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Challenges for women academic leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education in Saudi Arabia

Shroog Alsubaihi

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

CHALLENGES FOR WOMEN ACADEMIC LEADERS TO OBTAIN SENIOR

LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

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Shroog Alsubaihi

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Shroog Alsubaihi

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Doctoral Committee:

Ronald Stephens, Ed.D., Chairperson

Kent Rhodes, Ed.D.

Shreyas Gandhi, Ed.D.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate the work of this dissertation to my parents Ibrahim and Latifah for their unfailing support. Also, I dedicate this work to my husband Dr. Abdulrahman Alsubiheen, for his encouragement to facilitate my success by supporting me to continue until the goal of completing this degree of higher education. This dissertation is also dedicated to my lovely children, Danah and Naif, who are lighting my life.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was identify the most common challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves, and organizational challenges. A quantitative approach was used to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem and gather the data in this study. An online survey instrument used to capture 78 responses from faculty members who are working in the three universities in Riyadh region of Saudi Arabia. The universities are Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, King Saud University, and Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. The findings of this study indicated that cultural and organizational challenges identified as the most important challenges facing academic women leaders. Then, challenges related to lack of empowerment identified as the second challenges, while personal challenges ranked last challenges. The study also discusses additional findings. Moreover, this study provides some recommendations for practices and further research to empower Saudi women to participate in decision-making positions in higher education.

Chapter 1: Background and Introduction

The History of Women's Education in Saudi Arabia

In the beginning of nineteenth century, Saudi Arabia had no formal education system for both boys and girls. There was an informal and traditional education system called Katateeb. Katateeb: a place where boys and girls go to learn the fundamentals of writing, reading, and mathematics. These Katateeb were either in the mosque for the boy or at home for the girls. Woman or a group of women assigned a room inside their houses for teaching the fundamentals of writing, reading, and mathematics. However, due to the limited capacity and resources of these Katateeb to educate all of the girls in the country, some parents desired to upgrade these Katateeb to become private institutions. In 1940, the first private institution was founded in Makkah (Al-Nuaim, 1999; Mengash, 2001). This institution was founded some 18 years prior to the establishment of the General Presidency of Girls' Education (GPGE), the government department focused on girls' education at all three levels of education. Between 1942 and 1950, several private institutions were founded around the Kingdom in Madinah, Taif, Jeddah, and Riyadh (Bubshait, 2008).

These Katateeb and private institutions remained in place until the end of the beginning of the 1960, when formal girls' education was established in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Education historians believe that these early private institutions and Katateeb significantly contributed in providing educational opportunities for Saudi women and prepared them with essential skills and experiences that matched women's character and role in society (Bubshait, 2008).

Formal girls' education began in 1960 when King Faisal established GPGE. The Presidency in 2002 combined with the Ministry of Education, which was founded in 1954 (Rugh,

2002). The Ministry of Education is a government education system that is responsible for boys' education at all three levels of education. The GPGE has established several public schools over the various educational levels. In 1960, there were just 15 elementary schools, with a total of 127 classes and 518 students. In 1963, the intermediate and secondary levels for girls were implemented, with four schools for the intermediate level and one school for the secondary level (Bubshait, 2008; Mengash, 2001).

The last statistics of Ministry of Education in 2009 showed that there were more schools for girls than boy. There were approximately 17,000 schools for girls and 15,000 schools for boys. Girls made up 49% of the enrolled students in grades K-12 (Saudi Arabia Cultural Mission [SACM], 2009).

Saudi Arabia's first university, King Saud University, was established in 1957 in Riyadh. In 1967, king Abdul-Aziz University was established in Jeddah. After 1 year of operation, female students were allowed to enroll (AlMunajjed, 1997). In the mid-1960s there were fewer than 100 Saudi female university students, but by 1997 there were 140,000 female students in Saudi universities. Nowadays they represent slightly over 50% of the university population in the country. Education is the most popular field of study for women (Rugh, 2002). Today, the educational system in Saudi Arabia contains 32 public and 28 private universities for women, including a large number of primary and secondary schools. Available to every citizen, the system offers students free education, books, and health services (Hanley, 2014).

The government in Saudi Arabia has started instituting a number of initiatives for increasing access to higher education for women, including the establishment of the University of Princess Noura bent Abdulrahman for Women (PNU) in 2010 in Riyadh, which was designed to become the largest center in the world of higher education for women (Arabia, 2011;

Anderson, 2013; Nayar, 2014; SACM, 2009). With the establishment of this university came the appointment of the first woman university president, Princess Aljoharah Bint Fahad Alsoud. The university includes 32 academic colleges with capacity of 60,000 students. The colleges include many majors such as Science, Computer Sciences, Business Administration, Nursing, Pharmacy, Education, and Arts (Arabia, 2011; Anderson, 2013; Nayar, 2014).

According to the Ministry of Higher Education (2010), in 2010, Saudi Women represent over 62% of the total amount of Saudi university students and more than 50% of the beneficiaries of the scholarship program abroad. The percentage of students is expected to increase in the coming years with the establishment of a number of new universities in major cities in the Kingdom (Mazi & Abouammoh, 2009; Ministry of Higher Education, 2013; SACM, 2009).

King Abdullah Al Saud spares no effort for sustainable development of human resources. In 2005, he released an initiative to create the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP), which aims to send students to the best universities in several countries all over the world, including the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Arab regions, Europe, and East Asia. This program generally seeks to prepare both men and women to become global competitors in the areas of scientific research and the labor market. The KASP also intends to become a significant and vital tributary to support the Saudi universities in addition to the public and private sector (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013).

Saudi women students represent 54.7% of the total percentage of Saudi students studying abroad; 29.5% are in Bachelor degree programs, 44.7% are in Master degree programs, 8.0% are in doctoral programs, and 2.0% are in fellowship. The year 2012 witnessed a 30.3% growth in

the percentage of Saudi women studying abroad compared to 2011 in every degree level (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013).

Education and knowledge are the basis of the renaissance of nations; because of this, the government of Saudi Arabia has granted particular focus on these areas. In order to achieve development in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Higher Education spares no effort in encouraging women's attempts to complete their higher education and become employed. To this end, the Ministry of Higher Education plays an active role that may contribute to the country's social, economic, and cultural development (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

As a result of enrollment of Saudi women in all degrees of education as well as in different areas of employment, especially in the education field, the past 10 years have witnessed a growing contribution of Saudi women in the decision-making process in different sectors; higher education is one of them (Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

Since King Abdullah Al Saud took the throne in Saudi Arabia in 2005, dramatic reforms and changes have improved the lives of Saudi citizens, particularly for Saudi women. In 2009, King Abdullah began a number of reforms that gave Saudi women more rights, beginning by appointing Nora Al-Fayez as the first woman vice education minister for girls' education (AlMunajjed, 2009). With the establishment of Princess Noura University in 2010, the first woman university president was appointed, Princess Aljoharah Bint Fahad Alsoud. Abdulelah Saaty, dean of the College of Business in Rabigh, expressed his feeling about the king's decision to hire Nora Al-Fayez as the first woman vice education minister for girls' education, saying "We have a large number of educated and capable women with high leadership qualities and

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they deserve such positions to play a major role in the country's development process" (Abdul Ghafour, 2014, para. 3).

King Abdullah announced in 2011 that Saudi women have the right to participate in the Shura Council by appointing 30 women sharing with 120 men members. This news had a positive impact on Saudi Society. Thuraya al-Aridh, a council member, expressed her feelings by saying, "The Saudi woman is capable of being an integral part of the movement towards comprehensive development in Saudi Arabia" (Abdullah in Dammam, 2013, para. 6). Hanan Al-Ahmadi (2011), another council member, expressed her opinion on women's participation in the Shura Council by saying,

> Society is built on the basis of the opinions of both, with each enriching the other's point of view…. The new female representation in the Shura Council will serve as a starting point for other decrees in support of the role of Saudi women in the development of their society. (paras. 16-17)

Although Saudi women are beginning to receive professional advancement and leadership opportunities, there is more work to be done in granting them opportunities equal to those that men enjoy (AlMunajjed, 2010; Moghadam, 2004). Many qualified professional women in Saudi Arabia encounter challenges to reach leadership positions in different sectors, and education is one of them (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008; Reed & Buddeberg-Fischer, 2001; Ryan & Haslam, 2007). The main leadership posts within the Ministry of Education and Ministry of higher Education are occupied by men, such as the Minister of Education, the Vice Minister, and the Deputy Minister (Pounder & Coleman, 2002).

Despite the large number of Saudi women attending and graduating from higher education, in 2011, the participation rate of women in the Saudi workforce was only 15%,

compared to 85% composed of men. Of the 15% of total jobs held by Saudi women, 76.6% were in the educational sector (Saeed, 2014). Teaching and administrative positions are the main held by women in Saudi Arabia. Just 6.1% were in leadership positions in comparison to 44.4% of Saudi male directors and leaders within the educational sector, such as the Minister of Education, the Vice Minister, and the Deputy Minister (Ministry of Economy and Planning, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2010). These statistics show the discrepancy between the number of qualified women and their access to leadership positions, which in turn reflects the status of professional women in Saudi Arabia.

According to Hanan Al-Ahmadi (2011), despite significant expansion in the role of women in Saudi society, data show that women in leadership positions face a different reality because of cultural, structural, and personal obstacles that affect their participation in decision-making. These challenges hindering women from obtaining leadership positions have been identified in other Persian Gulf countries as well. The primary challenges for women in these countries include a lack of professional network, balancing family and professional responsibilities, male dominated sectors, male resistance to women in leadership roles, traditional attitudes of men toward working women, lack of policies and regulations to ensure involvement of women in leadership position, lack of female role models, and lack of empowerment.

Statement of the Purpose

This study seeks to identify the most common challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves, and organizational challenges. The findings will contribute to the

formulation of better strategies for academic Saudi women's empowerment to participate in decision-making positions.

Research Questions

The research questions to be investigated during this study include:

1. What are the organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

2. What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

3. What are the personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

4. What are the empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

5. Are there significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and work experience)?

Significance of the Study

In higher education in the United States, the typical college president is a 60-year-old white male that moved up the ladder from one position to the other until he reached the presidency (American Council on Education, 2012). The proportion of women who have served as presidents of American colleges and universities has increased from 23% in 2006 to 26% 2011 (American Council on Education, 2012). In addition, studies of other countries reflect similar small numbers of female leaders, such as in the United Kingdom and Australia, where 9% of college presidents were female and 27% of vice-chancellors were female, respectively

(Kloot, 2004; Still, 2006). Although no statistics regarding the number of Saudi women leaders in higher education are available, one can imagine how few there are if only 6.1% of all administrators in the country are female (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). Overall, very little scholarly attention has been paid to the role of Saudi women in leadership and decision-making positions within universities.

The importance of this study arises from the significance of the role of women's academic leaderships in driving the advancement and development of education in Saudi Arabia. Few studies have discussed and addressed the challenges preventing Saudi women from holding leadership positions in the higher education. The findings of this study increase the limited literature available about Saudi women and their access to, and experiences in, higher-education leadership positions. It allowed these Saudi women to shed light on their own experiences to leadership positions. In addition, this is a new direction in the study of Saudi women, representing a transition from previous studies dealing with Saudi women isolated from the social environment to the social issues that support their participation in community building. Recommendations that will be made at the end of the study will have a role in helping women overcome the challenges that prevent them from accessing to leadership positions in higher education. The recommendations also will help decision makers to identify the needs of Saudi women, enabling them to be qualified for leadership positions. It is hoped that this study's findings will direct decision makers' attention to the delay in the empowerment of Saudi women, compared with their efficiency and their level of education.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the study was sample size. Because of the limited period of time of the study, only existing woman administrators from university located in Riyadh City took

part in the study. Since the study conducted with a small sample, the findings of the study cannot be generalized to the whole female population in other universities in Riyadh and other regions in Saudi Arabia.

Another important limitation to this study is that the history of women's education and employment in Saudi Arabia is difficult to research and find. Finding relevant statistics, information, and feedback from a proper source to clarify it can be difficult.

Another important limitation of the study is that, because the participants in the study speak Arabic language, there is a need to translate the survey questionnaire from English into Arabic. Because of differences in languages, some meanings might be lost in translation.

Assumptions of the Study

The researcher has made several assumptions in designing this study:

1. It was assumed that the participants in this research have some structural, cultural, and personal challenges to advancement to leadership positions in education.

2. It was assumed that the participants in the research study would respond to the survey questions in an open and honest manner, and that they would provide truthful information regarding the challenges they had faced in attempting to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education.

3. It was assumed that the learned discoveries reflected the participants' experiences situated in time, and that any replication of the study would likely produce very different results.

Key Terms and Definitions

Leader: A visionary who has the ability to communicate his/her vision to followers clearly and translate it into a set of tangible actions (Safi, 2009).

Leadership Style: "Leadership behavior with two clearly independent dimensions: the task dimension that includes goal setting, organization, direction, and control; and the relationship dimension involving support, communication, interaction, and active listening" (Trinidad & Normore, 2005, p. 576).

Leadership: Ability to inspire others to follow the vision and to ensure their steady cooperation in order to achieve this vision. Leadership is often seen as a position of power and authority endowed by organizations and governments for certain people (Safi, 2009).

Challenges: refers to the obstacles that may prevent female educational administrators from entering into upper levels of leadership and management (Strohs, 2008).

Structural challenges: all factors relating to the organizational administrative that may be the cause of preventing academic leaders in achieving organizational goals (Al-Minqash, 2007; Abu Khdair, 2012).

Cultural challenges: a set of cultural perceptions, beliefs, and opinions in the society and workplace relating to the consideration of women as a leader which can adversely reflect on their ability and effectiveness to exercise a positive leadership role (Abu-Khdair, 2012; Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

Lack of empowerment challenges: all related factors that limit leaders' ability to influence others, make sound decisions, and bring about the desired change to the success of the organization (Abu-Khdair, 2012; Al-Kubaisi, 2004).

Personal challenges: personal characteristics and social circumstances of women leaders, which have negative effects exercise their leadership role effectively (Abu-Khdair, 2012; Al-Shihabi, 2008).

Likert Scale: "A scale of measurement usually used with attributes which can be ordered, and which permits numerical values to be assigned to the specific attribute categories" (McCall, 2002, p. 135).

Mentor: A person with more experience who actively helps and guides someone less experienced (mentee) by offering advice in order to increase their potential, enhance their efficiency, develop their skills, and become the individual they would like to be. The mentors often come from a formal mentoring program (Gilmour & Kinsella, 2009).

Reliability: The extent to which the answer to a question provides reliable results for different participants or at different times when the value of the construct is the same (Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008).

Role model: a worthy individual whose behavior and success revered by others and can be emulated by others; an excellent example for another in a role that they want (Gupton & Slick, 1995).

Survey Monkey: "An online survey tool…researchers can create their own surveys quickly…and post them on Web sites or e-mail them for participants to complete" (Creswell, 2009, p. 149).

Validity: To what extent the response to a question correlates with correct value for the construct that is being measured (Leeuw et al., 2008).

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 included the background of the study, problem statement, statement of purpose, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, definition of terms, and summary. Chapter 2 will review literature related to the study topic, addressing the definition of leadership, as well as leadership theories

such as Trait Approach, Situational Leadership, Transformational Leadership, and Transactional Leadership. In addition, it will review gender differences and challenges facing women leaders such as gender stereotypes, gender differences in communication styles, gender differences in leadership style, the glass ceiling, lack of networking, lack of mentors or role models, work and family conflict, and access to resources. Chapter 3 describes the methods and procedures utilized to implement the study including research design, data collection procedures, data collection instrument, sample and population of the study, data analysis, and human considerations. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data collection and analysis. Chapter 5 discusses findings, conclusions and implications, recommendations for future research, and recommendations for policymakers and practitioners.

Summary

This chapter provided introductory information about the existing issue of women's underrepresentation in accessing leadership positions in higher education in Saudi Arabia. This study seeks to identify the most common challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves, and organizational challenges. The findings will contribute to the formulation of better strategies for academic Saudi women's empowerment to participate in decision-making positions. Through conducting a quantitative study, Saudi woman leaders will share their challenges they face when they access to leadership positions in higher education. Moreover, this chapter stated the research questions and the significance of the study. It included some definitions of important terms to this study. Finally, this chapter concluded with the assumptions and limitations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Women make up half the world's population, but their representation in the labor market varies from one country to another, depending on cultural, social, and economic factors (Saeed, 2014). In 2010, women's participation in the labor force in the United States was 47.3% (U.S. Department of Labor, 2010). In 2011, women composed 46% of the workforce in Germany and 47% in Canada. In the Arab countries, women make up the lowest percentage of the labor force in the world. In 2011, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, women represent only 15% of the labor force and 12% in Qatar, making Qatar the country with the smallest women's labor force in the world (Saeed, 2014).

Access to leadership and decision-making positions, especially in higher education, is one of the most important challenges facing women in most countries, where statistics show a gap between the genders in the distribution of leadership positions. Women are far removed from the decision making process, especially in developing countries and the Arab countries in particular (Al-Ahmadi, 2011; AlMunajjed, 2010; Buckalew, Konstantinopoulos, Russell, & El-Sherbini, 2012; Saeed, 2014).

