

**Factors Impeding Organisational Change in Education: A Case Study of
Tatweer**

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Doctor of Philosophy

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2 June 2015

Acknowledgments

In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful

The success in every aspect in my life and the completion of this thesis is from Allah the Almighty. All praise, thanks, and gratitude is due to Allah Almighty alone for providing me with the strength, patience, will, mercy, and countless blessings that enabled me to achieve my goals.

After Allah Almighty I would like to extend my sincere thanks and appreciation to a number of people who supported me through this journey.

To the love of my life, my mother and father. Words will never be enough to express the love, appreciation and gratitude that I have for you. You sacrificed your lives to provide me with unconditional love and care. Without you in my life I would not be where I am now. Your continuous prayers, love, support, inspiration, and encouragement brightens my life. I am truly blessed to have you as my parents. May God bless you and grant you a long healthy life.

To my dear husband, Feras, Thank you for your constant support and encouragement, and always being there to help me through the difficult times. To my lovely children, Jood and Yusuf. You are my beautiful God given gifts, my joy and happiness. May God bless you my angels.

To my sisters and brothers, Nora, Faisal, Nada, Ramla, Amna, Hajar, Najlaa, Abdullah, and Ahmad. Your prayers, moral, and emotional support always hold me up through hard times. Our special and unique bond is a true bless.

I extend my special thanks and appreciation to my supervisors, Dr. Matthew Gorton and Prof. James Tooley, for their continuous support, time, and guidance. I thank them both for their patience, constructive criticism, and comments through the development of this study.

Finally, this journey would not be accomplished without my friends by my side. Being away from my family and home country was a challenge. Yet, I am blessed that God granted me a second family. To my sisters and dear friends in Newcastle. Our journey does not end here, yet, it begins. I wish you a life full of happiness and success, and I thank you for all the smiles, laughs, and tears we shared. You are always there for me and I will always be there for you.

Abstract

This study investigates the factors impeding organisational change in the public educational sector of Saudi Arabia. It does so to avoid the waste of financial resources by proposing solutions for better management of change in the public education sector. It also identifies the sources of resistance to change, approaches used to control them, and explores the role of internal and external communication in stakeholders' engagement and in the management of change initiatives.

A case study approach was adopted, focusing on the King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project (Tatweer), the most comprehensive reform initiative introduced in the Saudi educational system to date. Data collection occurred via semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and reviewing documentary evidence. The research used snowball and maximum variation sampling to interview key informants from officials from the Ministry of Education, as well as teachers and head teachers at Tatweer pilot schools and private schools, to provide in-depth insights into the context of change and to explore the factors limiting implementation.

The software package Nvivo10 was utilised to aid analysis. This commenced by coding to explore and compare perspectives. Matrices were developed for comparative pattern analysis at the Ministry of Education and school levels. Private schools do not perceive public schools as competitors and competition is not visible between public schools.

The analysis of the management of the project revealed several problems surrounding the project's implementation, particularly insufficient communication, lack of incentives, limited training, and improper resource allocation. Resistance to change emerged due to insufficient communication and incentives. The culture and social norms of Saudi society interfere with effective organisational management.

Internal and external communication plays a crucial role in change initiatives and minimising resistance to change. However, in the Saudi public educational system, external communication is limited and tends to be viewed as superfluous, competition between schools does not exist, and external stakeholder participation is minimal. The findings revealed that parents' minimal involvement impeded the implementation of change initiatives. Schools seldom engage in strategies to enhance student recruitment and without providing incentives, schools are less interested in enrolling additional students, which reduces competition, and consequently external communication remains of marginal importance in Saudi Arabia.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviations used in the thesis

AoM	The Academy of Management
BC	British Colombia
CAQDAS	Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis
CDP	Child Development Project
DoE	Department of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MoE	Ministry of Education
NPM	New Public Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PIF	Public Investment Fund
PR	Public Relations
PS	Private Schools
RM	Relationship Marketing
RTC	Resistance to Change
SDP	School Development Programme
SEC	Supreme Economic Council
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TS	Tatweer Pilot Schools
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

Chapter One: Introduction and Background to the Study

1.1 Introduction

The chapter commences by presenting background information relating to the research study undertaken, with a brief history of general attempts by Saudi Arabia to change and improve its government organisations. This is followed by a discussion of the pressures to reform the educational system in the Kingdom and its movement towards a knowledge-based economy. The chapter sheds light on the country's background and economy, followed by an overview of the evolution of the system of education in Saudi Arabia. It further discusses the organisational structure of the Ministry of Education (MoE), with examples of some of the educational initiatives it initiated. Moreover, the rationale to reform the educational system and the challenges the Kingdom is facing are explained, with a description of the King Abdullah Public Education Development Project (Tatweer), the first comprehensive education reform initiative in Saudi Arabia. After that, the chapter states the research problem, namely the limited outcomes and success of reform initiatives in the public educational system in the Kingdom, focusing on the MoE as a government organisation and Tatweer Project as the case study of this research. The thesis' objectives and questions are then outlined. The research gap is identified, and the significance of the study explained. Finally, the structure of the thesis is presented.

1.2 Research Background

Organisational survival and growth depend on an ability to adapt to environmental change. The adjustment process often requires changes in technology, organisational structures, policies and regulations, and/or individuals' behaviours and attitudes (Judson, 1991; Kotter, 1995; Galpin, 1996). However, managing change in organisations is frequently difficult and complex due to the multiplicity of organisational and environmental elements that affects them. Resistant forces typically exist which impede change for psychological, social, cultural, or political reasons, and developing appropriate mechanisms to deal with these forces is crucial (Judson, 1991; Fedor *et al.*, 2006; Oreg, 2006; Elias, 2009; Peccei, Giangreco & Sebastiano, 2011).

Since the 1930s, the Kingdom has witnessed great economic development due to the discovery of oil and the profits it derives from its export. The government has allocated a proportion of such profits to establish social services and improve the country's infrastructure. Due to the small population of the Kingdom and a shortage of administrative and technical expertise, as a result of

limited education, during the latter period the Kingdom attempted to fill gaps and make up for such a shortage in expertise through soliciting foreign labourers. This step was accompanied by the expansion of education and training by establishing universities and technical institutes. Then, a new tendency of Saudization of jobs emerged in 1975, especially due to the increased pressures of unemployment and the great number of Saudis entering the labour market (Muhammad, 2003). Even though the latter attempt was faced with several obstacles limiting its success, demographic and economic changes in Saudi society at that time created positive conditions for the Saudization plan attempt to succeed, especially in the government sector of the Kingdom, and raised pressures and demands on the private sector to employ Saudi citizens (Muhammad, 2003). Al Shimaimri and Al Dakhil Allah (2003) discuss how the latter attempt led to the appointment of many Saudi graduates of universities, faculties, vocational and technical institutes to senior positions that exceeded their abilities and qualifications. Since such fresh graduates have no wide experience, the civil service has witnessed much disorder and weak performance, due to the lack of experience or the nonconformity of new managers' abilities and qualifications for the requirements of jobs available in both the public and private sector (Al Qahtani, 2013).

Al Bishi (2001) emphasizes that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been seeking to establish government agencies capable of keeping up with the challenges of the twenty-first century and achieving comprehensive development, through defining the main obstacles in developing governmental organizations and identifying solutions to overcome them. He further highlights that studying the obstacles to development in government organisations, and the search for methods to overcome them, began in the early 1960s. Additionally, the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform, formed in 1963, contributed to the identification, study, and provision of solutions to the problems faced by government agencies (The Institute of Public Administration, 1999). The Ministerial Committee for Administrative Organization was formed in 1999 to develop government organisations and overcome their barriers to change (Ministerial Committee for Administrative Organization, 2003). It is noticeable, through tracing the stages in the development of various government organisations in the Kingdom that this development focused more on structural aspects. For instance, an analysis of the decisions of the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform issued between 1953 and 1992 indicate that 61% of decisions related to reorganizing, removing and developing government organisations, while decisions related to administrative procedures and financial affairs was not more than 20% (Ministerial Committee for Administrative Organization, 2003).

After Saudi Arabia joined the World Trade Organization (WTO) in December 2005 (WTO, 2014), the pressure increased on central government organisations to improve their performance due to deficiencies in their administration in order to cope with the rapid change and increasing needs and requirements of the people to whom the organisations provide their services (Hertog, 2008). The general objectives of the strategy of institutional and administrative development in the eighth development plan of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2005-2009) stressed the importance of creating a highly efficient and effective institutional and administrative environment, (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2005). The development plan acknowledges that public sector reform in Saudi Arabia faces several barriers. In keeping with this, the current study analyses and identifies the main obstacles to organisational change and development in the context of education.

Various studies have identified that the organizational reform of public sector agencies in Arab countries suffered from distinctive deficiencies (Al Awaji, 1971; Al Milhim, 2000; Al Ozaiki, 1998; Al Qahtani, 2013), which consequently led to a lack of integration of the elements of the reform strategy. These deficiencies include the following:

- a- Reform efforts in Arab countries have focussed solely on establishing official structures and systems.
- b- Non-application of the principle of participation in development and change processes.
- c- Caring about technical and operational aspects and neglecting behavioural and environmental aspects.
- d- Deficiency in the strategy of administrative development. Foreign strategies for reform should be adapted to the requirements of Saudi society, reflecting cultural and socio-economic differences.

1.2.1 The Kingdom's Efforts to Develop its Government Organisations

The reform of Saudi Arabian government organisations commenced a long time ago. Administrative reorganization has consisted of many stages since the unification of the Kingdom, such as the establishment of the Council of Ministers, the introduction of development plans and the current wave of reforms (Al Yousif, 2011). The government has realized since the beginning of the 1950s that government organisations are ineffective and inefficient due to a number of organizational and managerial problems (Al Ozaiki, 1998; Al Yousif, 2011).

In 1960, the government resorted to the World Bank and Department of Technical Cooperation of the United Nations, who both recommended a number of developmental steps: reorganizing the public administration, establishing the Institute of Public Administration, promoting the study of public administration, and establishing a central planning agency. The Ford Motor Company, which started its business in Saudi Arabia in 1963, was also involved with the reform of the Saudi public sector. In particular, it conducted studies about government organisations, personnel management, training, financial management, and public works (Al Hamd, 1984). These studies contributed to the development of civil service systems and basic administrative structures.

Following studies and recommendations by foreign experts, Saudi Arabia formed the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform in 1963. Moreover, the Council of Ministers was restructured in 1964 when the General Personnel Council gave it more responsibilities and authorities. Many agencies and organizations of administrative development were also established in this era, such as the Civil Service Council, Committee for Civil Servants Training and Scholarships, Manpower Council and Central Administration of Organization and Management. Management mechanisms at universities in Saudi Arabia were also set up (Al Tawil, 1995).

Since its formation, the Higher Committee for Administrative Reform has been amended many times, with the last being in 1991. The Committee has participated in several administrative reform initiatives (The Institute of Public Administration, 1999).

1.2.2 Pressure to Reform the Saudi Education System: The Kingdom's Transition to a Knowledge-Based Economy

The development plans of Saudi Arabia stem from the Basic Law established by the state:

To contribute to human civilization within the context of Islamic values and high moral standards..... and achieve comprehensive sustainable development (The Ninth Development Plan, 2010, p.25)

The Ninth Development Plan (2010-2014) follows the same direction as preceding ones, with the addition of further objectives, including developing human resources, raising their efficiency, moving towards a knowledge-based economy, and ensuring the growth of the Saudi economy in an international environment through improvements in competitiveness and performance efficiency (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). The Kingdom remains an emerging economy that is

dependent on oil as its main source of income. It is seeking to decrease its reliance on oil revenues and lay the foundations for a knowledge-based economy that enhances competitiveness, raises economic productivity, develops natural resources, and builds a highly-skilled workforce. The Ninth Development Plan argues that several activities are required to ensure the Kingdom’s movement towards a knowledge-based economy. These activities are: the dissemination, generation, production, utilisation and investment of knowledge. Therefore, the plan adopts policies to enhance the dissemination of knowledge, and one of its central objectives is to raise educational standards to produce qualified citizens capable of participating effectively in the labour market (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). This is because the development of a well-educated, skilled and creative society is one of the four pillars of the World Bank’s Knowledge Economy Assessment (KEA) framework, as presented in Table 1.1 (The World Bank, 2010). Nevertheless, education in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is reported to be underperforming so that “gaps still exist between what education systems have attained and what the region needs to achieve its current and future development” (MENA Development Report, 2008, p.1).

Table 1.1: The Four Pillars of Knowledge Economy

Pillar 1 Economic and Institutional Regime	Pillar 2 Education and Skills	Pillar 3 Information and Communication Infrastructure	Pillar 4 Innovative System
The country’s economic and institutional regime must provide incentives for the efficient use of existing and new knowledge and the flourishing of entrepreneurship.	The country’s people need education and skills that enable them to create and share, and to use it well.	A dynamic information infrastructure is needed to facilitate the effective communication, dissemination, and processing of information.	The country’s innovation system—firms, research centres, universities, think tanks, consultants, and other organizations—must be capable of tapping the growing stock of global knowledge, assimilating and adapting it to local needs, and creating new technology.

Source: The World Bank (2010, p. 1)

The educational system in the Kingdom, similar to other Arab countries, is facing serious challenges. First, the increasing number of students, resulting from the rapid growth of the Saudi

population, requires the expansion of the educational system to meet the needs of all learners. The Saudi population has grown tremendously in recent decades and 70% of the population is under the age of 34. This is illustrated in Table 1.2, which shows the level of population growth in Saudi Arabia since 1974 according to the Central Department of Statistics and Information (2013). Second, it must adapt the curriculum to meet the objective of preparing citizens to compete in a globalised economy (Ministry of Education, 2004; Sager, 2004; Maroun *et al.* 2008). For instance, this will involve improving information technology skills (Arani, 2004; Maroun *et al.* 2008; Mok, 2005). However, this is politically and culturally sensitive, as the education system is challenged to facilitate new technology usage, but must do so within cultural limits to protect national identity and limit the effects of ‘culture invasion’ (Maroun *et al.* 2008).

Table 1.2: Population of Saudi Arabia

Year	Saudis	Non-Saudis	Total	Percentage growth (%)
1974	5,147,056	1,862,410	7,094,66	-
1992	12,310,053	4,638,335	16,948,388	141.8
2004	16,527,340	6,150,922	22,678,262	33.8
2010	18,707,576	8,429,401	27,136,977	19.7
2013	20,271,058	9,723,214	29,994,272	2.7

Source: Central Department of Statistics and Information (2013)

The following sections profile the country of Saudi Arabia and its economy, and the history of its educational system and attempts to reform it, to understand the main challenges currently faced by the Kingdom.

1.3 Background of Saudi Arabia

1.3.1 Location

Saudi Arabia occupies four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula according to the preliminary results of the General Census of Population and Housing Census in 2013 (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2013). Islam is the religion of the vast majority of the Kingdom’s citizens, and Arabic

is their main language (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2014), yet English is used in much trade correspondence (Council of Saudi Chambers, 2013).

1.3.2 The Kingdom's Administrative Division

In accordance with Royal Order Decree No. 92/1, since 1992 the Kingdom has been divided into 13 administrative regions, sub-divided into a number of provinces which vary in number from one area to another. Each province is divided into centres that are administratively linked to the main region (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2013).

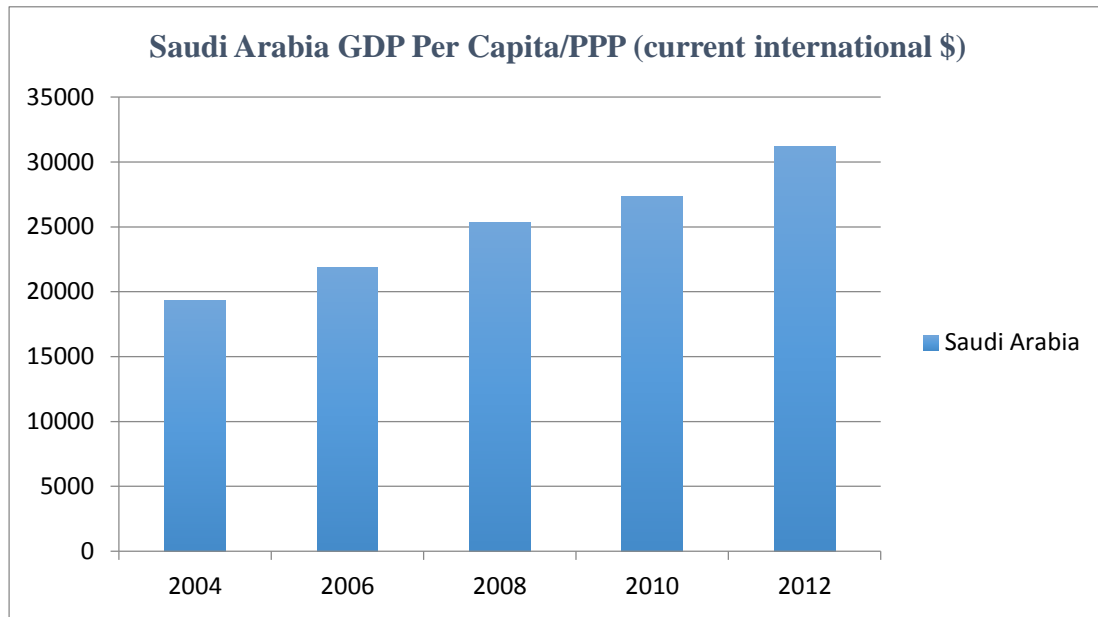
1.3.3 The Kingdom's Economy

According to the Council of Saudi Chambers (2013), the Saudi economy is of global significance for several reasons. The Kingdom is ranked first in the world in terms of oil reserves, production and exports, and is in fourth place regarding gas reserves. Saudi Arabia is the largest producer of petrochemicals in the Arab world and is rated as one of the 20 largest economies in the world (Council of Saudi Chambers, 2013). It is one of the top 15 exporters of goods in the world and is ranked among the top 30 importers of services in the world (Council of Saudi Chambers, 2013). Finally, it is a member of the WTO and many international and regional and Arab organizations.

The Kingdom's economy is the largest in the MENA (Figure 1.1). Due to the Kingdom's geographic location, its export markets in Europe, Asia, and Africa are readily accessible. The growth of the population in the country has fuelled local purchasing power (Council of Saudi Chambers, 2013). Recently, sectors such as telecommunications, electricity, airlines, postal services, railways, port services and water utilities have been privatised (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2014).

In 2001, the Supreme Economic Council (SEC) was established to accelerate economic reforms, promote Saudi markets and ensure stability for investors. The SEC oversees the development, coordination, and application of economic policies in government agencies and manages the budget. The effectiveness of economic, industrial, agriculture, and labour policies and their influence on the Kingdom's national economy, resource diversification, and competitive growth are also assessed by the SEC (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2014).

Figure 1.1: Saudi Arabia GDP Per Capita



Source: The World Bank (2013)

1.4 Background to the Educational System in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's National Strategy for the Development of Public Education in the Kingdom (2013) outlines three stages in the development of public education (Figure 1.2):

- 1- The Establishment Phase: the stage strengthened and promoted the acceptance of education, especially women's education, in addition to the development of the educational system and policies;
- 2- The Spread Phase: a period of rapid expansion of education and a push to eliminate illiteracy.
- 3- The Quality Phase: the current era is characterised by the development of quality assurance in educational institutions to improve outcomes and enhance accountability.

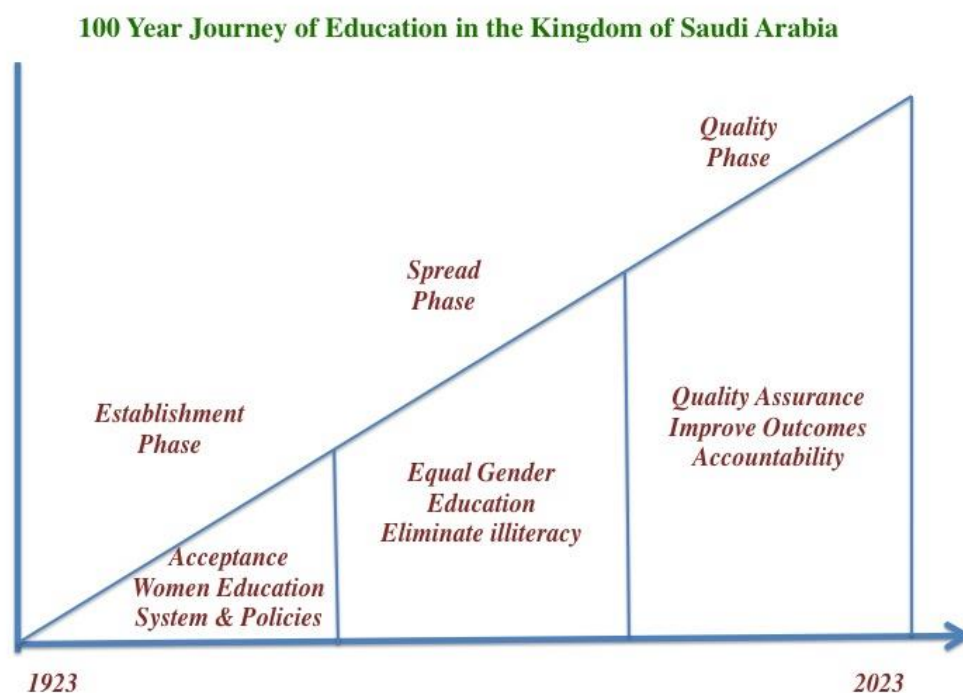
Islamic education has been central to the government of Saudi Arabia since the late eighteenth century. It traditionally consists of a study circle that takes place in mosques, in which the primary focus is on memorising the Quran, teaching Islamic principles and learning reading, writing and arithmetic (Baki, 2004).

The Directorate of Education was established in 1925 along with several government schools (Nasief, 2004). However, due to the lack of qualified educators, the Kingdom requested assistance from Egyptian educational institutions to set up a curriculum and an educational system. At that time,

Egyptian education followed the British curriculum, and therefore Saudi Arabia’s first curriculum indirectly adopted the English educational system. At that time, schools only admitted boys, while girls from wealthy families received private education in their homes.

In 1953, with increasing of oil revenues, Saudi Arabia witnessed a huge reform in its educational system when the MoE was established. To encourage pupils from different regions to attend schools, the government made education free of charge, provided a monthly allowance for students from needy families of almost US\$250, and offered free textbooks and transportation services. The same monthly allowance is still paid for some students who live in rural areas and are in need of financial support (MoE, 2004).

Figure 2.2: The Key Stages of the Development of Public Education in Saudi Arabia



Source: Saudi Arabia’s National Strategy for the Development of Public Education in the Kingdom (2013, p.6)

By 1989, a system of education for girls was established. The General Presidency for Girls’ Education was formed to supervise girls’ schools. Only in 2004 was the latter body unified with the MoE for boys. The education of girls has been particularly controversial as many parents have been afraid that this would affect the traditional role of women, which is based in their home (Nasief,

2004). After establishing schools for girls, enrolment rates increased every year (Nasief, 2004). Table 1.3 details the enrolment rates of males and females between 1975 and 2002, highlighting the increase in enrolment at all school levels, especially for females. Nevertheless, the MoE's (2013a) general statistics show a decline in the growth of Saudi students in public schools and a more rapid expansion in private schools (Table 1.4). Between the years 2003 and 2009, a yearly increase of 0.8% in public schools was witnessed, while the growth of Saudi students in private schools reached 2.8% per year, which could be a result of poor public education.

The educational system was expanding. Universities, teacher training colleges, vocational and special need centres were established all across the Kingdom. Since then, government education has consisted of nursery at the age of five, six years of primary school, and three years of both intermediate and high school with gender segregation at all levels and a minimum leaving age of 17 years (Oum Al Qura University, 2010).

Table 1.3: Enrolment rate by gender and education level (1975-2002)

	Number of male & female students						Average annual growth rate		
	(1975)			(2002)			(%)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Primary % intermediate levels	510	261	771	1807	1622	3429	5.0	7.3	5.9
Secondary level	32	10	42	433	409	842	10.5	15.3	12.2
Tertiary level	31	7	38	232	255	487	8.0	14.8	10.3
Other (*)	100	33	133	126	168	294	0.89	6.59	3.13
Total	673	311	984	2598	2454	5052	5.33	8.3	6.5
<i>(*) Includes adult education and special education</i>									

Source: MoE (2004)

The National Strategy for Public Education Development in the Kingdom (2013) reports that the government pays great attention to education and has devoted very substantial sums of money to

it (Table 1.5). Education receives 25% of the total government budget, which is the highest of any sector (U.S. Saudi Arabian Business Council, 2014).

1.4.1 The Organisational Structure of the Ministry of Education

There are 42 departments in the MoE, one for each educational province in the Kingdom. Each department is headed by a Director of Education who supervises the affairs of schools and educational matters in their specified geographical province. The departments are responsible for executing rules, regulations, instructions, and educational policies adopted by the Ministry. Provinces in the Kingdom vary in size and therefore vary in the number of schools, students, faculty, and educational services.

The departments are considered to be representatives of the ministry in its region or province. They directly supervise schools in their region, undertake the implementation of educational policies set by higher authorities, and monitor implementation at the school level. Moreover, the departments evaluate the work of schools and educational programmes to determine the effectiveness of their employees in achieving their objectives, and to identify any deficiencies in performance to direct and help them.

Table 1.4: Approximate Enrolment Rate of Saudis and Non-Saudis in Public and Private Schools (2003- 2009)

<i>Public Schools</i>	Total Number of Students		Average Annual Growth	Total Growth (2003-2009)
	2003	2009		
Saudis	3.63 Million	3.82 Million	0.8	5.1
Non-Saudis	444,000	523,000	2.8	17.9
<i>Private Schools</i>				
Saudis	259,000	454,000	9.8	75
Non- Saudis	69,000	74,000	1.2	7.4

Source: MoE (2013a)

Table 1.5: Saudi Arabia's Expenditure for the year 2014

Sector	Total Expenditure (US Billion Dollars)
Education & Training	56
Health & Social Affairs	28.8
Water, Agriculture & Related Infrastructure	16.3
Infrastructure & Transportation	17.3
Municipality Services	10.4
Specialised Credit Development Institutions and Government Financing Programmes	22.75

Source: U.S Saudi Arabian Business Council (2014)

1.4.2 The Goals of Education in Saudi Arabia

The MoE (2010) states the goals of Saudi education for both genders, as translated from their website, are as follows:

The Primary Stage: it is the basis for preparing children for the next stages of their lives, providing them with fundamental beliefs, experiences and skills. Its educational goals are:

- 1- Instil the Islamic faith in the child and nurture the student's sense of belonging to an Islamic nation.
- 2- Train the child to perform his/her prayers to become part of his daily life.
- 3- Develop various basic skills such as language, cognitive and motor skills.
- 4- Provide the child with the appropriate level of knowledge on different topics.
- 5- Define God's blessings on him/herself and the environment.
- 6- Develop his/her consciousness to understand his duties and rights within the limits of his/her age, and instil a love of his/her country and devotion to his/her Leaders.
- 7- Generate an eagerness to learn and teach the child how to use his/her spare time beneficially.
- 8- Prepare the student for the subsequent stages of his/her life.

The Intermediate Stage: the phase of educating and raising a comprehensive Islamic faith in the young student's mind, body and attitude. The educational objectives are:

- 1- Develop the love of God and grow the Islamic faith within his/her heart.

- 2- Provide the student with age-appropriate knowledge and expertise to become familiar with the basic principles of culture and science.
- 3- Train him/her to serve his/her community and his country.
- 4- Train him/her to use his/her spare time in reading and beneficial activities to strengthen his/her Islamic personality.
- 5- Develop his/her awareness to face misleading doctrines and destructive principles.
- 6- Prepare him/her for the subsequent stages of his/her life.

The Secondary Stage: this is a critical period in terms of students' age and characteristics of development, which requires all kinds of guidance and preparation. The educational goals are:

- 1- Attain loyalty to God alone.
- 2- Support the Islamic faith by providing the basic concepts of Islamic culture.
- 3- Develop the student's scientific thinking and encourage research and experimentation.
- 4- Prepare the student with the skills to continue his/her studies in colleges or universities in different disciplines.
- 5- Prepare the student to be a qualified graduate to meet the needs of his/her country.
- 6- Create an awareness of building an Islamic family.
- 7- Build a positive awareness to confront misleading ideas and trends.

