2.23
Assigning teachers to attend local and international conferences	25	5.6	82	18.2	139	30.9	77	17.1	127	28.2	2.56
Handling teachers infraction of school rules	27	6.0	65	14.4	108	24.0	79	17.6	171	38.0	2.33
Assigning teachers to be coordinators	29	6.4	94	20.9	100	22.2	83	18.4	144	32.0	2.51
Involving teachers in evaluating the school administration	33	7.3	107	23.8	131	29.1	68	15.1	111	24.7	2.74
Participating in solving conflicts between teachers and school administrators.	24	5.3	99	22.0	146	32.4	84	18.7	97	21.6	2.71

	Position										
	Schoolteachers (N=450)										
	Totally		Considerably		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all		Mean/5
Determining what to include or not include in the teachers' evaluation process.	38	8.4	93	20.7	119	26.4	67	14.9	133	29.6	2.64
Assigning teachers to attend professional development programs after school.	46	10.2	101	22.4	132	29.3	64	14.2	107	23.8	2.81
Transferring teachers from a school to another.	39	8.7	63	14.0	91	20.2	69	15.3	188	41.8	2.32
Assigning some teachers to do after school extracurricular activities.	52	11.6	89	19.8	121	26.9	76	16.9	112	24.9	2.76
Reforming the school administration.	29	6.4	89	19.8	115	25.6	69	15.3	148	32.9	2.52
Mean											2.52
Administrative Policies for Students	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Rewarding specific students for their achievement in school.	95	21.1	170	37.8	99	22.0	56	12.4	30	6.7	3.54
Contacting parents regarding their child's low performance or disruptive behaviour in school.	85	18.9	154	34.2	156	34.7	38	8.4	17	3.8	3.56
Determining what to include or not include in the students' assessment process including homework and projects.	113	25.1	165	36.7	110	24.4	35	7.8	27	6.0	3.67
Participating in solving students' problems in the school.	68	15.1	146	32.4	175	38.9	44	9.8	17	3.8	3.45
Suspending a student because of his disruptive behaviour or ignorance of school's rules.	48	10.7	116	25.8	117	26.0	76	16.9	93	20.7	2.89
Assisting students with low performance in certain subjects by modifying their total degrees to help them succeed these subjects.	86	19.1	135	30.0	121	26.9	40	8.9	68	15.1	3.29
Mean											3.4