Statistics indicate that the representation of women in positions of university presidents in the United States reached 26% in 2011 (American Council on Education, 2012). Moreover, studies of other countries such as Australia and the United Kingdom revealed similar small numbers of female leaders, where female represented 9% of the university presidents and 27% of vice-chancellors (AlDoubi, 2014; Kloot, 2004). In Saudi Arabia, the scenario is not much better than other countries; just 6.1% of university administration positions, including leadership positions, are occupied by women (Ministry of Economy and Planning, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2010).

The review of literature includes four sections. The first section highlights the definitions of leadership. The second section reviews various leadership theories, including the trait approach, situational leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. The third section addresses gender difference between men and women in influence tactics, communication style, and leadership style. The fourth section highlights key obstacles preventing women from accessing leadership positions, including the glass ceiling, lack of professional network, lack of professional mentors and role models, gender stereotypes, family and work conflict, and male dominated environment.

Definition of Leadership

The overwhelming amount of information on leadership increases the difficulty of attempting to establish just one definition of leadership (Murray, 1995). There are as many meanings of leadership as there are perspectives on the nature of leadership itself (McWhinney, 1997). Scholars define leadership differently based upon the audience or the unit of research. For instance, leadership qualities pertaining to areas within academia might be very different than those observed and appreciated in the business world. Such differences often occur inside the framework with which they are used.

Trying to define leadership becomes a process in and of itself, as well as the definitions are as diverse as the leaders. There are many alternate views of leadership used by scholars, philosophers, and popular business leaders. Warren Bennis (1989), a modern-day expert who has contributed greatly to management and leadership theories, stated that "leaders have a clear idea of what they want to do, personally and professionally, and the strength to persist in the face of setbacks, even failures" (p. 7). According to Bush (2003), there is no widely agreed-upon

definition of leadership. He suggested, instead, that three dimensions shape the basis of the definition: vision, values, and leadership as influence.

Definitions for leadership include Northouse's (2010); "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). He delineated four fundamental elements to conceptualize leadership: leadership is a process, leadership involves influence, leadership occurs in a group framework, and leadership involves goal achievement. Kotter (1996) defined leadership thusly; "Leadership is a set of processes that creates organizations in the first place or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances" (p. 25). Yukl (2002) defined leadership as a process of influencing people to understand and agree about what must be achieved and how it may be done effectively. Burke (2008) distinguished between power and leadership in this way; "Power is the capacity to influence others; leadership is the exercise of that capacity" (p. 228). He stated that leadership means to make something happen that might not have occurred otherwise. With this wide spectrum of definitions, three categories of leadership have appeared within the literatures that gather the varying definitions: leadership is a mix of attributes and characteristics, leadership is a process, and leadership is definitely behavior (Bass, 1990).

In summary, leadership has gained the attention of past and current researchers world-wide. They have used various methods to study, identify, and conceptualize leadership to obtain a comprehensive understanding of this complex phenomenon. Hence, leadership has garnered several definitions developed by numerous researchers, scholars, and experts. The common emphasis in the literature is the fact that leadership is a relationship between individuals. The following section will provide an overview of selected leadership theories.

Leadership Theories

This section discusses various theories of leadership and a framework of the characteristics and nature of leadership. It helps to understand and determine how effectively a leader can influence followers and achieve team objectives (Yukl, 2002).

Trait approach. Leadership trait theory is among the earliest systematic efforts to investigate leadership. It is associated with the Great Man theories, which proposed that particular individuals were born with specific attributes that made them good leaders. Around the turn of the 20th century, scholars were challenged to find certain attributes that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Jogulu & Wood, 2006; Northouse, 2010). Finally, scholars advocated for global leadership traits. It had been stated that no one set of attributes is appropriate in most situations. This resulted in a re-conceptualization of leadership as a relationship between individuals in social situations (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

During the 1930s-1940s many studies were done to seek out these traits, but this massive effort failed due to the negligence of variables that intervene in the chain of causation that may reveal how traits can impact results, such as leader advancement or team performance. The prevailing method of research was focused on significant relationships between leaders' attributes, a criterion of leader achievement, without study and explanatory processes (Yukl, 2002).

Stogdill (1948, 1974) presented a thorough overview of trait approach through two surveys. In his first survey (Stogdill, 1948), he synthesized and analyzed 124 traits. As a result of this study, he identified the following traits: alertness, initiative, intelligence, self-confidence, responsibility, persistence, insight, and sociability. In this study, Stogdill also identified that an individual does not become a leader based solely on the possession of these traits. In addition, he

asserted that leadership depended on situational factors (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

In his second survey, he examined 163 traits. This survey suggested that both situational factors and personality were equivalent determinants of leadership. Like the first survey, Stogdill's (1974) second survey determined traits that are related to leadership in a positive way. They were:

1. Taking responsibility and task completion.

2. Constant pursuit of goals.

3. Risk taking and originality in solving problems.

4. The initiative in social situations.

5. A sense of personal identity and self-confidence.

6. Readiness to accept consequences of action and decision.

7. Willingness to accommodate the tension between people.

8. Willingness to accept disappointment and delay.

9. The ability to influence the behavior of others.

10. The ability to restructure the systems of social interaction for the purpose at hand (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Mann (1959) performed an identical study that analyzed over 1,400 traits, but focus less on how situational factors affect leadership. His results identified leaders as possessing strength in the following six traits: conservatism, extroversion, dominance, adjustment, masculinity, and intelligence. Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986) reassessed Mann's via a meta-analysis and identified three important traits that people use to differentiate leaders from non-leaders: dominance, masculinity, and intelligence. In 1991, Kirkpatrick and Locke suggested that leaders

vary from non-leaders in terms of six traits: knowledge, task ability, cognitive, confidence, integrity, motivation, and drive. They argued that individuals are born with these traits, can learn them, or both. In 2004, Zaccaro, Bader, and Kemp found that leaders and non-leaders vary in their intellectual capacity, specifically arguing that leaders have higher levels of intelligence than non-leaders (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability were the most frequent traits mentioned in scholars' studies. According to Northouse (2010), intelligence is linked positively to leadership. Scholars such as Zaccaro et al. (2004) indicated that a leader's intelligence level is higher than that of non-leaders, and they have strong verbal ability, perceptual ability, and reasoning skills. The scholars also indicated that a leader's ability should not differ much from his/her followers' ability, because that could be counterproductive. Leaders with higher ability may find it difficult to communicate with their followers because their ideas may be too advanced for their followers' thinking to be accepted and understood.

Self-confidence is another trait that helps an individual to be a leader (Yukl, 2002). Rowe and Guerrero (2011) identified self-confidence as the leader's positive point of view on his/her capability to make judgments, make decisions, and create ideas. It also includes self-assurance, self-esteem, and the belief that one can make a difference that is significant for a leader's ability to influence others. Along with being self-confident, it is essential for the leader to be able to express that confidence to his/her followers. Being calm and cool in crisis situations is one example of exhibiting self-confidence (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Determination is one of the most important traits that many leaders exhibit. Many characteristics go along with determination: task orientation, tenacity, initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive. Leaders with determination have a desire to get the job done and

persevere against obstacles. Determined leaders will show dominance, especially at times and in situations that need to be directed (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Integrity is another positive leadership traits; it represents trustworthiness and honesty. Leaders with integrity take responsibility for their actions and possess a strong set of principles. Leaders who are honest and consistent in their behaviors tend to be more likely to inspire dedication, loyalty, trust, and commitment in their teams. Sociability is one final trait that is important for effective leaders. Leaders who are sociable are inclined to seek out enjoyable social relationships. Social leaders are diplomatic, friendly, courteous, and tactful, and have an outgoing personality. They show concern for others' needs and their well-being (Northouse, 2010). The five major traits discussed previously contribute substantially to effective leadership (Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Situational leadership. The situational approach is one of many popular approaches to leadership, which is focused on leadership in varying conditions. It was developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969. The assumption of the theory is that there is no single best method of leadership; rather, different conditions require different type of leadership. From this perspective, an effective leader is the one who adapts his/her leadership style to the needs of various conditions.

This kind of leadership emphasizes that leadership consists of a supportive and a directive dimension and both of them must be employed appropriately in a given situation. To identify what is required in a specific situation, a leader should assess his/her followers and evaluate how committed and capable they are to do a given task. This theory also assumes that individuals' abilities and motivation to take responsibility for tasks differ over time as well as

their skills and experience. Situational leadership posits that the leader has to adjust the degree to which he/she is supportive or directive to satisfy followers' changing needs.

In 1985, Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi developed a new model named the situational leadership II model. This model is a refinement and extension of the original situational approach developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969. SLII is based on two factors: leadership style and the level of maturity of the followers display in a particular task or goal that the leader is trying to achieve.

This leadership style reflects the behavior pattern of the individual who tries to influence others. It contains both supportive (relationship) behaviors and directive (task) behaviors. Supportive behaviors include two way responses and communication that demonstrates socio-emotional support to others. It helps followers feel comfortable about themselves, their colleagues, and the situation. Examples of this kind of behavior include listening, praising, asking for input, solving problem, and sharing information. In contrast, directive behaviors are usually one way communication from leaders to followers regarding what must be done, and how it should be done, and who is in a charge of doing it. Directive behaviors help followers achieve objectives by giving guidelines, creating methods and goals of evaluation, establishing time lines, determining roles, and showing how objectives should be accomplished.

The situational leadership model utilizes supportive and directive behaviors to identify four distinct styles. In the first style, directing, the leader takes a high directive and low supportive approach. This style is suitable when followers have low ability and low willingness for a given task. Once the followers cannot get the task done, then the leader should take a directive position. In this style, the communication is one way; the leader determines the tasks and roles of followers, provides directions about what and how objectives should be

accomplished by the followers, and then monitors them closely. Shortly thereafter, the leader uses supportive behaviors. Directing is usually utilized when the organization faces a serious issue that come with extreme consequences if not successfully achieved. The leader implements a directive role to make sure all required actions are completed.

In the second style, coaching, the leader takes high directive and high supportive approach. This style is suitable when the followers have low ability and high willingness for a given task. Coaching is an extension of a directive style in that it still requires the leader to determine tasks and roles and make final decisions, but the leader uses two ways communication by seeking suggestions and ideas from the followers. In addition, leaders using a coaching style involve themselves with followers by providing encouragement, listening, and supporting them to obtain the required skills and knowledge that will allow them to do the job independently next time.

In the third style, supporting, the leader takes a high supportive and low directive approach. This style is suitable when the followers have high ability but low motivation for a given task. The supportive leader does not need to focus on what objectives to accomplish, but instead seeks to find out the reason why followers are refusing to do the task and works to convince them to cooperate. Supportive leadership involves giving recognition, listening, giving feedback, and asking for input.

In the last style, delegating, the leader takes a low directive and low supportive approach. This style is suitable when the followers have high ability and high motivation for a given task. Leader should depend on the delegating approach if the followers can perform the task and re motivated to complete it. Delegating leaders offer little social support, goal clarification, involvement in planning, and control of details. After the team decides what to do, this style

allows followers to take responsibility to get the task done. In addition, delegating still allows the leader to remain involved in the problem-solving and decision-making, but the execution is often in followers' hands.

Briefly, the essence of situational leadership requires that leaders fit their style to the followers' commitment and competence. Successful leaders are those who identify needs of the followers and then adjust their own style to satisfy those needs.

Transformational and transactional leadership. In 1978, Burns distinguished between transactional and transformational leadership. He identified transactional leadership as the exchange between followers and their leader. This exchange includes guidance from the leader and shared discussions with the followers about the needs and requirements to achieve those desired goals. Achieving goals will bring satisfaction and psychological and material rewards for both of them. In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership describes the process whereby a leader engages with his/her followers and creates relationships that boost the morale and motivation of both leaders and followers. As a result of this process, the leader attends to the needs of the followers, which helps them to reach their fullest potential (Bass & Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

The followers of transformational leaders feel loyalty, trust, respect, and admiration toward the leader, and they are encouraged to accomplish more than they were originally expected to do (Yukl, 2002). According to Bass and Bass (2008), a transformational leader motivates and transforms followers by: making his/her followers more conscious of the significance of the task results, encouraging them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and meeting their high demand needs. In contrast, transactional leadership entails an exchange process, which could result in followers complying with the

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leader's demands but is unlikely to generate commitment and motivation to task goals (Bass, 2008; Quader, 2011).

There are eight elements in the transactional and transformational leadership styles, which are divided into three kinds of factors: transformational factors (intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and idealized influence); transactional factors (managing by exception [passive], managing by exception [active], and contingent reward); and laissez-faire factor or non-transactional, non-transformational leadership (Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation is the first transformational factor, which refers to the degree to which the leader stimulates creative and innovative thinking in his/her followers in order to challenge the status quo and promote risk taking. This kind of leader considers unexpected situations as opportunity to learn. Thus, followers ask questions and think deeply regarding how best to implement the tasks assigned to them (Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Northouse (2010) believed that this kind of leadership encourages followers as they attempt new strategies and create innovative methods for dealing with organizational problems. It engages followers in careful problem-solving and motivates them to think of solutions on their own. A good example of this kind of leadership is a company leader who stimulates workers' attempts to create unique methods to solve problems that cause slowdowns in production.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation refers to leaders' ability to articulate a shared vision that is inspiring and appealing to followers. Leaders using inspirational motivation give meaning to the objectives of the task and have a strong sense of purpose, both of which are important when motivating followers. Meaning and purpose give the energy that pushes a group forward. Leaders' effective communication skills make the vision clear, accurate, engaging, and

powerful; as a result, the followers are ready to work harder to accomplish more than they would in their own self-interest. A good example is a sales manager who motivates his employees to succeed in their work through optimistic and encouraging words that clearly communicate the important role they perform in the future development of the organization (Northouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

Individualized consideration. In individualized consideration, leaders provide a supportive environment in which they attend to followers' needs by listening carefully to their concerns. They act as coaches and mentors while attempting to guide followers in becoming fully actualized. In addition, the leaders keep communication open; give support, respect, and empathy; and use delegation to facilitate followers' self-development through personal challenges. These leaders earn trust and respect from their followers (Northouse, 2010).

Idealized influence. Idealized influence is the impact of leaders behaving as role models for their followers. These leaders have high expectations of ethical and moral conduct and can rely on followers to do the right things. They embody the values that they want their followers to embrace. Moreover, they usually invest a great deal of trust, respect, and support to become better. As a result, leaders earn admiration and respect from their followers, placing them at high level of influence (Northouse, 2010).

Managing by exception. Managing by exception refers to leadership that includes negative feedback, negative reinforcement, and corrective criticism. There are two forms of managing by expectation: passive and active. A leader who utilizes the passive form intervenes just after standards have not been satisfied or problems have occurred. In contrast, a leader who utilizes the active form monitors and watches closely for rule violations and mistakes, after which he/she takes corrective action (Northouse, 2010).

Contingent reward. Contingent reward is a factor of transactional leadership, describing the exchange between followers and their leader. This exchange includes guidance from the leader and shared discussion with the followers about the needs and requirements to achieve desired goals. With this type of leadership, the leader attempts to solicit agreement from their followers on what they must do in return for obtaining rewards (Northouse, 2010).

Laissez-faire. This factor represents a non-authoritarian leadership style. There is no exchange between the leaders and followers and no efforts to help followers grow and develop. These kinds of leaders make few attempts to help their followers meet their needs, give no feedback, delay decisions, and abdicate responsibility (Northouse, 2010).

Other Perspectives on Transformational Leadership

Two other studies have contributed to the understanding of transformational leadership; these studies were conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Kouzes and Posner (1987, 2002). Using interviews that featured open ended questions with leaders. From leaders' answers, the theorists designed their transformational leadership models (Northouse, 2010).

Bennis and Nanus. Bennis and Nanus conducted interviews with 90 leaders, asking basic questions like leaders' strengths and weaknesses, critical points in their careers, and events that influenced their leadership approach. From their answers to questions, Bennis and Nanus developed four strategies utilized by leaders in transforming organizations (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Northouse, 2010).

First, transformational leaders have a realistic, attractive, clear, and believable vision of the organization's future. A clear vision of the organization makes it easier for people within the organization to know how they fit in with the general direction of the organization. Although leaders play a major role in formulating the vision of the organization, both leaders and followers

shares in creating a shared vision. The shared vision should be based on the needs of the entire organization to encourage followers to support the organization (Northouse, 2010).

Second, transformational leaders have to be social architects who form shared meaning that is retained by followers within organizations. These leaders established a direction that enabled followers to accept a transformation of the organization's norms and values and participate in the organization's new identity (Northouse, 2010).

Third, transformational leaders developed trust with their followers by defining their own position clearly and maintaining consistency on their positions. Trust requires predictability, even in uncertain situations. These leaders set a direction and implemented it even in the face of uncertainty (Northouse, 2010).

Forth, transformational leaders need to possess positive self-regard. They recognize their strengths and weakness, but concentrate on their strengths and work to improve weaknesses. Positive self-regard makes followers feel confident and have high expectations from the leader. In addition, the commitment of leaders to learning and relearning builds a learning philosophy in the organization (Northouse, 2010).