1.4.3 The Curriculum

The curriculum, which has been in place for more than 30 years, is derived mainly from Egyptian educational institutions. It consists of various subjects in addition to religious education and the Arabic language. At all levels, males and females are taught the same subjects in addition to physical education for boys and home economics for girls. In each grade, teachers are provided with textbooks from the MoE. They have to teach all of the contents of the designated textbooks and cannot depart from the activities detailed in them. At the end of each year, pupils are given the same annual examinations, which assess how much information they have memorised from the textbooks, as indicated in a study by Oum Al Qura University (2010).

Schools are divided into three main levels:

- 1- *Primary school (6-11 years old)*: six years focusing on mathematics, science, geography and history. It is essential to obtain a primary certificate in sixth grade in order to enrol in an intermediate school.
- 2- *Intermediate school (12-14 years old)*: three years in which English and art are added to the curriculum. Receiving an intermediate certificate at this stage is vital to continue to secondary education.
- 3- *Secondary school (15-17 years old)*: three years. In the first year, students follow a general curriculum comprised of science and art in addition to Arabic, English and Islamic Education. In the second year, they choose to specialise in liberal arts or sciences for the last two years.

However, the curriculum has been criticised for two main reasons. According to Al Thubaiti (2010), the current curriculum was established several decades ago for different socio-economic circumstances. With the vast growth and development of different sectors in the Kingdom, which is becoming more technologically advanced, secondary education is not providing students with the skills and knowledge he/she needs for future employment. Secondly, in the last two decades, the world has witnessed a huge revolution in the ‘knowledge economy’, which requires citizens to be equipped with relevant skills and expertise.

Saudi Arabia is seeking to achieve a diversified, modern economy by motivating its citizens to participate in several sectors that assist economic growth. However, the Kingdom faces a barrier to achieving this in the form of the educational system, which, it has been widely argued, is not preparing its graduates with the skills, knowledge and creativity needed to meet the demands of a modern economy (Baki, 2004). Therefore, curriculum reform is a priority. The MoE’s emphasis has been on increasing the number of schools to accommodate the increasing number of students. This is not in itself leading to the reform of the curriculum. Nasief (2004) argues that it is vital to reform the educational system, which will require overcoming a set of problems hindering educational quality. These are:

- 1- The lack of qualified educational leadership;
- 2- A widespread negative perception of education amongst the general public;
- 3- The nature of the administration systems in education limits the power of other educational institutions apart from the presidency, and so schools and educational institutions cannot implement new programmes without encountering restrictions from government bureaucracies.

1.4.4 Types of Schools

1. Government schools

These are free schools established by the government which follow the government curriculum. Enrolment to such schools is determined by proximity to the student's home. Government schools usually have a great number of students, with at least 30 in each class. The school day is from 7am to 12 noon. Teachers must be Saudi bachelor graduates in the same subject they are teaching. They receive a relatively high monthly salary and they are responsible for reporting the school's need for resources to the head teacher, who then requests financial aid from the MoE. Al Zaidi (2009) notes that every teacher in a government school has the chance to become a head teacher within just eight years. First, a teacher has to teach in a school for not less than four years. Then, he/she can nominate him/herself to become a deputy head teacher and work for another four years in this position. After that, he/she nominates him/herself again to become a head teacher.

2. Private schools

Saudi citizens own these schools and students are obliged to pay tuition fees every year. In general, the higher the tuition fees, the more services and extra curricula activities the school provides. The schools must follow the gender segregation law and the same government curriculum. All students can be enrolled depending on parental choice. Usually, parents choose private schools for two main reasons. First, they provide an extracurricular programme either in languages or activities such as theatre, music, ICT and physical education for girls. Second, the number of students in each class typically does not exceed 15. School teaching hours are normally between 7am and 3pm. Teachers have to be bachelor graduates with teaching experience. They can be Saudis or of another nationality, and they receive a lower monthly salary than teachers in government schools. Moreover, the school owner is responsible for providing her/his school with the materials and resources needed, except for textbooks which are provided gratis by the ministry.

3. International schools

International schools are divided into two groups:

- 1- Schools in embassies and consulates that follow their own country's educational system. The MoE does not supervise these schools. Saudi students are not allowed to enrol in these schools without permission from the MoE. The law on gender segregation does not apply to them.
- 2- Schools that follow a foreign educational system but are owned by a Saudi citizen. These schools are supervised by the MoE. The international curriculum followed should be approved

by the ministry; in addition, 25% of the programme must include Arabic and Islamic teaching. They follow the gender segregation rule and Saudi students can be enrolled in them.

An informal interview with the Director of Private and International Education Department in 2010, discussed the need for increasing the number of private schools:

- 1- Private schools supplement the shortfall in the number of public school places which has resulted from the growing population.
- 2- The government encourages the establishment of new private schools through various incentive schemes such as providing interest-free loans for the construction of private schools. Such loans may exceed the equivalent of five million pounds.
- 3- Private schools offer a different form of education that is not found in public schools. There are a significant number of wealthy families that desire educational excellence and are willing to pay for it.

1.4.5 School Assessment

Official supervisors from the MoE assess government, international, and private schools according to the following categories (MoE, 2010):

1- Organisational Aspects

The school should have: a valid licence to operate, Saudi administrative staff and some local teachers (a policy established in 2006 to encourage the employment of Saudi nationals in the private sector), a valid certificate from the Social Insurance organisation that includes all employees in the system, a valid certificate from the Civil Defence organisation and segregation of males and females in buildings and school buses.

2- Administrative Aspects

Administrative staff are assessed depending on: respecting the moral values and policies of the school and Islamic law, implementing regulations and instructions for international schools, a qualified college degree for all employees and non-Saudi teachers, permission to work as granted by the relevant Department of Education, commitment to the school dress code, and completion of all employee and student files and records.

3- The Environment and School Equipment

This includes assessing the school's buildings, organisation and furnishing of all school facilities, hygiene, safety, science labs, computer labs and learning resources.

4- The Students

Procedures conducted by the school seek to reduce student absenteeism and tardiness, develop an educational plan to address talented or in-need students, establish a commitment to school uniform, and have appropriate medical care for students. There are also extra behavioural and educational programmes.

While government schools are assessed on the aspects discussed above, they do not need a licence because the government establishes these schools. Non-Saudis are not permitted to work in them, and extracurricular programmes do not exist because they solely follow the textbooks provided by the MoE.

1.4.6 Pressures for Educational Reform in Saudi Arabia

Nasief (2004) identifies the most prominent challenges facing communities in the Middle East as:

1- The challenges of the technical and scientific revolution

The amount of information, facts, theories, and discoveries is dramatically increasing in different disciplines, leading many professionals to be unable to cope and remain familiar with current developments.

2- The challenge of population growth

Due to medical and health developments, and the increase in living standards, the mortality rate has declined and the size of the population has risen sharply. A phenomenon in many remote communities called “population youthfulness” has emerged, in which a high percentage of the population is under the age of 15. This phenomenon can put pressure on the ability to provide quality education at all levels.

3- The challenge of losing national identity

Globalisation typically fosters tensions between global and local matters, threatening the traditional role of the state, and expanding the influence of cultural, educational, and media institutions and their role in educating individuals.

4- Environment challenges

Scientific and technical developments have had enormous ramifications for the environment. Preserving and protecting the environment, and the fight against violence drugs and other phenomena, have become part of the challenges faced by communities and individuals in the 21st century.

Furthermore, the National Strategy for Public Education Development in the Kingdom (2013) reports that the educational system in Saudi Arabia faces multiple challenges:

- The continuous increase in the number of students negatively impacts on the provision of educational services in accordance with the expected quality.
- A shortage of newly graduated teachers.
- The population density in some areas of the Kingdom, which affects the delivery of educational services.
- Resistance to some reform efforts.
- Media reports which exaggerate the deficiencies in the educational system.
- Universities and colleges attracting leaders within the educational system to enrol within their faculty.

Consequently, educational innovation is perceived as essential to the ability to meet future challenges through changes in the way of thinking, dealing with one another, and committing to self- and life-long learning (Nasief, 2004). Several initiatives have sought to reform the educational system in Saudi Arabia such as:

- The establishment of the King Abdul-Aziz Institution for the gifted;
- The merging of the MOE with the General Presidency of education for girls in 2002;
- The development of the general education curriculum project;
- The National Project for the use of computers in education;
- Inclusion of special needs students in regular schools;
- The King Abdullah Project for public education development (Tatweer).

Of these initiatives, Tatweer has been the most important in terms of its scope and the financial resources devoted to it.

1.5 King Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz Public Education Development Project (Tatweer)

For several years, Saudi Arabia's government has formally stated that one of its aims is to equip its future citizens with the knowledge and skills required in the global economy (Tatweer, 2010). This is due to the increase in population and the need to meet the objectives of the Ninth Development Plan 2010-2014 in ensuring the growth of the Saudi economy and increasing its competitiveness and performance (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). In order to succeed, King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz called for the upgrading, developing and reforming of the Saudi educational system to meet the requirements of the modern world. This led to the establishment of the King Abdullah Bin

Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project “Tatweer”. The project was developed by the MoE in Saudi Arabia along with an international consulting firm hired by the MoE (Tatweer, 2010), for implementation in Saudi Schools.

1.5.1 Aims of the Tatweer Project

According to the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Saudi students perform poorly, especially in science and mathematics. In international contests, Saudi Arabia was ranked 42nd in science (TIMSS, 2011a) and 45th in mathematics out of 50 countries (TIMSS, 2011b), despite the huge budgets allocated to education. According to the Ministry of Finance (2011) in Saudi Arabia, the budget allocated for education and training is more than 25% of the total budget of the Kingdom. Table 1.6 indicates the increase in the education budget between 2008 and 2014. While large investments have been made for education, the outcomes are very limited.

Table 1.6: Summary of the Budgets Allocated to Education and Training in Saudi Arabia in US\$ (2008-2011)

Year	Saudi Arabia’s Total Budget Expenditure (\$)	Budget Allocated for Education and Training (\$)
2008	120 billion	28 billion
2009	126.7 billion	32.6 billion
2010	146.67 billion	36.7 billion
2011	154 billion	40 billion
2012	184 billion	45 billion
2013	218.7 billion	54.4 billion
2014	228 billion	56 billion

Source: Ministry of Finance in Saudi Arabia (2011)

The Tatweer project aims to:

- 1- Develop a comprehensive educational curriculum to improve male and female students’ well-being.
- 2- Train teachers with the skills required to implement the educational curricula.
- 3- Attain a higher level of knowledge by improving the school environment with the technologies to stimulate learning.

4- Plan extracurricular activities to enhance students' psychological and social well-being, as well as fostering and appreciating their talents and creativity.

The project was launched in 2007. Since the Kingdom is divided into 13 regions, the MoE selected a school for boys and girls from each region for a pilot project. The 26 schools were chosen in accordance to their learning equipment, resources and their buildings. It was intended that these schools would act as pilot institutions for five years before the lessons would be applied to all government schools in the Kingdom (Tatweer, 2010). Specifically, Tatweer's intended impacts can be divided into four main categories:

1- Qualification and Training Programme

According to the MoE (2010), more than half a million men and women work for the MoE as teachers, principals, administrative staff, and technicians. These educational cadres should be extensively trained to gain effective skills that are based on international standards.

2- The Curriculum Development Programme

Tatweer aims to develop the student's personality as well as various practical and cognitive skills, stimulate the student's learning by providing an interactive digital curriculum to shift the learning process from a teacher-centred to a student-centred one, and prepare new textbooks and supplementary materials to boost the learning process. To meet this objective, resources have been committed to building centres of expertise, improving the primary and secondary school curriculums to ensure that the students' acquisition of knowledge and skills marries with the requirements of the contemporary labour market, and instructing staff and workers to provide them with the expertise to adapt to the curriculum.

3- The Programme for Improving the School Environment

Tatweer assumes that technology is an important tool for improving the effectiveness of teaching and learning. A goal of the programme is thus to implement an e-learning system that provides an interactive educational environment by setting up a knowledge community where students get access to a range of books, activities and training. So-called 'Tatweer smart schools' should contain:

- Training and Activity Halls, which provide special equipment for training and practising different activities.
- A Digital Library, which can be accessed by all of the school's community.

- Virtual Labs and Factories, which offer a range of software and hardware for students to conduct real life experiments.
- Smart Classroom: rooms should be equipped to a high standard such as with laptops for the teacher and each student in the classroom, plus internet access, and smart boards.

4- *Extra-Curricular Activities*

Tatweer aims to develop the Islamic character of the student by translating their religious beliefs into action, reinforcing commitment and belonging to the home country, establishing a relationship between school and home and various social institutions, and preparing the student to become a pioneer in building the country by acquiring necessary skills and knowledge. The activities include:

- Health strengthening activities.
- Development of future leaders.
- Tech-scientific and creative activities.
- Conversation and communication.
- Preparation for the labour market.
- Voluntary activities.

The Tatweer project's anticipated impacts are to promote public education, provide students with the skills to cope with a university environment, reduce the university's need for the initial training of undergraduates, and focus their efforts on research and innovation. In so doing, they would build a new generation capable of meeting local and international challenges (Tatweer, 2010).

The project's overall cost is US\$3.1 billion, broken down as US\$1.12 billion for the improvement of the educational environment, and one billion for the programme of extra-curricular activities. Moreover, approximately US\$8 million are assigned for the development and training of educational cadres and US\$260 million for the curriculum development programme (Abdulghafour, 2007). However, by 2012, only a fraction of the intended projects had been implemented. Al Suhail (2011) reported a statement by the Minister of Education, Prince Faisal Bin Abdullah Al Saud, in which he lamented the poor current status of education in the country, especially given the Kingdom's status, potential and education budget being so high.

1.6 Statement of the Problem

1.6.1 The Kingdom's Education Reform Initiatives

Reform initiatives are of particular importance to the leading figure of King Abdullah Abdel Aziz. His Royal Highness approved a set of decisions to stimulate the process of development and construction in the whole Kingdom. The most notable reform initiative presented in the King's reign is in the education sector. Several initiatives have sought to reform the Saudi educational system, the most important of which is Tatweer, which is an Arabic word meaning development (تطوير). The project was launched in 2007 with a total cost of over US\$ 2.5 billion for five years of pilot implementation (Tatweer, 2010). Tatweer incorporates four programmes which seek to improve the quality of public education, namely, the Qualification and Training Programme, the Curriculum Development Programme, the Programme for Improving School Environment, and the Extra-Curricular Activities Programme. They focus on achievement and quality output, institutional work, openness to society, and the rationalization of the consumption of public resources, whether partly in the form of specific elements or gradual models depending on an array of school or comprehensive models for all schools. An objective of Tatweer is to prepare executive plans and create a system for professional and educational development, which will produce qualified leaders in education. Tatweer instigated a set of pilot schools, which would first implement the initiative. The lessons from these pilot schools could then be evaluated before a full 'roll out' across the Kingdom. This was intended to facilitate the Kingdom's transition to a knowledge-based economy.

1.6.2 The Limited Outcome of the Case of Tatweer: In Search of Success Factors

The development process faced various problems and obstacles, both organisational and behavioural, during the planning and implementation phases. These problems were related to the conduct of public employees and wider social and cultural difficulties. As a result, the outcomes of the initial implementation of Tatweer have so far been seriously limited, and some initiatives were even brought to a halt and had to be re-launched under a totally different model with the hope of better results. The government established a new government organisation called the Tatweer Education Holding Company (THC) in 2009 to assist the MoE in the implementation process.

1.6.3 Justification for Using Tatweer Project as a Case Study

The Tatweer project is the most comprehensive change initiative introduced in the Saudi public education system to date, when measured by the level of financial support and political capital invested in the project. The fact that education and skills is one of the four pillars of a knowledge economy (Table 1.1) necessitates the Kingdom to develop a comprehensive project to change its

educational system. A direct failure of such a project would be a major embarrassment and waste of financial resources. And therefore, this study investigates the impediments encountered by the Tatweer initiative, to propose solutions for better management of change in the public education sector.

1.7 Research Aims

Due to the importance of managing organisational change, this study seeks to understand the reasons for the limited success of educational initiatives (Tatweer) in the context of the MoE in Saudi Arabia.

Specifically, the research aims to investigate the factors determining the success of educational development projects in Saudi Arabia. Strategies for promoting successful organisational change in the context of education will be considered.

The main aim is to explore the factors that have hampered the success of innovative initiatives in Saudi Arabia and the rationale for the internal and external forces of resistance and disruption, and in doing so, identify strategies for the better management of educational reform projects, to investigate the role of external and internal communication in facilitating change. The study is limited to a period of six years, from 2007 when the project was first introduced, to the beginning of 2013 when the last phase of data collection took place.

1.8 Research Objectives

The research addresses the following objectives:

- To investigate the reasons for the limited success of organisational change initiatives in the Saudi Arabian education system, using Tatweer as a case study.
- To identify sources of resistance of change within and without the education system encountered in the Tatweer project.
- To explore the strategies used to control and minimise resistance.
- To gain a better understanding of stakeholders' engagement in the change process in the case of Tatweer
- To study the role of external and internal communication in managing educational reform in Saudi Arabia.
- To propose recommendations for the effective management of organisational change in Saudi Arabia's public educational system.

1.9 Research Questions

The key questions raised in this research are as follows:

- What factors inhibited the implementation of the Tatweer project?
- What were the sources of resistance to change encountered in the Tatweer project?
- Was resistance to change managed and overcome?
- Were stakeholders involved in the process of change in the case of Tatweer?
- Can external and internal communications techniques play an important role in generating public support and facilitating organisational change in the Saudi Arabian educational system?
- How can effective management and communication overcome obstacles that hinder the success of organisational change in public sector education in Saudi Arabia?

1.10 Contribution of the Study

Educational reform has received significant attention from researchers. While literatures on different countries have focused on the issues of resource and fiscal constraints (Ekundayo & Ekundayo, 2009; Wu, 2011; UNESCO, 2009; Jimenez & Lockheed, 1995; Lewin & Caillods, 2001; Saavedra, 2002) and cost effective solutions (Lewin & Caillods, 2001) to develop education, the Saudi Arabian case does not fit with the latter studies as it is ranked the highest in its budget spending for the educational sector, and thus financial resources are not a problem. This highlights further issues that were not explored in previous studies.

The goal of this research is to understand the factors that determine the success of educational change initiatives in Saudi Arabia, specifically focusing on the MoE as a central government organisation striving for change. Therefore, the study draws on Kotter's (1995) model for leading change, which while relevant has not previously been applied to the context of educational reform. The research identifies modifications to Kotter's schema that may fit the educational context better and generate knowledge that helps understand the present situation regarding organisational change in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the research contributes to the government's efforts at building development programmes in public management systems.

Another significant contribution of the study is to explore the role of external communication and their contributions to educational reform initiatives. The literature relating to the role of internal communication in the process of change is examined (Gilsdorf, 1998; Kitchen & Daly, 2002; Elving, 2005). It is important to highlight that communication is not the only factor for successful change. However, the study identifies that the lack of external communication practices. The limited discussion of the potential contribution of external communication to aiding educational reform initiatives is acknowledged in this thesis.

Answering the research questions listed in the previous section will benefit educational leaders and organisational researchers, who are not only interested in Saudi Arabia but also in other countries that share a similar culture and rigid organisational structure.

In conclusion, defining the main obstacles to organisational change is a necessary step prior to proposing suitable recommendations. Most studies to date have focused on the obstacles to managing change in Saudi Arabia at government agency level (Al Bishi, 2001; Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013), and minimal research has been undertaken to study the management system in central government organisations such as ministries, especially the MoE, which is the largest bureaucratic organisation in the Kingdom.

1.11 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters:

Chapter one has provided a description of the background of the study undertaken. It explained the rationale for development and change in the Kingdom and its intended transition to a knowledge-based economy. It also presented an overview of the Saudi Arabian context as well as specific material on the educational system. The King Abdullah Public Education Reform Project “Tatweer” was introduced, and the existence of barriers that inhibit the implementation of educational initiatives was noted. The chapter outlined the research objectives and questions, with a brief explanation of the study’s contribution.

Chapter two presents a review of the previous literature on organisational change, particularly Kotter’s (1995) model for organisational transformation, Elving’s (2005) conceptual framework of internal communication during organisational change, in addition to the role of communication in facilitating change, sources of resistance to change, and methods to control such resistance. The chapter includes a discussion of management in public organisations in Saudi Arabia in general, in addition to literatures on public sector reform.

Chapter three discusses the research methodology, which employed a qualitative case study design, interviews, focus groups, and documentary evidence. The rationale for a case study approach is discussed along with sources of data. The chapter reviews how the data were analysed using the NVivo 10 Software to develop codes, nodes, and matrices to explore relations and compare categories. Difficulties encountered in the data collection phase are identified, in addition to the ethical principles that were considered.

Chapter four presents the findings of the study concerned with the factors inhibiting the implementation of Tatweer at both ministry and school levels. The chapter identifies the impediments to change implementation, and the degree of competition between public and private schools.

Chapter five continues by presenting the findings relating to sources of resistance to change, overcoming them, communication at MoE, schools, and the wider public, and the external communication strategies used during change for outreach and engagement.

Chapter six discusses the findings of the study and identifies the main themes in the light of models for transforming organisations and the role that internal and external communication may play in facilitating change in education.

Finally, chapter seven presents the main conclusions of the study, its contribution to the academic literature, and implications for practitioners, followed by recommendations for future research.

1.12 Conclusion

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia seeks to become part of the world's knowledge economy and to diversify its income sources. The country is faced with various pressures to improve the performance of its government agencies. Notwithstanding the government's generosity in its financial support to launch several change initiatives, the management of such change has encountered several obstacles, and these are explored in the thesis.

This thesis focuses on the Kingdom's recent reform initiative in the public education sector (Tatweer). Given the limited outcomes of the project, the research aims to identify the impediments that limit the success of Tatweer, focusing on identifying resistant forces encountered during the project's implementation and the methods employed to overcome these forces. It further investigates the role of internal and external communications in the management of change to propose future recommendations for better implementation of change in the public sector.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The chapter is composed of two main parts. The first part is concerned with literatures regarding the management of change, while the second part reviews literatures concerning educational reform.

To explore theories of change management, Section 2.3 reviews existing literature pertaining to theories of organisational change, followed by Section 2.4 that examines leading models devised to manage organisational change. Emphasis is placed on Kotter's (1995) model for leading change in organisations in Section 2.5. Following this, Section 2.6 presents a discussion relating to the factors that may contribute to the failure of programmes to initiate change.

One of the key factors that lead to the failure of reform initiatives is resistance to change (RTC). An insight into this concept and the identification of its sources at both an organisational and individual level is provided in Section 2.7. This involves an analysis of Del Val and Fuenteu's (2003) model of RTC, followed by an assessment of how RTC can be controlled, as advocated by Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), as well as examining how it may even become a positive source when utilised appropriately. It should be noted that the key elements of Del Val and Fuenteu's (2003) model of RTC has been considered in order to highlight their relationship to the impediments for reform. Section 2.8 highlights the potential role of communication in assisting organisational change, as an important means for managing RTC. It also focuses on Elving's (2005) conceptual framework for internal communication during organisational change, and how internal and external communications should be. Section 2.9 subsequently reviews theories of public sector reform in general, and previous studies relating to the management and development of public sector organisations across Saudi Arabia in particular, focusing on some key barriers to development. This includes a review of research on the Saudi management and organisation system since after 1971, when the revenue from oil exports rose substantially.

The second part of the chapter concerns the literature on educational reform. Section 2.10 explores previous experiences of educational reform regionally and internationally. A summary of relevant literature matching the study objectives is presented at the end of the chapter. As highlighted, the findings from this study are analysed in line with Elving's conceptual framework on internal communication, Kotter's (1995) model, and a consideration of the role of external and internal communication s in promoting change.

2.2 Justification for Focusing Study on the Management of Change

Even though several initiatives were introduced in the educational system (Section 1.4.6) and notwithstanding the huge financial resources allocated every year for education and training (Table 1.6), limited success has been witnessed. As mentioned earlier in Section 1.9, literatures on educational reform have mainly focused on financial constrains (Ekundayo & Ekundayo, 2009; Wu, 2011; UNESCO, 2009; Jimenez & Lockheed, 1995; Lewin & Caillods, 2001; Saavedra, 2002) and cost effective solutions (Lewin & Caillods, 2001). Therefore, the case of Saudi Arabia does not seem to fit in the latter studies, as it is clear now that the main obstacle to reform is not financial, rather it is the management of the change initiative itself.

As a result this study is highly focused on investigating the impediments to reform in the context of the management of change in public organizations such as the MoE. Given that public organizations within the Kingdom are known for their secrecy and low transparency (AlQahtani, 2013; AlYousif, 2010), the research paid particular attention to the communication elements of the process of managing change.

2.3 Organisational Change: An Overview

Undertaking and successfully managing change within public organisations has become a priority for many businesses. For organisations to cope with pressures, be it in the public or private sectors, they need to adjust to certain changes in the external environment (Kanter, 1985). Nevertheless, the process of change is complex and can either result in positive or negative effects (Bernard & Stoll, 2010). Even though typically organisations acknowledge the importance of change, studies have shown that 70% of change initiatives fail or do not accomplish their desired outcomes (Senge *et al.*, 1999; Patterson, 2000; Bernard & Stoll, 2010; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2004). The reasons for this high rate of failure are disputed (Burnes, 2004).

A considerable amount of literature exists in relation to the study of managing organisational change and reform initiatives, which helps provide a clearer understanding of the underlying factors that contribute to the success or failure of such initiatives. However, while this literature does comprise of both the public and private sectors, it is notable that the majority of such studies derive their approaches primarily from the private sector (Kanter *et al.* 1992; Kotter, 1996). This has led to criticism that the literature downplays the specifics of public organisations and often regards them as inherently inferior (Salauroo & Burnes, 1998; Coram & Burnes, 2001).

The study of organisational change has increased dramatically since 1946, when Kurt Lewin introduced his model for managing change (Coram & Burnes, 2001). This devised model advocated a planned approach for businesses and organisations to adhere to, in which existing behaviours were to be ‘thrown away’, in order to allow new behaviours to be successfully adopted (Todnem, 2005). Lewin’s “3-step model”, illustrated in figure 2.1, refers to how his vision of how an equilibrium should be subverted to overcome unwanted habits and behaviours and replace them with new ones (Brisson-Banks, 2009).

In terms of how change management is defined, Moran and Brightman (2001, p.111) define it as “the process of continually renewing an organization’s direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers”.

Judson (1991) defines change as any alteration initiated in an organisation that affects the work and the working environment of individuals and groups. Thus, change is primarily implemented as a means to achieve immediate or long-term objectives and goals. However, for successful change to occur, clear objectives should be set and an understanding of their rationale by those who will be affected is essential (Judson, 1991). Accomplishing these goals depends on the effective implementation and management of change. According to Judson (1991), orchestrating change depends on three management skills:

- 1- The ability to identify problems, solutions and set objectives for the required change.
- 2- The ability to plan effective methods and strategies to achieve these objectives.
- 3- The ability to gain support and acceptance from people affected by change through effective communication and implementation.

The existing literature offers several prominent models for managing organisational change. Some focus on the content (Burke-Litwin, 1992) or the process of change (Judson, 1991; Kotter, 1995; Galpin, 1996; Lewin, 1947), while others consider the factors that determine its success or failure (Arminakis & Bedeian, 1999; Schabracq & Cooper, 1998; Reichers, Wanous & Austin, 1997).

Moreover, several factors may instigate or motivate the need for organisational change to occur. For instance, change may be a response to the requirements of, or alteration in, the external environment such as new technology, competition, standards and quality (Gilgeous, 1997). For an organisation to maintain its economic and social vitality, it must constantly review its objectives, policies, organisational structure and management procedures, and have the determination to change these if and when necessary (Judson, 1991). Conversely, change can also be a response to internal

factors such as organisational structure and culture, and the management system (Gilgeous, 1997). However, initiatives to stimulate organisational change often fail; the reasons for this shall be expounded upon in section 2.6.