Kouzes and Posner. Kouzes and Posner conducted interviews with 1,300 leaders in both public and private organizations. They asked leaders to share their personal best experiences. From leaders' answers, Kouzes and Posner designed their transformational leadership model. The model contains five essential practices that allow leaders to get things done: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Northouse, 2010).

Model the way. Transformational leaders model the way by finding their own voice and showing their voice by expressing their values, principles, and beliefs to their followers. They

do not rely on mere conversations eloquent and resonant phrases; instead, their actions and their achievements are an example for others. They also honor their promises and commitments and place emphasis on shared values. In addition, their behaviors match their words (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Inspire a shared vision. Transformational leaders inspire and create a shared vision with others that can guide people to behave and act in accordance with the vision. They listen to their followers' hopes, aspirations, and dreams and show them how they can achieve them. By inspiring a shared vision, leaders challenge peers, followers, and others to go beyond the status-quo by achieving something for others (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Challenge the process. Transformational leaders are inclined by nature to adventure calculated and the challenge that drives them always to creativity and innovation. They pioneer change, tend to take risks, and try new things to make things better. They constantly seek opportunities for innovation, growth, and development. Leaders believe that creativity and change encompassing the experience, risk, and failure. However, they continue to work and learn from their mistakes. In addition, they believe that the other people who are close to the problems may be better able to reach meaningful solutions. Transformational leaders usually generate small wins that build confidence that will enable them to face bigger challenges (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Enable others to act. Transformational leaders highly value teamwork and collaboration. They build trust with others, listen to others' point of view, and treat them with respect. From this standpoint, they empower others to act and support them in their decisions. Therefore, they give others power and authority that enables them to create in their work. In addition, this sense

of power and authority strengthens each follower's ability to fulfill the promises he/she made to himself/herself (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Encourage the heart. Transformational leaders attend to others' need for recognition and support. Therefore, they encourage the heart by showing appreciation and rewarding followers' efforts, contributions, and accomplishments. In addition, they are willing to reward others for work well done and celebrate them to foster encouragement and demonstrate appreciation (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

Gender Differences

Women and men differ in the way they behave, from the manner in which they try to influence others to the style in they communicate. These gender differences in influence and communication styles also provide implications for gender differences in leadership styles (Merchant, 2012). Many studies show gender differences in methods used to influence others, although the influence styles utilized by both female and male leaders differ depending on the gender of the individuals the leaders are attempting to influence. Men and women also differ in terms of communication traits and conversation characteristics. Gender differences in influence tactics and communication styles have created stereotypes that influence the behavior of both men and women in the workplace (Merchant, 2012).

Gender differences in influence tactics. Influence is a leader's capability to inspire, encourage, and motivate their followers to change their attitudes, behavior, and beliefs, (Merchant, 2012; Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Leaders' effectiveness measures through their ability to influence other people. There is many ways leaders can use to influence other. In addition, these influence ways differ between genders. According to Gary Yukl and Carolyn Chavez (2002), (cited in Merchant, 2012) there are nine influence tactics: pressure, legitimating tactics,

coalition tactics, exchange, personal appeals, ingratiation, consultation, rational persuasion, and inspirational appeal. Pressure occur when person use persistent reminders, demands, threats, and frequent checking in an attempt to influence other individuals to comply with their requests (Yukl & Chavez, 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Legitimating occur when individual seek to prove his or her legitimate authority to implement his or her requests through referring to organizational rules and policies to prove the legitimacy of his or her request (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Coalition defined as when individual ask the others' support and help to influence them to do what he or she wants and persuade their commitment. Yukl and Chavez (2002) define exchange as when someone influenced a target person to comply with his or her request in exchange for an incentive, benefit, and special favor. Personal appeal is when individual appealed the targeted person's feelings of friendship and loyalty to influence this targeted person to perform a task or special favor. Ingratiation occurs when someone put his or her targeted person in a good mood by using flattery and praise before making a request (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Consultation is when someone asks the targeted person to modify a proposal to cope with their concerns or suggest improvements, and seeks to share with targeted persons in their participation in the planning strategies and decision making process. Rational persuasion occurs when individual uses factual evidence and logical arguments and facts to convince and influence targeted persons that a decision is worthwhile (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Finally, inspirational appeal occurs when individual make a request that inspires target persons' enthusiasm by increasing their confidence that they can do the requested task (Yukl & Chavez, 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Many quantitative and qualitative studies on influence tactics across gender have found that there is a difference in influence tactics used by women and men (Carli, 1999; Carothers &

Allen, 1999; Dubrin, 1991). Other study indicates that there are no differences across gender in the influence tactics but attributed these dissimilarities in the influence tactics to different situational circumstances (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999). A meta-analysis comparing studies conducted on influence tactics across gender found that the use of inspirational appeal, assertiveness, consultation, and personal appeal is more with men compared to women. Moreover, the studies showed that female used exchange tactics with male employees and ingratiation, consultation, inspirational appeal more with other female employees (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Dubrin, 1991). These findings imply that female managers tend to be more likely to foster and build close relationship with other female employees due to similar style of communication, but not with male because of differences in communication style between them.

There are two groups of influence tactics: hard and soft. These two groups of influence tactics refer to the resistance level of the person to the agent's behavior. Whereas soft tactics relied on interpersonal relationships, hard tactics are characterized to be difficult to resist. Soft tactics include personal appeals, consultation, ingratiating, inspirational appeals, and rationality. Hard tactics include coalition, pressure, exchange, and legitimating (Barbuto, Scholl, Hickox, & Boulmetis, 2001). A study by Lamude (1993) on 162 male and female supervisors was to explore the similarities and differences in the use of influence tactics by the supervisors with other employees. He found that male supervisors tend to use soft influence tactics with male employees and hard influence tactics with female employees. This means that male supervisors rely on personal relationships to influence the other males, but rely more on the intimidation tactics to influence the opposite sex. On the other hand, Lamude found that female supervisors use soft influence tactics with both female and male employees. This implies that female rely on

intimate communication styles with others and place high value on interpersonal relationships in the workplace.

Studies on gender and influence tactics have resulted two contradicting views. One view believes that there are no differences between women and men in the use of influence tactics but attributed these differences in the use of influence tactics to different situational circumstances. Example of these situational circumstances is individual's setting which is composed of individual's followers, status, and task. Other view argues that men and women use different influence tactics with others. These differences in influence tactics across gender outlined that men when trying to influence others tend to be authoritative and assertive, while women are more inspiring and consulting when trying to influence others. Overall, these differences in influence tactics across gender are one reason for the difference in leadership styles between the sexes.

Gender differences in communication style. The main difference between women's and men's communication style is to be due to different views on the purpose of conversation. Studies on psychological gender differences indicate that women in conversation tend to be cooperative and selfless, whereas men tend to be self-assertive. In addition, women use conversation for the purpose of creating relationships with others and enhancing interpersonal and social connections, whereas men use conversation in order to achieve concrete results (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Merchant, 2012; Wood, 1997). In addition, whereas women view conversation as way to foster and create intimate relationships by discussing issues and problems they are facing, men see it as tool to establish and maintain their dominance and status in relationship with others (Gray, 1992; Merchant, 2012).

According to Basow and Rubenfeld (2003), especially in conflict situations, women in conversation are more sensitive, polite, expressive, and social than men. In contrast, men in conflict situations seek to provide solutions to problems in order to prevent discussions that see it as unnecessary. These differences in communication style between men and women can lower perceptions about women's capabilities to the leadership positions.

The seminal book *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus* was published by John Gray in 1992 and was heralded as the most significant piece of literature to discuss gender differences in communication style. Gray outlined the main differences between men and women's in communication styles, arguing that the reason for the difference in communication is because they are from different planets. They have different values, needs, and goals, which are reflected in the communicate style they adopt. Gray identified the following differences between men's and women's ways of communicating; women determine their self-impression through the quality of their relationships and their feeling, whereas men determine their self-impression by their ability to accomplish outcomes. He categorized women as relationship-oriented and as men goal-oriented.

Women and men also differ in how they deal with stress; women deal with it by talking about the reason of their stress, whereas men deal with stress by withdrawing themselves from discussion. Gray (1992) described this psychological difference between women and men in dealing with stress thusly; "Men go their caves and women talk" (p.29). In his book, Gray discussed the gender difference in communication styles when men and women face a problem; women naturally tend to give advice and seek understanding and empathy, whereas men attempt to solve a problem they face.

In Deborah Tannen's (1990) popular book *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation,* another significant piece of literature to discuss gender differences in communication style, found that gender differences in communication start at a young age. Girls build relationship with others through talking; Tannen noted, "Talk is the essence of intimacy". In contrast, boys build relationship with others through doing activities together; this is central to their friendship.

According to Tannen (1990),

For most women, the language of conversation is primarily a language of rapport: a way of establishing and negotiating relationships... For most men, talk is primarily a means to preserve independence and negotiate and maintain status in a hierarchical social order. (pp. 76-77)

Tannen also indicated that men see the purpose of conversations as merely negotiations for power and dominance, whereas women see the purpose of conversations as negotiations for maintaining interaction and preserving intimacy. She also described women as synergistic because they have common goals and described men as adversarial because they have conflicting goals. In addition, men seek control, value differences between people, and prefer asymmetry and inequality. In contrast, women seek understanding, value similarities because they perceive it as a way to connect with other individuals, and prefer symmetry and equality. Whereas men avoid taking orders from others because they see it as a sign of loss of independence and lower status, women prefer taking orders to avoid isolation, seeing it as intimacy with others and a form of relationship. Women react to problems problem by talking with other women and expect men to react to problems as they do. However, when men hear women talk about problems with them, they seek to provide quick solutions to dismiss the problem and avoid discussion.

Overall, research on gender differences indicates that women and men differ in their traits and communication characteristics. When it comes to communication style, men tend to be more dominant and assertive, whereas women more social, tentative, and expressive (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Merchant, 2012). In addition, men are mostly result-focused and goal-oriented, whereas women are relationship-oriented and place a higher importance on closeness and intimacy in relationship with others (Gray, 1992; Merchant, 2012; Tannen, 1990). Prior research findings have confirmed that these differences in communication style across gender make the impression that men tend to be more confident and capable as leaders and women appear subordinate to them (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Gray, 1992; Merchant, 2012; Tannen, 1990).

Gender Differences in Leadership Style

Leadership is dependent on interaction between leaders and their followers. This interaction is affected by intrapsychic processes including values, gender-role orientation, and the attitudes related to these roles. The social interaction between leaders and their follower is one of the main elements that play a role in leadership style. That is where women and men greatly vary in their leadership style as women value interactions and relationship in workplace greater than men. Women leaders adopt strong bonds with their followers than men. Moreover, power-oriented communication style men used suggests to the existence of authoritative leadership approach in men more than women (Merchant, 2012).

Several studies on gender differences in leadership styles have reached to two views: one view argues that there are no considerable gender differences in leadership style, but that leadership style is merely contingent on situational. Other view believes that there are gender differences in leadership style (Foels, Driskell, Mullen, & Salas, 2000; Merchant, 2012).

Studies that show no difference in leadership style across gender. Studies who believe that there are no considerable gender differences in leadership style refer leadership style to situational circumstances. This kind of studies also recognize that neither female nor male are the best in leadership position. Effectiveness of leadership style is contingent on many factors such as situations, leaders' behavior, followers, and organizational environment (Foels et al., 2000; Merchant, 2012; Riggio, 2008).

Kanter (as cited in Eagly & Johnson, 1990) suggests that males and females who occupy the same regulatory role do not differ much in their leadership approach, because the leaders in these roles are more concerned about the effective management more than shows the features of gender differences. In addition, when males and females occupy the same leadership position, they behave less stereotypically because they are limited to the guidelines on the behavior of the given leadership role instead of leading according to stereotype. He also argues that males and females in similar power position behave similarly, but the differing structural positions are the reason of the gender difference in behavior.

Oppositely, there is extensive available of literature that shows that differences in leadership styles do exist, as men and women behave differently in thinking, acting and analyzing which is presumed also to effect the leadership style they employ. But in general they also argue that when both the genders take up top and equal roles in an organization they would closely display similar styles as they confine to the guidelines of their positions rather than behaving stereotypically.

Studies that show differences in leadership style across gender. Studies who believe that there are gender differences in leadership style argues that male in leadership positions tend to adopt hierarchical style which is control and command style and female leaders tend to adopt

participative and democratic style (Eagly, 2013). Studies have also found that male leaders use task-oriented approach, whereas female leaders use relationship-oriented approach (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Riggio, 2008). This task-oriented approach is controlling, direct, and autocratic (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). According to Riggio (2008) task-oriented approach focused on performing the task facing the team. Male leaders in task-oriented approach are concerned with meeting production goals, supervising the job, and setting work standards. Tannen (1990) indicated that male leaders are mostly result-focused and goal-oriented when it comes to communication style. They see the purpose of conversations to preserve their position in the hierarchical social order, maintain dominance, independence, and attain results. Thus, communication style used by male leaders reflects their task-oriented leadership approach. This approach helps men access to leadership positions more than women in the workplace. Different research indicates that male leaders tend to be more motivated to work in competitive environments where they stand out in a group of people and use an assertive role (Beasley, 2005; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003).

Eagly and Johnson (1990) suggested that while male leaders use task-oriented approach, female leaders use relationship-oriented approach which is characterized by participative and democratic traits. According to Riggio (2008) relationship-oriented approach focused on maintaining interpersonal relationships with others in workplace. Female leaders in relationship-oriented approach are concerned with employees' needs and involve employees in decision-making processes. Tannen (1990) indicated that female leaders tend to caretaker role, seek understanding and control, and maintain interaction with others when it comes to communication style. They see the purpose of conversations to maintain interaction and preserve intimacy with others. Thus, communication style used by female leaders reflects their relationship-oriented

leadership approach. The main goal for female leaders across leadership and communication style is to maintain and create intimate connections with others in workplace (Tannen, 1990). Due to female leaders' ability to connect and communicate with their followers on the emotional and social level has led to the emergence of female leader more than male leader as facilitator and social leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Gray, 1992).

Other researchers who believe male and female vary in their leadership style argue that female leaders are likely to use a transformational style (being a role model) while male leaders tend to emerge more as transactional leaders (reward and punishment; Eagly et al., 2003). According to Burns (1978) transformational leaders collaborate with their followers to determine the required change; they create a vision to guide the change through inspiration. Transformational leaders also create common goals for the future and make plans for their followers to achieve these objectives. In addition, Transformational leaders seek to help their followers to reach their fullest potential (Burns, 1978). All of transformational leadership characteristics are very similar to women's personal approach to leadership, and this is the reason why women appear more transformational than men as leaders (Merchant, 2012). On the other hand, male leaders are extremely task-oriented, which is a key characteristic of transactional leadership. Male leaders who use task-oriented approach focus on performing the task, meet production goals, supervise the job, and set work standards (Riggio, 2008). These characteristics of task-oriented approach have much of the same as transactional leadership characteristics. Transactional leaders provide rewards to their followers in exchange for meeting work objectives and punish them for failing to achieve work objectives (Bass & Bass, 2008; Northhouse, 2010; Rowe & Guerrero, 2011).

According to Patel (2013) female leaders are likely to use participative/democratic leadership style while male leaders use directive/autocratic styles. Moreover, women were more willing to boost self-esteem in others, more collaborative and cooperative, and less hierarchical. This confirms that women achieve better results in authentic leadership styles.

Female leaders were also more likely to obtain higher satisfaction then men in their leadership positions and female leaders were favored in education, government, and social service settings over their male counterparts. This literature reveals that female leaders have a distinctive style of leadership from men and subordinates actually prefer it in many settings because of the emphasis on collaboration and cooperation (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000)

In short, women and men differ in the way they behave, from the manner in which they try to influence others to the style in they communicate. These gender differences in influence and communication styles also provide implications for gender differences in leadership styles (Merchant, 2012). Gender differences in influence tactics and communication styles have created gender stereotypes that influence the behavior of both men and women in the workplace (Merchant, 2012). This difference in stereotypes between men and women is one of the most challenges that face women when trying to attain leadership position as will be explained in the next section.

Challenges Preventing Women from Accessing Leadership Positions in Higher Education

The vast majority of senior leadership positions in higher education worldwide held by men, not women. Although there are a growing number of women entering the workforce and a growing number of management positions for women in higher education, it is still women's access to leadership positions is limited. Many studies have confirmed the eligibility of women

and their professional efficiency to assume leadership positions in higher education. However, the occupational status of the women in the workplace continues to have a wide gap in unequal representation between men and women in leadership positions (Al-Shihabi & Mohammad, 2001). There are many challenges that preventing women from accessing leadership positions in the various fields, including higher education (Al-Ahmadi, 2011; Al-Jaradat, 2014; Al-Tamimi, 2004; Zubaidi, Al-Sammerai, & Ahmad, 2011).

The remaining of this section is an overview of challenges preventing women from accessing leadership positions which consist of the following: gender stereotypes, lack of professional networking, lack of effective mentors and role models, women training leadership, family and work conflict, male dominated environment. This section provides a broad overview of key challenges that women have experienced and continue to experience in their journey to leadership positions in all areas of work such as medicine, business, and education. The main challenges outlines in this section are similar and comparable to those in educational Leadership in higher education.

Gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes often considered one of important obstacles for women to advance to leadership positions in higher education. Gender stereotypes are ingrained in individuals' minds at an early age. At the age of four years, children have a clear understanding of the characteristics of their gender and seek to comply with these existing roles (Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2003). There are several factors influence individuals to conform to their stereotypes and strive for consistency between their biological gender and what is expected of them such as family, school, media, and friends (Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2003). Welbourne (2005) suggested that socialization have a role in reinforcing these stereotypical gender roles during individuals' childhood and adolescence. These gender stereotypes have the

ability to influence the behaviors and characteristics of the individual in adulthood, including their leadership style. It also act as guidelines for the work conduct as dictate to individuals how they can communicate and act on the basis of their gender (Eagly et al., 2003).

David Schneider (2005) defines the common stereotypes of men and women based on psychological research. Some of the common stereotypical traits in women are sentimental, sensitive, sympathetic, friendly, emotional, and affectionate; stereotypical traits in males include rational, assertive, self-confident, and dominant (Schneider, 2005). Due to the differences in stereotypical traits, men and women differ in their reaction in the situations. Women are more emotional intensities than men in their reactions. Men react through action whereas women react through feeling (Patel, 2013). These gender stereotypes depicting women as lacking the same characteristics that people normally associate with effective leadership, therefore create a false impression that women do not up to men when it comes to leadership positions (Welbourne, 2005). These stereotypical traits in women have adverse effects on women leaders in the workplace which limits the opportunities available to them to advance to senior leadership positions.

Other research indicated that leadership is *masculine* and stereotypical traits in male align with leadership traits. Women assigned as *take care* behaviors because of their sensitivity and emotional traits, while men assigned as *take charge* behaviors because of their rational and assertive traits (Catalyst, 2006; Welbourne, 2005). Catalyst (2006) surveyed corporate leaders to assess the effectiveness of the performance of male and female leaders of the behaviors associated to effective leadership (i.e., delegating, influencing upward, problem-solving, inspiring, networking, team-building, rewarding, supporting, and mentoring). The results of this study indicate that the male participants considered male leaders to be more effective than

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women leaders in all masculine behaviors such as influencing upward, delegating, and problem-solving. Female participants had similar results of male participants with the exception of problem-solving. In addition, female participants believed that males more competent to develop their professional networks. The results of this study demonstrate that both male and female participants judged male leaders as more effective and competent in the behaviors associated to effective leadership (Catalyst, 2006). Nielsen and Huse (as cited in Patel, 2013) stated that women's stereotypical traits such as sensitivity to others, sympathetic, and affectionate bring a different perspective to the decision-making.

Gender stereotyping affects individuals' perceptions about the effectiveness of women's leadership. One of the perceptions is *think-leader-think-male* stereotype activation, which is the idea that the qualities that are usually associated with successful leaders often described as male attributes (confident, assertive, taking charge). When women leaders attempt to act and exercise power outside their feminine stereotypes and leadership style, they face lack of support and negative feedback from others for their violation of gender stereotypes. In addition, they are perceived as *un feminine* because they are too uncaring, aggressive, and rigid. This eventually leads to the perception that women leaders will always be perceived as less effective than men as leaders (Hoyt, 2005; Oplatka & Hertz-Lararowitz, 2006; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Elmuti, Jia, and Davis (2009) argued that some leaders at organizations lacked confidence in the ability of women to lead. Additionally, some women also lacked confidence in themselves to lead. Women's leadership style is seen as ineffective because effective leadership usually reflects male characteristics. If these women have been appointed to leadership positions, it was expected to perform, work, and lead like men in order to fit in the positions and prove their accountability as leaders (Kiamba, 2008; Still, 2006). This effect on women's behavior,

communication styles, and their leadership styles in workplace. When women leaders attempt to exercise power outside their stereotypes and leadership style, they face lack of support and negative feedback from others for their violation of gender stereotypes (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

According to Ridgeway (2002), Gender stereotypes formed an unequal relationship between men and women by establishing men's high-level positions over women. It also influences the hierarchical status of each of them in the community. This hierarchical status affects one's performance and perceived status in workplace (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Lack of professional networking. Many quantitative and qualitative studies have argued that lack of professional networking is one of the major challenges preventing women from accessing leadership positions (Al-Tamimi, 2004; Growe & Montgomery, 2000; Munoz, 2010; Schipani, Dworkin, Kwolek-Folland, & Maurer, 2008; Shanmugam, Amaratunga, & Haigh, 2008). Schipani et al. (2008) defined a professional network as a "constellation of developmental relationships that function in various ways but contribute to positive career outcomes" (p. 16).

Shanmugam et al. (2008) ascribed the reason for the dominance of men in leadership positions, especially in higher education; to the opportunities that men receive that help them to develop their professional networks, creating opportunities for an upgrade to leadership positions. Unfortunately, many women are excluded from various networks on their journey to leadership positions. Women need to break through this male dominated talent pool to attain leadership positions, which is often hard, particularly in male dominated departments such as technology, engineering, and math (AlDoubi, 2014). In addition, Munoz (2010) studied Latina community college presidents and found a huge absence of networking opportunities for women. In contrast, men had many chances to build up their networking systems. In Saudi Arabia Saudi

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women possess the same issue in lacking opportunities to develop professional networks which are important for leadership success. This is due to the low number of women in senior management to work as mentors; Saudi women find it difficult to establish relationships in a network dominated by men (Kauser & Tlaiss, 2011).

King (1997) emphasized the importance of forming informal and formal women's professional networks that involve open discussion. These networks help women to communicate with other women in similar fields and share their experiences, current concerns, information, and solutions. In addition, King pointed out that the networking process could be empowering and stimulating since these networks motivate women to utilize their strengths and work to develop their weaknesses.

Lack of effective mentors and role models. Another obstacle to women's advancement to leadership positions is the absence of mentors and female role models (Zubaidi et al., 2011). Gupton and Slick (1995) defined a role model as a worthy individual whose behavior and success is respected by others and can be emulated by others: an excellent example for another in a role he/she wants. Gilmour and Kinsella (2009) described mentor as a person with more experience who actively helps and guides someone less experienced (i.e., a mentee) by offering advice in order to increase his/her potential, enhance his/her efficiency, develop his/her skills, and become the individual he/she would like to be.

According to Ragins and Cotton (1999), mentoring relationships are often classified into two types: formal or informal. In formal mentoring, the program coordinator often assigns the mentors on the basis of their expertise and competency. The objectives of formal mentoring are determined in the beginning of the mentoring process and this type of relationship lasts between 6 months to 1 year. Informal mentoring is normally based on the satisfaction of professional

needs and mutual identification. This type of relationship lasts between 3-6 years. The objectives of informal mentoring develop over time and adjust to the professional needs of the employees. This relationship requires integrity, openness, commitment, and effort by both individuals (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

Research indicates that formal mentoring and informal mentoring should be done in partnership to allow the advantages of each approach to be realized. Formal mentoring has the advantage of removing cross-gender barriers in relations between mentor and protégé (Kilian, Hukai, & McCarty, 2005). Informal mentoring has the advantage of developing a close partnership and working relationship between mentor and protégé (Linney, 2000). Saudi women in management can benefit from both formal and informal mentoring because of these distinctive advantages.

Ensher and Murphy (2005) discussed the importance of effective mentor relationship in helping women advance to leadership positions. Brown (2005) and Campbell, Mueller, and Souza (2010) conducted similar studies on female university presidents and found that many female university presidents had a mentor that inspired them to pursue management positions and finally the presidency. In addition, the relationship with a mentor was a key factor for their advancement to the presidency (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

According to Johns (2013), the establishment of mentoring programs within the educational institutions is an important way to help women move up the career ladder. These programs should identify successful leaders of both men and women to work as mentors and guides to raise the aspirations of women and to identify pathways and goals that move their careers forward. Mentoring programs should be designed to help women build and develop

critical leadership skills, increase their confidence, leverage their strengths, become comfortable in taking risks.

Selmer and Leung (2003) studied corporate career development activities and surveyed men and women leaders about mentoring and career development activities that they received. They found that mentoring and career development activities were less available to women than men. In another study that involved a survey of female department chairs, 47% reported a lack of a mentoring relationship and indicated that this lack was limiting the effectiveness of their leadership (Mullen, 2009).

Johnson (2001) asserted, "There is a great need for institutional structures to be put in place that acknowledge the importance of mentoring and developing supportive networks if women are to advance in their careers and gain access to senior level positions" (p. 240). Therefore, "Women who have the courage and confidence to challenge existing norms and make changes need support and role models" (King, 1997, p. 92).

Just as women must be conscious that expertise, hard work, and perseverance are critical the determinants of organizational success, they should also realize the significance of mentoring relationship in reaching their professional objectives (Kalbfleisch & Keyton, 1995). There are important benefits for women who receive mentoring. According to Johnson (2001), mentoring helps individuals to develop their professional identity consistent with ethical standards, personal values, and their profession. In addition, Schipani et al. (2008) asserted that mentoring relationship can increase women's self-confidence, provide valuable information, improve their abilities, and introduce them to the knowledge and skills that will lead to increased representation of women in leadership positions.

The absence of mentoring opportunities for women in the workplace plays a role in the underrepresentation of women in decision making positions (Growe & Montgomery, 2000; Schipani et al., 2008; Zubaidi et al., 2011). Mentoring relationships cannot intersect professions and positions dominated by men. Only if there is greater appreciation of what men and women bring to the table will steps be taken towards equality and professional equity (Carli & Eagly, 2012).

Women training leadership. Kouzes and Posner (as cited in Zubaidi et al., 2011) stated that leadership is not about position, but it is more on matters such as the practice and behaviors as a leader. Leadership can be improved through training. There are four important principles related to the effectiveness of training: participants' participation, the transfer of learning, repetition, and feedback (Greenberg, 2001; Zubaidi et al., 2011). These principles can be utilized in training of leadership skills to build self-confidence in leaders. Zubaidi et al. (2011) described practical approach in the development of leaders, including careful selection, continuing professional training, and effective mentoring. These programs should be designed to help women build and develop critical leadership skills, increase their confidence, leverage their strengths, become comfortable in taking right decisions (Johns, 2013).

The limited of opportunities for women to receive training is a one of several challenges that prevent them from obtaining senior leadership position. Leadership positions require substantial experiences and excellent qualifications. Limited opportunities for training lead to a lack of experience and skills for women, which in turn reduce women's access to leadership positions (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

Al-Ghanem and Badawood (as cited in Zubaidi et al., 2011) asserted that social attitudes regarding the types of abilities that women can acquire is one of the main reasons for the absence

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of these qualifications. In addition to linking administrative efficiency of the man and doubt in the women's abilities that reaches the leadership positions. Finally, social attitudes and limited training opportunities may prevent women from obtaining the skills and resources necessary to compete successfully with men for leadership positions (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

Al-Ahmadi (2011) studied challenges facing women leaders in Saudi Arabia and surveyed 162 women leaders who work in the women's branch of the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). The study focused on identifying structural, cultural, personal, lack of resources, and lack of empowerment challenges facing women leaders in the Saudi Arabian government sector. Each challenge was represented by many factors. The author found that structural challenges, lack of empowerment, and lack of resources ranked first and personal and cultural challenges ranked last. Lack of empowerment challenges were represented by many factors. Lack of rehabilitation programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles was one such factor and was ranked first between the other factors of lack of empowerment challenges. This result highlights the essential the need for training programs for women leaders before they are assigned leadership roles.

Family and work conflict. The challenge of balance between family and work obligations is considered as one of the most challenges faced by working women. It affects the participation of women in the labor force in general, and in leadership positions, in particular (Al Maaitah, Oweis, Olimat, Altarawneh, & Al Maaitah, 2012). According to Al-Jaradat (2014), the difficulty of combining family obligations and work requirements contributes to women's underrepresentation in leadership positions. In addition, some women refuse to take leadership roles in an organization in order to focus more on their family responsibilities and needs, which affects on their long-term career path. They believe that these positions are related to the

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increased work obligations which conflicts with their family responsibilities. Where the family needs is more important than work from their perspective (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). Twenty percent of women professionals are not registered in the labor force because of their parental responsibilities, with only 5% of men behaving similarly. Furthermore, almost four out of 10 women leave the workforce due to their family needs, compared to only one man out of 10 who does so (Kellerman, Rhode, & O'Connor, 2007). Moreover, Women's decisions to take leadership roles in the work were associated with a specific time in their lives, such as when they enrolled their children in school or had left the house (Alomair, 2015).

Many studies have addressed the issue of women leaders achieving a balance between family responsibilities and work requirements. The studies found that the organizations and family supports for women workers to balancing between these two obligations contributes as important factors to women's advanced to leadership positions. (Al-Jaradat, 2014; Al Maaitah et al., 2012; Carli & Eagly, 2012; Hoff & Mitchell, 2008; Jones & Palmer, 2011; Kellerman et al., 2007; Liff & Ward, 2001).

Alomair (2015) pointed to the many different ways that organizations can implement to support women who have families to achieve balance in their work and family responsibilities such as flexible work schedule and quality daycare, and providing mentoring opportunities.

According to Liff and Ward (2001), women have expressed concern regarding the lack of organizational support in addition to lack of organizational policies for their parental role. They also confirmed women's fear of losing opportunities for promotion to leadership positions when they request arrangements that accommodate their work and family commitments. In contrast, male leaders have a tendency to criticize women who attempt to balance family and work life.

Shakeshaft (1989) added that many men believe women are unable to manage the balance, and moreover that it is not appropriate for them to even attempt it.

Gerdes's (2003) study on the sources of stress for women seeking to take over management positions in the field of education found that women faced high levels of stress upon assuming this position due to cultural and social expectations associated with women's roles and their feminine characteristics identified by cultural and social norms (Carli & Eagly, 2012; Hoff & Mitchell, 2008; Jones & Palmer, 2011). Although currently men have a greater share of participation in family obligations than in the past, women still spend more time on household chores and childcare. A woman cannot choose to neglect these responsibilities because she is obliged to do them whether or not she has a job (Carli & Eagly, 2012).

Despite the increase in employment opportunities for women in Saudi Arabia, the role of women has not changed within and beyond the family. The traditional role of Saudi women is to take care of the family, including doing household work and raising kids. In contrast, the traditional role of men is to provide money for the family (AlMunajjed, 1997, 2010).

Male dominated academic areas. The last challenge prevents women to access to leadership position in workplace is male dominated academic areas. For decades, there are certain academic fields dominated by men such as science, math, engineering, medicine, and technology. On the other side, women dominated certain academic fields and job categories such as nursing and teaching. Male dominance in most academic fields creates women's lack of experience in these fields and become one of the important reasons for the under-representation of women in leadership positions. Women need to break through this male dominated talent pool to attain leadership positions, which is often hard, particularly in male dominated departments such as technology, engineering, and math (AlDoubi, 2014).

On the other side of issue, some researches argue that disciplines and job categories are either feminine or masculine (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008; Eagly & Karau, 2002).In 1991, the University of Kentucky investigated the disciplines and job categories held by women at the university. They reported that the dominance of women in disciplines and job categories in the university is much less than male counterparts. For instance, Women represented the majority of faculty positions in the College of Home Economics, Nursing, and Libraries (AlDoubi, 2014).

Rayan et al. (2009) indicated that underrepresentation of women in fields of science and math was due to the differences between the genders of inherited cognitive abilities. In addition, underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in these disciplines was due to their low commitment and competence than men. This narrow-minded perception about the lack of women's ability to access and achieve leadership positions reflects the stereotypes that many societies believe in and behave upon it. Additionally, there are two factors of the suitability of women to hold leadership positions: disciplines in which that disciplines are perceived as "masculine" or "feminine" and cultural norms (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Oplatka and Hertz-Lararowitz (2006) stated that the male dominance of leadership positions in educational organizations is one of the reasons for the under-representation of women in leadership positions. Men in senior leadership positions will employ candidates who are resemble to themselves in terms of appearances, acts, and philosophy. In addition, Alomair (2016) stated that overrepresented of men in leadership position increase cooperation and loyalty among them which leads to the exclusion of women from these positions.

According to AlMohamed (2008) the public sector in Saudi Arabia, including primary and higher education, is segregated between men and women but the senior positions is

dominated by men which leads to the decentralization of decision-making (AlMohamed, 2008). The powers granted to women to make decisions is limited. As a result, women must receive approval from men in critical and major decisions, which takes a long time, consumes energy, and costs money when delayed. For example, the dean of the women's campus must receive approval from men in most decisions (Al-Tamimi, 2004; AlMunajjed, 2010).

Summary

This chapter briefly presented the definition of leadership and leadership theories. Then, the researcher reviewed the gender differences in terms of communication and leadership styles. Finally, the remaining of this section was an overview of challenges preventing women from accessing leadership positions which are consist of the following: gender stereotypes, lack of professional networking, lack of effective mentors and role models, women training leadership, family and work conflict, male dominated environment. A broad overview of key challenges that women have experienced and continue to experience in their journey to leadership positions aims to describe the differences in the levels of participation in leadership positions between men and women.