2.4 Models of Organisational Change

The planned and emergent approaches to change explain how reform initiatives should be implemented in a clear and practical fashion (Burnes, 2004), which are discussed in the following sections.

2.4.1. The Planned Approach

As alluded to earlier, the initial work on managing change in organisations draws on the ‘planned approach’ pioneered by Lewin (1952), which is often regarded as the leading framework to understanding the change process (Todnem, 2005).

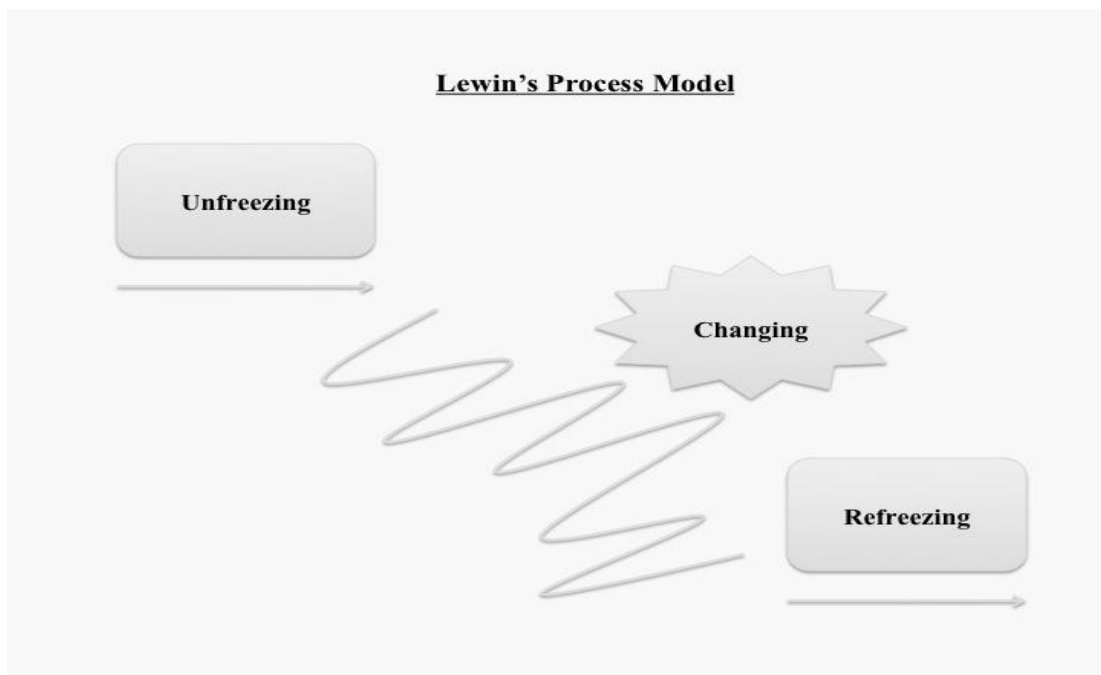
The planned approach model “lies in the heart of organization development” (Burnes, 1996, p.12), and was the result of Lewin’s work on action research; from this, his three-step model for managing change emerged. According to Lewin (1958), action research refers to effectual procedures and programmes that aim to resolve organisational and social problems. It is the process of systematically researching and collecting data, and then amending the chosen variable within the system based on the data collected, in addition to assessing the outcome of actions through the collection of further data (French and Bell, 1984). However, Lewin (1958) reflected upon his process and felt that the latter approach needed revision and improvement, as he noticed that long-lasting change depends entirely upon the degree by which the intended new behaviours are endured after the change takes place. Therefore, he argued that the process for successful change should include the following three phases (illustrated in Figure 2.1):

- 1. Unfreeze** – in this phase, members in the organisation realise the need for change. Staff are aware of the current activities of the organisation and analyse the need for transformation in order to achieve better outcomes.
- 2. Change** – this is the process phase in which activities, practices, and behaviours are altered to move from the old system to a new one.
- 3. Refreeze** – new activities and behaviours that are changed should become attached to the relevant people and not easily reversed. This can be achieved through training and rewards. This process is essential to ensure that the organisation does not retreat to its previous condition.

Furthermore, the stage also implies that the disposal of old behaviours must be accomplished in order for new behaviours to be embraced wholeheartedly.

Ritchie (2006) explains how Lewin's model is applicable to an organisational setting by demonstrating how unfreezing is a phase that shows personnel are prepared to accept change if they can be convinced that the current status quo will jeopardise the organisation's survival. The second phase of change requires employees to adopt new attitudes and ways to accomplish their jobs. Thus, the adjustment to this change process becomes much smoother when staff accept the need for change. However, it is important to highlight that organisations will face individuals who refuse to change. Ritchie (2004) draws attention to the stage when new behaviours and attitudes are accepted and adopted by employees, which means refreezing can occur in order to stabilise the change.

Figure 2.1: Illustration of Lewin's Process Model for Change



Whilst Lewin's model has been popularised in research and implemented within contemporary business, it is not without criticism. Elrod II and Tippett (2002) criticised Lewin's framework for being too broad and lacking practical relevance. Moreover, although many researchers and authors have used this model as their foundation, they have sought to develop it further in order to make it more practical (Bamford and Forrester, 2003). An example is that of Bullock and Batten (1985), who

modified Lewin's approach into their own four-step model, which includes the stages of exploration, planning, action, and integration.

Regardless of the effectiveness of the planned approach (Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 2004), it has been criticized for several reasons (Kanter et al., 1992; Burnes, 1996). The planned approach was regarded as inapplicable in circumstances that necessitated rapid transformation, due to its emphasis on small scale and gradual change (Burnes, 2004; Senior, 2002). Furthermore, the planned approach supposes that organisations move in a pre-planned manner from one stage to another, operating under steady circumstances (Bamford and Forrester, 2003). In contrast, rapid environmental change requires continuous organisational transformation, which makes the notion of 'refreezing' appears naïve (Burnes, 1996, 2004). Burnes (1996, 2004) and Kanter et al. (1992) further point out that some situations demand a more direct approach and a rapid change that denies involvement and consultation practices, and evidently, these circumstances are not taken into account in the planned approach. Lastly, the planned approach assumes that agreements and acceptances are easily acquired by those involved in the organisational change, making them willing to implement it (Bamford & Forrester, 2003), without considering potential conflicts and politics within the organisation (Burnes, 1996, 2004). Such criticism has led to the development of the 'emergent approach' as an alternative approach, which considers change to be a rapid process managed from the "bottom-up" rather than "top-down" (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 1996, 2004). This is further discussed in the next section.

Within the planned approach, Burke and Litwin's (1992) Content Model assumes that organisational change requires employees to adopt new behaviours, such as a leadership and management strategy, as a response to internal and external pressures. They suggest that organisational change should be planned and divided into four sequential stages:

- 1- *Planning Change* –examining the rationale for change, developing a coherent vision, and considering the obstacles that may be encountered for effective change.
- 2- *Managing the people side of change* –deciding the level of communication within the organisation, what and how much to communicate with others, as well as taking into consideration any psychological issues related to the transition.
- 3- *Managing the organisational side of change* –concerning the organisational structure and design for long-term change.
- 4- *Evaluating the change effort* –monitoring the effectiveness of the strategy.

Burke and Litwin (1992) also note that managers should evaluate the likely resistance to change and determine whether the planned changes are evolutionary or revolutionary. Judson (1991) offers a similar approach, albeit divided into five phases: (1) planning the change; (2) communicating it to employees; (3) accepting new behaviours; (4) changing to the desired state; (5) institutionalising the new state.

2.4.2. The Emergent Approach

The emergent approach regards change to be a learning process that responds to internal and external forces, which makes it unpredictable and a process that cannot be managed from the “top-down” (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 1996, 2004). This approach therefore does not envisage specific, pre-planned phases for change initiatives (Todnem, 2005). Due to the unpredictable nature of the internal and external environments within organisations, as well as the need for a prompt response and implementation when change is required, the emergent approach views change to be a continuous (Dunphy & Stace, 1993), and non-linear process (Todnem, 2005). Dunphy and Stace (1993) therefore emphasize the role of organisations to become effective learning systems that obtain relevant knowledge and processes from the environment.

The emergent theories are based on the assumption that managers should have a thorough understanding of the organisation and its structures, procedures, culture, and people, in order to be able to respond to change accordingly. This is achieved by selecting the most appropriate approach that will facilitate the necessary change process and overcome any barriers (Burnes, 1996).

It is argued that there is no existing universal framework for leading change (Pettigrew & Whipp, 1993), Burnes (1996) concurs, stating that there is no specific framework that has been advised to manage organisational change that is always most appropriate, as the strengths of the planned and emergent approaches depends on the nature of change and the organisational culture. He proposes that the planned approach would be more suitable for cases of predictable and stable changes, whereas, the emergent approach would be appropriate for unpredictable situations that require a quicker response and completion to change. Advocates of the emergent approach have suggested several frameworks as guidance for organisational change, by outlining a sequence of actions that ought to be followed. Kanter et al. (1992), Kotter (1995), and Luecke (2003) propose three separate practical models for organisational transformation within this approach (Table 2.1).

Advocates of the emergent approach outline a sequence of steps for organisations to adhere to, increasing the likelihood that the change initiatives will be successful (Kotter, 1995; Kanter et al., 1993; Luecke, 2003). Todnem’s (2005) comparison of existing variations of the emergent approach

models highlight that, even though they are different in numbers and types, in general, there are certain steps and actions that are common among them, such as establishing a sense of urgency, creating the vision, and empowering others (see Table 2.1 for a detailed comparison of three prominent emergent approach models).

Similar to the planned approach, the emergent approach has also been criticised by researchers for being incomplete and lacking universal relevance (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). However, Burnes (1996) rejects such claims and argues that the emergent approach is applicable and valid in all circumstances and organisations with the caveat that organisations continuously operate to adapt to unpredictable environment. In light of the above discussion, Brisson-Banks (2009) refers to Axelrod's (2001) argument on developing a new paradigm that promotes people's deep involvement and how models of managing change should recognise the importance of unleashing 'the power of employees' (Brisson-Banks, 2009, p.243).

Kanter (1985) explains how top management may force and dictate change to middle managers without any specific support, yet expect them to implement change seamlessly. Burke (2004) further argues that the conjunction of effective leadership and business structures are two key requirements to change, which would increase the chance of success as proposed by Kotter (1995) in his eight-step model (discussed in Section 2.4). Additionally, Brisson-Banks (2009) draws attention to the fact that even though there are a variety of change models available, they do share many commonalities in terms of similar steps that can be used to guide organisational change.

Change in organisations, according to the emergent approach, is a continuous process as presented in Kotter's (1995) eighth step. The next section looks in depth into Kotter's eight steps model for transforming organisations, which is served as the theoretical foundation of the study. By providing a deeper insight into the application of this particular model, it will become evident as to why the results of this study are analysed in accordance to it.

Table 2.1: A Comparison of Three Models of Change Following the Emergent Approach

Kanter at al. (1992) Ten Commandments for Implementing Change	Kotter's (1995) Eight Step Model for Leading Change	Luecke's (2003) Seven Steps Model
Examine the organisation's need for change		Identify business problems and solutions to promote commitment
Develop a vision and shared direction	Create a vision	Develop a shared vision to manage
Separate from the past		
Develop a sense of urgency	Establish a sense of urgency	
Promote strong leadership		Identify leadership
Line up political sponsorship	Create a powerful guiding coalition	
Design an implementation plan		
Develop enabling structures	Empower others to act	
Communicate and engage people	Communicating the vision	
Institutionalize change	Institutionalize new approaches to the culture	Institutionalize success in the organisation's policies, systems and procedures
	Plan for and create short-term wins	
	Consolidate improvements and induce further change	
		Focus on results rather than activities
		Start change and spread it without forcing it from the top
		Respond to problems in the change process by adjusting procedures and strategies

Source: Barnard and Stoll (2010, p. 2)

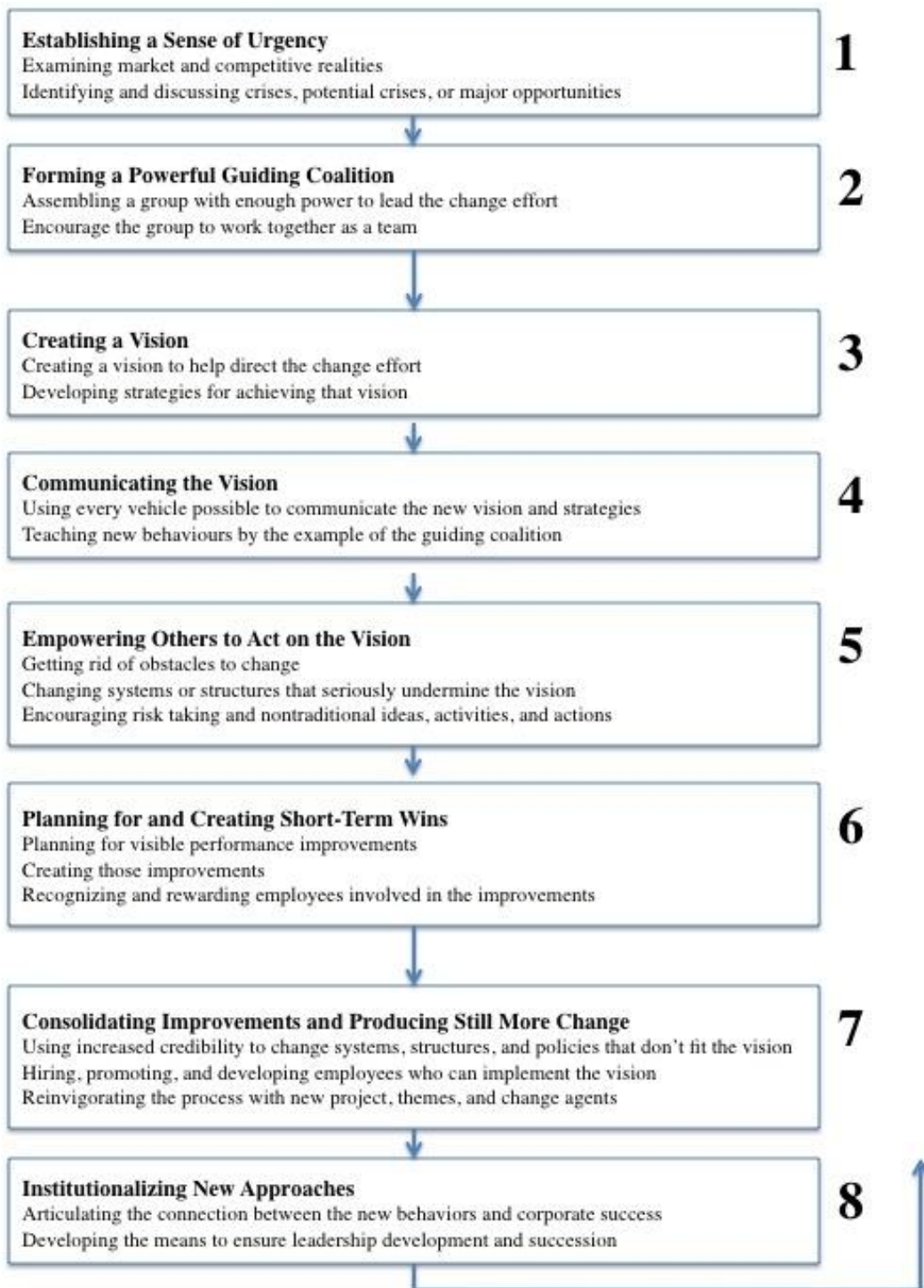
2.5 Kotter's Eight Steps for Leading Change in Organisations

Kotter (1996) argues that the eight actions outlined within his model could be viewed as common sense; however, he believes leaders of change often ignore or underestimate them. He further explains that, as a result of organisations witnessing tremendous pressure to improve their services and product quality over the past two decades, many attempts to make relevant changes have failed due to considerable number of errors. The concern is that such errors have not only impacted negatively upon both employees and leaders, but they could also be avoided. The eight-step Change Model was first presented orally by Kotter 1995 and then later published in 1996. In recent years, he has further developed the model and refined it accordingly (Kotter, 2012), drawing upon more of his personal experiences. In particular, Kotter (2012) presents case studies from 34 real-life organisations from different parts of the world, which he refers to in order to highlight the effective and ineffective methods for managing change.

In terms of the model itself, Kotter (1995) presents eight steps and emphasizes the importance of following them in the chronological order when implementing change within organisations (Figure 2.2). He argues that 'planning the change' needs to be divided into a set of preparatory actions, such as developing a sense of urgency and forming a guiding coalition.

The remainder of this section discusses each of Kotter's eight steps in greater depth.

Figure 2.2: Kotter's (1995) Model for Transforming Organisations



Source: Kotter (1995, p. 61)

1- Develop a Sense of Urgency

Kotter (1995) argues that the first step in initiating organisational change is to develop a sense of urgency for change. A lack of employee motivation makes it difficult for them to move “out of their comfort zone”. Thus, it is beneficial that the organisation’s members fully understand and become aware of the change process, by providing them with the “big picture” from other perspectives. Kotter (1995) also suggests that the level of urgency would be sufficient when three quarters of leaders are fully convinced that the usual management and business plan is no longer acceptable. Leaders should subsequently establish urgency in their managers and employees in order to reduce their complacency; otherwise the consequences could be catastrophic. Furthermore, during this stage, it is highly envisaged that employees will become defensive and anxious when they are forced to move from their comfort zone and may become resisters of the change because they do not understand the underlying urgency and vehemently seek to maintain the status quo.

2- Form a Guiding Coalition

In order for significant change to occur, a leader that is in favour of such change should be “*an active supporter*” (Kotter, 2012, p.6). Kotter (1995, 2012) strongly advises organisations to form a guiding coalition, which should be powerful in terms of the titles, expertise, relationships and reputation they hold within the organisation and with other employees, as well as their own capabilities. In the majority of cases, leaders underestimate the importance of forming the coalition because they underestimate the power that is necessary to change behaviour within an organisation. In a typical scenario, a small group of people (a minimum of two) initiate the efforts for change; this group then gradually grows to include more members who believe in the necessity for change and who have understood and accepted the overall vision. It is crucial at this point to bring more believers on board, building a powerful coalition that includes members or leaders who possess the belief in change, hold a powerful role in the organisation and have a good reputation, relationships and the relevant skills to challenge others that oppose it. Kotter (2012) indicates that this coalition should consist of 3-5 people leading it, regardless of the organisation’s size.

3- Create a Vision

A clear vision is critical to direct and influence the actions of people towards the desired change. If the vision is unsuitable, a state of confusion will occur and the implementation of the project will be negatively affected. In most cases of transformation, Kotter (1995, 2012) explains that even though

transformation initiatives typically include a significant number of plans and programmes, they frequently lack any clear vision, or the sense of direction is vague and complex. This eventually creates a state of confusion and incompatibility.

Establishing a direction for the organisation to move forward is therefore integral to creating the vision. The organisation's vision should increase motivation, provide a rationale for the necessity for change, keep the project aligned, and measure the organisation's achievements. In evaluating whether the vision is suitable or correct, Kotter (1995, p.63) provides the following advice: "A useful rule of thumb: if you can't communicate the vision to someone in five minutes or less and get a reaction that signifies both understanding and interest, you are not yet done with this phase of the transformation process".

4- Communicate the Vision

Even though employees are often well aware of the importance of shifting from the current status quo, they do not tend to make the effort to change if they do not know how this change is possible or if the vision is not sufficiently communicated to them. In other words, employees will not believe in change and will be unwilling to participate in achieving the organisation's goals if the change is poorly communicated to them, even if they are unhappy with the current status quo. Managers and leaders should therefore use different communication channels and opportunities to communicate with all their members.

Employees will not believe in change and will be unwilling to participate in achieving the organisation's goals if the change is poorly communicated to them, even if they are unhappy with the current status quo. In his research, Kotter identifies three forms of inadequate communication. The first type involves creating a vision for change and communicating it to the staff via a few team meetings and memos, with the latter not understanding the change. The second type involves the head of the organisation making too many speeches to employees whilst managers remain silent. The third form primarily involves spending much effort in newsletters and speeches, yet, some employees react cynically and the reasons for this cynicism go unaddressed. To resolve this, it stands to reason that a single management team should not direct all communication, but rather, efforts should be paid to ensure that all members understand, appreciate and accept the need for change (Kotter, 1995, 2012).

5- Empowering Other to Act

Employees accept the new vision without any hesitation; however, their efforts for change face different obstacles that block their way. Such barriers include organisational structure, lack of

resources and time, insufficient support from managers and lack of appraisal systems. This can become highly frustrating, particularly if it has taken little effort to get members to understand and believe in the new changes. Although Kotter (1995, 2012) explains that barriers are normal in any change initiative, it is the role of leaders to eliminate these obstacles for the change to continue its path towards the vision. Moreover, innovative ideas and behaviour contributing to the desired change should also be rewarded.

6- Plan For and Create Short-term Wins

Any change requires time to reap fruitful outcomes. However with time, a change initiative may lose momentum. Individuals within the organisation are often keen to see visible outcomes and witness the evidence of their hard work in order for them to continue with the change; otherwise this may reduce the overall urgency. Therefore, creating short-term “wins” is essential to celebrate achievements that are made. The rewards could include monetary incentives or recognition, so employees can see what their efforts have achieved and to celebrate their success. This will consequently increase their motivation and efforts and keep the level of urgency high within the organisation.

7- Consolidate Improvements and Produce more Change

Kotter (1995) argues that the process of change usually takes five to ten years, so declaring victory before such time has elapsed may “kill the momentum”. He aptly states, “*While celebrating a win is fine, declaring the war won can be catastrophic*” (Kotter, 1995, p.66). In other words, leaders should understand that their change efforts will take years and should employ the victory feelings as a motivation to secure further success.

8- Institutionalize New Approaches

In the final phase of change, Kotter emphasises that change should be deeply rooted within the corporate body for it to persist; otherwise changes will be “subject to degradation” as soon as the pressure is lifted. Hence, change should be institutionalised and embedded within the culture of the organisation itself to include new behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs. Institutionalising the new approaches can be done through two factors: Firstly, leaders should communicate to members the connection between their efforts and new behaviours with the outcomes that the organisation has witnessed. Secondly, leaders should take the time to ensure that new managers embody and believe in the new approaches and changes.

Kotter (1995, 2012) warns that if the latter steps do not occur during organisational change, unpleasant consequences arise, such as difficulty in implementing new strategies and approaches, and programmes that fail to deliver the desired outcomes.

2.5.1 Limitations of Kotter's Model

In their analysis of Kotter's model, Appelbaum *et al.* (2012) make four critical observations as follows:

- Their first criticism relates to Kotter's model being described as a “*rigid approach*” (Appelbaum *et al.* 2012, p.775), due to the fact that Kotter (1996) emphasizes his steps should be followed in order. This implies that if a step were missed, it would make it very difficult or potentially impossible for the following steps to be implemented. Moreover, according to Burnes's (1996) aforementioned argument, there is not one universal approach to manage organisational change.
- The changes in some organisational contexts do not require or cannot involve all of Kotter's steps. For instance, steps one and four may not be applicable to change that require a great deal of secrecy.
- Despite the fact that Kotter emphasizes on how implementing change faces several barriers, it does not provide a comprehensive approach for dealing with all these events. For instance, the model does not address commitment to change or strategies on how to deal with resistance to change.
- The complexity of many change projects makes it difficult to fully apply all the steps presented in Kotter's model. For example, assessing the level of implementation of each step can be time consuming and the resources devoted to it may become counterproductive.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, Kotter's model remains a critical reference in the field of change management, which benefits significantly from drawing upon his own personal experiences.

As a result, the model was used in this study under the justification that its primary focus is on the preparation and acceptance of change, as opposed to the change itself. Moreover, the model stresses the significance towards the role of personnel and leaders within the organisation, in addition to an emphasis on cultural change, which is crucial for the better performance of the organisation (Joshi, 2013). This is relevant in the case of Tatweer, as the Saudi management system strongly reflects the wider social norms and traditions, which are further elaborated upon in Section 2.8.

This research critically assesses the experiences of Tatweer in the light of Kotter's (1995) model for transforming organisations, as well as providing a better understanding over the possible factors that may not be listed in his model. Kotter's approach is further investigated in addition to the external relations models presented in Section 2.9, in order to examine their relation with the implementation of change in the educational sector and on the impact of external stakeholders' engagement.

2.6 Rationale for the Failure of Organisational Change Initiatives

The number of organisations failing in their change programmes is high (Hamlin *et al.*, 2001; Senge *et al.*, 1999; Patterson, 2000; Bernard & Stoll, 2010; Balogun & Hope Hailey, 2004). This failure of organisational change and development programmes typically mirror a characteristic pattern outlined by Hamlin *et al.* (2001). That is, typical change programmes begin with the senior manager's announcement of the change initiative, followed by the quick training of personnel, setting of committees and reallocation of resources. As a result, the change breaks down and fails. Hamlin *et al.* (2001) argues that the six main reasons for the failure of change initiatives are:

- 1- Change is viewed by many as a target and not as a process that requires careful preparation, planning and management.
- 2- A lack of clear vision.
- 3- Failure of previous projects, resulting in the organisation's employees and/or general management becoming cynical and creating resistance towards any new projects.
- 4- The inability to provide employees with the necessary training and encouragement needed to adjust to the change.
- 5- Poor communication with employees and failing to provide them with all the information required to ease the transition process.
- 6- Emphasising one aspect of the change initiative and ignoring the rest, such as focussing on training but failing to provide incentives and reward systems that are required to manage behaviours.

Change is important; nevertheless, many may view it as a threat when they are unsure of the outcomes. Some believe that open-minded managers would embrace the change for the betterment of their organisation (Katz & Khan, 1978), while others may anticipate staff and employees would try hard to protect the status quo and not give in to change unless they believe it would benefit their own self-interest (Maslow, 1970; Watson, 1970). However, this may not always be the case; Hoag *et al.* (2002) documents a case where employees recognised a need for change, and wanted to implement it, but managers were either incapable or unwilling to implement the required leadership. In this case,

the lack of positive change in the organisation resulted from a “*dysfunctional management*” that prevented change which led to a further “*cultural entrenchment*”, (Hoag *et al.*, 2002, p.13). Staff viewed leaders as poor, lacking in vision and strategic planning, unwilling to make decisions regarding change so as to avoid any responsibility for failure, and uncommunicative towards staff members. Moreover, managers were found to be unsupportive and not committed to change as they focused solely on their own interests and not that of the organisation. Some managers did recognise the need for change, and yet, they developed a “*not yet policy*” (Hoag *et al.*, 2002, p. 10), whereas others could not see any rationale for adjustment.

Although the above case does not seem to be the norm, a more common situation within the existing literature focuses on the organisational members’ reaction to change (Isabella, 1990; Jaffe, Scott & Tobe, 1994). Isabella (1990) argues that when change occurs, employees go through four phases: *anticipation, confirmation, culmination, and aftermath*. Jaffe, Scott and Tobe (1994) applied different labels but the stages are quite similar. They suggest that employees first go through *denial* and refuse to believe in the necessity of change. They then experience *resistance* by not participating or postponing implementation. Following this, they *explore* if the new behaviours and change are effective in achieving their goal and finally, they *commit* and embrace change. Such a schema, however, appears rather crude in assuming that reactions and stages are always the same.

Encouraging organisational members to adopt the desired behaviours is essential to successfully implement and achieve the desired change (Arminakis & Bedeian, 1999). Many studies identify the way in which managers acknowledge and defuse resistance to be an extremely critical aspect for change to occur (Arminakis & Bedeian, 1999; Clarke *et al.*, 1996; Schabracq and Cooper, 1998; Reichers, Wanous and Austin, 1997). Clarke *et al.* (1996) concluded that employees may still resist change even though they are aware of its importance. This study revealed that the more individuals feel that their self-interest is threatened, the more likely they are to resist change. In other words, an individual will not focus on the overall benefit for the organisation, rather, they will focus on their own self-interest and resist the change depending on the magnitude of the change itself, or if this change will result in them losing something of value personally.