Since this study focused on challenges for Saudi women leaders in higher education, the importance of this study arises from the significance of the role of women's academic leaderships in driving the advancement and development of education in Saudi Arabia. Few studies have discussed and addressed the challenges preventing Saudi women from holding leadership positions in the higher education. The findings of this study increase the limited literature available about Saudi women and their access to, and experiences in, higher-education leadership positions. It allowed these Saudi women to shed light on their own experiences to leadership positions. In addition, this is a new direction in the study of Saudi women,

representing a transition from previous studies dealing with Saudi women isolated from the social environment to the social issues that support their participation in community building. Recommendations that will be made at the end of the study will have a role in helping women overcome the challenges that prevent them from accessing to leadership positions in higher education. The recommendations also helped decision makers to identify the needs of Saudi women, enabling and empowering them to be qualified for leadership positions. It is hoped that this study's findings direct decision makers' attention to the delay in the empowerment of Saudi women, compared with their efficiency and their level of education.

Empowering women to access leadership poisons in higher education will provide positive experiences and unique perspectives, enhance institutional performance, and implement their transformational leadership style. Women leaders in a group are distinctive from their male counterparts. they bring their interpersonal styles "female values" or the "female principle" in their leadership style which implies an emphasis on interdependence, trust, cooperation, receptivity, acceptance, sensitivity, concern for others, empathy, and personal perceptions. In addition, these women leaders will serve as mentors and role model for young Saudi women to prepare them to be effective leaders in the future.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The progress of any country depends on building and developing its human resources, and higher education, as a strategic investment for each country, is considered a primary means for preparing, qualifying and developing human resources. Academic leaders are the most important elements and components of success and influence in educational institutions, and in particular with regards to the higher educational system. As such, they are often relied upon to propose a model administrative system that truly helps in providing communities, institutions and the business and knowledge sectors with human resources that would be considered a genuine addition to education, development and the economy.

Education and knowledge are the basis of the renaissance of nations; because of this, the government of Saudi Arabia has granted particular focus on these areas. In order to achieve development in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Higher Education spares no effort in encouraging women's attempts to complete their higher education and become employed. To this end, the Ministry of Higher Education plays an active role that may contribute to the country's social, economic, and cultural development (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013).

As a result of enrollment of Saudi women in all degrees of education as well as in different areas of employment, especially in the education field, the past 10 years have witnessed a growing contribution of Saudi women in the decision-making process in different sectors; higher education is one of them (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). Many studies have pointed to the growing participation of women in leadership positions but there is more work to be done in granting them opportunities equal to those that men enjoy (AlMunajjed, 2010; Moghadam, 2004).

This study will explore the challenges faced by women academic leadership in Saudi Arabia. The methodology of this study will identify academic leaders' perceptions of the challenges to obtain senior leadership poison in higher education in a quantitative Approach.

Restatement of the Purpose

The purpose of the present study is to identify the most common challenges for women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves, lack of empowerment challenges and organizational challenges.

Restatement of Research Questions

Research questions are used to shape the purpose of the research study (Creswell, 2009). To achieve the objectives of this study, the literature and previous studies relevant to the challenges facing women academic leadership was reviewed, which helped the researcher understand the research problem by developing the research questions as well as the survey questionnaire. The research questions to be investigated during this study include:

1. What are the organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

2. What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

3. What are the personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

4. What are the empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

5. Are there significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and work experience)?

Research Design

The research methodology shows how to find a possible solution to the problem of research and meet the objectives of the study. This chapter presents the research design and methodology used in the study, which helped identify the most common challenges for women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education. According to Creswell (2009), there are many methods to conduct a research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method. Selecting a suitable research methodology is important to get a more accurate research result (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Silverman, 2004).

To provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problems, the researcher will utilize a quantitative approach to gather the data in this study. Online survey will use to examine the defined population. According to Kumar (2011), using a survey research methodology is one of the most feasible methods for assessing the behavior of a population based upon the response of a sample as well as the best method for obtaining data about personal and social perceptions.

Population and Sample

The study population will be women leaders working in the three universities in Riyadh region of Saudi Arabia. The universities are Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, King Saud University, and Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. The study population was selected from women without men; because the change starts with them was necessary to poll their opinions and to identify their trends about access to leadership positions.

The sample population is a subset of the study population to be selected in a certain way. The sample of the study will be 100 academic leaders who working in these three universities. The researcher will use a random sample to select the participants, in which each participant in the study population will have an equal probability of being selected and gain in-depth knowledge about this research topic (Creswell, 2009; Kumar, 2011). Selecting a random sample will help to attain unbiased information and every participants in the three universities will have an equal chance of being selected.

Validity and Reliability

Validity is the instrument's ability to measure what it was designed to measure. Validity is used to determine whether the findings are correct from both the researcher's and the participants' point of view (Kumar, 2011). In quantitative research there are four types of validity: construct validity, predictive validity, face validity, and content validity. In this study the research used content validity. "Content validity is a subjective measure of how appropriate the items seem to a set of reviewers who have some knowledge of the subject matter" (Litwin, 1995, p. 35).

After designing the survey questionnaire, the researcher asked panel of expert to review the survey questionnaire to evaluate the content validity. The researcher sent an email to ten panel of experts requesting their assistance as a member of the Panel of Experts and received 5 responses. The panel of experts was 2 of Pepperdine University professors who are expert in organizational leadership, 1 professor of University of La-Verne, and 2 doctoral candidates at Pepperdine University:

1. Dr. Farzin Madjidi, EdD- EdD, Pepperdine University; MBA, Pepperdine University; MS, California State University Northridge; BS, California State University Northridge. He is professor at Pepperdine University.

2. Dr. James DellaNeve, EdD. He is a professor at Pepperdine University.

3. Dr. Kathy Duncan, RN, EdD Program Director, MS in Leadership & Management Interim Director, MHA/Gero Associate Professor of Management College of Business and Public Management University of La Verne.

4. Abdulaziz AlGabbaa, Doctoral Candidate at Pepperdine University.

5. Faten Alsari, Doctoral Candidate at Pepperdine University.

After their approval and willingness to review the survey questionnaire, the researcher sent a copy of survey questionnaire and the research questions. In addition, the researcher sent statement of purpose and problem to the panel to provide context and additional information. The researcher asked each panel member to express an opinion as to whether each of the items should definitely be included in or deleted from the final questionnaire. The experts reviewed the research question and the survey questionnaire to judge whether the questions set in the questionnaire actually measure what they are intended to measure. In addition, they determined if the survey questions accomplish the goal of answering the research questions. Then, the experts sent back their comments and feedback to the researcher. After feedback was obtained from the experts, the researcher made appropriate modifications to finalize the questionnaire.

As a result of these procedures, the final number of the items was determined at 29 items measuring challenges for Saudi women to obtain leadership positions in higher education, distributed over the following challenges: eight items in organizational challenges, nine items in

personal challenges, six items in lack of empowerment challenges, and six items in cultural challenges.

After developing and validating the survey in its English version, the second step was involved translating it into Arabic, the participants' native language. To validate the translated survey, the researcher sent the original (English) survey and the translated (Arabic) version to an expert translator to confirm the accuracy of the translation.

To ensure the reliability of the survey instrument, the researcher applied it to a sample of 25 members of the study population. Cronbach's alpha used to measure the reliability of items related to obtaining scores of related items. The results showed that the reliability coefficients of the different domains were as follows: organizational challenges (0.90); personal challenges (0.91); cultural challenges (0.79); and empowerment challenges (0.90). Table 1 presents the score of Cronbach's alpha for every variable.

Table 1

Score of Cronbach's Alpha for Every Variable

Type of Challenge	Specific Challenge	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Organizational Challenges	The low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education	22.6400	47.823	.788	.889
	Lack of equal opportunity in hiring and promotion of women in leadership positions	22.8000	49.083	.825	.886
	The centralization of decision making	22.9200	50.160	.702	.897
	The limited powers granted to women leaders	23.0400	50.540	.791	.889
	Poor communication and coordination between the men's and women's departments	23.3200	55.143	.529	.910
	Underrepresentation of women leaders in committees and meetings at the level of higher education institutions	23.0800	52.327	.639	.902

(continued)

Type of Challenge	Specific Challenge	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	The absence of legislation and policies to ensure women's participation in decision-making	22.7600	49.023	.826	.885
	Weak feedback on the performance of leaders	22.8400	53.390	.547	.910
Personal Challenges	Women's lack of confidence in their ability to make informed decisions	24.2581	68.465	.733	.898
	Lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading position	24.0323	69.232	.653	.904
	Women's lack of leadership skills	24.2903	65.746	.742	.898
	Sense of isolation in the leadership position	24.1290	69.383	.679	.902
	Fear of taking responsibility	23.9355	64.129	.797	.893
	Health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth that affect the effectiveness of the leadership role	23.5161	72.125	.636	.905
	The difficulty in finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations	23.3226	69.159	.730	.899
	Women's use of emotion more than rationality in dealing with administrative issues	23.9677	66.299	.731	.899
	Difficulty of travelling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits	23.2518	74.331	.544	.911
Cultural Challenges	Gender stereotypes	16.3548	21.503	.393	.797
	Prevailing beliefs about men having higher capacity and management skills of women as leaders	15.9677	19.566	.523	.771
	Difficulty of dealing with some male colleagues and heads of departments by women leaders.	16.5161	19.458	.472	.784
	Lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders.	16.4191	17.452	.741	.718
	Bias from senior management to male in appointment for leadership positions than women.	16.0000	18.067	.628	.746
	prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship	16.4839	19.258	.553	.764
Empowerment Challenges	Lack of training programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles	19.8000	39.200	.823	.871
	Limited opportunities for training and skill development	19.7333	39.720	.783	.876
	Lack of knowledge of regulations governing the work	19.8667	38.257	.837	.869

(continued)

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Type of Challenge	Specific Challenge	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	Poor management skills necessary to exercise the leadership role	20.1333	37.775	.828	.870
	Lack of information needed for decision-making	20.0000	38.621	.852	.868
	Lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership	19.4667	43.361	.581	.899
	Lack of family support to maintain a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations to enhance women's development and status.	20.0000	48.690	.256	.930

Variables of the Study

The study includes one dependent variable, which is challenges for Saudi women academic leadership to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, categorized as: organizational challenges, personal challenges, cultural challenges, and lack of empowerment challenges and five independent variables, i.e. age (four categories: from 25 to 35 years, from 35 to 45 years, from 45 to 55 years, and more than 55 years); marital status (four categories: married, divorced, widowed single); academic degree (four categories: bachelor's, master's, doctorate, and other) job title (five categories: teaching assistant, lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, professor); and years of experience (three categories: less than 10 years, 10-20 years, 20-30 years and more than 30 years).

Instrumentation

Based on the methodology of the current study, the researcher developed survey questionnaire for the aim of identifying challenges for women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education. In creating the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed the literature and previous studies relevant to the study topic and based on the results of previous studies the researcher develop the survey. In addition, the researcher used some of questions of Al-Ahmadi, 2011 study after modified them to be appropriate for the study objectives. The researcher was got

a written permission from Dr. Hanan Al-Ahmadi to use the instrument and make any change (see Appendix A). Then, validity and reliability of questionnaire conducted to make the questionnaire with its final form.

The survey questionnaire was developed to answer the research questions within this study. The survey was 9 questions and categorized into two sections. The first section will contain demographic questions whose purpose is to collect general information such as age, marital status, job title, academic degree, and year of experience. Demographic information will help the researcher to determine if the participants' perceptions of challenges vary based on demographic information. The second section will contain 29 items of challenges that categorized into four domains as follows: organizational challenges (8); personal challenges (9); cultural challenges (6), and lack of empowerment challenges (6). The survey contains closed-ended questions that provide a range of possible answers, allowing the participants to select the answer they feel best describes their choice. In a second section, a five-point Likert scale utilized to measure opinions of the participants: (1) Strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

After developing the survey questionnaire and checking the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the online survey and consent form translated into Arabic language, the participants' native language.

Data Collection

After the researcher finishes developing the survey questionnaire, she issued a request to the selective universities (King Saud University, Imam Mohammed University, and Princess Noura University) to obtain their permission to distribute the questionnaires and collect the data

for the study. Receiving this permission enabled the researcher to distribute the research instrument to the participants after receiving IRB approval.

The researcher started her data collection by sending an online survey to the participants by email. The online survey started with an introductory page introducing the researcher and explaining the study. The following section described the study in more details. Then, the participant asked to go through the informed consent form and so either they agree to continue or otherwise they exist from the survey. The participants clicked "I agree" to move to the survey items. If they did not agree, they were directed to a page that thanks them for their consideration. Each participant would take approximately 10 minutes to read the information and IRB consent and 10 minutes to complete the survey. The researcher used SurveyMonkey.com, to administer the survey. After a week from the sending the surveys, the researcher sent a reminder email to the participants to follow up with the participants and encourage more participation. As soon as the participants are done with the survey, the researcher sent a personal thank you note to all participants and included information on how the participant can get the finding of the study. Finding will be available to participants upon their request. The participant could request the finding by contacting the researcher via phone or email. After data complete and returned data will be analyzed.

Data Analysis

Data analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS IBM Corporation 1989, 2011; Version 22). Descriptive statistics in the form of mean with standard deviation was presented for the quantitative variables while count with percentage was presented for the categorical variables along with bar graphs for the qualitative variables. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to show the consistency of the different items that belong to each of the

four challenges (organizational, cultural, personal, and lack of empowerment) under investigation. Since the Cronbach's alpha values were greater than 0.7, the researcher created a mean score of each of these challenges using the items indicated.

Content validity was used to assess the relevant domain of the constructs. This was done by asking experts about the content of the items in each of the constructs to reflect the entire content of the important traits that need to be included in the survey. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the reliability of items related to obtaining scores of related items. If the score is .70 or higher the measurement is acceptable. However, .80 or higher is preferable. We used split-half reliability to assess the reliability of the constructs. We were randomly divided all items that purport to measure the same construct into two sets. We administered the entire instrument to a sample of people and calculate the total score for each randomly divided half. The split-half reliability estimate is simply the correlation between these two total scores.

ANOVA and Mann Whitney U test were used to assess the association of the challenges by the different Personal and professional information if the assumptions are met. The mean scores for challenges by age, marital status and education were then compared using Mann Whitney U test. Kruskal Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to compare mean challenge score by Alpha was set at 0.05 level of significance. We used IBM SPSS (version 23.0) for the data analysis in this study.

Human Subject Consideration

This study involved human subjects. The protection of human subjects and emphasis on consent and privacy of participants is the purpose of the Institutional Review Board (IRB).The researcher submitted Pepperdine University's IRB application and received approval before proceeding with data collection as seen in Appendix B.

After receiving IRB approval, the researcher will send the link of online survey to potential subjects by email. The online survey will start with an introductory page introducing the researcher and explaining the study. The following section will describe the study in more details. Then, the participant will be asked to go through the informed consent form and so either they agree to continue or otherwise they will exist from the survey.

Potential risk included breach of confidentiality if the data collected in some way became identifiable as well as psychological risks which include self-esteem and self-efficacy when taking the survey.

To minimize potential risks, the researcher sent the consent form to the participants during the recruitment process. The participants were notified that their identity and the name of the university will not be asked from them by the researcher. They also were informed that their participation and responses to the survey are anonymous and will not be shared with the universities where they are employed. Only the researcher will have access to download the survey results.

The researcher also informed the participants that participation is voluntary and one may opt out at any time for any reason. The results will not be shared with any third parties. Because of cultural differences and potential confusion that may arise, it will be stressed that there are no consequences for not participating or not completing the entire study.

Summary

This chapter described the methodology used for collecting the data that answered the research questions. The study aimed to identify the most common challenges for women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education in three universities in Riyadh region of Saudi Arabia. Survey questionnaires developed in order for the researcher to achieve the goal of

the study and answer the research questions. Validation and reliability, data collection

procedures, and analytical techniques were identified and discussed in this chapter. Chapter 4

presented the results of the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Findings

The study's purpose was to identify the most common challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of the Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves plus organizational challenges. It then ascertained if there were significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables.

The study included faculty members at three universities in Saudi Arabia that participated in the present study. One hundred surveys were sent to potential participants by email; however, only 78 completed the surveys. This chapter includes a presentation of data collection from the study's questionnaire. It also presents the findings of the data analysis that resulted from this study. The survey items were designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

2. What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

3. What are the personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

4. What are the empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

5. Are there significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and work experience)?

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics in the form of mean with standard deviation was presented for the quantitative variables while count with percentage was presented for the categorical variables along with bar graphs for the qualitative variables. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to show the consistency of the different items that belong to each of the four challenges (organizational, cultural, personal, and lack of empowerment) under investigation. Since the Cronbach's alpha values were greater than 0.7, the researcher created a mean score of each of these challenges using the items indicated. The age categories were collapsed into two categories, 21 to 40 years of age and ≥ 41 years. For marital status, participants were classified as married or not married (single, divorced, and widowed). In terms of educational level, education was reclassified as doctorate or not doctorate (Bachelor, Master). The mean scores for challenges by age, marital status and education were then compared using Mann Whitney U test.