Another barrier to change is stress (Arminakis & Bedeian, 1999). Schabracq and Cooper (1998) argued that due to life or work events, individuals automatically develop certain responses that will help them develop the necessary skills as a source of positive reinforcement and control. This function is described as *situated roles*, which overcome uncertainty in daily life. However, situated skills are invalid when facing a more dramatic upheaval such as radical organisational change. Consequently,

a sense of uncertainty is experienced. When change is initiated, an inability to cope with it results in stress, which makes it a great barrier to change.

Studies on employee cynicism indicate that many change programmes fail when employees' lose faith in their managers. Reichers *et al.* (1997) differentiate between cynicism, scepticism and resistance to change. That is, scepticism results from an individual's doubt in the success of change, but they are still eager for positive change. In contrast, resistance to change is a result of self-interest, misunderstanding and not enduring change, whereas, cynicism is a complete loss of faith in managers and change agents due to previous attempts that have failed entirely or partially. When cynics lose faith in leaders, it is evident that they will refuse to support change. Cynical beliefs will then develop and lead to: (a) unwillingness to try again; (b) lack of motivation; (c) lack of commitment and (d) absenteeism. Nevertheless, cynicism may be reduced through appropriate two-way communication and credible information (Reichers *et al.*, 1997).

Several change programmes that attempt to transform organisations have failed due to the lack of effort to properly involve employees. To achieve effective participation, Kappelman and Richards (1996) argue that employee empowerment is required, integrating real influence with significant information. The involvement of employees typically requires appropriate training (Kappelman and Richards, 1996), although, as noted by Hamlin *et al.* (2001), this is often overlooked.

For Lewin (1991), participation and employee involvement in learning and management is considered to be the main method for the successful implementation of change within organisations. Waddell and Sohel (1998), further argue that participative management is a useful technique that should be used when resistance is high, as it allows workers to get involved in the process of change through two-way communication that increases their commitment and minimises their resistance (Kotter *et al.*, 1986).

Kotter's (1995) fifth step for managers to follow when implementing change is empowering others to act. It is normal for any change initiative to be challenged. His case study of a company's transformation demonstrated that change was brought to a halt due to the unwillingness of management to adapt to the change, as the manager did not motivate and empower his employees, nor was their innovative ideas rewarded. One factor that was carefully examined in this study is whether or not those employees and stakeholders who believe that change is necessary, did they then also 'buy into' this change process? This further clarifies the sources of resistance and what factors, if any, minimised this. RTC is further presented in the next section because it is one of the main contributing factors to unsuccessful change.

2.7 Resistance to Change (RTC)

Generally speaking, organisational change initiatives aim to transform an organisation due to alteration in their internal and/or external environment (Kanter, 1985; Judson, 1991; Gilgeous, 1997; Bernard & Stoll, 2010; Moran & Brightman, 2001) and as a result, improve performance (Gilgeous, 1997; Moran & Brightman, 2001). Organisational capacity for change is therefore vital for its survival, yet this is strongly affected by employees' resistance to change (RTC) (Peccei, Giangreco & Sebastiano, 2011). Even though the failure of change initiatives could be a result of several reasons, researchers have indicated that many failures are due to RTC (Judson, 1991; Ansoff, 1990; Del Val & Fuentes, 2003). RTC is widely recognised as a critical contributor to the failure of organisational change, which is regarded as a phenomenon that can delays change projects, obstructs the implementation process and increases costs (Ansoff, 1990). Maurer (1996) supports this, indicating that 50-66% of organisations fail to change due to RTC, even though it is not the only factor that influences change initiatives (Waddell and Sohal, 1998).

Zaltman and Duncan (1977) define RTC as any behaviour to preserve the current status quo from any alterations and changes. Resistance is commonly associated with negative actions from employees that seek to prevent or delay change initiatives. Rumelt (1995, p.2) defines inertia as “*the strong persistence of existing form and function.*” However, Waddell and Sohel (1998) argue that resistance is not always negative or fosters negative attitude towards change; rather, it can be a positive force, if managed appropriately, and subsequently utilised to assist in the change of the organization. For instance, resistance may be a source of information that an organisation uses to gain useful constructive feedback on a specific change, which can then be used to develop a more successful change strategy; thus, creating a positive benefit from RTC (Del Val & Fuentes, 2003).

2.7.1 Sources of Resistance

Katz and Kahn (1987) identified six sources of resistance to change at the organisational level, which most, if not all, are people-centred. Firstly, *over-determination* occurs where an organisation has complex and over-controlled processes, for which simplification and less control would yield the same outcomes. Secondly, the *narrow focus of change* refers to the insufficient sense of urgency established when implementing change. Managers should articulate the true purpose of change to the entire organisation. If this is not done, then different members will focus on different things, rather than establishing the interconnections that are required to achieve the central objective. Thirdly, *group inertia*, which refers to the collective resistance to accept change. Central to this concept is the notion of group norms; while an individual may be able to accept change, group norms override an individual's willingness to adapt. The fourth source is *threatened expertise*, whereby some change

processes could involve a reformation and rearranging of the organisation's existing structure. This could alter the set of required skills for certain jobs or titles, and as a result, face resistance due to the probability that prior expertise for a specific role is susceptible to being omitted from revamped job descriptions; hence, employees' may become vulnerable in the event of future jobs being reshuffled or made redundant. Fifth, *threatened power*; similar to the previous source, organisational restructuring could impact on the decision making flow or alter it. This means that managers could lose power or have less influence in the decision-making process compared to the period prior to the change. Lastly, *resource allocation*; RTC will occur when resources such as the number of employees and/or budgets allocated to certain departments and managers becomes unsatisfactory in comparison to previous arrangements.

Waddell and Sohal (1998) concluded that RTC is a response to various factors:

- 1- Rational factors: where employees' rational assessment of the change outcomes is different from those of managers; they tend to doubt the importance of change and therefore, resist it (Ansoff, 1988; Kotter et al., 1986).
- 2- Non-rational factors: that occur on the basis of the employee's preferences, for example being unwilling to change offices (Judson, 1966; Kaufman, 1971).
- 3- Political factors: This may refer to certain prejudices against the change initiators to show that their decisions about change is wrong (Ansoff, 1988).
- 4- Management styles: such as inadequate and/or lack of appropriate management styles (Judson, 1966).

During the last two decades, extensive research has been conducted on RTC, especially its antecedents (Fedor *et al.*, 2006; Oreg, 2006; Elias, 2009). Rumelt (1995) claims that inertia is always a dilemma in both the formulation and implementation stages and proposes five sources of inertia: distorted perception, dulled motivation, failed creative response, political deadlocks, and action disconnects. However, he does not distinguish the sources of inertia according to both stages (Del Val & Fuentes, 2003).

Kotter and Schelsinger (1979) introduce a model of RTC, with suggest two factors contribute to resistance: employees' perception about the benefits of change, and their involvement in the change process. Giangreco and Peccei (2005) assessed the validity of this model and identified middle managers to be the primary variable in any organisation. Their role in organisations is seen as the cause of potential success or failure to any change process, making them "both victims and agents of change" (p. 1813). In other words, middle management could be asked to manage and implement the

change process as well as adapt to their new roles, in which loss or decrease of power and influence is expected. The study revealed that employees' perceptions over the benefit of change and their involvement in the change process does negatively relate to RTC. Moreover, the impact of the latter factors on resistance was mediated by employees' attitudes toward the change. Consequently, Giangreco and Peccei (2005) form three main conclusions: firstly, middle managers' behaviour should be understood in the context of those supporting or opposing the change process. If middle managers were against the change, then they would purposefully ensure the failure of the change process or negatively engage to make the success and achievement of the change outcomes more difficult. Secondly, resistance to change could be anticipated based upon the individuals' perception of gains and losses within the organisation. Thirdly, the study shows that both the individuals' perception of the change and their level of involvement in the change process are valid predictors for the resistance to change. It was further revealed that the perceived benefits of change are a stronger predictor to the resistance to change than the involvement and participation variable.

Oreg (2003) developed a "Resistance to Change Scale" to determine the level of RTC among employees, based upon both the personality and context of change. He emphasized that context has a significant impact on resistance and, therefore, good management is essential during change. However, he proposed that an ideal amount of information is to be given to employees, as his study hypothesized that giving them with too much information may have an opposite effect and increase their levels of resistance. Managers should therefore develop an appropriate communication strategy to control RTC. This could be in line with those who advocate the use of the emergent theory Section 2.4.2, who insist that managers have a thorough knowledge regarding the organisation's structure, people, culture and management.

2.7.2 Controlling Resistance to Change

Several authors propose strategies for controlling RTC (Warwick, 1975; Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979; Thompson and Sanders, 1997; Denhardt and Denhardt, 1999; Poister and Streib, 1999; ALKazemi, 2001). One popular strategy that is advocated is to empower employees (Warwick, 1975, Denhardt and Denhardt, 1999; Poister and Streib, 1999), although, as a caveat, many researchers urge that this needs to be combined with effective support from managers (ALKazemi, 2001; Thompson and Sanders, 1997).

Pfeffer (1981) proposes that resistance could be positive when it drives managers of the change processes to re-examine the proposed objectives of change. As a result, regardless of whether or not the re-examination of the change process causes any modifications to be made, those that are resisting

may perceive this step as a positive outcome of their actions, and that they are being valued and their opinions are respected.

Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) outline six methods to manage RTC, which are in line with the emergent approach. They argue that as the content of change and reactions to it differ between organisations, approaches to reduce RTC should be selected carefully. Table 2.2 summarises the six methods, which are outlined below.

- *Education and communication:* Once a change process has been developed, misinformation and poor communication can trigger resistance in the organisation. A lack of accurate information and effective communication increases RTC and adversely affects its implementation. However, although education and communication could be a time-consuming activity, by providing all stakeholders with the rationale for change, it can significantly reduce RTC, as revealed in Fiss and Zajac's (2006) study of strategic change. Moreover, it may diminish the sources of resistance that would form as a result of inaccurate information and rumours.
- *Participation:* allowing employees the ability to participate and involving them in the decision-making process can prove to be highly advantageous in managing RTC. Central to this is building the employees' commitment through participation or involvement, whereby, according to Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), the more involved people are in the change process, the more committed and less resistant they become.
- *Facilitation and support:* in order to help employees who experience fear and anxiety in adapting to the change process, several methods could be applied, such as counselling and training. Even though such programmes tend to consume more time and money, they greatly assist participants in adjusting to the change.

Table 2.2: Methods for Managing RTC Identified by Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)

Method	Usage	When Used	Advantages	Disadvantages
Education	Communicate the rationale and aims of change	Lack of information of the implications of change	Usually people assist in implementation when persuaded	Time consuming when involving a large group
Participation	Engage individuals in change design and implementation	Leaders of change have insufficient information to plan the change	People commitment rise	Time consuming and may lead to inappropriate change
Facilitation	Provide training and emotional support	Individuals' fear their inability to adjust	Only strategy used to solve adjustment issues	Time consuming, expensive, and may fail
Negotiation	Provide incentives	Resistors are powerful and lose out in the change	Simple way to resolve major resistance	Expensive and could lead to blackmailing managers
Coercion	Threaten jobs and promotion opportunities	Speed is a crucial element and leaders possess significant power	Any kind of resistance is quickly resolved	Generate negative feelings towards initiators of change

Source: Kotter and Schlesinger (2008, p.1)

- *Negotiation and agreement*: this approach is critical when the resistant group is influential, powerful and has the ability to halt implementation. In such instances, the management must negotiate with the group to implement the proposed change.
- *Manipulation and co-optation*: manipulation is an approach commonly used when previous approaches fail to produce the desired outcomes. This approach seeks to influence people to accept a desired outcome, which could be exacted in different ways such as withholding information or manipulating a group to change their opinion of other groups. This strategy is deemed as highly controversial and risky.
- *Coercion*: managers use this approach when they want to motivate people to change by omitting or withholding valued outcomes. For instance, management may threaten employees with pay cuts if their resistance continues. Nevertheless, this approach tends to be effective only in certain circumstances, as it can compromise future commitments and morale.

With a similar objective, Judson (1991) also identifies methods to control resistance, which are eight in total and provide a different perspective:

- *Compulsion, Threats and Bribery*: managers may use their authority by threatening subordinates with disciplinary actions if they fail to comply. Moreover, some may bribe employees to accept change. However, this approach is viewed as too blunt an instrument to be fully effective and should not be used solely to control resistance.
- *Persuasion, Rewards and Bargaining*: this approach is more positive in nature, addressing the cause of resistance and providing incentives. Rewards can be either monetary incentives such as annual benefits, or non-monetary such as training. Bargaining can also be used to reduce resistance when the management accepts some of the proposals presented by the resistant group in exchange for their acceptance.
- *Security and Guarantees*: Judson (1991, p.107) recommends that, wherever possible, managers should fulfil “a pledge of no redundancy” so that the resistant group would be assured that their fears and anxieties are alleviated. Additionally, the rationale behind the insecure feelings should be identified to highlight appropriate solutions. For instance, if employees resist change because of their fear of lacking skills to perform in the new system, then providing them with appropriate training should relieve any fears towards it.
- *Understanding and Discussion*: resistance can be reduced from the onset of the change process by having managers provide sufficient information about the change. Information should be transmitted to all those who will be affected by the change. Moreover, establishing a discussion group could be of great benefit, in which employees could raise any questions and concerns.
- *Time and Timing*: managers should carefully plan the entire change process; from the first moment they intend to introduce it to their employees, to the start of its actual implementation. This plan should consider two factors: the length of time needed for most employees to accommodate and become actively involved in the change, as well as the situational factors to decide on when the change should be institutionalised and implemented.
- *Involvement and Participation*: Similar to the findings by Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), positive outcomes result from involving people in decisions, as it will increase their commitment and personal satisfaction, and ultimately reduce their resistance. Thus, for the change to yield the desired outcomes, employees should be able participate in planning and implementing change and more importantly, not act as passive recipients.
- *Criticism, Ceremony and Building on the Past*: according to Judson (1991), managers should not place employees in a position where they will be criticised. Alternatively, they should build upon

their previous positive and constructivist achievements.

- *Flexibility and the Tentative Approach*: usually it is more desirable to maintain a degree of caution and flexibility when introducing a change. As a result, employees will feel more in control of what is happening and will experience the change in a period where it can be still be modified.

Managing resistance to change requires effort and time. From the various preceding models, internal communication in organisations has been identified as a crucial element contributing to the success or failure of any transformation and change. This is expounded upon in greater detail within the next section.

2.8 Communications and Organisational Change and Development

Previous research indicates that most change management programmes fail (Senge *et al.*, 1999; Patterson, 2000; Bernard and Stoll, 2010; Balogun and Hope Hailey, 2004). Several reasons underpin the failure of organisations to achieve their set objectives, such as the role of managers, organisational culture, and poor communication (Bennebroek Gravenhorst *et al.*, 1999). Gilsdorf (1998) argues however, that the lack of effective communication is the most important factor. And ineffectiveness in the workplace often stems from poor internal communication (Welch & Jackson, 2007).

The field of organisational communication was previously viewed as the act of sending and receiving information within the organisation on clear boundaries, yet, further communication with external markets and wider publics was viewed as a foreign concept in this domain (Cheney & Christensen, 2001). Nevertheless, defining the boundaries of an organization is becoming difficult because it is viewed as unclear and blurry, therefore, internal and external communication are viewed as interdependent and not different fields (Cheney & Christensen, 2001). For clarity the term ‘external organizational communication’ (Welch & Jackson, 2007, p.180) can be used and defined as marketing, public relations, and issues management relating to publics outside of the organisation.

Even though Cheney & Christensen (2001, p.231) define internal communication as employee relations and issues management, defining the boundaries of an organisation is fuzzy and therefore, an integration of internal and external communication is present. For instance, a forwarded email to the media or distribution of newsletters will make internal communication become external (Welsh & Jackson, 2007).

Internal communication is viewed by corporate communication scholars as a part of an integrated whole (Van Reil, 1995; Varey, 2002). Van Riel (1995, p.26) defines corporate communication as: ‘an instrument of management by means of which all consciously used forms of internal and external communication

are harmonised as effectively and efficiently as possible, so as to create a favourable basis for relationships with groups upon which the company is dependent’.

He, therefore, identifies three types of corporate communication:

- Management Communication- relates to resources access and human resources.
- Marketing Communication- relates to advertising, sponsorship, and personal selling.
- Organisational Communication- relates to communication as a phenomenon.

Welch and Jackson (2007) offers an Internal Communication Matrix that presents a typology of internal communication (Table 2.3). The matrix illustrates the four dimensions of internal communication. The first dimension relates to daily management activities regarding the role of employees and their communication. The second relates to team situations that requires peer communication between managers and employees. The third relates to communication of participants concerning a certain project. Finally, the fourth dimension relates to on-going communication with all employees to promote their engagement and commitment.

Table 2.3: The Internal Communication Matrix (Welsh & Jackson, 2007)

Dimension	Level	Direction	Participants	Content
1. Internal line management communication	Line managers/supervisors	Predominantly two-way	Line managers-employees	Employees’ roles Personal impact (appraisal discussions, team briefings)
2. Internal team peer communication	Team colleagues	Two-way	Employee-employee	Team information, e.g. team task discussions
3. Internal project peer	Project group colleagues	Two-way	Employee-employee	Project information, e.g. project issues
4. Internal corporate communication	Strategic managers/top management	Predominantly one-way	Strategic managers-all employees	Organisational/corporate issues (goals, objectives, new developments, activities and achievements)

Source: Welch and Jackson (2007) P. 185

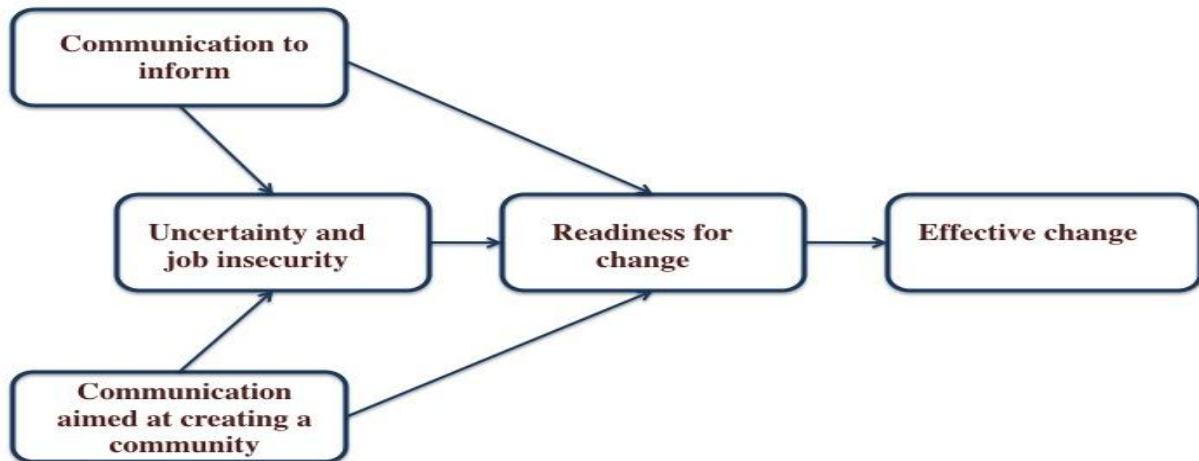
A positive relationship between communication and the successful implementation of change and development programmes has been revealed in the extant literature (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). Studies have shown that when change is poorly communicated within an organisation, it results in rumours, negative perceptions about the change and resistance (Difonzo *et al.*, 1994). To successfully manage employees, effective communication is therefore required and, as Hargie and Tourish (1993)

consider it a vital element in the success of organisational change. Disseminating information and communicating with employees for the purpose of preparing and explaining the change process to them, as well as its effects, is essential to minimise resistance and confusion, and to increase the organisation's effectiveness (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). In contrast, a breakdown in communication may lead to difficulties in organisations, such as hoarding of information, rumours and employees' misinterpretation of information (Kitchen & Daly, 2002). Furthermore, Gilsdorf (1998) explains that rules and communication guidelines should be provided to employees, so that all members within an organisation will understand how, when and what the appropriate means to communicate are.

Participation, direction, and the content of communication are considered the main aspects of internal communication management (Welch & Jackson, 2007). Internal communication between participants can be one-way, two-way (Grunig & Hunt, 1984), downward (Clampitt, 2000), and/or upward in its direction (Tourish and Hargie, 2004). Furthermore, the content of what is communicated is crucial.

Internal corporate communications can contribute to employees' commitment and enhance their level of belongingness (Welch & Jackson, 2007). Elving (2005) introduces a conceptual model of how communication during organisational change can minimise resistance. He identified six propositions that have an impact on resistance to change and consequently on outcomes (Figure 2.3). His findings explicitly reveal that employees' readiness to change is influenced by communication and uncertainty. As a result, when an organisation experiences low levels of RTC and high levels of readiness, then effective change is more likely to be achieved. Elving's (2005) further explains that the objective of effective communication should be to inform employees about the nature of change and its impact on their work, and to create a community based on trust and commitment. Trust can decrease uncertainty levels and therefore increases their readiness for change, which would again impact positively on the implementation of change

Figure 2.3: Elving's (2005) Conceptual Framework of Communication During Organisational Change



Source: Elving (2005, p. 134)

Kotter (1996) also emphasizes the vital role of communication during change. He stresses the importance of raising employees' levels of commitment and belongingness through their wide participation in the change process. Moreover, information should be widely distributed, providing an opportunity for discussion, and the vision and purpose of change should be clearly communicated.

It has been reported in Section 2.7 that insufficient communication can lead to RTC. Consequently, effective communication is considered to play a major role in reducing or overcoming resistance and unwillingness to change. As illustrated in Elving's (2005) conceptual framework of communication during organisational change (Figure 2.3), readiness for change is a prerequisite for effective change. Overcoming employees' uncertainty will promote their readiness for it. Furthermore, reducing resistance is Elving's main goal for communication in order to achieve effective implementation.

Pandey and Garnett (2006) further indicate that successful operational performance within the public sector is highly dependent upon the nature of communication. For instance, serious difficulties can occur in public administrations as a result of blockages in their communication system. Thus, they proposed a model for communication performance specifically related to public organisations, arguing that this sector is more highly politicised. They subsequently state that goal clarity; "red tape", organisational culture and size are among the main variables affecting the performance of

communication activities in government organisations. These organisations are normally characterised by “goal ambiguity” or “goal multiplicity” (Pandey and Garnett, 2006, p.38). With regard to red tape, Pandey and Garnett (2006, p.39) refer to Bozeman’s (1993) definition as “rules, regulations, and procedures that remain in force and entail a compliance burden but do not serve the legitimate purposes the rules were intended to serve”. Rigid rules can adversely affect the communication performance because they may limit the number and capacity of the communication channels. Furthermore, red tape tends to negatively affect an employee’s motivation to either provide or seek information. As organisational culture is a determinant of communication performance, this relationship varies depending on the type of culture. Nevertheless, the size of the organisation may further challenge the communication process and make it more difficult, particularly with large, complex public agencies such as the MoE. In such an environment it is crucial for communication managers to expand their roles, since annual reports and newsletters are insufficient (Stroh and Jaatinen, 2001). They should develop efficient channels of communication that promote participation in decision making and ideas for change.

Since organisational communication is defined by Cheney and Christensen (2001, p. 234) as “a set of processes through which organizations create, negotiate, and manage meanings”, they however, emphasize that external communication is related to the external environment meaning construction and interpretation, and therefore it is regarded as a subcategory of the organizational communication processes. Several domains fall under the concept of external communication to include advertising, public relations, and marketing (Cheney & Christensen, 2001).

In the educational context, Bush (1999) outlines how schools can operate within a “closed system”. Generally, this tends to be the case in Saudi Arabia, in which schools or other educational institutions set boundaries between themselves and the environment that resists penetration. However, with the change initiatives introduced in the educational sector of the Kingdom, it is hard to maintain a “closed system” because it requires frequent communication with external individuals and groups. For educational transformation, which requires parents and others’ agreement to change, a more “open system” with an interactive relationship between schools and their environment is required. In doing so, an “open system” also requires an effective communication strategy.

In the marketing literature, “promotion” is mainly associated with the schools’ practices to market themselves by effectively communicating and persuading stakeholders to choose the services provided through public relations (PR), advertising, and/or other aspects of the promotional mix (Kotler and Armstrong, 1999). International studies have shown that non-press PR is popular with

schools, including open days, parents' evenings and meetings, as well as community fundraising events (Birch, 1998; Oplatka, 2002). Brochures were found to be widely used by schools (Oplatka and Hemsley-Brown, 2004). Moreover, in a competitive environment, relationships between local primary and secondary schools exist as a mechanism to attract prospective pupils (Woods et al., 1996).

Identifying the customers of education is a controversial issue. While some regard students as the customers and the courses they undertake as products, others view students as products and customers are would-be employers (Maringe, 2004; Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka, 2006). Students however, are not the only ones who benefit from the education system. Parents, school owners and the community in general are also considered customers of education (Harvey & Busher, 1996). It is therefore essential to market an educational system to parents as well as pupils, because parents usually make the final decision about their children's schooling, particularly during their early years (West *et al*, 1993).

In conclusion, even though several studies explore the role of internal communication and its role in the successful implementation of organisational change, little attention has been given to the role of communication in managing change within the educational sector, particularly in Middle Eastern countries. More specifically, there is a dearth of existing research that focuses on how to communicate change to people outside the boundary of an organisation and who, in one way or another, are affected by this change. Consequently, an objective of this study is to examine the role of internal and external communication in gaining public engagement and reducing resistance or inertia, which in turn enables change to be managed more effectively. Additionally, this study will facilitate the exploration of the factors that impact on the process of external communication in the education system within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The following section presents an overview of the existing management systems and processes for organisational change within public organisations in Saudi Arabia. By addressing this, it aims to provide a greater understanding of the impact that cultural and social values tend to have on management, and how this can hinder reform in the public sector.

2.9 Public Sector Reform

2.9.1 General Theories of Public Sector Reform

Governments and their bureaucracies have frequently been criticised in regards to their perceived negative attitudes to change and inflexibility. In turn, this has been identified as a factor that hinders

social and economic growth (Sager, 2004; Vigoda-Gadot *et al.* 2008) and led to many scholars stressing upon the importance of fostering innovation in the public sectors to overcome such tendencies (Vigoda-Gadot *et al.* 2008). Schacaster (2000, p.1) aptly states that public sector reform is a means of “strengthening the way that the public sector is managed.”

Due to the increasing rate of global social and economic change (Nicholls, 1983), there is a need for reform in public sectors and the adoption of New Public Management (NPM). Nevertheless, in the context of Saudi Arabia, the implementation of reform within the public sector is met with a number of challenges, which will be presented later in the section. Thus, various governments encounter pressure to improve their management system, service delivery and to reduce their bureaucracy (McLaughlin, Osborne & Ferlie, 2003). Pressures for reform may emanate from organised civil societies that require improvement in public services. Moreover, private sectors may become concerned over bureaucratic barriers that may impact on their businesses in addition to fiscal stress and corruption that require a change in the traditional administration and management system (McLaughlin, Osborne & Ferlie, 2003). Christensen and Laegreid (2002) identify three types of reform depending on the transmission of NPM from one country to another:

- *Nationally induced reform*: when some countries share similar problems and generate similar solutions to meet the needs of the nation, they undergo the reform process in isolation from other countries.
- *Internationally formed Public Management Reform*: when countries work together and develop extensive networks to share knowledge and ideas. Reform ideas are widely spread and adopted by many countries and nations around the world.
- *Transnational Formed Public Management Reform*: reformers, international organisations and consultants transform the reform ideas and practice, review and then implement them. In other words, they provide a combination of models from different countries and develop a guideline for the reform process for a specific country.

NPM is a set of management theories and practices that are derived from the private sector, to which proponents argue, can be implemented by public sector organisations to transform and modernise their governance structures and services (Tolofari, 2005; Lapsley, 2009). These reforms may lead to elements of the public sector functioning in a quasi-business manner (Diefenbach, 2009). NPM was stimulated by a growing realisation that the public sector administration and operations were often problematic (Lane, 1996), with core institutions such as public schools failing to deliver intended outcomes.

In terms of NPM's main characteristics, Wittmann (2008) identifies these as follows:

The usage of private sector management approaches so that public administrations can adopt and act as a business-type management.

- 1- NPM values competition and considers it as an incentive for achievement.
- 2- The structure of public services should depend upon the customers' demands.
- 3- NPM emphasizes on the output rather than the procedure (Broadbent & Laughlin, 1997).
- 4- Public service institutions are to have more autonomy and become more financially independent.

In addition, decentralisation, privatisation, marketization, customer orientation, citizens' participation and organisational restructuring are all key elements of NPM, as identified by McLaughlin, Osborne & Ferlie (2003). They argue that public sectors and reformers have the choice of selecting suitable elements to overcome their challenges.

According to Halligan (1996), Australia and New Zealand are two countries that have achieved a remarkable reform in the public sector since the 1980s. Both countries rejected the traditional administrative processes and substituted them with marketing principles and private sector management processes. Even though they faced fiscal challenges and pressures, they responded effectively by focusing on the development of unique models and management frameworks for reform, in addition to applying the principles of the NPM across their public sector organization and services, which ultimately led to their systematic and rapid reform.

2.9.2 Public Sector Reform in Saudi Arabia

From the perspective of Saudi Arabia, due of the Kingdom's rapid economic development and subsequent socio-economic changes, it is crucial for its public sectors in general to equally adjust radically, so as to improve their performance and services, as well as accomplish their goals (Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013). That said, a slow rate of reform in public organisations within the Kingdom is evident (Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013). Thus, in light of this study, it is important to address the country's administrative structure and the overall need for it to be reconsidered, in order to eliminate drawbacks and weaknesses that hinder the process of organisational change, which ultimately prevents improvements to public services. Since 1971, when Saudi Arabia's revenues from oil exports increased drastically, in spite of the tremendous economic development the Kingdom has witnessed from this time, nepotism and favouritism continue to remain pervasive in government sectors (Malaika, 1987; Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013). That is, managers and officials are seen to serve their personal interests, their families and friends and provide them with benefits and services

by exploiting the privileges that come from such positions of authority (Malaika, 1987; Al Yousif, 2011). Furthermore, social traditions can significantly impact on management practices. For instance, hospitality is regarded as a highly important tradition within Saudi society; therefore, managers view welcoming visitors and attendant hospitality as an important activity. It is, in fact, an effective tool if managed properly, but in this context, it is often unplanned, unrestricted and misused. Thus, although conducting long meetings for the sole purpose of social interaction can waste valuable time and resources, they are often considered a positive and beneficial characteristic of the Saudi management system (Malaika, 1987).

Furthermore, within the public sector, managers tend to value an employee's loyalty more than performance. This relationship creates difficulties as it decreases employees' independence and increases the pressure on managers because their employees must constantly seek their manager's approval before taking action or making any decisions. In contrast, because employees are too loyal to their superiors, managers generally dislike confrontation and disagreements with them (Farid, 1980). As a result, managers make decisions in isolation and employee feedback is only presented when requested, which is done so in a very gentle polite way or it will be considered as "*trying to make the boss lose face*" (Malaika, 1987, p.65).

In terms of delegation of authority, research indicates that this is low because employees are highly dependent on their superiors or there is the lack of qualified personnel (Abdulwahab, 1979; Al Yousif, 2011). As a result, centralisation is still high and decision-making is inflexible and often made with little team involvement. Existing studies identify the lack of qualified employees, dependency on superiors, poor coordination between departments and inflexible policies to be some key causes for increased centralisation (Malaika, 1987, Al Qahtani, 2013). Nevertheless, there are occasions where managers face resistance and negative attitudes from employees. Individuals are not committed to implement decisions because of the overlapping responsibilities of departments, lack of effective communication, poor time management and bureaucratic procedures. Consequently, organisational performance tends to be very low (Al Yousif, 2011). Moreover, managers usually make decisions based on their own experience, even though they often lack problem solving skills and adequate training. In short, the result of this means implementing decisions is difficult (Abdulwahab, 1979).

A study by Asfor (1985) on government organisations in Saudi Arabia identified several key characteristics. He found that most of the organisations' policies and regulations were ineffective and that there were ineffective control systems in place. Delegation of authority failed to occur and centralisation caused significant delays over the majority of the workload. Moreover, overstaffing and duplication of work was prevalent, and the co-ordination between government agencies and

departments was extremely poor, whereby overlapping responsibilities remained an obstacle to reform. In relation to the overstaffing, many of those that were recruited were unqualified, which led to an imbalance in departments and consequently lowered productivity and performance. However, poor motivation and waste of qualified workers was noticeable in organisations, often caused by assigning employees to inappropriate and incorrect job roles. Asfor (1985) also noted that government agencies recruited a rather low percentage of Saudi employees due to their lack of professional qualifications and training. In addition, many of the employees saw work to be a secondary priority because they are too busy socialising (i.e. meeting their relatives and friends) or serving their own self-interests, at the expense of the organisation's performance and productivity.

Interestingly, more recent studies (Al Baradie, 2008; Control & Investigation Board, 2008; Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013; Al Suqaih, 2013; Yousif & Al Qahtani, 1997; Al Sheeha, 2012; Riyadh Economic Forum, 2013; Jreisat, 2009) suggest that the same problems identified by Asfor (1985) persist. These problem areas can be grouped into behavioural, central management and cultural constraints, and each is outlined in turn in the subsequent sections.

2.9.2.1 Behavioural Constraints

Several researchers have brought attention to the behavioural obstacles for reform that exists in the Kingdom's public organisations, of which favouritism and nepotism are particularly problematic. For instance, the recruitment process for vacancies of positions in high status or departments within the public sector requires candidates to meet certain conditions, standards, specifications, experience and qualifications. However, implementing such criteria is problematic in certain communities within the Kingdom, due to tribal loyalty or the desire to satisfy people of power to maintain certain interests or relations. This could include friends, work colleagues or study mates, as well as other social relationships that connect a department head and an individual (Al Yousif, 2011).

In a study conducted by Awaji (1971), the impact of loyalty to a clan or tribe when appointing governmental vacancies was considered. He found that 44% of respondents revealed that prejudice, nepotism and favouritism occurred and could be traced to friendship or connections to a region as a whole. He also stated that, despite employees caring about the interests of the public, it was expected that governmental employees would also take their own self-interests into account, even if such behaviour caused damage or loss to the public's interests. In this context, the study classified Saudi bureaucrats into two categories; the first category includes a relatively small group, which represents those who refuse to be subjected to favouritism and administrative corruption, while the much larger group remains captive to loyalty to their family, clan, friendship and region. Riggs (1964) similarly

argues that if some individuals are selected to hold public positions based on their authorities and influence with their loyalty to clan and tribe - particularly at the expense of being properly and occupationally qualified – then this will negatively affect their administrative performance and may subsequently result in the loss of administrative efficiency and competency.

Many studies of management in Arab countries reaffirm the negative impact of favouritism on employment (Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013, Al Suqaih, 2013) and business climate (Loewe *et al.*, 2007). Hence, researchers such as Al Suqaih (2013) are adamant that formal systems and regulations will undoubtedly prohibit the abuse of powers or position in the State against favouring family, tribes, relatives or friends. However, the reality is that these practices frequently occur in civil services throughout the Kingdom, as family status and relations will always be taken into consideration by public officials (Al Yousif, 2011, Al Qahtani, 2013).

Based on the evidence, one may postulate that each social unit, family, clan or tribe works hard to support the personal interests of its members through promotion or recruitment in public positions (Al Qahtani, 2013; Al Suqaih, 2013). Consequently, bureaucracies often serve personal interests before the public interest (Al Yousif, 2011). It is expected that those granted a public position will reward one's family, tribe or clan in return (Al Yousif, 2011).

Nepotism is defined as the intervention of a decision-making employee to fulfil an interest or protect someone from certain damage (Al Qahtani, 2013). According to Al Qahtani (2013), nepotism includes three specific aspects: the public, employees, as well as administrative agencies and systems. It can be viewed and considered in the light of the following features:

- 1- There are certain employees who enjoy postponing and delaying the accomplishment of their customers' transactions in order to exercise their powers; and therefore, their social value and significant impact may be enhanced before those of their clients (Al Suqaih, 2013, Al Yousif, 2011). Hence, the public have to find an intermediary or connection to help them complete their transactions and receive the service, drawn from their relatives, friends, tribal members, etc. Some employees may attempt to delay their work for the purpose of fulfilling the interests of their colleagues, as they exchange certain transactions with other colleagues, in the light of the common saying "we have mutual interests" and this is a form of intercession or mediation (Al Qahtani, 2013).
- 2- Another aspect of nepotism is related to the social variables and conditions surrounding an employee, specifically in terms of family and tribal relations, friendship and professional fellowship. In such instances, the employee exploits their position for the benefit of these

aforementioned relationships (Al Qahtani, 2013). The employee acts in this manner for the purpose of gaining respect, praise, as well as being described as beneficent and charitable by their family and friends (Al Yousif, 2011). Thus, this phenomenon results in another negative aspect, which is self-conceit. This may ultimately lead to a violation of government regulations and systems so that the individual can receive praise. In turn, this may develop into expressing such feelings by giving gifts or donations (Al Qahtani, 2013).

A recent study by Al Suqaih (2013) revealed that the prevalence of corruption in Saudi Arabia is widespread among upper and central levels of management in government organisations. This is in spite of the relatively recent formation of a National Commission in 2010, which is dedicated to monitor and combat government corruption and bad governance. The study indicates that 92.1% of financial and administrative corruption centres around nepotism and favouritism. In 2008, a report published by The Control and Investigation Board stated that there were approximately 434 cases of maltreatment and abuse committed on the job, 88 cases of misuse of authorities, and 85 cases of exploiting occupational power and influence (Control & Investigation Board, 2008).

After reviewing the existing literature pertaining to this issue, it is evident that loyalty to a tribe or region will directly affect professional performance, even amongst individuals who possess the necessary qualifications to hold a position of power, as well as possessing the ability to carry out the relevant duties effectively and correctly (Asfor, 1985; Malaika, 1987; Al Yousif, 2011; Al Qahtani, 2013). This is because, in many instances, family and/or tribe tend to put government employees under extreme social pressure (Al Yousif, 2011). Hence, this matter significantly impacts an individual's professional behaviours and often compels them to deploy public services in the interests of their own regions. As a result, many irregularities have arisen in the scope of the distribution of services, since some regions will obtain services at the expense of other regions. In addition, some individuals have sole power over certain positions at the expense of employees, who seem to be more of an appropriate candidate for the particular position (Diyab, 1987; Al Qahtani, 2013).

Incompetency at work is defined as "every negative aspect included in the system of administrative behaviours, implying non-compliance with general professional ethics" (Al Sadhan, 2001, p.192). Al Baradie (2008) emphasizes that this phenomenon is regarded as a form of administrative corruption in Saudi Arabia, and may manifest itself in various forms, such as leaving the office early without any reasonable justification, or taking the day off by giving fabricated excuses. In addition, this phenomenon extends to instances where employees are seen wasting time during working hours, by engaging in useless, personal and ineffective matters, such as prolonged

discussions with colleagues or on the phone, which means customers are kept waiting until the employee is finished (Al Sadhan, 2001). Furthermore, administrative incompetency is clearly evident when entertaining and welcoming private visitors, tackling topics that are unrelated to work, as well as wandering around the office building with such visitors from one department to another (Al Baradie, 2008). This phenomenon also includes other behaviours such as when an employee exert his/her authority in front of others, solely for the purpose of showing them how much of important role they hold in that department, leading them to boast about the influence they have over other employees (Al Qahtani, 2013). This may also be illustrated by such individuals as being the only one who is able to sign off even the most complicated transactions with their highly important signature or by a short phone call, further cementing their self-conceit in creating their own self-worth and importance (Al Qahtani, 2013).

Administrative incompetence can be also expressed in the form of deliberate negligence in the workplace. For instance, an employee may postpone the completion of transactions, by deliberately losing important documentation or miss the due date for completion (Al Baradie, 2008). It is worth mentioning that procrastination and postponing work obligations to later times, as well as unjustifiably telling customers to “come back tomorrow” is widely known and common in many of the governmental agencies and departments in Saudi Arabia, and are all contributing factors that directly delay the completion of transactions (Al Yousif, 2011).

Al Qahtani (2013) further points out that employees may intentionally postpone transactions and accumulate them in order to falsely claim to the senior department heads that there is a great deal of pressure in their job in exchange for sympathy and support. As a result, many of these transactions have to be completed after ordinary working hours as overtime. He further emphasizes that the compliance and quality functions are limited. Therefore, there is no doubt that a lack of accountability is a culture that has been established, and the fact that policies of reward or punishment for one's actions are limited (Al Sebaee, 2013). Moreover, in 2010-2011, The Control and Investigation Board monitored the working day of governmental agencies employees and found that 49,578 employees were not regularly present at their place of work, according to the report issued by the board, its employees conducted about 7,900 investigations, working in 23 governmental agencies (Control and Investigation Board, 2013).

The rationale for the prevalence of such a phenomenon across Saudi Arabia has been identified from a number of key factors, many of which have been outlined throughout this section. The most prominent factor however, is the underlying issue of poor selection and choice of candidates

for employment. By having unqualified and incompetent employees hold positions of authority, is it evident that this is highly detrimental to any organisation (Diyab, 1987; Moath, 2006). Insufficient ability to perform the specified job role is reflected in the employee's poor behaviour, failure to fulfil their assigned obligations and transferring clients to their colleagues to finalize and complete transactions (Moath, 2006).

2.9.2.2 Central Management Constraints

The efforts dedicated to achieve organisational reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia have been hindered by several managerial constraints.

The centralisation of powers and authorities, through the monopoly of legislation and execution undertaken by central organisations within the Kingdom, represents just one of the major obstacles in reforming public organisations (Yousif & Al Qahtani, 1997; Al Hashim, 2006). In many cases, officials hold low-level executive positions and are deprived of their right to exercise any authority to perform and make decisions, particularly in provinces and districts. Thus, such officials have to grant approval for every important matter and they are only entitled to submit applications and make recommendations. This centralisation of authority has forced low-level department officials and employees to waste time preparing unnecessary documents, replying to questions and enquiries proposed by clients (Al Aboud, 1996; Al Hashim, 2006), with little direct ability to execute any decisions.

Thus, there is a great need to expand the policy of decentralization by means of sufficient delegation of power and authority to the various administrative levels, in proportion to the nature of the activities conducted and by the size of responsibilities. This will enable decision-making processes to be centred and executable at organizational level and not necessarily at the top level (Qanadili, 2010).

In an effort to reduce centralisation, elements of NPM have been adopted by some public organisations in the Kingdom. The government has also focused its efforts in structural development of local administrations in its various provinces, which was to be accomplished through the establishment of province councils; both local and municipal. Nevertheless, such Saudi local administrations still suffer from operational inadequacy, significant incompetence in performing developmental roles and incapability of facing local challenges and problems (Al Hashim, 2006; Al Qahtani, 2013). In addition, Al Qahtani (2013) emphasizes that on a whole, the central administrative approach prevails, which in turn prevents local input. Hence, this leads to the provision of services that do not necessarily meet the needs of local societies or even comply with their priorities. It is

worth mentioning that the continuous monopoly of decision-making authority related to local projects and services in central ministries means that province councils are deprived of power, even though local officials will most likely know the needs of their own community and district better than a centralised government (Al Sheeha, 2012).

Decentralisation is therefore not only a key element of NPM, but is also an essential strategy for good governance, which occurs when the government authority transfer some of the decision-making power to local organisations or schools (Winkler, 1989). The rationale for adopting educational decentralisation policies in particular, has been illustrated by many developing countries such as Mexico, the Philippines and Egypt, who do so mainly for educational finance, effectiveness of educational quality, and redistribution of authority power to reduce bureaucratic obstacles (Winkler, 1989). For example, in Egypt, the goal of educational decentralisation is to improve the quality of education, promote public participation and raise the access of female education (UNESCO, 2006). This further promotes accountability and community involvement, especially since reform normally starts from the bottom to the top, in order to reduce the pressure of officials who are affected by traditional policies and management practices (Winkler, 1989).

In relation to Saudi Arabia, decentralisation is often found in the health and labour sectors. The education sector is very much centralised and decision-making processes are only for highly authoritative officials, which makes the education process extremely lengthy due to the large numbers of schools in the Kingdom and the small numbers of actual decision-makers. Nevertheless, according to Al Suhail (2011), a reporter in Asharq ALAawsat Newspaper, the Minister of Education has declared that decentralisation is one of the main objectives that is set out to be implemented in local education departments, and thus, schools are to become more independent in future resolutions and budgetary matters. However, delivering such changes is likely to be more difficult, as illustrated in the Tatweer case discussed in later sections.

Al Qahtani (2013) refers to the Control and Investigation Board report issued in 2011, which has been monitoring the negative aspects of governmental performance. He argues that one of most important problems is that government agencies fail to apply their own regulations and systems upon themselves and that unauthorised breaches are not rectified because of poor monitoring and inappropriate supervision. In addition, such governmental agencies suffer continuously from many obstacles including delays in a number of development projects within "most" of governmental agencies, delays in accomplishing electronic transactions in certain governmental agencies, as well as the inability to update important documents.

A study prepared by the second Riyadh Economic Forum (2013) evaluated the relationship between the public and private sectors in the Kingdom. It highlighted various significant obstacles, including a difficulty in anticipating judicial actions and proceedings (very slow court proceedings), high rates of crime and insufficient protection, a lack of transparent procedures and communications with the governmental agencies, which led to the prevalence of financial and administrative corruption and discrimination against businesswomen. The study indicated that businesswomen feel that they suffer from prejudice and discriminatory treatment by governmental agencies, due to the low number of departments that have female employees, which results in their inability to deal directly and easily with line managers and officials.

Al Qahtani (2013) highlights that the objective of monitoring is to reveal and uncover negative deviations; deficiencies and weaknesses from developed plans, issue instructions and defined principles so that they can be corrected and avoided in future. The General Auditing Bureau in Saudi Arabia is deemed to be one of the most important monitoring agencies of the country, yet it still encounters many challenges that prevent it from exercising its monitoring responsibilities effectively. Such obstacles include poor physical and human potentials, as well as organisations that are subject to General Auditing Bureau's monitoring may not respond actively, and continuously withhold essential information or prevent the Bureau's specialists and authorities from working freely and independently (Al Qahtani, 2013). The General Auditing Bureau's system is also viewed as old-fashioned as it was created 41 years ago and it has not been updated in order to cope with the concurrent developments in the Kingdom and its administrative organisations. The role of monitoring agencies is therefore described by Al Qahtani (2013) as little more than "restoration and beautification", as they carefully attempt to find small errors whilst missing huge faults. Moreover, government systems cannot monitor other public sector institutions easily. The role of monitoring must be assigned to the legislative council from the outset, which represents the most important monitoring agency concerned with supervising the performance of government organisations, and will hold them responsible for their faults (Al Sheeha, 2012).

Employee negligence is a major problem (Al Qahtani, 2013). It is therefore crucial to establish regulations that are against criminal practices based upon favouritism, discrimination and inequity, with regard to employment, promotions or when selecting candidates for managerial positions. Moreover, leaders in governmental agencies should be selected according to the data they receive from candidates' curriculum vitae and based on a personal interview. To tackle this appropriately, a future plan has to be provided for the advancement of the organization in which a position will be

held in accordance to the necessary requirements and job description of such positions (Diyab, 1987; Qanadili, 2010).

In terms of negligence associated with government officials performing their specific duties, there is currently little assessment conducted over the time it should take to fulfil particular tasks held in such positions. As a result, it is often easy to for employees to shirk their responsibilities (Al Qahtani, 2013).

Al Qahtani (2013) suggests several mechanisms to overcome the phenomenon of employee's negligence and incompetence:

- 1- Adopting approaches that are more fair and rational in the selection and development of administrative skills.
- 2- Reorganization of the administration, so that job descriptions and assigning staff are based on professional disciplines and educational qualifications appropriate to the tasks of those jobs.
- 3- Intensification of administrative monitoring; linking control with career path, as well as connecting it to the policy of reward and punishment so that productive employees are rewarded, whereas careless and negligent employees are subject to disciplinary action.
- 4- Improving the capacities of staff through professional training and material and 'moral' incentives, such as thank-you letters, gifts and promotions.

Some organizations within the Kingdom require secrecy or the confidentiality of information when accomplishing their tasks, as they could be related to defence, security, sharia courts, or personal status among other factors. Such organizations are obliged to surround their work with secrecy and confidentiality (Al Yousif, 2011). However, other organizations may not need the same level of secrecy; some organizations need to be transparent and clear in the announcement and issue of their decisions, plans and achievements. Although this is done so occasionally, some managers and employees complete their tasks under extreme secrecy (Qanadili, 2010). Al Yousif (2011) explains how requesting information needed for research or a study, for instance, would be predominantly faced with a conclusive reply stating that this information is confidential and not for publication. However, this information may have been already published.

Furthermore, Al Yousif (2011) identifies the rationale behind managers' and employees' adoption of secrecy. The most notable reasons are:

- 1- Fear of criticism
- 2- Lack of desire towards performance
- 3- Desire to feel important and distinguished
- 4- A method of punishment
- 5- Competing with others
- 6- An organisational value inherited from their heads or colleagues
- 7- A personal character of the employee stimulated by fear or envy

For organisations to implement secrecy measures that are unnecessary, it is possible that this could lead to low levels of transparency, which may impact on the implementation of change. In such cases, communication and transparency would be required.

In addition to the previously discussed factors that negatively impact upon the performance of public institutions, Al Yousif (2011) discusses problems in communication. He stresses that communication is vital to any organisation and that it is difficult to establish any organisation without a communication network connecting its personnel and departments together, either at the administrative or employee level (Qanadili, 2010). The reason behind this is that communication is a central process that ensures the management process is on the right track and the organisation is meeting its desired goals (Al Hashim, 2006). Nevertheless, Al Yousif (2011) notes that communication in public organisations encounter several barriers that could be due to individuals, systems or organizations or external environment factors. There is no doubt that knowledge of these constraints is important so that one can effectively tackle them and reduce their negative impact on the communication process.

Several studies have been conducted on different government organisations to understand the management system within Saudi Arabia and to identify obstacles to effective management of change (Al Tajm, 1998; Al Aziqi, 1998; Al Melhem, 2000; Al Qaryouti and Al Anzi 2004; Muslim, 2005; Al Thubaiti, 2007). Al Thubaiti (2007) sought to identify the reality of administrative development of central government organisations in Saudi Arabia from the viewpoint of leading managers. He used a descriptive analytical method on a sample consisting of 150 employees from 9 ministries. He concluded that the human and procedural aspects in the central government agencies were the least effective and recommended conducting further studies on the challenges of administrative reform within government agencies in Saudi Arabia.

Muslim (2005) studied the impact of the creativity of managers and organisation on the development of the Saudi public and private organisations, so as to build up a theoretical model that

describes determinants and impacts of the organisational development. He subsequently tested his model on a sample of 52 Saudi public and private organisations. The study employed the descriptive survey method, through the usage of questionnaire as a tool for data collection, so that the researcher's proposed model could effectively be tested. The findings revealed that the imbalanced organisational structure and working relationships within the organization were amongst the most prominent obstacles to organisational development in public organisations in the Kingdom, in addition to limited decentralization and delegation of authority.

Furthermore, the study of Al Qaryouti and Al Anzi (2004) focused on the efforts of administrative development in Kuwait through administrative reform and the development in all ministries and government bodies. It was based on the descriptive analytical method and random cluster sample of employees, adopting questionnaire and interviews as the tools for data collection. The most significant findings of this study were the use of ineffective training programmes, despite great attention being paid to training, selective, partial and insufficient development efforts. The data also revealed a lack of objective standards for measuring corporate performance and administrative development in the fields that have a positive effect on the people to whom public services are provided.

In addition, Al Melhem (2000) conducted an analytical study on the administrative organization for government agencies in Saudi Arabia, by reviewing the experience of the Kingdom in establishing, organizing and reorganizing the government agencies. The findings related to certain obstacles in developing government agencies, which are:

- 1- A lack of national strategy for developing government agencies.
- 2- A complexity of administrative procedures and multiplicity of models used, and steps of transactions within government agencies.
- 3- A lack of developing government financial, administrative, procedural and organizational systems and regulations, to be in line with the economic and social conditions.

The role of academic research as a strategy for organisational development was analytically studied by Al Tajm (1998), who identified the methods and ways that academic research can provide helps for individuals and groups to solve their problems, develop, learn and improve their administrative capabilities. He found that the concept of academic research is not prevalent and applied in organisations, and this consequently limits the effectiveness of organisational development, particularly in facing and overcoming problems and training the leading members.

In Qatar, Al Faouri and Al Emadi (1998) studied the approaches of middle management in the public service sector to administrative development. The study sought to define any potential problems of developing the administrative body in Qatar. It used the descriptive survey method, consisted of a random sample of middle managers and depended on the questionnaire as the data collection tool. The results revealed a number of obstacles in developing government service agencies, which were primarily the lack of interest in administrative development, the absence of specialized competencies in development, insufficient financial allocations for development, poor coordination and cooperation among the specialized agencies and the widespread practice of nepotism.

Al Aziqi (1998) conducted a study on the relationship between the obstacles to the organisational change and development, and their impact on the performance of security agencies in Saudi Arabia. He used the descriptive survey method and utilised questionnaire as his data collection tool. In terms of the participants, the study included the employees that occupied the sixth to fifteenth ranks in the Emirate of Eastern Province. Among its principle findings in relation to the obstacles that hinder organizational development were the limited participation in the development processes by a group of top managers as opposed to the general participation of employees; some members or senior leaders denied the existence of any problems, the absence of trust between managers and employees, the inappropriate use of the incentives system, complexity of procedures and the rigidity of rules and regulations and unwillingness to change.

In reviewing the previous studies, it is apparent that some of them focused on specific aspects, such as the case studies of Al Aziqi (1998), or stressed the descriptive aspect of the reality of organisational development application, as illustrated in the studies of Al Thubaiti (2007), Al Qaryouti and Al Anzi (2004), and Al Faouri and Al Emadi, (1998). Some also attempted to define the impacts of using organizational development ways and applications such as Muslim (2005) and Al Tajm (1998), whereas others sought to define the obstacles that prevent developing government organisations through an analytical perspective of the administrative organization in Saudi Arabia (Al Melhem, 2000).

Taking into account the procedures and methods adopted by existing literature, it is envisaged that the current study would be descriptive in generating a clear understanding of the developments and change initiatives in the public sector of Education in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, it is more analytical in interpreting the causes and effects on the Tatweer project, through the identification of the factors hampering success, the causes of RTC, the investigation of the role of communications

and external relations in managing change initiatives, as well as identifying the barriers to their application in the education system.

The next part of this chapter discusses research on educational reform attempts, which is followed by a section concerning the literatures on external relations, to understand the importance of stakeholders' involvement and their impact on the implementation of educational change initiatives in the public sector of Saudi Arabia.

2.10 Educational Reform: International and Regional Experiences

Internationally, Educational scholars view innovation in public educational systems as fundamental, due to the changes in the economy and population (Nicollas, 1983, Arani, 2004). However, reforms are often faced with obstructions and delays from certain individuals or groups, who are unaware of the nature and process of innovation (Sager, 2004). For that reason, adequate implementation in effective management practices assist employees for the successful process of innovation.

The educational reform initiatives in Saudi Arabia are the closest to the transnational-formed public management reform previously mentioned in Section 2.9. In the case of Tatweer, the government has sought assistance from international consultants from various countries to provide strategies that aim to reform education in public schools.