The job title and years of experience were regrouped into three categories (teaching assistant and lecturer, assistant professor and associate/full professor) and (<10 years, 10-20 years, and ≥ 21 years), respectively. Kruskal Wallis Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to compare mean challenge score by job title and years of experience. Alpha was set at 0.05 level of significance. We used IBM SPSS (version 23.0) for the data analysis in this study.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the study sample according to the personal and professional characteristics. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for demographic data of the participants. Participants' ages were divided into four categories: 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, and more than 50 years. The highest proportion of the participants was in the age range of 21-40 years (46.2%, $n = 36$). The majority of women were married (67.9%, $n = 53$), which helps to obtain more accurate results in terms of the challenges related to the difficulty in

finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family commitments. In addition,

16.7%, $n = 13$ of the participants were single, 11.5%, $n = 9$ divorced, and 3.8 %, $n = 3$ were

widowed which reflects the diversity of the marital status of the participants. The vast majority

of participants (94.6%, $n = 73$) earned higher education degrees (master's and doctorate), with

more than half of them having a doctorate degree (64.1%, $n = 50$). Results showed that 46.2% (n

$= 36$) of the participants were assistant professors, 35.9 % ($n = 28$) were lecturers/ teaching

assistants, and 17.9% ($n = 14$) were associate professors/ professors. For years of experience, the

data show that most of the participants had 10-20 years of experience (40.3%, $n = 31$), 33.8% (n

$= 26$) had less than 10 years of experience, and (26.0%, $n = 20$) had more than 21 years.

Table 2

Frequency (%) of Personal and Professional Characteristics (N = 78)

Variable	Category	n	%
Age (years)	21 to 30 years	9	11.5%
	31 to 40 years	36	46.2%
	41 to 50 years	24	30.8%
	More than 50 years	9	11.5%
Marital Status	Married	53	67.9%
	Single	13	16.7%
	Divorced	9	11.5%
	Widowed	3	3.8%
Level of Education	Bachelor's degree	5	6.4%
	Master's degree	23	29.5%
	Doctorate degree	50	64.1%
Job Title	Teaching assistant	5	6.4%
	Lecturer	23	29.5%
	Assistant professor	36	46.2%
	Associate professor	11	14.1%
	Professor	3	3.8%
Work Experience	Less than 10 years	26	33.8%
	11-20 years	31	40.3%
	21-30 years	15	19.5%
	More than 30 years	5	6.5%

Table 3 shows views regarding the most important challenges facing academic women leaders that were classified into four categories: organizational challenges, personal challenges, cultural challenges, and empowerment challenges. The means and standard deviations were used of the study sample responses. Results of the statistical analysis identified cultural and organizational challenges as the most important challenges facing academic women leaders, with a mean of 3.63 ± 0.80 and 3.62 ± 0.75, respectively. Cultural challenges include gender stereotypes, prevailing beliefs about men having higher capacity and management skills of women as leaders, difficulty of dealing with some male colleagues and heads of departments by women leaders, lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders, bias from senior management to male in appointment for leadership positions than women, and prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship. Organizational challenges include the low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education, lack of equal opportunity in hiring and promotion of women in leadership positions, the centralization of decision making, limited powers granted to women leaders, poor communication and coordination between the men's and women's departments, underrepresentation of women leaders in committees and meetings at the level of higher education institutions, absence of legislation and policies to ensure women's participation in decision-making, and weak feedback on the performance of leaders. This is followed by the challenges related to lack of empowerment, which are lack of training programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles, limited opportunities for training and skill development, lack of knowledge of regulations governing the work, poor management skills necessary to exercise the leadership role, lack of information needed for decision making, lack of

delegation of authority for women from senior leadership, and lack of family support to maintain

a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations to enhance women's

development and status. The overall average for lack of empowerment challenges was 3.58 ±

0.74. The last challenge in terms of importance was personal challenges with an average of 2.69

± 0.87. Personal challenges refer to the women's lack of confidence in their ability to make

informed decisions, lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading position, lack

of leadership skills, sense of isolation in the leadership position, fear of taking responsibility,

health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth that affect the effectiveness of the

leadership role, difficulty in finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family

obligations, their excessive use of emotion in dealing with administrative issues, and difficulty

of travelling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits.

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation of Challenges Facing Academic Women Leaders (N = 78)

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organizational Challenges	3.62	0.75
Personal Challenges	2.69	0.87
Cultural Challenges	3.63	0.80
Empowerment Challenges	3.58	0.74

Key Findings for Research Questions

Survey findings for research question 1. Research question 1 asked, "What are the

organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher

education?" To answer this question, percentages of the participants' response was used. Figure

1 shows the percentages for each organizational challenge that was relevant to the study

questionnaire. Seven different items that addressed the organizational (structural) challenges

based on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree were used The top

three organizational challenges rated as being strongly agree and agree were " the low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education" (53.8%, $n = 42$), "the centralization of decision making" (50%, $n = 39$), and "the limited powers granted to women leaders" (43.6%, $n = 34$).
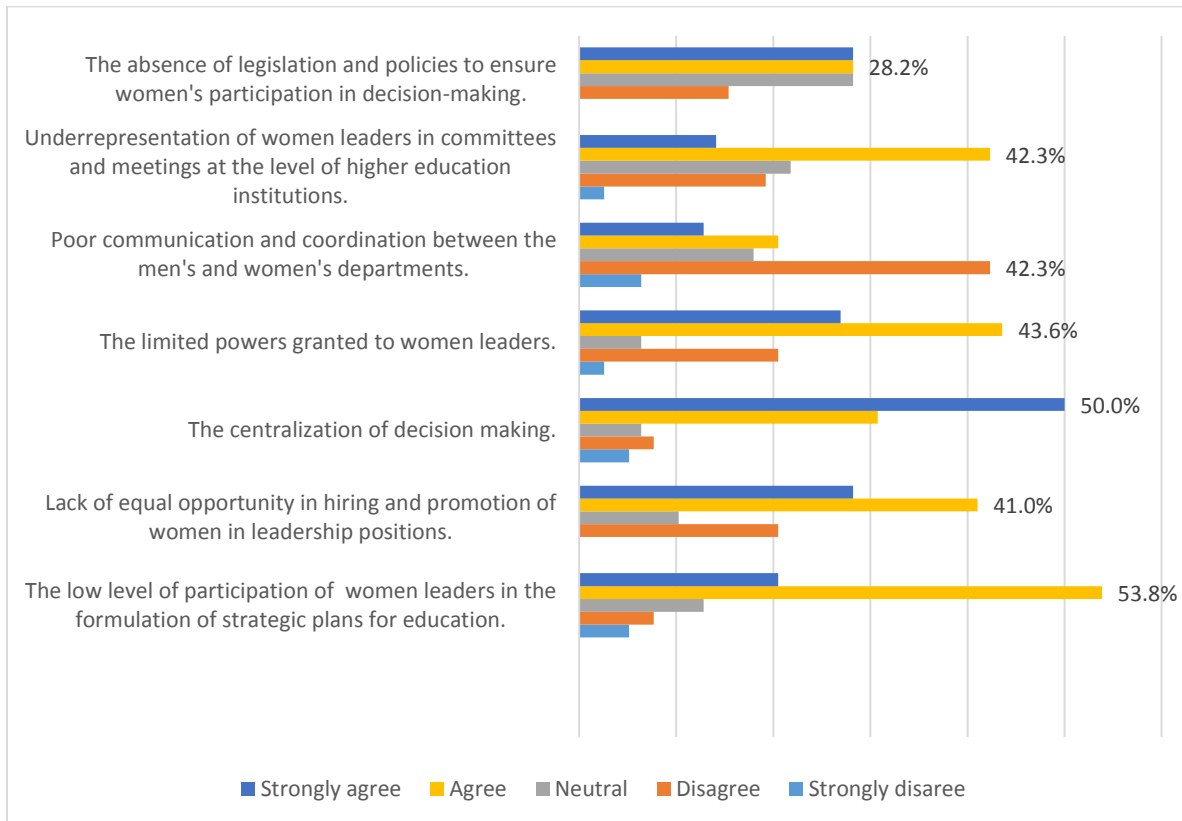

Figure 1. Organizational challenges ($N = 78$).

Survey findings for research question 2. Research question 2 asked, "What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, five items related to cultural challenges of participants' response were used. Figure 2 shows the percentages for each cultural challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. The three most frequently reported cultural challenges rated as strongly agree and agree were "Prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship" (39.7%, $n = 24$), "Lack of

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confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders" (38.5%, *n* = 30)," Bias from

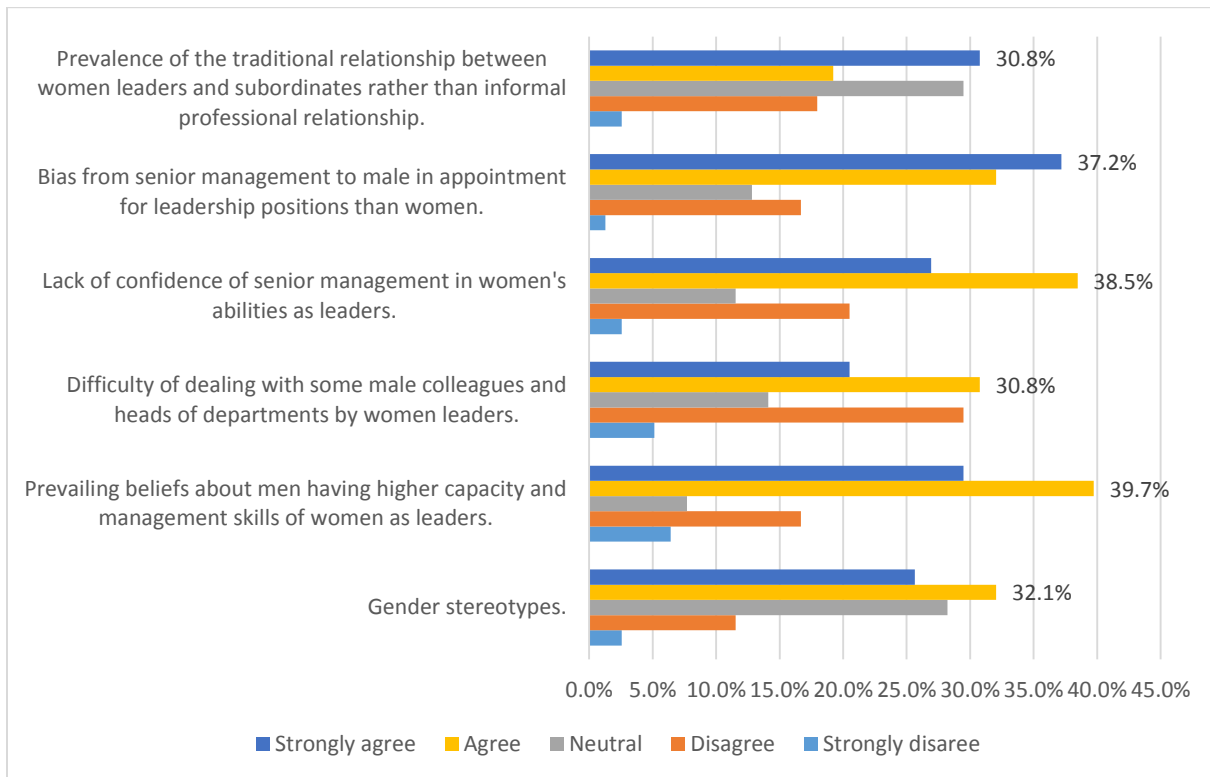senior management to male in appointment for leadership positions than women (37.2%, *n* = 29).

Figure 2. Cultural challenges (*N* = 78).

Survey findings for research question 3. Research question 3 asked, "What are the

personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher

education?" To answer this question, nine items pertaining to potential personal challenges that

these women encounter was used. Figure 3 shows the percentages for each cultural challenge

that was relevant to the study questionnaire. Among the nine items, the three most frequent

responses were rated as being least rated personal challenges (highly disagree/disagree). These

challenges were namely, "Women's lack of confidence in their ability to make informed

decisions" (43.6%, *n* = 34), "Lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading

position" (42.3%, *n* = 33), and "Health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth affect

the effectiveness of the leadership role" (42.3%, *n* = 33). On the other hand, 30.8% of the

women agreed that "difficulty of traveling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits" was a personal challenge these women encounter, however, the same number of women disagreed that this was a challenge to them.
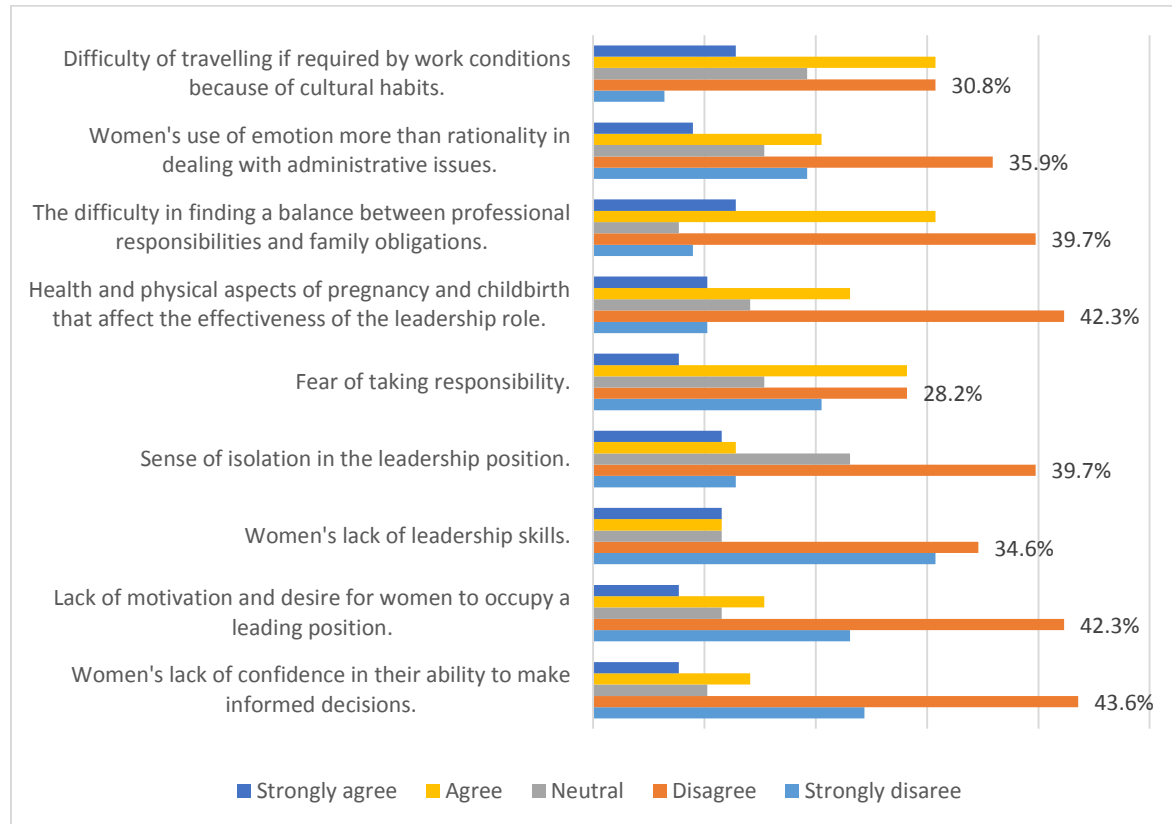

Figure 3. Personal challenges (*N* = 78).

Survey findings for research question 4. Research question 4 asked, "What is the lack of empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, seven items were asked. Figure 4 shows the percentages for each empowerment challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. The most frequent empowerment challenge was "Lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership" (46.2%, *n* = 36) followed by "Limited opportunities for training and skill development" (45.5%, *n* = 35) and "Lack of training programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles"(42.3%, *n* = 33).
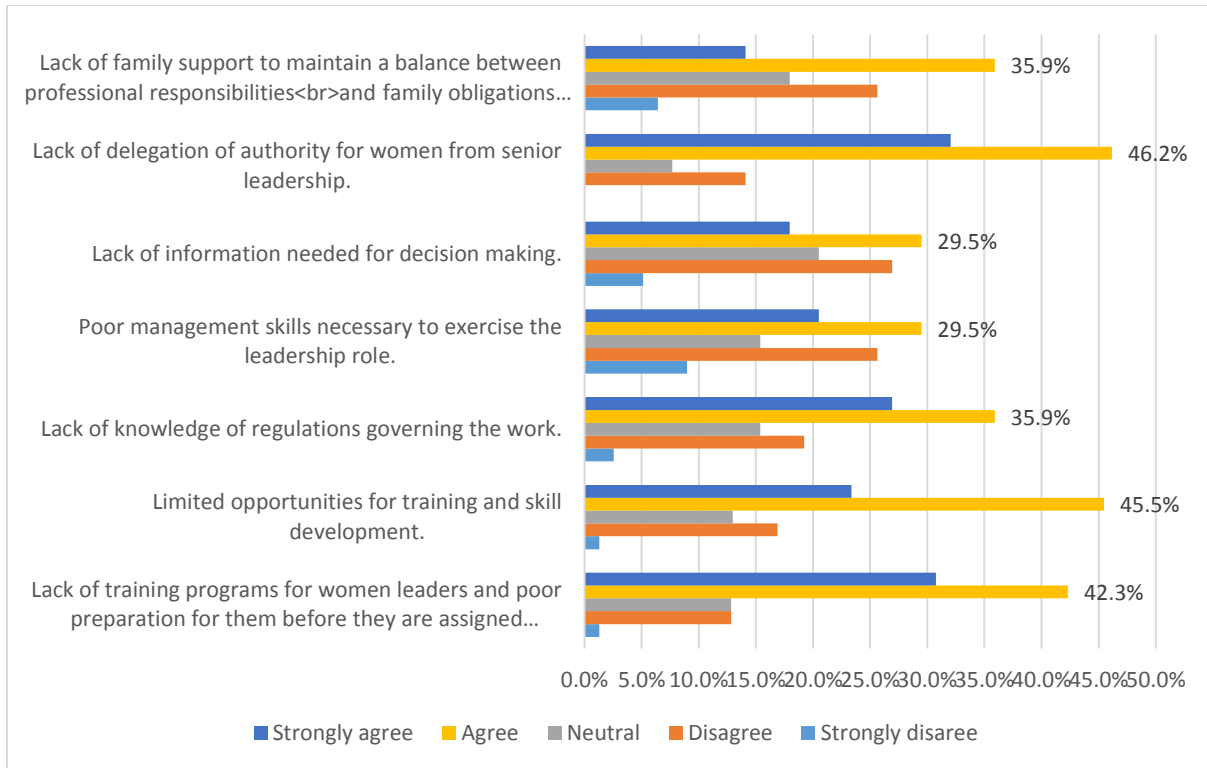
Figure 4. Empowerment challenges (*N* = 78).