Since the 1980s, successive UK governments have adopted some of the principles of NPM (Section 2.9), criticizing bureaucratic control over public administration and questioning their ability to secure the provision of public services, both economically and effectively (Osborne & McLaughlin, 2002). The impact of such reform is apparent in all public sectors including education. In education, the primary goals of reform have been to provide parents and the wider public with greater information on schools' performance so as to allow them to make more informed decisions, decrease the control of local authorities and institute regular inspections undertaken by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) (Goldsmith & Page, 1996; Broadbent & Laughlin, 1997). In general, educational institutions and schools have developed greater autonomy by having more control over budgets (Goldsmith & Page, 1996).

It should be noted that the adoption of these principles has not just been restricted to the UK. The spread of NPM to education can be considered as a global phenomenon because of its significant spread and influence in different countries (Goldspink, 2007). Nevertheless, McCourt (2002) argues that NPM in developing countries is still in its infancy and therefore not a global paradigm.

In contrast, not everyone is convinced about the merits of applying NPM in education. For instance, O'Brien and Down (2002) note a study conducted in Perth, Australia, which documented teachers' unfavourable attitudes toward NPM. The study claimed that NPM made teachers become isolated from their colleagues and that it turned them into competitors to perform better than one another, instead of fostering cooperation and collaboration. It also increased their workload, which distracted them from performing their main role in teaching. Additionally, Goldspink (2007b) claims managerialism influences schools to focus on 'institutional need' rather than 'learner needs'. That said, this study focuses on the teachers' attitudes towards NPM and does not consider the positive impact that NPM may or may not have on officials and employees in other educational institutions, such as Ministries, in order to respond positively to new innovation initiatives and promote their implementation. On the contrary, Wittmann (2008) identifies more positive outcomes, drawing upon three case studies: a college administration in British Columbia (BC) in Canada and schools in Lower Saxony and Schleswig-Holstein in Germany. The educational policy in BC emphasized two objectives: to offer all students affordable, high quality college education and to provide them with the essential skills and knowledge to contribute effectively to the labour market.

Such reforms as a result of NPM increased student choice and promoted their satisfaction; therefore, the quality of their education has also improved. Furthermore, German policy-makers based their goals following the administrative approaches of the NPM, whereby schools should have more autonomy and provide their services to the market so they can make extra money and increase the efficiency of evaluation and management quality. The objective of the Lower Saxony reform was to improve the learning achievement by improving the quality of schoolwork. Conversely, the Schleswig-Holstein initiative sought to provide educational services to the market and increase competition between other schools, which would act as independent units. In conclusion, the NPM results in all three cases were positive, even though BC held negative attitudes on the aspect of competition. An important point to note is that the latter studies are congruent with this research in its aim of changing schools management to act as a business entity. That is, marketing their services is an essential means to increase schools' competition and enhance learning.

Another impact of NPM is the increase in parental control, which is witnessed in educational systems within the UK and New Zealand, since parents can become representatives on boards of governors. This places a greater degree of pressure on schools to change (Ferlie *et al.* 1996a). New Zealand is a primary example of this, as the adoption of NPM dramatically changed how schools are governed. Following the New Zealand Education Act (1989), administrative control was transferred from public agencies to the boards of trustees of 2700 individual schools. One of this reform's

objectives was to give parents more control over their local school and to articulate their educational preferences (Robinson et al. 2003).

A lesson from such previous reform initiatives is that improved outcomes cannot be divorced from a discussion of governance. As Mok (2005) highlights, the importance of parents' involvement according to Schneider *et al.* (2000, p.21) is as follows:

'In the past, most educational reform movements focused on curriculum and teaching methods. Today's reform, however, centres more on issues of governance... Education cannot be improved unless actors are brought into the decision arena, changing the way which educational policy decisions are made, shifting power toward parents, and exposing overly bureaucratic school systems to some form of market discipline.'

It is essential to note that the Tatweer Project is already designed and required evaluation by international consultants. However, the problem is the implementation and management of the Project, which requires effective governance and management from the MOE and THC, in order to enhance the operation of the educational initiative.

NPM was introduced in Saudi Arabia in the last decade. Nonetheless, it has only been adopted in limited organisations such as Saudi Airlines Company, The General Organisation for Social Insurance and The Saudi Telecom Company. Therefore, the education sector in Saudi Arabia is relatively aware of the benefits that the NPM may offer and, as stated earlier, their aim is to adopt some of its features to successfully implement innovation initiatives in all their schools.

Since educational reform has become a leading priority to governments in a bid to improve their countries' economies and social status (Abi-Mershad, 2010; Hargreaves, 2007; Hallinger, 2010), Arab countries have also devoted their efforts to achieve political, economic and social development by reforming their educational sector. However, limited success has been reported in the Middle Eastern and North African (MENA) Development Report (World Bank, 2008), and in the Arab Human Development Report (2002). The latter report did however record some quantitative growth regarding the number of schools and universities and also found a decrease in illiteracy levels of these countries. One may conclude therefore, that the shortcoming of reform attempts is based upon their inability to achieve change and improvement in the quality of education and students' progress (Chapman and Miric, 2009). The majority of reform initiatives are politically driven with centralization in decision-making and top-down managing scheme (El Amine, 2005).

Even though several meetings and conferences were held to tackle the drawbacks of educational change initiatives, identify the impediments of reform in Arab countries, and to propose recommendations for future success such as regional UNESCO meetings, Karami-Akkary (2014) emphasizes that the meetings' reflections are not based on theoretical evidence and empirical studies. El-Amine (2009) points out that a lack of theoretical cultural knowledge in this region is a result of minimal empirical social science studies and therefore, leaders of change are more likely to adopt international experiences in the application of reform initiatives.

According to Karami-Akkary (2014), educational reform in Arab countries share several characteristics. Firstly, most reform attempts tend to neglect the needs of educational practitioners and the context of its institutions. They primarily focus on the country's political and economic agendas (Abi-Mershed, 2010; Karami-Akkary, 2014) that impede upon the successful implementation of such initiatives (Karami-Akkary, 2014). Moreover, several reforms are obstructed due to the fact that they were associated with international sponsors and thus, resulted in skepticism because those involved in change were not allowed to participate in the decision-making process (Sayed, 2005). Secondly, regardless of the efforts devoted towards decentralization, the top-down approach has been predominantly in control of the majority of reform attempts (Karami-Akkary, 2014). Bashshur (2005) points out that teachers view reform initiatives in the Arab region to be the responsibility of the government and policymakers. Thirdly, since reform is mainly driven by political agendas that employ a top-down approach, and also often disregards the local context, the design of clear strategies for effective implementation is ignored (Karami-Akkary, 2014). The goals of such reforms are therefore not commonly achieved due to the lack of communication channels with stakeholders (El-Amine, 2005). Fourthly, Karami-Akkary (2014) reports professional capacity within the region is limited. That is, it is not uncommon for educational practitioners and personnel within The Ministries of Education to lack the necessary training and skills that are necessary to oversee and handle such reform. In particular, research shows that they lack the ability to control pressure and withstand the burden that normally accompanies change initiatives (Fullan, 2007; Evans, 1996).

Studies of organizational change and school development in the United States were highly impacted by the RAND study in the 1970s (Karami-Akkary, 2014). The investigation of 293 reform initiatives concluded that ineffectiveness was the main barrier to implementation for most of these projects. Most remained in the adoption stage, while few were able to move on to implementation with even fewer projects successfully accomplishing change (Berman and Mclaughlin, 1978). A new paradigm for reform was then developed in Western knowledge to consider the implementation process as a central key for school reform (Wilson and Daviss, 1994). On the contrary, studies of

educational reform in Arab countries revealed that governments neglect the design of implementation plan, setting broad goals to change and top-down policies in which schools and employees are obliged to implement (Abi-Mershad, 2010; Bashshur, 2005). The MENA Development Report (2008) highlights that educational reform is categories under three main approaches: engineering, organizational and public accountability. Obstacles to educational reform in Arab countries are then identified to include the countries' primary focus on the "engineering" approach, by ensuring the availability of resources and schools buildings, as well as ignoring the other two approaches.

Akkary-Karami and Rizk (2012) conducted a descriptive case study on a school reform initiative (TAMAM). The aim of this research was to examine the project's design and to identify elements that would contribute to its success. The study revealed several factors that were required to ensure success in reforming education. First, a sense of crisis and difficulties should be present to generate the urge to change. Second, the development of a vision that is based on successful experiences and attend to the current needs within the education establishments. Third, there must be ongoing collaboration and communication between policy makers, practitioner and researchers during the implementation phase. The fourth factor was designing a model of implementation to guide the reform, whilst the fifth included capacity - building at the school level. The sixth factor was to promote a paradigm shift to re-culture and lastly, there was a need to establish a monitoring process to record progress and effects.

Guhn (2009) reviews the implementation of school reform programmes to identify the factors that contributed to their success and/or failure. His review focuses on two comprehensive programmes applied in USA schools: the School Development Program (SDP) and the Child Development Project (CDP). The analysis revealed nine elements that tended to facilitate or impede reform implementation including Building partnerships between schools, parents, and the wider community to maintain positive relationships that lead to higher student achievements and development, and developing positive relationships and the involvement of stakeholders in decision-making as a contributing factor to overcoming resistance to collaboration between employees of the school and between the school and parents.

Guhn's (2009) review focuses on the success factors to educational reform at a school-level only; however, in this study, the Tatweer project identifies factors limiting such reform at both organizational (MOE) level and school level.

Table 2.4 summarises the previous relevant literature to match the research objectives. The aim of the next chapter is to address the research method and the means of data collection used in this study.

Table 2.4: Summary of Relevant Literature Matching the Objectives of the Research

Objectives	Relevant Review	Brief Summary
To investigate the reasons for the limited success of organisational change initiatives in the Saudi Arabian education system, using Tatweer as a case study.	Elving (2005), Kotter (1995), Hamlin <i>et al.</i> (2001), Bernarnd and Stoll (2010), Balogun and Hope Hailey (2004) Al Yousif (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elving emphasizes how effective change is highly influenced with internal communication to reduce uncertainty, RTC, and to create a community. - Kotter Model for leading change following the emergent approach - Outline 8 steps to follow during change to avoid 8 common errors leading organisations to fail - Rationale for the failure of organisational change initiatives including poor communication and RTC
To identify sources of resistance of change within and without the education system encountered in the Tatweer project.	Judson (1991), Rumelt (1995), Fedor <i>et al.</i> (2006), Oreg 92006), Elias (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - RTC is a critical contributor to the failure of organisational change - RTC is mainly associated with negative actions to prevent and delay change - RTC could be due to different sources such as negative perceptions about change, poor communication, fear of losing power, cynicism, and inadequate management
To explore the strategies used to control and minimise resistance.	Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), Judson (1991), Pfeffer (1981)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - RTC can be a positive force if utilized appropriately - Methods to manage resistance includes education and communication, and the participation of individuals involved in change - Some methods to managing RTC are more disadvantageous to use such as coercion and manipulation
To gain a better understanding of stakeholders' engagement in	Karami-Akkary (2014), El-Amine (2005), Guhn (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reforms in Arab countries tend to neglect the needs of educational practitioners - Lack of communication channels with stakeholders is evident in Arab countries

<p>the change process in the case of Tatweer</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Building partnerships between schools, parents, and the wider community contribute positively in managing RTC and achieving change
<p>To study the role of external and internal communication in managing educational reform in Saudi Arabia.</p>	<p>Kitchen and Daly (2002), Hargie and Tourish (1993), Elving (2005), Pandey and Garnett (2006), Kotter (1995), AlYousif (2011), Al Qahtani (2013), Welch and Jackson (2007), Cheney and Christensen (2001)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication within the organization is the fourth step in Kotter's model for leading change - There is a positive relationship between communication and successful change, therefore, it is considered a vital element in managing change - Elving's conceptual framework of communication during organisational change reveals that readiness to change is highly influenced by communication, consequently with lower RTC and higher readiness change will be more successfully achieved - Blockages in communication is highly occurred in public organisation due to red tape, goal clarity, and organisational culture and size - Reform in public organisations in Saudi Arabia is faced with different constraints including high levels of secrecy and low levels of transparency. - Welch and Jackson's internal communication matrix - External communication is a branch of organisational communication and cannot be dealt with as a separate field from internal communication - External communication include activities of advertising, public relations, and marketing

2.11 Conclusion

Theories of organisational change stress the importance of responding to changes in the external and internal environment. Several studies identify the underlying factors of both a willingness and unwillingness to change. Moreover, certain activities increase the likelihood of success; thus, aligning the goals and objectives of change with stakeholders in an organisation through internal communication is crucial, as it will reduce their resistance. Yet, the alignment process in government organisations should also include external stakeholders and the public.

Kotter's (1995) model for transforming organisations remains a seminal reference for understanding how change can be effectively managed. However, most change initiatives fail as a result of several errors emphasized by Kotter and others. Those highlighted within this chapter include insufficient communication, RTC and lack of effective participation. Sources of resistance were also discussed to include both organisational and individual factors.

Furthermore, as this study focuses on the MoE in Saudi Arabia and their efforts to implement change, this chapter has reviewed the characteristics of the management system in the Kingdom. Different practices are present in the Saudi management system, which include extreme centralization, lack of commitment, social interactions, favouritism and nepotism. Drawing upon the literature, the chapter identified three factors that may contribute to the success of educational reform in Saudi Arabia, and specifically towards the successful implementation of Tatweer. These factors are: 1) the engagement and participation of parents and other stakeholders, 2) a more "open system" of decision-making and accountability and 3) the development of better external communication strategies. The validity of these factors in managing organisational change in the context of Tatweer is assessed later in the thesis, in the light of the findings of empirical research.

The subsequent chapter discusses the research methodology and approaches used to collect the relevant evidence, with an explanation of how data was analysed to understand the impediments of change in education.

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the research. It justifies the selection of a qualitative case study design over quantitative modes of inquiry. The chapter details the process for conducting semi-structured interviews, including the construction of the interview guide, and how the respondents were selected. It further justifies data triangulation through the use of focus groups and documentary evidence. After that, the chapter considers procedures for data analysis and ethical issues. It also reviews the three phases of data collection, and some of the problems that may have affected the interviews. The chapter concludes with a justification of the strategy for data analysis and recognition of the study's limitations.

3.2 Epistemological Position

Research philosophy refers to the beliefs and theories of how data of a specific phenomenon are collected and analysed for optimum understanding (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Ontology refers to the individual's perception of a certain reality, while epistemology refers to studying what counts as knowledge (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Understanding research philosophy and the various approaches to research is essential for the research to become aware of their own assumptions and making an informed choice for the study's design and methods, which may involve methods that are beyond the researcher's own experience (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012).

Positivism is centrally concerned with the assumption that the world is described from a scientific and objective point (Travers, 2001), so the epistemological belief is that science is natural and independent, free from the researcher's interference (Carson *et al.*, 2001). Research in this paradigm is generally concerned with describing and clarifying the causes and relationships of certain phenomena (Carson *et al.*, 2001). Positivism employs both deductive and inductive strategies to understand and explain certain behaviours (Baker, 2001). While the positivist paradigm predominates in quantitative studies, Dey (1993) argues that qualitative research can be conducted within the positivist paradigm if the researcher shares the positivist's assumptions. Moreover, Travers (2001) argues that qualitative research can be pursued within different epistemological positions including positivism. To achieve this, the researcher should remain objective and neutral so his or her feelings and experiences do not interfere with the evidence (Carson *et al.*, 2001).

The epistemological position of this study rests on the principles of the interpretivist approach. Saunders and Lewis (2012, p.106) define interpretivism as: "a research philosophy which advocates

the necessity to understand differences between humans in their role as social actors.” In contrast to the positivist approach, it involves the researcher’s adaptation of the natural scientists’ philosophical outlook and can be defined as “*an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond*” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.16). Interpretivism is highly related to the fields of organisational behaviour, management, and marketing. The study of business and organisations and their actors is complex as they are unique in their circumstances and actors that “create a unique social phenomenon” (Saunders and Lewis, 2012, p. 107).

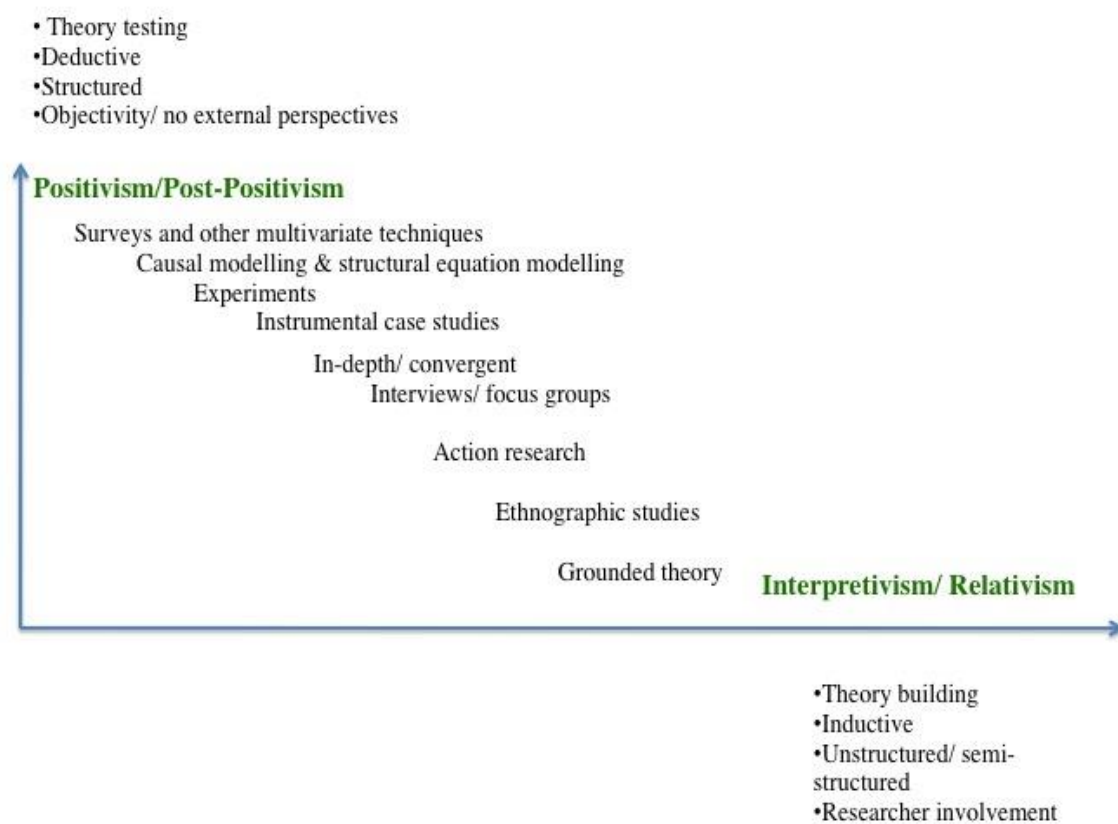
One of the components of positivism is that it examines facts rather than impressions, and these facts are consistent with the social reality being observed; therefore, it is free from the researcher’s feelings and judgments; in contrast with interpretivism (Carson *et al.*, 2001). Interpretivism lies at the opposite side of the continuum from positivism (Figure 3.1). This perspective allows the researcher to understand a certain phenomenon in its own context taking into account possible factors and different actors included in the study. So it allows for more interpretation and understanding of the data away from the rigid statistical analysis of the positivist approach (Carson *et al.*, 2001).

It has been argued that researchers’ feelings would be present at some point in the process of data collection, especially when conducting interviews, as questions cannot be asked in the same manner for every participant. As a result, data collection cannot be completely free from the researcher’s feelings. Even though the distinction between positivism and interpretivism is clear, determining the research design and approach to be either qualitative or quantitative can be difficult (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). This research mainly adopts the characteristics of the interpretivist approach with the use of qualitative methods. Figure (3.1) illustrates Carson *et al.*’s (2001) framework of positioning methodologies within a continuum. The right side presents research approaches that are mainly dominated by interpretivism. When moving towards the left side, the approaches adopt more positivist characteristics. Guba and Lincoln (1994) also believe that any research paradigm can employ qualitative and/or quantitative approaches if used appropriately. This can be achieved when, for instance, large amounts of data are collected, software packages for data analysis are employed to examine the data, and certain techniques to assure the rigour and validity of the results are applied (Carson *et al.*, 2001). Rigour was achieved in the analysis of this study with the aid of Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) by counting the number of instances, phrases, and codes in addition to identifying the contradicting ones after examining the full data (Silverman, 2010). Rigour is one of the advantages of employing CAQDAS and this is further discussed in Section (3.6).

A constant comparative method was used when analysing the data of this study to compare perspectives and levels and to increase the study’s validity and objectivity (Silverman, 2006). Section 3.6 addresses the issue of validity in greater depth.

The purpose of enquiry of this study, according to an interpretivist perspective, is to investigate the factors limiting the success of the project of Tatweer and understanding the roles of the actors involved in the organisation and this social phenomenon.

Figure 3.1: Methodologies in the Context of Research Philosophies



Source: Carson *et al.* (2001, p. 62)

3.2.1 Research Approach

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), approaches to research can be divided into two broad categories: inductive and deductive. The inductive approach involves moving from the specific to the general; the research begins with data collection in order to build a theory. On the other hand, the deductive approach tests a theory rather than developing it by moving from a general theory and

hypotheses, to data collection in order to test the theory. Both approaches are commonly used within business research. Bryman and Bell (2007) argue that the choice of the research approach depends on the objectives to be achieved and the robustness of existing theory.

Figure 3.2 illustrates the deductive approach as presented by Bryman and Bell (2007). They explain that the process of deduction commences with developing a hypothesis on the basis of the researcher's knowledge and theories that are concerned with the specified domain of study. After that, the means of data analysis are identified and should be related to the concepts that form the hypothesis. The hypothesis is then tested and, finally, the main theory is modified in the light of the outcomes of the study. Nevertheless, even though the process of deduction seems linear, it is essential to note that the process may not follow the same direction of order all the time due to several factors which may lead the researcher to modify the literature after data collection. Firstly, new literature may be published before the researcher develops his/her study result. Secondly, the relationship between the data and the theory may become evident after data collection. Thirdly, the data may not suit the developed hypothesis.

On the other hand, the inductive approach develops theory after the research is conducted (Figure 3.2). As with the deductive approach, inductive studies are rarely linear and research often involves a combination of both inductive and deductive elements (Carson *et al.*, 2001). It is more flexible as no prior theory to data collection is required, and it allows some degree of subjectivism in order to analyse and understand various reasons behind a specific phenomenon (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The approach used in this study is categorized as inductive as it is mainly associated with interpretivism (Bryman & Bell, 2003) for the following reasons. First, the main focus of the study is to investigate the reasons behind a social phenomenon, namely the limited success of Tatweer, in the MoE as an organisation. Drawing on the management of change and organisational communication literature, the research aims to explore if external communication practices could contribute to effective implementation of educational reform initiatives. The inductive approach was also used to evaluate three possible factors for successful change: stakeholder's engagement, development of better external communication practices, and adoption of an "open system" of decision-making and accountability. A qualitative case study approach was employed to generate knowledge of the factors inhibiting the implementation of change initiatives. Data collection sought to identify resistant forces and communication barriers. Second, as the research sought to uncover previously unknown factors that hamper the implementation of development initiatives in the educational sector, in addition to the barriers in communication and the resistant forces, a more inductive approach was needed so that unknown factors would emerge. Therefore, data collection employed a case study design that relied mostly on semi-structured interviews in order to develop an understanding of barriers in the

management of change and to study them from different viewpoints, including the Ministry as an organisation and schools as educational institutions that implement change. Subsequent sections provide a detailed explanation of the research method and the means of data collection used.

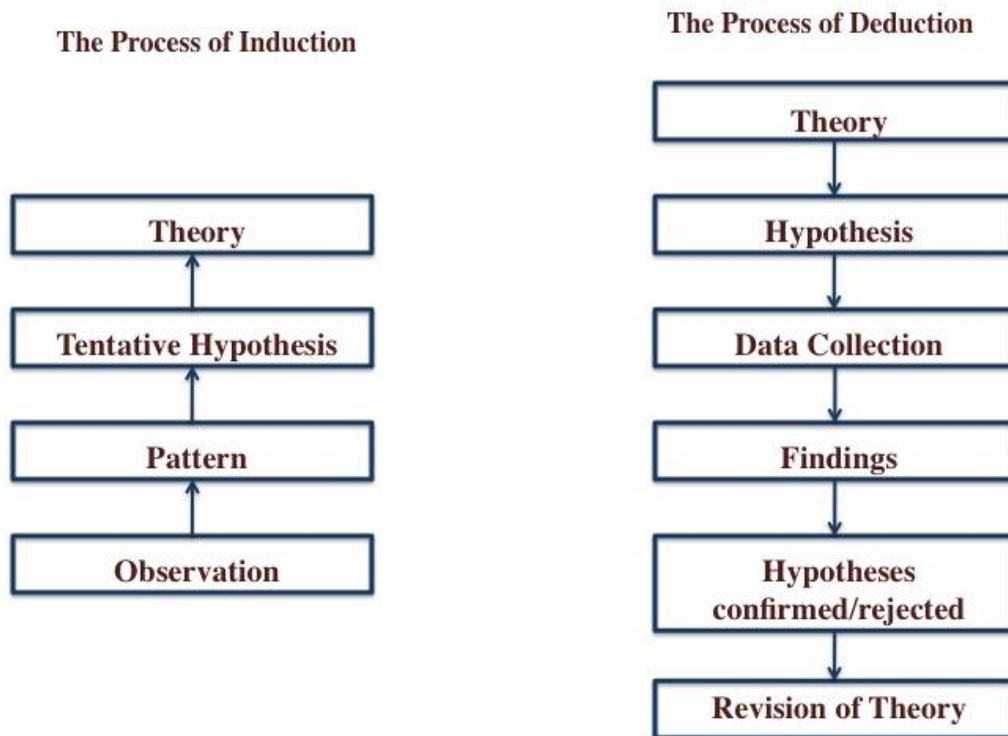
3.3. Research Methods

According to Hussey and Hussey (2003), the type of research that should be adopted depends on its purpose. Research can be exploratory, descriptive, or analytical in nature. Exploratory research occurs in the absence of a clearly defined theory or conceptual framework, rather than seeking to identify possible reasons for a specific practice. This type of research is flexible in using various data collection techniques such as observation, case studies, and secondary analysis (Hussey and Hussey, 2003). It is normally used when there is a lack of literature from previous studies, and is beneficial for the early identification of practical problems that could be encountered during the research (Aaker *et al.*, 1995).

In a business context, descriptive research is commonly used to describe a particular organisation or a group of companies by identifying the characteristics of a certain problem, describing the phenomena of where they exist, and investigating the problems more extensively than in exploratory research (Hussey and Hussey, 2003). Descriptive research is mostly used in social science studies (Aaker *et al.*, 1995), as it fulfils four purposes: offers a clear idea of aspects of the social environment; depicts the characteristics of the research problems; identifies certain groups in a population who behave in a certain way; and creates predictions (Hussey and Hussey, 2003).

Analytical research, on the other hand, goes beyond the descriptive by examining and explaining the rationale behind the existence of a certain problem. It seeks to identify the causal relationships between variables to understand the phenomenon being studied (Hussey and Hussey, 2003).

Figure 3.2 Induction and Deduction in Research



Source: Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 11)

This research includes a combination of descriptive and analytical elements. It is descriptive in three regards: (1) it provides a clear picture of organisational change in the Saudi Arabian education system, (2) it examines possible impediments for the limited success of Tatweer project and the role of internal and external communication in managing change, (3) it proposes recommendations for effective management of organisational change, specifically in the public sector. In addition, the research is analytical in nature in (1) investigating the causes of RTC encountered by the project, (2) identifying the methods employed to control RTC, and (3) exploring the impact of limited involvement on the change process, which may stem from inadequacies in external communication practices.