Survey findings for research question 5. Research question 5 asked, "Are there significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and years of experience)?" to answer this question, the items that belong to each challenge were averaged. The mean differences in scores of these challenges between the different groups were compared. Based on the results, the mean score of organizational, personal, cultural and empowerment challenges were not statistically significant as shown in Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) Scores by Age (N = 78)

	Age categories	N	Mean	SD	P-value*
Organizational Challenges	21 to 40	45	3.66	0.74	0.59
	41 and above	33	3.57	0.77	
Personal Challenges	21 to 40	45	2.65	0.70	0.71
	41 and above	33	2.73	1.07	
Cultural Challenges	21 to 40	45	3.65	0.78	0.80
	41 and above	33	3.61	0.83	
Empowerment Challenges	21 to 40	45	3.51	0.72	0.38
	41 and above	33	3.66	0.76	

Note. Alpha is set at a value of 0.05; *: Mann-Whitney U test

Table 5

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) Scores by Marital Status

	Marital status	N	Mean	SD	P-value*
Organizational Challenges	Married	53	3.59	0.81	0.64
	Not married	25	3.68	0.62	
Personal Challenges	Married	53	2.65	0.84	0.62
	Not married	25	2.76	0.93	
Cultural Challenges	Married	53	3.66	0.78	0.62
	Not married	25	3.57	0.84	
Empowerment Challenges	Married	53	3.60	0.72	0.65
	Not married	25	3.52	0.80	

Note. Alpha is set at a value of 0.05,*: Mann-Whitney U test

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) Scores by Education (N = 78)

	Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P-value*
Organizational Challenges	Bachelors/Masters	28	3.71	0.77	0.42
	Doctorate	50	3.57	0.74	
Personal Challenges	Bachelors/Masters	28	2.63	0.6	0.622
	Doctorate	50	2.72	0.99	
Cultural Challenges	Bachelors/Masters	28	3.73	0.67	0.38
	Doctorate	50	3.58	0.87	
Empowerment Challenges	Bachelors/Masters	28	3.46	0.71	0.30
	Doctorate	50	3.64	0.76	

Note. Alpha is set at a value of 0.05,*: Mann-Whitney U test

Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) Scores by Job Title (N = 78)

	Job Title	N	Mean	SD	P-value*
Organizational Challenges	Associate Professor/Professor	14	3.47	0.94	0.62
	Assistant Professor	36	3.61	0.66	
	Lecturer/Teaching Assistant	28	3.71	0.77	
Personal Challenges	Associate Professor/Professor	14	2.48	0.69	0.43
	Assistant Professor	36	2.81	1.08	
	Lecturer/Teaching Assistant	28	2.63	0.6	
Cultural Challenges	Associate Professor/Professor	14	3.64	0.83	0.67
	Assistant Professor	36	3.55	0.89	
	Lecturer/Teaching Assistant	28	3.73	0.67	
Empowerment Challenges	Associate Professor/Professor	14	3.84	0.73	0.30
	Assistant Professor	36	3.57	0.76	
	Lecturer/Teaching Assistant	28	3.46	0.71	

Note. Alpha is set at a value of 0.05,*: Kruskal Wallis Analysis of Variance

Table 8

Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) Scores by Years of Experience (N = 78)

	Years of Experience	N	Mean	SD	P-value*
Organizational Challenges	Less than 10	26	3.64	0.81	0.91
	10 to 20	31	3.67	0.66	
	21 and more	20	3.58	0.83	
Personal Challenges	Less than 10	26	2.60	0.60	0.60
	10 to 20	31	2.82	1.06	
	21 and more	20	2.63	0.87	
Cultural Challenges	Less than 10	26	3.60	0.79	0.91
	10 to 20	31	3.69	0.79	
	21 and more	20	3.65	0.80	
Empowerment Challenges	Less than 10	26	3.41	0.75	0.21
	10 to 20	31	3.59	0.68	
	21 and more	20	3.80	0.80	

Note. Alpha is set at a value of 0.05,*: Kruskal Wallis Analysis of Variance

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha used to measure the reliability of items related to obtaining scores of

related items. The results indicated that the reliability coefficients was a high level of consistency

of the different types of challenges and suitable for the objectives of the study. Table 9 shows

Cronbach's alpha values for the different types of challenges.

Table 9

Cronbach's Alpha Values for the Different Types of Challenges

Type of Challenge	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Organizational Challenges	The low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education.	0.831
	Lack of equal opportunity in hiring and promotion of women in leadership positions.	
	The centralization of decision making.	
	The limited powers granted to women leaders.	
	Poor communication and coordination between the men's and women's departments.	
	Underrepresentation of women leaders in committees and meetings at the level of higher education institutions.	
	The absence of legislation and policies to ensure women's participation in decision-making.	
	Weak feedback on the performance of leaders.	
Personal Challenges	Women's lack of confidence in their ability to make informed decisions.	0.87
	Lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading position.	
	Women's lack of leadership skills.	
	Sense of isolation in the leadership position.	
	Fear of taking responsibility.	
	Health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth that affect the effectiveness of the leadership role.	
	The difficulty in finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations.	
	Women's use of emotion more than rationality in dealing with administrative issues.	
	Difficulty of travelling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits.	
Cultural Challenges	Gender stereotypes.	0.77
	Prevailing beliefs about men having higher capacity and management skills of women as leaders.	
	Difficulty of dealing with some male colleagues and heads of departments by women leaders.	
	Lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders.	
	Bias from senior management to male in appointment for leadership positions than women.	
	Prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship.	
Empowerment Challenges	Lack of training programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles.	0.777
	Limited opportunities for training and skill development.	
	Lack of knowledge of regulations governing the work.	
	Poor management skills necessary to exercise the leadership role.	
	Lack of information needed for decision making.	
	Lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership.	
	Lack of family support to maintain a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations to enhance women's development and status.	

Summary

This chapter analyzed the survey findings from respondents to identify the challenges of Saudi women to obtain leadership position in higher education. It was found that cultural and organizational challenges identified as the most important challenges facing academic women leaders. Then, challenges related to lack of empowerment identified as the second challenges, while personal challenges ranked last challenges. The following chapter will present a detailed discussion of the key findings, recommendations, and conclusions.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

Study Overview

This chapter is divided into four sections. First section is an overview of the study, which includes a restatement of the study's purpose, research questions, and methodology. The second section discusses how the findings of the study are related to the literature in Chapter 2. The third section offers the limitations of the study. The last section incorporates recommendations for future studies that might contribute to overcome challenges facing women leaders in higher education.

Statement of purpose. This study seeks to identify the most common challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education, as well as to determine the nature of these challenges in terms of cultural nature of Saudi society, personal challenges emanating from the women themselves, and organizational challenges. The findings will contribute to the formulation of better strategies for academic Saudi women's empowerment to participate in decision-making positions.

Research questions. The research questions to be investigated during this study include:

1. What are the organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

2. What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

3. What are the personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

4. What are the empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?

5. Are there statistical differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and work experience)?

Study methodology. A quantitative approach was used to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem and gather the data in this study. Based on the methodology of the current study, the researcher developed survey questionnaire for the aim of identifying challenges for women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education. In creating the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed the literature and previous studies relevant to the study topic and based on the results of previous studies the researcher develop the survey. Online survey used to examine the defined population. According to Kumar (2011), using a survey research methodology is one of the most feasible methods for assessing the behavior of a population based upon the response of the sample as well as the best method for obtaining data about personal and social perceptions.

The study population was all faculty members who are working in the three universities in Riyadh region of Saudi Arabia. The universities are Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, King Saud University, and Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. The sample population is a subset of the study population to be selected in a certain way. The sample of the study will be 100 of faculty members who are working in these three universities. The researcher used a random sample to select the participants, in which each participant in the study population will have an equal probability of being selected and gain in-depth knowledge about this research topic (Creswell, 2009; Kumar, 2011). Selecting a random sample will help to attain unbiased information and every participants in the three universities will have an equal chance of

being selected. However, 78 participants were the total sample population after conducting the survey.

Discussion of Key Findings

      Research question 1. Research question 1 asked, "What are the organizational challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, percentages of the participants' response was used. Figure 1 in chapter 4 showed the percentages for each organizational challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. Seven different items that addressed the organizational (structural) challenges based on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree were used. There are top three organizational challenges rated as being strongly agree and agree. First challenge was "the low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education" (53.8%). The second challenge was "the centralization of decision making" (50%). The third organizational challenge was "the limited powers granted to women leaders" (43.6%). Al-Halawani (as cited in Al-Ahmadi, 2011) stated that the lack of women's authority, exclusion from strategic planning, and the centralization of the decision-making process may be due to that Saudi women's access to leadership positions in higher education institutions is relatively recent, which contributed to the lack of confidence in women's capabilities, managerial efficiency and their leadership skill.

      Research question 2. Research question 2 asked, "What are the cultural challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, five items related to cultural challenges of participants' response were used. Figure 2 in chapter 4 showed the percentages for each cultural challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. The first three most frequently reported cultural challenges rated as strongly agree

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and agree was "Prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship" (39.7%). A study by Lamude (1993) found that female supervisors use soft influence tactics with both female and male employees. This implies that female rely on intimate communication styles with others and place high value on interpersonal relationships in the workplace.

The second cultural challenge with highly agreed percentage from participants was "Lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders" (38.5%). This result is consistent with that of Elmuti et al. (2009), which assured that some leaders at organizations lacked confidence in the ability of women to lead. Additionally, some women also lacked confidence in themselves to lead. Women's leadership style is seen as ineffective because effective leadership usually reflects male characteristics. If these women have been appointed to leadership positions, it was expected to perform, work, and lead like men in order to fit in the positions and prove their accountability as leaders (Kiamba, 2008; Still, 2006). This effect on women's behavior, communication styles, and their leadership styles in workplace. When women leaders attempt to exercise power outside their stereotypes and leadership style, they face lack of support and negative feedback from others for their violation of gender stereotypes (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). These gender stereotypes depicting women as lacking the same characteristics that people normally associate with effective leadership, therefore create a false impression that women do not up to men when it comes to leadership positions. These stereotypical traits in women have adverse effects on women leaders in the workplace which limits the opportunities available to them to advance to senior leadership positions. On the other hand, stereotypical traits in male align with leadership traits. Women assigned as *take care* behaviors because of their sensitivity and emotional traits, while men assigned as *take charge*

behaviors because of their rational and assertive traits (Welbourne, 2005). According to

Ridgeway (2002), Gender stereotypes formed an unequal relationship between men and women

by establishing men's high-level positions over women. It also influences the hierarchical status

of each of them in the community. This hierarchical status affects one's performance and

perceived status in workplace (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

The third challenge was bias from senior management to male in appointment for

leadership positions than women (37.2%). Metcalfe (as cited in Alomair, 2015) who indicated

that there is lack of equal opportunities in appointment for leadership positions between man and

women in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. This is predominantly due to the

biases in selection and recruitment processes.

Shanmugam et al. (2008) also ascribed the reason for the dominance of men in leadership

positions, especially in higher education; to the opportunities that men receive that help them to

develop their professional networks, creating opportunities for an upgrade to leadership

positions. Many quantitative and qualitative studies have argued that lack of professional

networking is one of the major challenges preventing women from accessing leadership

positions. Unfortunately, many women are excluded from various networks on their journey to

leadership positions. Women need to break through this male dominated talent pool to attain

leadership positions (AlDoubi, 2014). In addition, Munoz (2010) studied Latina community

college presidents and found a huge absence of networking opportunities for women. In contrast,

men had many chances to build up their networking systems.

King (1997) emphasized the importance of forming informal and formal women's

professional networks that involve open discussion. These networks help women to

communicate with other women in similar fields and share their experiences, current concerns,

information, and solutions. In addition, King pointed out that the networking process could be empowering and stimulating since these networks motivate women to utilize their strengths and work to develop their weaknesses.

Research question 3. Research question 3 asked, "What are the personal challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, nine items pertaining to potential personal challenges that these women encounter was used. Figure 3 in chapter 3 showed the percentages for each cultural challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. Among the nine items, the three most frequent responses were rated as being least rated personal challenges (highly disagree/disagree). The first challenge was "Women's lack of confidence in their ability to make informed decisions" (43.6%). The second challenge was "Lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading position" (42.3%). The third challenge was "Health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth affect the effectiveness of the leadership role" (42.3%). On the other hand, 30.8% of the women agreed that "difficulty of traveling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits" was a personal challenge these women encounter, however, the same number of wonen disagreed that this was a challenge to them.

Research question 4. Research question 4 asked, "What is the lack of empowerment challenges for Saudi women leaders to obtain senior leadership positions in higher education?" To answer this question, seven items were asked. Figure 4 in chapter 4 showed the percentages for each empowerment challenge that was relevant to the study questionnaire. The most frequent empowerment challenge was "Lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership" (46.2%). The next challenges that were rated as the highest challenge facing academic women leaders was "Limited opportunities for training and skill development"

(45.5%). This finding was consistent with those of Zubaidi et al. (2011), who found that limited

opportunities for women to receive training and skill development is one of several challenges

that prevent them from obtaining senior leadership position. Leadership positions require

substantial experiences and excellent qualifications. Limited opportunities for training lead to a

lack of experience and skills for women, which in turn reduce women's access to leadership

positions.

The third challenge was "Lack of training programs for women leaders and poor

preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles"(42.3%). This finding is consistent

with Abu-Khdair (2012), who analyzed the training needs for women in Institute of Public

Administration (IPA) in Saudi Arabia. She found that strategic planning, decision making,

conflict management, crisis management, negotiation skills were most of the skills needed by

women working in the Institute of Public Administration.

In addition, mentoring opportunities and female role model for women in the workplace

plays a role in the representation of women in decision making positions and help to prepare

them before they are assigned leadership roles (Zubaidi et al., 2011). Gupton and Slick (1995)

defined a role model as a worthy individual whose behavior and success is respected by others

and can be emulated by others: an excellent example for another in a role he/she wants. Gilmour

and Kinsella (2009) described mentor as a person with more experience who actively helps and

guides someone less experienced (i.e., a mentee) by offering advice in order to increase his/her

potential, enhance his/her efficiency, develop his/her skills, and become the individual he/she

would like to be.

According to Ragins and Cotton (1999), mentoring relationships are often classified into

two types: formal or informal. In formal mentoring, the program coordinator often assigns the

mentors on the basis of their expertise and competency. The objectives of formal mentoring are determined in the beginning of the mentoring process and this type of relationship lasts between 6 months to 1 year. Informal mentoring is normally based on the satisfaction of professional needs and mutual identification. This type of relationship lasts between 3-6 years. The objectives of informal mentoring develop over time and adjust to the professional needs of the employees. This relationship requires integrity, openness, commitment, and effort by both individuals (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

Ensher and Murphy (2005) discussed the importance of effective mentor relationship in helping women advance to leadership positions. Brown (2005) and Campbell et al. (2010) conducted similar studies on female university presidents and found that many female university presidents had a mentor that inspired them to pursue management positions and finally the presidency. In addition, the relationship with a mentor was a key factor for their advancement to the presidency (Zubaidi et al., 2011).

Selmer and Leung (2003) studied corporate career development activities and surveyed men and women leaders about mentoring and career development activities that they received. They found that mentoring and career development activities were less available to women than men. In another study that involved a survey of female department chairs, 47% reported a lack of a mentoring relationship and indicated that this lack was limiting the effectiveness of their leadership (Mullen, 2009).

Johnson (2001) asserted, "There is a great need for institutional structures to be put in place that acknowledge the importance of mentoring and developing supportive networks if women are to advance in their careers and gain access to senior level positions" (p. 240).