3.3.1. Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

According to Belk, Fischer and Kozinets (2013), several characteristics distinguish qualitative from quantitative research, as illustrated in Table 3.1. Qualitative research provides rich data about

concepts and the interpretation of a certain phenomenon of interest rather than statistical data. It is also takes into consideration the cultural, social, personal, or interpersonal characteristics from which the data are collected. It focuses on understanding how a certain phenomenon is affected by its context. Moreover, qualitative research normally occurs in natural settings by interviewing respondents in their workplace, for instance. This naturalism provides greater insight into behaviours or attitudes that could be missed in a controlled environment. Surveys and questionnaires in quantitative research are built to minimize the impact of the researcher on the data collected, whereas in qualitative research the researcher is the main instrument for collecting data, seeking to build rapport and trust with respondents as well as observing other behaviours or incidents that may occur in the settings. However, this may indicate that the subjectivism of the researcher could overwhelm the possibility of positivism. Therefore, this qualitative research was highly dependent on “low-inference descriptors”, when participants’ responses are reported in a verbatim way to avoid the researcher’s interference with findings (Silverman, 2006). The latter is further discussed in section 3.6 as a means of also ensuring reliability.

Miles and Huberman (1994) justify the benefits of qualitative research. Firstly, qualitative data collected appropriately provide the researcher with “naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.10). Secondly, the richness of information provided helps understand the real context. Thirdly, qualitative research focuses on respondents’ experiences of events and structures, and their assumptions and perceptions about them, to gain an inner perspective on outward behaviours. Nevertheless, qualitative research may encounter problems of generalization, as sample sizes tend to be small; therefore, qualitative research is concerned with the depth rather than range of data (Hakim, 2000). Qualitative research seeks to “describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world” (Van Maanen, 1983, p.9). It covers a range of data collection techniques such as interviews, focus groups, documentary analysis and observations (Patton, 1980). It reflects “a theoretical point of view that advocates the study of direct experience taken at face value, and which sees behaviour as determined by the phenomena of experience rather than by external, objective and physically described reality” (Remenyi, 1998, p.46).

Table 3.1: Qualitative versus Quantitative Research

	Qualitative	Quantitative
Nature of Data	Visual & verbal recordings in rich detail	Responses distil into numeric scores
Relevance of Context	Results are generally specific to time, place, people & culture	Results are usually generalizable
Nature and control of potential causes	Naturalistic with multiple factors shaping the behaviour observed & discussed	Settings are controlled and variables are manipulated/ measured to allow simple inferences
Key research instrument	Researcher is the instrument and uses skills & rapport to gain insights based on trust	Researcher tries to be invisible and relies on responses to structured measures or choices

Source: Belk, Fischer and Kozinets (2013, p.3)

Qualitative research provides in-depth information and insights into problems and discovers the reasons behind certain actions (Cachia & Millward, 2011); therefore, it is suitable for this study for the following reasons:

- 1- To understand the organisational context of the MoE and its bureaucracies influence on participants' actions and their management of reforms, taking into account the context of the situation and the chance of understanding hidden issues that cannot be identified if respondents are not interviewed directly.
- 2- To have more flexibility in qualitative research in obtaining the complex patterns occurring within the organisation (Carson et al., 2001).
- 3- To gain an in-depth understanding of the factors contributing to the limited success in the implementation of the Tatweer project.
- 4- To gather data that would present a comprehensive description of why the latter factors and events hamper the implementation process from the respondents' perspectives, who are experiencing this particular phenomena (Carson et al., 2001)

5- To explore how marketing and external relations practices may contribute to the success of educational change initiatives.

3.3.2. Data Collection

Data available for researchers are either primary or secondary or both. When secondary data are insufficient or unavailable to the researcher, primary data should be collected (Ghauri *et al.*, 1995). Primary data are defined by Rummel and Ballaine (1963) as data that are directly collected from primary sources for the first time in order to answer the research questions. This can take the form of case studies, interviews, questionnaires, and/or observations. This research employs a case study design, for reasons discussed in the next subsection.

3.3.3. Case Study Design

Different methods of data collection have been used in organisational research to investigate a certain phenomenon. Traditionally, surveys have been commonly used in the field of organisational studies, in which a large number of employees can be sampled and the findings generalized to a wider population through testing linkages between certain variables (Yin, 2009). Nevertheless, researchers have developed an interest in the use of case study methods to understand the processes of organisational change (Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) emphasized how case studies are appropriate when investigating a phenomenon within its real-life context, where the boundaries between the context and a phenomenon are vague. Stake (1995), however, regards case studies as a selection of what is to be studied rather than a methodological choice. A case study is mostly associated with qualitative research to generate thorough, detailed information of the social phenomenon under investigation, and although that does not imply that quantitative methods cannot be used (Bryman and Bell, 2007). As this research is concerned with investigating the factors behind resistance to change and obstructing the successful implementation of educational initiatives and how external relations may minimize this phenomenon, it is appropriate to use a case study design to examine the context in which resistance occurs, to explore unexpected factors that impact on implementation, and to describe this phenomena in a comprehensive manner since it occurs in real-life situations (Gomm *et al.* 2000; Yin, 2003; Perry, 2001). Furthermore, a case study approach enables the researcher to explore “why” and “how” questions (Yin, 1984). This research investigates *why* employees and the wider public resist change and *how* external relations and communication may militate against barriers to reform.

Several reasons prompted the choice of a case study approach in this research. Firstly, it provides a comprehensive understanding of the nature and processes of managing organizational change from the participants’ own point of view in the actual context of change (Yin, 2003).

Secondly, it provides the researcher with the chance of experiencing the environment in which the study is taking place to gain an understanding of the context of change. Thirdly, it allows the researcher to explore the area of study in greater depth. Fourthly, collecting data with more than a single approach provides an opportunity to assess the consistency of the findings and robustness of the interpretation and analysis.

In a case study design, many sources of data can be utilised, such as archival documents, observations, interviews, and/or questionnaires (Yin, 2003). The case study selected is that of Tatweer, the most comprehensive attempt to reform Saudi Arabia's educational system to date. The Tatweer Project is the primary unit of analysis in this study. However, to collect data about the project, certain groups were only involved to investigate their relation and role in the implementation of the project itself (Yin, 2009), such as MoE officials and pilot schools.

The study draws on different methods of data collection, namely in-depth interviews, focus groups, and document analysis (Gillham, 2000). In-depth interviews were chosen as the primary method of data collection in this research as they provide the basis for discussing issues in a rich and spontaneous way through open questions and probing (Arksey and Knight, 1999). It also gave the interviewer an opportunity to clarify with the respondents when an issue was not understood and vice versa when the interviewee did not understand a question. As Nachmais and Nachmais (2002) argue, response rates also tend to be higher for interviews compared to other methods such as surveys with a higher level of interaction between the researcher and participants. Moreover, interviews are particularly suited for exploring 'how' and 'why' questions (Yin, 2003).

Focus groups were also used in this research for several reasons. Respondents who share the same experience can be interviewed in a structured manner regarding that common experience. This method has been viewed as beneficial in management and business, as it assists in defining the problem and generating innovative solutions (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Moreover, focus groups allow individuals to probe each other's views and feelings either by modifying an opinion or agreeing with it, for instance.

Documentary analysis focused mainly on official organisational documents. Organizational documents are "a very heterogeneous group of sources" (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.566), especially for business and management researchers. These documents can be in either the public domain, such as mission statements, press releases and other materials both printed or on the Web, or they may be unavailable to the public, such as organizational reports, and rules and regulations. Even though gaining access to some organizational documents can be difficult, they form an essential part of

understanding the formal systems and procedures within the organisational change that is occurring (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The use of different methods is beneficial to ensure the validity of the results (Perry, 2001; Yin; 2003; Swanborn, 2010). In some cases, the different methods may generate consistent findings, but in others they may contradict each other (Gillham, 2000b). The use of different methods is known as triangulation (Perry, 2001; Yin; 2003; Swanborn, 2010; Maxwell, 1996). In this study, in-depth interviews, focus groups and documents are the main sources of evidence that has been collected and analysed, in order to obtain rich information about the research topic, increase participants' involvement, and assess the validity of data when multiple data collection methods are used.

3.4. Methods of Data Collection

The combination of interviews and documents were mainly used to gather the data needed for the research. This combination was undertaken after regular discussions with supervisors to ensure the validity of information and reduce the risk of missing the data required for the analysis. In-depth interviews were conducted to gain rich information about the implementation of Tatweer and the obstacles faced. Open-ended questions allowed for probing and elaboration. Focus groups allowed participants sharing the same experience to enhance their discussions and thoughts about the issues raised and to save time. Documentary evidence was further used to understand formal procedures and understand inconsistencies between intended outcomes and the experiences of interviewees. The process of data collection was divided into three phases of interviewing and collecting documentary evidence.

3.4.1. Interviews

Interviews are a commonly used method for data collection in business and management research (Rowley, 2012). They can be defined as an interaction between the interviewer, who asks the question, and the interviewee, who provides his/her answers, opinions and feelings about a specified subject (Al Sabbab, 1990). Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured depending on the research aims (Cachia & Millward, 2011a). This study adopted the semi-structured interview method in which a set of well-phrased questions were used in the interview in a set order, but flexibility was retained so that responses could be probed if the situation required further exploration or explanation of a particular issue (Cachia & Millward, 2011b; Rowley, 2012). There are several potential formats for interviews, with the most common being face to face and telephone (Opdenakker, 2006).

Various perspectives about the use of telephones as a means for interviewing respondents are evident in the literature (Cachia & Millward, 2011). This approach can be useful if access to the interviewee is otherwise impossible (Creswell, 1998). Miller (1995) argues that telephone interviews do not differ in the quality of data elicited compared with face-to face ones. In other words, they are neither better nor worse. However, Gillham (2000) argues that telephone interviews are more appropriate when discussing sensitive topics, as this medium gives greater anonymity.

Struges and Hanrahan (2004) studied the difference between semi-structured telephone and face-to-face interviews. Their participants were given the freedom of choice between the two modes of interviews and were split into two groups. The results indicated that interviewees' responses were not affected by the medium used, either in the length or the depth of responses. Furthermore, participants generally felt at ease with both mediums; however, some participants revealed that telephones offered a greater sense of privacy and anonymity. Regardless of the medium used, interviews can be a demanding process in terms of both the time and intellectual commitment required to gather, transcribe and analyse data. Furthermore, planning and organising interviews, especially with powerful figures, can be difficult (Hibberd and Bennett, 1990).

The study involved a total of 42 interviews and 12 focus groups, which comprised of 82 participants (Appendices F & G). Many of the participants agreed to be interviewed in their offices during working hours. However, some preferred their interviews to be via telephone for two reasons. First, due to their busy timetable, some felt that telephone interviews were easier to schedule at night after work (Cachia & Millward, 2011). Second, some felt that this method provided them with greater privacy. From the researcher's point of view, telephone interviews reduced travel costs and time, making data collection faster (Shuy, 2002). Additionally, it made the note-taking process more effective as this can be a significant distraction during face-to-face interviews (Struges & Hanrahan, 2004).

Audio recording was used, as a means of aiding the process of data collection, to generate transcripts for assurance and reliability purposes. Nevertheless, field notes were also taken to record what was said, and to note down other behaviours that cannot be captured in the interview transcripts (Belk, Fischer and Kozinets, 2013). It was essential to take notes during the interview, as audio recording was not an option in some cases. Specifically, four informants asked that their interviews not be recorded. Note taking is also an insurance against the audio recordings being lost due to technical problems. According to Symon and Cassel (1998), when conducting qualitative interviews, four steps should be planned in advance. First, the research questions should be defined. Second, an

interview guide should be prepared. Third, the sample should be identified and participants recruited and, finally, interviews conducted. These steps were followed in this research.

3.4.1.1 Interview Questions

The interview questions were aligned to the research's aims and objectives (Gillham, 2000). Most Questions were open-ended in nature to generate greater interaction with interviewees. They were sequenced from the general to the specific and pilot tested to identify those that were repetitive, unnecessary, or which required further deliberation. Interview questions were formed in English and translated to Arabic for non-English speakers and their responses were translated after transcription. The translated transcripts were then independently checked by a translator specialized in linguistics and translation studies. The questions were designed to elicit sufficient information to answer the research questions (Appendices A, B, C, D & E). The interviews mainly followed the following format:

- Background information about the respondent (job role/years of experience).
- Exploring the respondents' understanding of the Tatweer Project.
- Investigating the role of marketing and communications within the MoE, schools, and the wider community.
- Understanding how communications affected/did not affect the implementation of the project.
- Identify sources of resistance and strategies used, if at all, to overcome barriers to implementation.
- Exploring other management factors that affected the ability to realize the organisation's goals.

Probing was used to elaborate specific concepts but in a selective manner to avoid interrupting the flow of answers (Belk, Fischer and Kozinets, 2013).

The research was comprised of three phases of data collection and therefore three phases of interviews due to time constraints and participants' availability. Interview questions were divided into three parts depending on the phase it took place in (Appendices A, B, C, D & E).

The first set of interview questions were concerned with understanding the project, respondents' attitude towards it, and possible factors affecting its implementation, including communication and bureaucracies. The second set of questions was more detailed and specific in exploring the key factors impacting on the reform process, including training, motivation, communication, and identifying sources of resistance to change. Finally, the last set of interviews explored competition between

public and private sector education, and included participants in the internal communication department of the ministry to investigate their role in the implementation of the project.

3.4.1.2 Sampling

Purposive sampling is typically used in qualitative methods: selecting “information-rich cases” (Patton, 1990, p.170) to gather data from the most informed and appropriate individuals. This type of non-probability sampling was used in this study so the researcher would be able to choose respondents who would be able to answer the research questions (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Since the current study was also concerned with comparing the results of extreme cases between schools, purposive sampling was used to understand what was happening regarding change initiatives, to make logical generalizations through the use of multiple purposive sampling methods (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The sampling techniques used in this study were snowball sampling and maximum variation sampling.

Snowball sampling was used to locate potential respondents since members of the population were difficult to identify and reach (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). It is viewed by Bryman and Bell (2007) as a convenient form of sampling, in which initial contact with some participants related to the study is made, and after that the latter group provides the researcher with the contact details of others and so on. This type of sampling was used to locate respondents within the ministry involved in Tatweer. The first participant contacted was the Director of Educational Research in the Department of Educational Planning and Development. The latter was then asked to suggest other potential participants so that “the snowball gets bigger and bigger” as more “information-rich cases” were included in the sample (Patton, 1990, p.177).

Maximum variation sampling is another type of purposive sampling that includes individuals from different experiences, perspectives and background to study a specific phenomenon (Maykut & Morehouse, 2000). This sampling technique was used to include a wide range of respondents from schools, ranging from those with high performance, in which the school performance is assessed according to certain categories mentioned earlier in Section 1.4.5, to those with low performance, and to search for a variation of perspectives (Palys, 2008) in order to gain greater insight into the outcomes of the Tatweer project by looking into it from different angles.

3.4.1.3 Selection of Participants

According to Perry (2001), when conducting a research project such as a PhD, at least 35 interviews are required to acquire a reliable and valid amount of qualitative data. Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) emphasize the importance of limiting bias when conducting interviews by interviewing different

informants who will have diverse perspectives on the phenomena. It is important to note that accessing the desired respondents was difficult as it depended on the interviewee's availability and willingness to participate, and on the researcher's ability to visit the location agreed by the interviewee (Rowley, 2012). Nevertheless, the second factor was not an obstacle for the researcher as many respondents were located in different regions of the Kingdom and it was therefore better to interview via telephone.

The quality of interviews is highly dependent on the selection of participants. Therefore, target interviewees were:

- a) Senior managers and employees within the MoE who were responsible and directly involved with Tatweer
- b) Head teachers and staff in pilot schools
- c) Head teachers in private schools to determine if the introduction of Tatweer impacted on them and also whether it generated competition between private and public schools.

The informants from the MoE were selected from those who played an important role in the implementation of Tatweer. The interviews were designed to acquire interviewees' insights and behaviours regarding the project and explore external and internal factors in the management system of education that impacted on the process of organizational change and development projects (Yin, 2003).

Furthermore, no set number of interviews was decided prior to data collection. Respondents were recruited until a point of theoretical saturation was reached, where the marginal interview yields minimal or on fresh insights (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As previously mentioned in Section 3.1, 42 interviews and 12 focus groups were undertaken in this study.

3.4.2 Focus Groups

Focus groups are a commonly used method in social science research. While most commonly used in market and consumer research, they have been embraced by some organisation behaviour researchers (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). Merton (1987) emphasizes that a focus group is mainly a qualitative approach used to interview either a single or group of interviewees, who share the same particular experience studied. This indicates that the group interview will be focused on a particular situation. Another feature of a focus group is how it encourages group interactions, and allows the researcher to observe respondents' contradictory opinions. Goldman (1962) explains how focus groups, also known as group depth interviews, are different from other forms of interviews.

First, the emphasis is on interaction within the group. Second, a moderator is present to guide the discussion to provoke information. Third, the term ‘focus’ implies that discussion is limited to a small number of topics or a single issue. Quantitative data can be produced from focus groups, but it is principally employed to gather qualitative data because of the rich information provided from participants.

Focus groups are particularly beneficial when limited knowledge is available at the outset of the research (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). In the field of marketing, and in line with Bellenger *et al.* (1976) and Higgenbotham and Cox (1979), this study used focus groups for the following:

- 1- Acquiring background knowledge about the Tatweer Project and the management system within the MoE
- 2- Identifying impediments to the implementation of Tatweer
- 3- Stimulating impressions of the management of the project and swapping experiences of teachers in an interactive setting
- 4- Learning teachers’ views and understanding certain phenomena such as RTC.

Twelve focus groups were conducted in this study. Six of them consisted of seven participants, four consisted of five participants, and two consisted of six participants. In total, 82 individuals participated in this method. Focus groups were limited in this research to teachers due to their limited free time that allow them to participate in a face-to-face interview, and to encourage their participation in the issues discussed since many were cautious at first to share their opinions and concerns. Interviewing a small group of teachers that ranged between five and seven was beneficial in allowing their discussion about the subject raised. It also encouraged the sharing of their thoughts and feelings as a result of their interaction. Moreover, this approach was essential for time purposes, as teachers were interviewed in their break time, which was only an hour, and most did not agree on being interviewed after school hours.

All focus groups were audio recorded and transcribed for the reasons discussed relating to in-depth interviews (i.e. generating an accurate of the conversation and freeing the researcher from excessive note taking during the discussion). In all the focus groups, the researcher acted as the moderator.

Like any other method used in social science research, focus groups have their strengths and weaknesses. According to Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007), they are advantageous since the group can be formed at short notice. Moreover, they generate rich data that saves more time and costs than with individual interviews. It allows the researcher to direct interaction between participants to

clarify issues and probe responses. It also helps the researcher to observe nonverbal gestures that might add to the information, especially if the participant's verbal response contradicts the nonverbal one. Focus groups also allow participants to build on others' responses, which may generate new ideas. The researcher also benefits from identifying why and how a participant either embraces or rejects the opinions of others.

3.4.3 Documentary Evidence

Bryman and Bell (2007) emphasize how organisational documents are a potential source for researchers in the field of business and management. Using such a source of data is crucial for case study based organisational research in providing a description and a history of the organisation and its previous managerial actions and decisions.

Nevertheless, gaining access to some of these documents is not an easy task, and most likely would be refused if the documents were not already accessible to the public; as a result, researchers may shift their focus to documents that are available (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The documentary evidence used in this study is presented later in Section 3.5.3.2. Moreover, it is important to highlight that access to certain documents was refused, including the collaboration agreement between THC and the MoE, visitation records of MoE supervisors to schools, rules and regulations regarding incentives, and the list of training workshops offered for employees before and during the project's implementation.

3.5 Phases of Data Collection

Interviews were collected in three stages, during summer 2011, December 2011 and summer 2012 and January 2013 (see Appendices A, B, C, D & E). Before starting the process of gathering data, the researcher sent a letter in advance to the MoE describing the study and its objectives to obtain their permission for interviewing their employees, schools, and to gather the documents needed to supplement the interviews. After the letter was sent, telephone calls were made to the manager of research studies in the MoE to discuss the nature of the study further. Permission was then granted, and a circular was distributed to the participant Tatweer pilot schools asking them to collaborate with the researcher. Even though permission was granted to approach different participants, some were reticent about being interviewed or they were very formal and cautious in their answers.

3.5.1 Phase One: Summer 2011

Four interviews were conducted with employees of the Department of Educational Supervision and one official from the Department of Planning and Development in the MoE. Interviews at that stage

were limited in number due to the summer holiday in the public sector and, therefore, a second phase of interviews was required as the school holidays lasted from June until September.

Interview questions were structured to provide a clear overview of the case of Tatweer and officials' attitudes towards it, their role in the implementation of Tatweer, the management style within the MoE and communication that underpinned the implementation process. Interviews lasted for between 40 and 50 minutes and all were conducted face-to-face.

Interviews in all phases started with a short introduction about the aims of the research, followed by total assurance of confidentiality and anonymity of the content of the interviews. Therefore, findings are presented so that individual sources cannot be identified and respondents were labelled to preserve their anonymity (MoE1, MoE2 etc.).

3.5.2 Phase Two: December 2011

Interviews were undertaken with Tatweer pilot schools and additional employees of the MoE. A list of the 26 pilot schools was provided by the ministry. The total number of participants was 87 (eight interviews with ministry officials and employees in the Educational Planning and Development Department, and interviews at 12 pilot schools). Interviews at schools included 12 school directors, two deputy directors, and 12 focus groups with teachers. Nevertheless, no set number of interviews was decided prior to the fieldwork commencing, as they continued to a point of theoretical saturation (Perry, 2001), where the marginal interview yields little or no additional information.

All interviews were conducted in Arabic and audio taped, and then transcribed and translated semi-verbatim into English.

Interviews ranged from between 20 and 55 minutes in length. Head teachers and deputy head teachers provided their time generously, discussing the current status of development projects in general and Tatweer in particular. However, focus groups with some teachers were less satisfactory, due to the fact that many did not want to participate because they felt overloaded with work and had insufficient time to be interviewed. Much effort was devoted to persuading them of the importance of their participation, yet their response was not as positive as hoped. Therefore, focus groups with teachers tended to last only 20 minutes. School directors suggested that interviewing teachers was not a good idea because they were normally unwilling to co-operate. Respondents were treated with anonymity and labelled as Director TS1, Deputy TS1, Teacher A TS1, and so on (TS: refers to Tatweer schools).

Even though the first and second phase of data collection provided rich information about the process of implementing Tatweer, further data collection was desirable. This focused on flaws in communication processes within the MoE and with schools, and sources of RTC. This formed the basis for the third phase of interviews.

3.5.3 Phase Three: Summer 2012 and January 2013

3.5.3.1 Interviews

Interviews with additional respondents were conducted, and these included: four officials from the Internal Communication Department in the MoE, two from the Educational Media Unit, eight head teachers of private schools, and three from the previously interviewed head teachers of Tatweer pilot schools. Furthermore, the data were triangulated with documents such as the ministry's rules and regulations regarding external relations to assess validity.

Members of the internal communication department within the MoE were interviewed to explore their role in the implementation of Tatweer. This specifically focused on whether they sought to minimise RTC. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) emphasise, in their six-approach model for controlling resistance to change, that lack of accurate information and effective communication increases resistance to change and adversely affects its implementation. The interviews typically ranged between 20 to 40 minutes.

Moreover, public schools implementing Tatweer were interviewed in order to gain more information about the school budget, what it depended on, and the school's degree of control over it, to understand the rationale behind parents' limited involvement in the education process. Furthermore, to understand the extent of competition between public and private schools, interviews with the head teachers of private schools were undertaken. The researcher chose private schools in the same neighbourhood as a Tatweer school to assess if competition existed between them and how they viewed Tatweer. Participants from private schools were labelled as PS1, PS2 etc.

3.5.3.2 Documentary Evidence

Due to some inconsistencies in the information provided from interviewees, especially between the MoE and school levels, which is discussed in the next chapter, documentary evidence was essential to assess the validity of the data collected through interviews. Archival documents are beneficial for their richness and presentation of formal structures and procedures (Silverman, 2006). The analysis of such documents is widely used in the study of organisations (Atkinson & Coffey, 1997). However, it is important to note that they cannot be used solely to represent an organisation's processes or the

social world (Atkinson & Coffey, 1997). Therefore, it is beneficial for document analysis to be complemented with interviews to gather rich and valid information. Documents analysed included ministry reports, progress reports, agendas, and newspaper articles.

Several meetings were undertaken with officials in the ministry to gather the rules and regulations regarding external relations, employees' rewards and sanctions, and the general rules and regulations of public education in Saudi Arabia. Gaining such documents was typically difficult, as officials often said they did not have a copy. Such documents are not posted on the MoE website. However, when researching other sources, the MoE's general rules and regulations were found on the website of the Saudi Academy in Jakarta. After three weeks of searching, the relevant documents were obtained from one of the schools.

The principal documents used in the research were:

- The Educational Policy in Saudi Arabia
- Rules and Regulations for the Civil Service System
- Rules and Regulations for Public Schools
- Appraisal Performance Regulations
- Staff Sanctions System (Explanatory Note)
- Regulations regarding School Funds
- Training Rules in the Civil Service System
- Information Guide for the Internal Communication Department
- Information Guide for the Educational Media Unit

3.6 Research Credibility

Silverman (2006) emphasizes the significance of reliability and validity in research. Reliability is defined as "the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions" (Hammersley, 1992, p.67). Silverman (2006) outlines several strategies to improve the reliability and credibility of qualitative research, arguing that reliability in qualitative research is related to "low-inference descriptors" (Silverman, 2006, p.283), suggesting that the researcher reports respondents' comments and views verbatim to eliminate the interference of the researcher's personal perspectives with the findings. To aid this, most interviews and focus groups, apart from the small number of participants who refused to be audio-taped, were recorded to include all interactions that took place during the process. Moreover, they were then carefully transcribed to include all that the respondents said and

transcriptions were then translated in a verbatim manner to avoid interference of personal perspectives.

Bryman and Bell (2007) identify two main methods for improving the credibility of qualitative research, namely respondent validation and triangulation. Respondent validation is a highly used technique among qualitative researchers, which refers to establishing credible findings by providing research participants with the research findings to assure that the researcher has an accurate understanding of the social phenomenon under investigation. However, Silverman (2012) criticises the use of respondent validation as a means of ensuring validity in qualitative data. He argues, following Fielding and Fielding (1986), that when respondents are presented with findings they often consider them not from the perspective of the validity of the account but rather whether it paints them in a good or bad light. Silverman (2012) thus suggests that respondents' validation should be treated as an additional source of data, which may reveal additional insights into motivations and objectives, rather than a process of validation per se.

Triangulation is another technique used to ensure research credibility. It involves the usage of multiple methods for data collection and sources of data to investigate a social phenomenon to answer the research questions (Richards, 2009). Bryman and Bell (2007) point out that Webb et al. (1966) first conceptualized this technique to be more associated with quantitative research by employing multiple methods when developing measures. Nevertheless, triangulation is widely used by qualitative researchers. This research, for instance, adopted three data collection techniques, interviews, focus groups, and documentary evidence, which provided the researcher with the opportunity of viewing the research questions in different ways. However, not all agree with triangulation as a means for ensuring validity in qualitative research. Silverman (20102), for example, argues that triangulation serves more as a means of providing depth and richness to the inquiry rather than as a measure of validity.

Silverman (2012) argues that validity in qualitative research can be achieved through the use of the constant comparative method. This method refers to the researcher's exploration of other cases to test out a hypothesis. In this case study, the researcher examined the rationale for the limited success of educational initiatives in the context of the MoE after evaluating possible factors namely RTC and the characteristics of the Saudi management system. These factors were then investigated by comparing the perspectives of different groups, such as MoE respondents, pilot school and private school participants, at the same time and comparing extreme cases and emerging factors, such as training and incentives, which occurred in this single case study between these groups.