Therefore, "Women who have the courage and confidence to challenge existing norms and make changes need support and role models" (King, 1997, p. 92).

Just as women must be conscious that expertise, hard work, and perseverance are critical the determinants of organizational success, they should also realize the significance of mentoring relationship in reaching their professional objectives (Kalbfleisch & Keyton, 1995). There are important benefits for women who receive mentoring. According to Johnson (2001), mentoring helps individuals to develop their professional identity consistent with ethical standards, personal values, and their profession. In addition, Schipani et al. (2008) asserted that mentoring relationship can increase women's self-confidence, provide valuable information, improve their abilities, and introduce them to the knowledge and skills that will lead to increased representation of women in leadership positions.

The absence of mentoring opportunities for women in the workplace plays a role in the underrepresentation of women in decision making positions (Growe & Montgomery, 2000; Schipani et al., 2008; Zubaidi et al., 2011). Mentoring relationships cannot intersect professions and positions dominated by men. Only if there is greater appreciation of what men and women bring to the table will steps be taken towards equality and professional equity (Carli & Eagly, 2012).

Research question 5. Research question 5 asked, "Are there significant differences in the challenges facing Saudi women leaders according to the study variables (age, marital status, level of education, job title, and years of experience)?" to answer this question, the items that belong to each challenge were averaged. The mean differences in scores of these challenges between the different groups were compared. Based on the results, the mean score of organizational, personal, cultural and empowerment challenges were not statistically significant

as shown in Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6 in chapter 4. This result is not consistent with that of Al-Jaradat (2014), who identified the challenges facing women academic leadership in secondary schools of Irbid Educational Area. which showed significant differences between the physical challenges and the job title variable. In addition, his study indicated that there are significant differences between the personal, social and physical challenges and academic degree variable.

Other Findings

- The study revealed that the highest proportion of the participants was in the age range of 21-40 years (46.2%).

- The majority of women were married (67.9%), which helps to obtain more accurate results in terms of the challenges related to the difficulty in finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family commitments.

- The result of the study showed high educational level of the participants, as 94.6% earned higher education degrees (master's and doctorate), with more than half of them having a doctorate degree (64.1%).

- The data indicated that most of the participants had 10-20 years of experience (40.3%).

- Cultural and organizational challenges identified as the most important challenges facing academic women leaders, with a mean of 3.63 ±0.80 and 3.62 ± 0.75, respectively. This result is consistent with results of previous studies, including the study of Al-Jaradat (2014), Al-Ahmadi (2011), and Abu-Khader (2012) study that found the organizational challenges is one of the most important obstacles that facing the women's leadership in higher education institutions.

- The challenges related to lack of empowerment identified as the second challenges with an average of 3.58 ±0.74.

- The last challenge in terms of importance was personal challenges with an average of 2.69 ±0.87 which is a sign on increasing self-confidence and the ability to take responsibility. This result attributed to the personal and professional characteristics of the study sample, as the majority of the participants earned higher education degrees, had long work experience, which in turn reflects on the level of self-confidence, maturity, motivation and desire to occupy a leading position and ability to take responsibility.

- The vast majority of women leaders confirmed that lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership, lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders, and prevailing beliefs about men having higher capacity and management skills of women as leaders were most of the challenges faced by women and hinder them to access leadership positions in higher education.

- The mean score of organizational, personal, cultural and empowerment challenges were not statistically significant.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the study is sample size. Because of the limited period of time of the study, only existing faculty members from three universities located in Riyadh City will take part in the study. The universities are Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, King Saud University, and Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. Since the study will be conducted with a small sample, the findings of the study cannot be generalized to the whole female population in other universities in Riyadh and other regions in Saudi Arabia.

Another important limitation to this study is that the history of women's education and employment in Saudi Arabia is difficult to research and find. Finding relevant statistics, information, and feedback from a proper source to clarify it can be difficult.

Another important limitation of the study is that, because the participants in the study will be speaking Arabic, there is a need to translate the survey questionnaire from English into Arabic. Because of differences in languages, some meanings might be lost in translation.

Recommendations for Action

Based on the results that have been reached on the challenges facing women to obtain leadership positions in higher education in Saudi Arabia, the following are the recommendations which aim to overcome these challenges:

- Decentralization of decisions making and delegation of authority for women to make decisions that are important for their departments.

- Forming informal and formal women's professional networks that involve open discussion. These networks help women to communicate with other women in similar fields and share their experiences, current concerns, information, discuss and analyze problems and offer solutions.

- Increase mentoring relationship for academic women leaders to increase the effectiveness of their leadership

- Encourage and support women to attend training programs to prepare and develop them before occupy leadership positions. This program should include the knowledge and skills that academic leaders need to handle leadership role efficiently and effectively. In addition, the training certificate can be a one of the basic criteria taken into account in the recruitment and selection processes of academic leaders in leadership positions in higher education.

- Enable academic women leaders through training and skills development. With emphasis on diversity in the methods used in training and the use of modern technology, such as using distance training.

- Identify training needs for academic women leaders regularly and continuously to keep up with their training needs on an ongoing basis.

- Increase opportunities for women to attend national and international conferences that discuss leadership topics.

- Promote and encouraging job rotation within universities and secondment of staff between universities. Thus contributing to the diversity and exchange of skills and expertise of faculty members which enable them to overcome the challenges of the leadership role.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following are some recommendations for future research that emerged from the findings and the limitations of this study:

- Because of the limited period of time of the study, only existing faculty members from three universities located in Riyadh City will take part in the study. The universities are Princess Nora bint Abdulrahman University, King Saud University, and Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. Therefore, this study can be generalized to the whole female population in other universities in Riyadh and other regions in Saudi Arabia. That would provide a comprehensive and wide view on the subject which would direct decision makers' attention to enable women in decision making.

- Since this study focused on women leadership challenges in higher education, future research could conduct the same study in other fields such as business and medical.

- Additionally, future research could be a comparative study to discover the similarities and differences in the challenges faced by Saudi women leaders and American women leaders.

- Finally, the study was of a quantitative study. Future study could conduct a qualitative study with different instruments such as interviews. In addition, the study could focus on experiences of Saudi women leaders in accessing leadership positions in higher education.

Conclusion and Summary

The progress of any country depends on building and developing its human resources. Higher education is considered a primary means for preparing, qualifying and developing human resources. Academic leaders are the most important elements and components of success and influence in educational institutions, and in particular with regards to the higher educational system.

The government of Saudi Arabia believes that human development is a key element in the progress of each nation. In order to achieve development in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Higher Education spares no effort in encouraging women's attempts to complete their higher education and become employed.

In spite of the growing participation of women in leadership positions in Saudi universities, this study indicates that academic women leaders in higher education in Saudi Arabia face many challenges that impede them to advance to leadership positions in higher education. The challenges categorized as organizational, cultural, lack of empowerment, and personal.

The importance of this study arises from the significance of the role of women's academic leaderships in driving the advancement and development of education in Saudi Arabia. The findings of this study and recommendations that made will have a role in helping women overcome the challenges that prevent them from accessing to leadership positions in higher education. The recommendations also will help decision makers to identify the needs of Saudi women, enabling them to be qualified for leadership positions. It is hoped that this study's findings will direct decision makers' attention to the delay in the empowerment of Saudi women, compared with their efficiency and their level of education.

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APPENDIX A

Copy of Authorization Letter

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Majlis ALshura

Authorization letter

To Whom It May Concern

I Dr. Hanan Alahmadi, hereby authorize Mrs. Shroog Alsubaihi to use the survey that I used in my study entitled: Challenges facing women leaders in Saudi Arabia.

I confirm and acknowledge the full authority to her to change and develop the survey in the way that matches her study.

My best regard,

Dr. Hanan Alahmadi

Member of the Shura Council, Saudi Arabia

Email: h_alahmadi@yahoo.com

المرفقات،   الرقـم،

                                                                                              التاريخ،

تليفون، ١٨٢١٦٦٦ - ص.ب ٦٣٣٩٣ الرياض ١١٥١٦ - المملكة العربية السعودية - الرمز البريدي ١١٢١٢ -بريد إلكتروني، webmaster@shura.gov.sa
Tel.: 4821666 - P.O. Box 63393 Riyadh 11516 - Kingdom of Saudi Arabia - Code No. 11212 - E-mail: webmaster@shura.gov.sa

APPENDIX B

Copy of IRB Approval

PEPPERDINE

Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: February 26, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Shroog Alsubaihi

Protocol #: 16-01-189

Project Title: CHALLENGES FOR WOMEN ACADEMIC LEADERS TO OBTAIN SENIOR LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Shroog Alsubaihi:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives

Mr. Brett Leach, Regulatory Affairs Specialist

Copy of English Surveys

Survey Questionnaire

First: Demographic Questions

1. **What is your age?**
    - From 21 to 30 years.
    - From 31 to 40 years.
    - From 41 to 50 years.
    - More than 50 years.

2. **What is your marital status?**
    - Married.
    - Divorced.
    - Widowed.
    - Single.

3. **What is your academic degree?**
    - Bachelor's
    - Master's
    - Doctorate.

4. **What is your job title?**
    - Teaching assistant.
    - Lecturer.
    - Assistant professor.
    - Associate professor.
    - Professor.

5. **Years of Experience**
    - Less than 10 years.
    - 10-20 years.
    - 20-30 years.
    - More than 30 years.

Second: Challenges Questions

Please choose the answer that you think accurately describes your opinion. (1) Strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

6. Organizational Challenges

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The low level of participation of women leaders in the formulation of strategic plans for education.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of equal opportunity in hiring and promotion of women in leadership positions.	○	○	○	○	○
The centralization of decision making.	○	○	○	○	○
The limited powers granted to women leaders.	○	○	○	○	○
Poor communication and coordination between the men's and women's departments.	○	○	○	○	○
Underrepresentation of women leaders in committees and meetings at the level of higher education institutions.	○	○	○	○	○
The absence of legislation and policies to ensure women's participation in decision-making.	○	○	○	○	○
Weak feedback on the performance of leaders.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Personal Challenges

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Women's lack of confidence in their ability to make informed decisions.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of motivation and desire for women to occupy a leading position.	○	○	○	○	○
Women's lack of leadership skills.	○	○	○	○	○
Sense of isolation in the leadership position.	○	○	○	○	○
Fear of taking responsibility.	○	○	○	○	○
Health and physical aspects of pregnancy and childbirth that affect the effectiveness of the leadership role.	○	○	○	○	○
The difficulty in finding a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations.	○	○	○	○	○
Women's use of emotion more than rationality in dealing with administrative issues.	○	○	○	○	○
Difficulty of travelling if required by work conditions because of cultural habits.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Cultural Challenges

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongl Disagree
Gender stereotypes.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Prevailing beliefs about men having higher capacity and management skills of women as leaders.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Difficulty of dealing with some male colleagues and heads of departments by women leaders.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Lack of confidence of senior management in women's abilities as leaders.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Bias from senior management to male in appointment for leadership positions than women.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Prevalence of the traditional relationship between women leaders and subordinates rather than informal professional relationship.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

9. Lack Empowerment Challenge

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Lack of training programs for women leaders and poor preparation for them before they are assigned leadership roles.	○	○	○	○	○
Limited opportunities for training and skill development.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of knowledge of regulations governing the work.	○	○	○	○	○
Poor management skills necessary to exercise the leadership role.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of information needed for decision making.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of delegation of authority for women from senior leadership.	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of family support to maintain a balance between professional responsibilities and family obligations to enhance women's development and status.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX D

Site Approval Letter in English

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Ministry of Education

Date:02/11/2015

Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University

(048)

Postgraduate and Scientific Researches– Vice Rectorate

Deanship of Scientific Research

Subject : Acceptance Confirmation of Researcher Assignment

Shroog Ibrahim AlSubaihi

To whom It may Concern

Based on the request of Researcher/ Shroog Ibrahim Alsubaihi, whose Scholar at the Pepperdine University at United States of America to execute a Scientific Study at Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University on title (The Challenges which facing the Woman in Academic Leadership),which including a questionnaire addressed for Teaching Professors Members at the University. Upon reviewed the subject by the Scientific Research Ethics Committee ,approved of the questionnaire content ,no objection to process the scientific study ,and present this letter to whom it may concern.

Best Regards

Scientific Research Dean

Dr.Areej A.AlKhalaf

King Saud University   Ref:44498/3/1

Vice Rectorate Office For   Date:13/11/2015

Postgraduate and Scientific Researches Attachments: None

Introduction

Reference made to the Letter of Excellency Manager of Social&

Cultural Department at Cultural Attaché at Holy Mosque

Custodian Embassy at United States of America ,dated

23/10/2015 ,which indicated the desire of Scholar at (Pepperdine

University, California) at United States of America on behalf of

Holy Mosque Custodian Program :Shroog Ibrahim Alsubaihi,to

make a site Survey of Challenges which facing the Woman in

Academic Leadership, for the Teaching Professors Members.

We would Like to inform you that we have no objection for the

University to execute the said study.

Best Regards

Vice Rectorate For

Postgraduate and Scientific Researches

Prof.Ahmed S.AlAmery

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia   Ref:10349

Ministry of Higher Education   Date:10/11/2015

Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University Mailed Date: 10/11/2015

Vice Rectorate For   Attachment :Questionnaire

Postgraduate and Scientific Researches

Excellency/

Sir,

Reference made to the Letter of Excellency Manager of Social&

Cultural Department at Cultural Attaché at Holy Mosque Custodian

Embassy at United States of America ,dated 23/10/2015 ,which

indicated the desire of Scholar at (Pepperdine University, California) at

United States of America on behalf of Holy Mosque Custodian

Program :Shroog Ibrahim Alsubaihi,to make a site Survey of

Challenges which facing the Woman in Academic Leadership, for the

Ladies Teaching Professors Members.

You are Kindly requested to offer facilities and assist in her applied

study, by distributing the Special Questionnaire form as you have seen

in this concern.

Best Regards

Vice Rectorate For

Postgraduate and Scientific Researches

Prof.Fahad A.AlAskar

APPENDIX E

Site Approval Letter in Arabic

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم
جامعة الأميرة نورة بنت عبد الرحمن
(٠٤٨)
وكالة الجامعة للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي
عمادة البحث العلمي

إلى من يهمه الأمر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد.

بناء على طلب الباحثة/ شروق بنت إبراهيم الصبيحي، المبتعثة في جامعة بير داين بأمريكا، بإجراء دراسة علمية في جامعة الأميرة نورة بنت عبد الرحمن يعنوان: (التحديات التي تواجه المرأة في القيادة الأكاديمية) حيث تشتمل على استبيان موجه لأعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعة.

فإنه بعد اطلاع لجنة أخلاقيات البحث العلمي والموافقة على محتوى الاستبانة ،لا مانع لدينا من إجراء دراستها العلمية، وتقديم هذا الخطاب لمن يهمه الأمر.

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتنا

عميدة البحث العلمي

د. أريج بنت عبد الكريم الخلف.

الرقم: .... الناريخ: ١٩ /١٠ / ١٤٣٧هـ المشفوعات ....

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جامعة
الملك سعود
King Saud University

مكتب وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

" أفـــادة "

السلام عليكم ورحمة اللّه وبركاته

أشارة الى كتاب سعادة مدير إدارة الشؤون الثقافية والإجتماعية بالملحقية الثقافية بسفارة خادم الحرمين الشريفين في أمريكا المؤرخ في ٢٠١٥/١٠/٢٣م والمشار فيه إلى رغبة المبتعثة بجامعة ببيرداين (Pepperdine University, California) بالولايات المتحدة الأمريكية على برنامج خادم الحرمين الشريفين: **شروق بنت إبراهيم الصبيحي**، إجراء دراسة ميدانية عن التحديات التي تواجه المرآة في القيادة الأكاديمية، وذلك على أعضاء هيئة التدريس.

نود أفادتكم بأنه لا مانع لدى الجامعة من اجراء الدراسة.

ولسعادتكم تحياتي

وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

أ.د. أحمد بن سالم العامري

رقم القيد ٤٤٤٩٨/ ٣ /١
التاريخ ١٤٣٧/٠١/٣٠
المرفقات

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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الموضـــوع:

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية
وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

فضيلة / سعادة   حفظه الله

سلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته .. أما بعد :

فأشير إلى خطاب سعادة مدير إدارة الشؤون الثقافية والاجتماعية بالملحقة الثقافية

بسفارة خادم الحرمين الشريفين في أمريكا المؤرخ في ٢٠١٥/١٠/٢٣م والمشار فيه إلى

رغبة المبتعثة بجامعة بيبرداين (Pepperdine University, California) بالولايات المتحدة

الأمريكية على برنامج خادم الحرمين الشريفين: **شروق بن إبراهيم الصبيحي** إجراء

دراسة ميدانية عن التحديات التي تواجه المرأة في القيادة الأكاديمية، وذلك على أعضاء

هيئة التدريس من النساء.

لذا آمل تسهيل مهمتها ومساعدتها في تطبيق الدراسة وتوزيع الاستبانة الخاصة بها

وفق ماترونه، والله يحفظكم ويرعاكم

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته..

وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

أ.د. فهد بن عبدالعزيز العسكر

خالد (٣٧/١)

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