3.7 Data Analysis

Most interviews were audio recorded to provide a complete record. Participants were fully aware of the purpose of the study and informed consent was obtained in each case. Interview transcription took place after each interview to guarantee the freshness of the interview in the researcher's memory (Gillham, 2000). Transcripts were word processed to facilitate analysis. In the case of interviewees who refused to permit audio recording (R12, R15, R16, R17 from the MoE), the interviewer wrote detailed notes of the conversation and wrote them up as soon as the interview was completed. The information provided by schools was compared and interviewees' answers from the MoE. Further document analysis was required to assess the validity and reliability of the different perspectives. The transcription of interviews followed the recommendations of Bazeley (2007):

- Transcription included all 'ums' and repetitions of words or phrases as this may convey the feelings of respondents, their hesitation, stress, or any concerns.
- Phrases were written in the same manner as they were said by the interviewee without any correction of words or grammar.
- Interruptions were noted, including telephone rings or employees entering the room, as these may influence the analysis especially when an interviewee discusses a certain matter of concern, and refuses to continue the discussion after the interruption.
- Nonverbal communication was also recorded as some gestures may convey a different emotion than the words said, e.g. pause, sigh, and laughter.
- Translation was required since all interviews were conducted in Arabic. However, some words were difficult to translate directly into English and, therefore, they were documented in parentheses as they would not have conveyed the full meaning if translated.

The content analysis pursued in this study utilised NVivo10 software for qualitative text-based data analysis. The use of computer software to analyse qualitative data is now widespread (Seale, 2005). The latter author discusses the advantages of utilising software for the analysis of qualitative data: it assists in the management of a huge amount of data, providing the researcher with more time to investigate analytical questions, facilitating the development of a consistent coding scheme, and allowing for the exploration of deviant cases. NVivo fulfilled these functions and facilitated the development of a consistent coding scheme, exploration of deviant cases, linking data, memoing, content analysis, and developing matrices (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Appropriate training courses on using NVivo were attended. NVivo software was chosen for several reasons. It is easier to use for students than other packages as it can be learned through the

actual research process (Richards, 1999). It also provides various tools for viewing data, coding, annotating and accessing records in a fast accurate manner. Moreover, it helps in synthesizing ideas and developing new understanding of the data and answers to the research questions (Richards, 1999).

Data analysis commenced after each interview (Maxwell, 1996), due to the huge amount of data generated from interviews and field notes, which could be overwhelming (Patton, 2002). In order to ease the process of organising and managing the data, the use of NVivo was essential. However, before using computer software, certain steps were undertaken, following Berg (2001). First, interviews were transcribed and translated into English. Then, codes were identified and developed in the data, and then with the use of software they were organized into themes. Next, the material collected was sorted in these themes and examined to identify meaningful patterns. These patterns were finally reviewed with regard to previous research to generate final results and conclusions.

3.7.1 Levels of Analysis

Bryman and Bell (2007) identify the main levels of analysis in a case study design. This includes the study of specific individuals such as managers, the study of certain groups such as a department, the study of organisations and examination of them as the main unit of analysis, and the study of societies and the political, economic or social factors that surround the organization. In this case study, the levels of analysis are the organization, individuals and certain groups within the organization. Firstly, the project of Tatweer is the main unit of analysis in this case study. Secondly, the groups included in the study were the MoE and schools in general, to investigate their relation to the project, generating knowledge of the nature of the workplace and comparing employees' views with those of their managers, which resulted in representing multiple perspectives (Bryman & Bell, 2007). This included specific departments in the MoE who were associated with the implementation of the project, such as the Internal Communication Department, the Department of Planning and Development, the Department of Supervision, and the Media Unit. Thirdly, the individuals included in the study were the directors of pilot schools, deputy directors, teachers, and managers, and employees in the MoE.

3.7.2 Coding

The first step of the analysis was coding. Cresswell (2007) defines codes as:

Concepts and these concepts vary in their concreteness/abstractness as well as their emic/etic nature. Another way of describing codes is 'reducing data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments' (p.148).

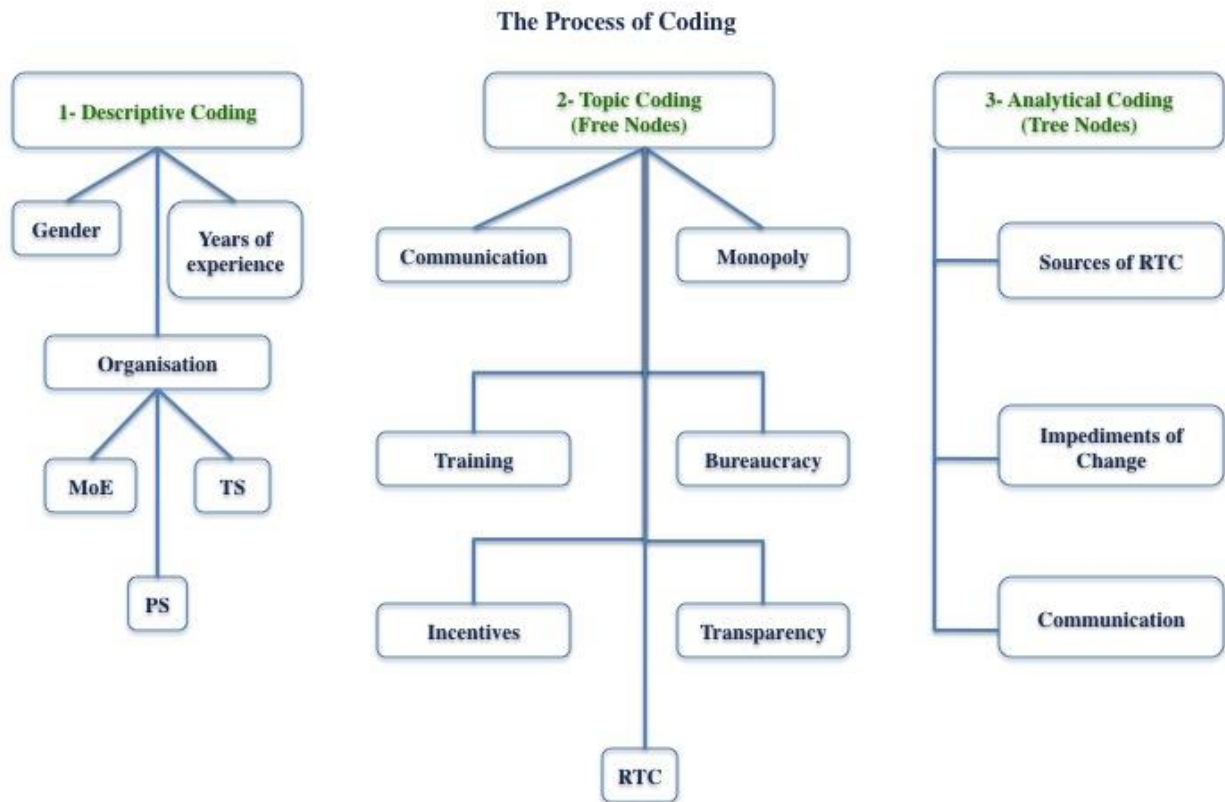
According to Krippendorff (2004), data can be emic and/or etic. Emic data is generated in a natural manner with a limited effect from the researcher, whereas etic data involve the researcher's view of the matter. He further emphasizes that it is difficult to define a piece of research as completely etic or emic.

Qualitative coding is advantageous for several reasons according to Richards (2009):

- To identify categories and their meanings to the project
- To explore relations between categories and other schemes in the data and construct theories of such associations
- To identify further categories when new dimensions from the initial coding are revealed
- To compare a category from different perspectives.

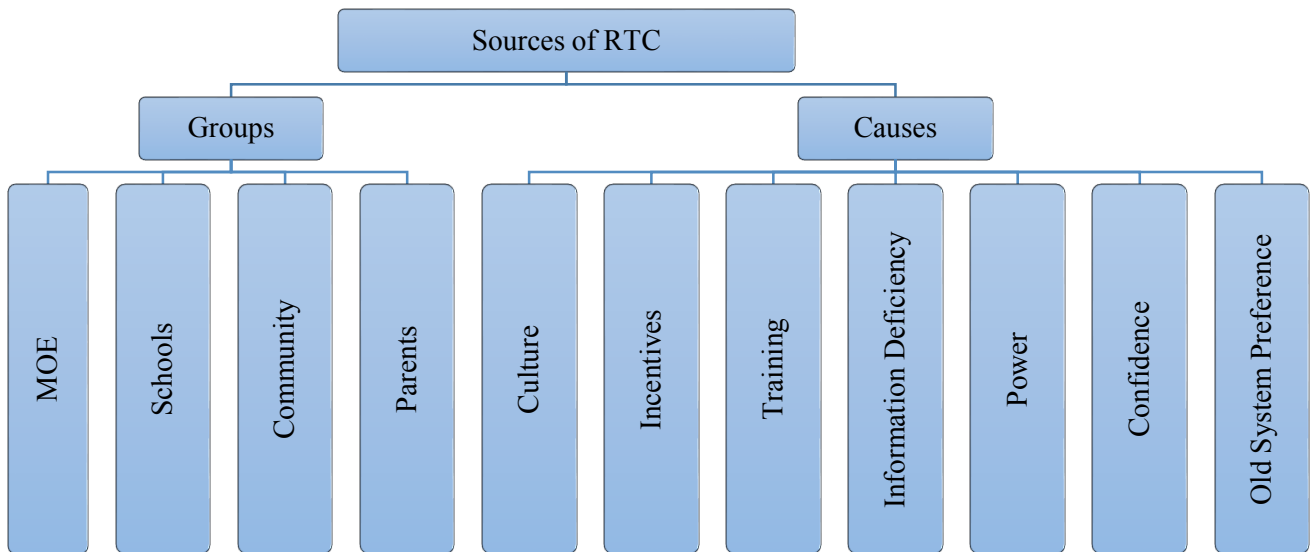
Coding can be divided into three different types in qualitative research: descriptive, topic, and analytical (Richards, 2009). The process of coding is illustrated in Figure 3.3. Descriptive coding was first used to classify the main characteristics of interviewees i.e. gender, organisation, whether MoE or school (private or pilot), and department in the MoE. After that, topic coding took place to identify the main topics in each passage, which were initially coded through the use of free nodes without assuming any hierarchy or inter-relationships, such as communication, monopoly, bureaucracy, training, and incentives. Segments of each text were assigned a code that related to a particular theme. Analytical coding came after, involving greater interpretation and reflection. This type of coding generated new categories to present ideas that required further exploration and reflection, and therefore after the identification of free nodes as the main themes for analysis, tree nodes were created to link related fields related to each theme in a more hierarchal way when the researcher was able to pinpoint the kind of concepts to analyse (Bazeley, 2007). For instance, 'sources of resistance' is a parent node that includes two child nodes: groups and causes. RTC groups included: 'community', 'ministry officials', 'pilot schools', and 'parents'. Causes of RTC were further classified to include 'culture', 'lack of incentives', 'information deficiency', 'insufficient training', 'loss of power', 'lack of confidence, and 'preference for the old system of management' as child nodes. Figure 3.4 illustrates these parent and child nodes. Moreover, coded data allowed the researcher to spot different views from schools and the MoE about a specific attribute, and to understand contradictory data provided by a particular interviewee. These codes are presented in the following two chapters.

Figure 3.3: The Process of Coding



Testing patterns and theories can be achieved in different ways such as coding and category handling, and matrices (Richards, 2009). Matrices were constructed in this analysis, as discussed in the following section. With coding, memos were kept during data interpretation to record the frequency of occurrence of some phrases, such as ‘monopoly’, in order to think about the reasons for its existence, and why respondents view it as a trait in the management system. This assisted in the integration of such a category with others such as ‘transparency’ and ‘accountability’. Moreover, the coding was frequently rethought and revisited to ensure that all data were present and nothing was missing.

Figure 3.4: Example of a Tree Node



3.7.3 Matrices

Matrix coding queries were also used to test patterns and synthesis. They “produce a kind of ‘qualitative cross-tabulation’ ” (Bazeley, 2007, p.143) in that the table rows represent the coded items, and the columns represent a value of an attribute. Responses to matrix coding queries present the number of items in each cell, and when the cell is opened, it provides the text that was referenced there (Bazeley, 2007). The latter indicates the benefit of a matrix-coding query in a comparative pattern analysis by displaying the number of interviewees reporting a certain experience or attributes such as information deficiency, lack of incentives, and insufficient training as factors minimizing successful implementation of Tatweer. Matrix-coding queries help to reveal the causes of the limited success of Tatweer and the number of cases reporting such factors, as well as what pilot schools and MoE officials reported about each factor. Another matrix query identified the existence of means for external relations in schools. The main attributes included parents’ meetings, e-forums, mailings, school prospectuses, and newsletters. However, interpretation of data presented in matrices did not assume associations between the factors (Richards, 2009). Using comparison in qualitative research is important as a means for generating ideas in different ways (Richards, 2009). Specifically,

- Comparison helped in comparing like cases to understand how pilot schools dealt with resistance forces and inertia encountered from parents

- Themes emerging from the data were compared to understand contrasting behaviours toward Tatweer and why respondents understood different meanings for its plan and procedures.

3.8 Challenges Encountered with Interviews

It is important to note that some interviews were difficult to conduct, especially with powerful figures, as the interviewee was often ‘uncommunicative’, unwilling or unable to provide detailed answers (Cassell and Symon, 2004). Several reasons may explain an interviewee’s uncommunicative nature –they could have felt defensive about the issues raised, or wanted to finish the interview as quickly as possible due to their tight schedule. Either way, all respondents were informed of the length of time needed for the interview, and the anonymity of the answers given (Cassell and Symon, 2004). Data analysis indicated that some of the answers given by powerful figures were misleading and/or incomplete.

Another difficulty encountered was over-communicative interviewees (some head teachers of pilot and private schools). These interviewees tended to deviate from the topic for discussion. Even though some digression is acceptable, as Cassell and Symon (2004) indicate, some seemed to continuously discuss issues that were far from the focus of the interview and did not yield any beneficial information. This problem was diminished by politely interrupting the interviewee and referring them back to the original topic. Even though deviation can be viewed as a drawback, in some cases it elicited connections and raised issues that were not thought of by the researcher, contributing positively to the research.

3.9 Ethics in Qualitative Research

The research followed university guidelines on research ethics as well as those laid down in the Market Research Society’s Code of Conduct. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), ethical problems in the field of business research fall into four main areas identified by Diener and Crandall (1978), namely, *harm to participants, lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy, and deception*.

Before beginning with data collection, formal letters were prepared in English by the supervisor, and then translated into Arabic. These letters were provided to potential interviewees and the MoE to verify the status of researcher as a PhD student at Newcastle University Business School. The letters detailed the title and objective of the research and requested an interview. Before granting permission, the researcher was asked to provide the organization (MoE) with the interview questions beforehand and to send it to target interviewees via email to inform them of the nature of the interview.

In order to assure that the study would not harm participants in any way, precautions were taken to guarantee respondents' anonymity. Interviewees were not identified by name or job title. In addition, they were informed before commencing interviews that their answers would be confidential and presented in the research findings anonymously; they were assured that any comments made that might identify them would not be used (Boeije, 2010; Silverman, 2006). Interviewees signed an informed consent form (Appendix J). The Academy of Management (AoM) ethical code advocates that researchers should maintain the confidentiality of the records and the anonymity of participants, and recommends ensuring that an individual's identity is not exposed if the study is being published (Bryman & Bell, 2007). These procedures were followed.

Moreover, before conducting the interviews, an introduction to the nature of the study and its contribution was presented so that all participants were fully informed as to the purpose and objectives of the study and the nature of the data collection (Boeije, 2010; Silverman, 2006). They were thus fully informed of the process of the study and had sufficient information on which to decide whether to participate or not (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Individuals who agreed to participate were then asked for their agreement to audio record the interview. Many agreed to such a procedure, while a small number refused to allow their interviews to be recorded and, therefore, field notes were taken and their interviews were transcribed afterwards to guarantee that all the topics discussed were available.

Furthermore, even with providing informed consent and assuring the confidentiality of information and anonymity of participants, some interviewees refused to answer questions that they perceived as sensitive. Therefore, it was the researcher's duty not to invade their privacy with sensitive topics and to respect their right not to answer a particular question if they so wished (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

3.10. Difficulties Encountered

Several obstacles were encountered during the data collection process due to the following:

- 1- The unwillingness of certain desired interviewees to participate (principally teachers).
- 2- Responses from some participants were incomplete mainly because they were busy and wanted to finish the interview quickly.
- 3- Interviews with power figures typically generated very cautious responses. Some provided diplomatic answers, while others did not agree to be interviewed.
- 4- Parents were difficult to reach, and were not interviewed directly. The only way to contact parents was through schools and since parental involvement in education is typically limited, this was not pursued.

3.11. Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research design and methodological approach used in the study. The aim of this research is to describe and identify the factors that limit the success of reform attempts, in the public sector of education in Saudi Arabia, in a rich and comprehensive manner, to understand RTC and how it potentially may be overcome.

The study draws on the principles of the interpretivist approach as its epistemological position of the research consists of inductive elements. A qualitative research design is employed with the use of a case study approach, to gain a comprehensive understanding of the nature of managing change initiatives in organisations within its actual context, to explore the context of change in greater depth. Multiple sources of evidence are used (interviews, focus groups, and documentary evidence). These multiple sources allowed for triangulation and assessment of the consistency of findings.

Snowball sampling was used with MoE officials by identifying initial respondents, who suggested further potential participants and so on. The selection of pilot schools was through maximum variation sampling to include a wide range of respondents from schools with high and low performance, to gain various perspectives. Interview questions were designed in alignment with the research objectives. Three phases of data collection took place. Interviews continued until reaching a point of theoretical saturation.

Focus groups were conducted with 12 groups of teachers from different schools. The use of documentary evidence was essential due to inconsistencies in information supplied by some interviewees, especially discrepancies between the views of interviewees at the MoE and school levels. However, gaining access to many documents was a complex task, and after constant deliberations with officials about the nature and importance of the research conducted, principal documents were finally provided as mentioned in Section 3.5.3.2.

Data were analysed using NVivo10 software. The analysis involved descriptive, topic and analytical coding, which was then followed by developing matrix coding queries to present a qualitative cross-tabulation for comparative pattern analysis. The chapter then discussed the difficulties encountered with uncommunicative and over-communicative interviewees and the ethical procedures considered in this research to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of information and respondents. The next two chapters present the main findings.

Chapter Four: Findings Regarding Project Implementation at the Ministry and School Level

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings relating to Tatweer's implementation at the ministry level. First, it focuses on the strategies used to introduce the project and what information was provided to staff and employees. Then, it discusses what components have been implemented. It also sheds light on forces inhibiting the implementation process at the ministry level, including centralisation, training, bureaucracy, and to what extent the latter changed after Tatweer. The chapter documents how staff were motivated within the organisation (incentives/sanctions), and the ministry's role in motivating schools.

In the second half, it investigates the implementation of Tatweer at the school level, discussing how schools were chosen and their reaction to this, how the project was introduced to schools, what information was provided, staff and teacher training, and their general understanding of the project itself. This is followed by an assessment of the impacts of the Tatweer programme at school level. This covers not only state schools but also the impact of Tatweer on private schools and whether it stimulated greater competition between them. The discussion of competition between schools is in the context of how school budgets are allocated and whether there is competition to attract pupils. All interview data were triangulated with documentary evidence. The reasons for the limited success of Tatweer at the school level are identified and compared with MoE explanations using matrix-coding queries.

Each section in the analysis describes and analyses the elements being studied followed by indicative quotations to support each section. Participants from the MoE are represented as R (MoE), Tatweer schools as (TS) and private schools as (PS).

4.2 General Understanding of the Project: Project Introduction in MoE

As outlined in Section 1.5.1, the Tatweer project commenced in 2007, and yet its outcomes to date have been limited. Tatweer is a programme that was implemented in selected schools according to certain criteria elaborated in a later section. Each pilot school is a representative of a specific region. However, as elements of the bureaucracy seemed to be disrupting the project's implementation, a Royal Decree from the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques, King Abdullah bin Abdullah bin Abdul-Aziz was announced to establish the Tatweer Education Holding Company (THC) (Tatweer Education Holding, 2012). The company is fully-owned by the Public Investment Fund (PIF) and

was established in mid-2009 as a government initiative thereby “its overreaching mandate is to accelerate education development in the Kingdom... it operates as a private firm, thus bridging the public and private sectors” (Ghaith, 2011, p.2). Requests for interviews with personnel and officials from THC were rejected due to the project’s secrecy and, therefore, the THC is not discussed in detail as part of the study. It is important to highlight that the study would have benefited from the participation of THC officials. This could have added greatly to understanding the purpose of THC’s establishment, its relationship with the MoE, and what changes facilitated implementation.

Several factors have hindered the success of educational reform in the Kingdom at both social and organisational levels. Tatweer seems to be stimulating minimal improvements in the school system, with a senior official indicating that it is still in its early stages, even though it commenced in 2007:

The programme is still in its infancy (R11, MoE).

This is despite the fact that it was clearly indicated that the project had to be implemented in pilot schools for five years before generalising it to all public schools, to make sure that the project’s elements were carefully implemented, which means that its pilot implementation period has already been completed:

The time for implementing the project in pilot schools is five years, and it’s already been five years now (R1, MoE).

There are inconsistencies in whether the project was implemented as soon as it was announced, or whether it was delayed. The administration changed in the MoE, with a new minister being appointed after the project was launched. During the pilot implementation period, there was no shared vision in the MoE and collaboration between employees and other departments was not encouraged. Furthermore, progress was not monitored regularly, which resulted in less accountability and transparency.

Interviewees from the MoE registered an awareness of Tatweer and explained the project by identifying its four components. Nevertheless, when asked to elaborate on which components had been implemented so far, different responses were reported. Some respondents (R5 and R4 MoE), when asked for more information about the project, referred to the website as a source for all the information on the implementation process:

If you need more elaboration I suggest you check Tatweer website for all the information (R5, MoE)

All the details are found in the website (R4, MoE)

However, the project's webpage¹ lacked details on the implementation process. It only identified the components of Tatweer and when it was initiated, in addition to newspaper articles related to the project. The reference to the website could be due to their busy schedule, as several answered interview questions in a fast and curt manner, or were unwilling to elaborate more about the issue raised, as many of their answers were discreet.

According to some interviewees, the project was introduced through workshops and training sessions for MoE staff and employees while others within the Educational Development and Planning Department noted the limited information provided. One important issue raised was that some officials may accumulate power by controlling the flow of information. It is apparent that the project might not have been comprehensively introduced to relevant MoE officials even though some respondents were in the same department. Unequal distribution of knowledge or lack of communication could be a factor underpinning the limited information provided:

The introduction of the project was limited to elite groups and not to the community. Even in our own departments... and that is because some officials in some departments place a great value on secrets, discretion, fear, and simply the love of monopoly (R10, MoE).

Many MoE employees were only partially aware of the project and knew about it only by chance as this was described as a means of favouritism from officials when sharing information with limited personnel who are close to them:

If I am not a close friend to the director, for instance, or I was considered a threat to him/her, then I will most likely be neglected, not asked to participate in new projects, and information will not be shared (R10, MoE).

Understanding of Tatweer within the ministry in general appeared rather vague, internal communication was very limited, and training and workshops were limited to an elected group of employees. In addition, some officials, who were responsible for making improvements misunderstood the system and lacked the skills needed:

The introduction of the programme, with the monopoly that others enjoy, always seems vague. I personally do not know when the programme was introduced, if it was before its implementation, during, or after. I actually knew by chance from people talking here and there (R12, MoE).

Although all respondents stated the importance of educational reform and held high expectations for Tatweer to be part of this, many stated that its success has been very limited, and somehow the project was hindered by 'a deficiency', which referred to its weak implementation, limited information available to staff, and lack of skills from staff who were unaware of the project's vision and

¹ <http://www.tatweer.edu.sa>

operational procedures:

The government was generous to a large extent “financially”; however, the implementation from the ministry was very “weak”. The project was “born with a deficiency”. As a result, the ministry quickly stopped all their work procedures on the project, before reworking the project again after correcting its course (R2, MoE).

Unfortunately, it is not working that well (R15, MoE).

4.3. General Understanding of the Project: Project Introduction to Pilot Schools

The Tatweer project commenced in 2007 and was to be implemented first in pilot schools, which were selected according to the following criteria (King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project, 2011):

- The availability of appropriate school buildings and educational facilities
- The school’s geographical location had to be close to the Department of Education of the province
- The school’s leadership should have the ability and enthusiasm to change and develop
- The school’s leadership should possess appropriate leadership skills
- The stability of the school body (e.g. low turnover of teachers).

When these requirements were met, schools were selected by the MoE to implement the project. According to the latter document, the nomination mechanism was as follows:

- Application Phase: the school submitted an application form to the Department of Education (DoE) to join the project
- Studying the Reports: the DoE studied the applications submitted and determined the schools for initial selection
- Conducting Interviews: with school directors to evaluate their leadership skills
- Visits: a team from the DoE visited the nominated schools to note evidence supporting their appropriateness for the project
- Acceptance: the nominated schools were accepted for the project
- Accreditation: the Tatweer project accredited the chosen schools to become part of the project
- Signing the Formal Contract: the Director of the DoE prepared a contract that was signed by the school’s director.

The ministry chose one school from each province in the Kingdom (26 pilot schools in total). Interviews with twelve directors of Tatweer schools revealed that the project's introduction was very limited and inconclusive:

All that the ministry did was to tell us to start the project in the school (Deputy TS4).

When they gave us the project, they "threw" the books at us without any help or support (Director, TS12).

We received one of their circulars (Director, TS5).

Representatives from the MoE, along with the Director of Educational Development and Planning, met with the schools and presented general information about the project's components and principles:

We communicated with the Development Department. They came to the school and explained the goals and principles of the project. After that, there was training. They started with the school management then teachers (Director, TS1).

However, some argued that the information provided did not include any strategic plan for implementation and limited answers to the questions raised by school directors were given. School directors were told to wait for the next visit from MoE representatives, to receive answers to their questions:

Their response to all our questions was: "we are not sure yet, we will get back to you later" (Director, TS9).

Tatweer starts to infinity; I don't know the timeline because there is no plan or strategy from the Ministry (Director, TS5).

The introduction of the project was unclear, and uncertainty spread between teachers and directors as to the purpose of the project:

When we started, it made our lives very difficult. We didn't know what it was for. Was it to promote and develop students, teachers, or the school? (Teacher A, TS9).

Most pilot schools were informed of the rationale for their selection and explained how they were nominated by the MoE:

They chose us ... they didn't consult us before... because we fit the features they want, such as our job performance, the character of our leader, the school's stability, and also all staff here work together as a group (Deputy, TS2).

TS4 seemed to be the only pilot school that actively requested to be part of pilot:

The ministry usually nominates the school, but we are very interested in development, we checked the standards they put, and since we met them, we asked them to be one of the pilot schools (Deputy, TS4).

We actually asked the ministry if we could implement it since we met all their conditions (Director, TS4).

Some pilot schools claimed that they were not consulted and were forced to implement the project:

We received one of their circulars; they did not consult us (Director, TS5).

We normally do not ask the MoE to be part of any programme, either they forced us to do it, or we implemented our own programmes, of course after their approval (Director, TS10).

The project has encountered many factors that have hindered successful implementation and these forces at the ministry and school levels are discussed in the next section.

4.4. Factors Inhibiting Successful Implementation of the Project

Limited success in the implementation of Tatweer was attributed to several factors according to MoE officials, and these are now presented thematically. These themes are labelled: insufficient training, government bureaucracy, lack of incentives, increased centralisation, and inadequate communication. These themes were identified as codes. Most themes were identified by both MoE employees and pilot schools, although often with differing emphasis. The impediments of implementing the project are illustrated in Figure 4.1 as a tree node. Moreover, Table 4.1 summarises the number of participants from the MoE and pilot schools who identified potential factors that inhibited Tatweer.

Lack of effectiveness in implementing the plans and programmes is embodied in the lack of clear objectives and project plans. Insufficient information provided about the project and the lack of a strategic implementation plan was highlighted by many participants as a factor that hindered Tatweer's implementation:

The plans and implementation mechanism are unclear, in such a way that you don't know where the school is "heading" (Deputy, TS2).

We welcomed this new project and anything that develops the educational system, but if there are no strategic plans, no studies, unfortunately how is it going to succeed? (Director, TS2).

The idea was vague. We didn't get any assistance. To be honest the whole idea was not carefully studied. There is no plan, no clear process, and no appraisal system. The whole idea was paid for but not planned. Since the start of the project I feel that it isn't successful in general (Director, TS9).

Figure 4.1: Tree Node of the Project's Impediments

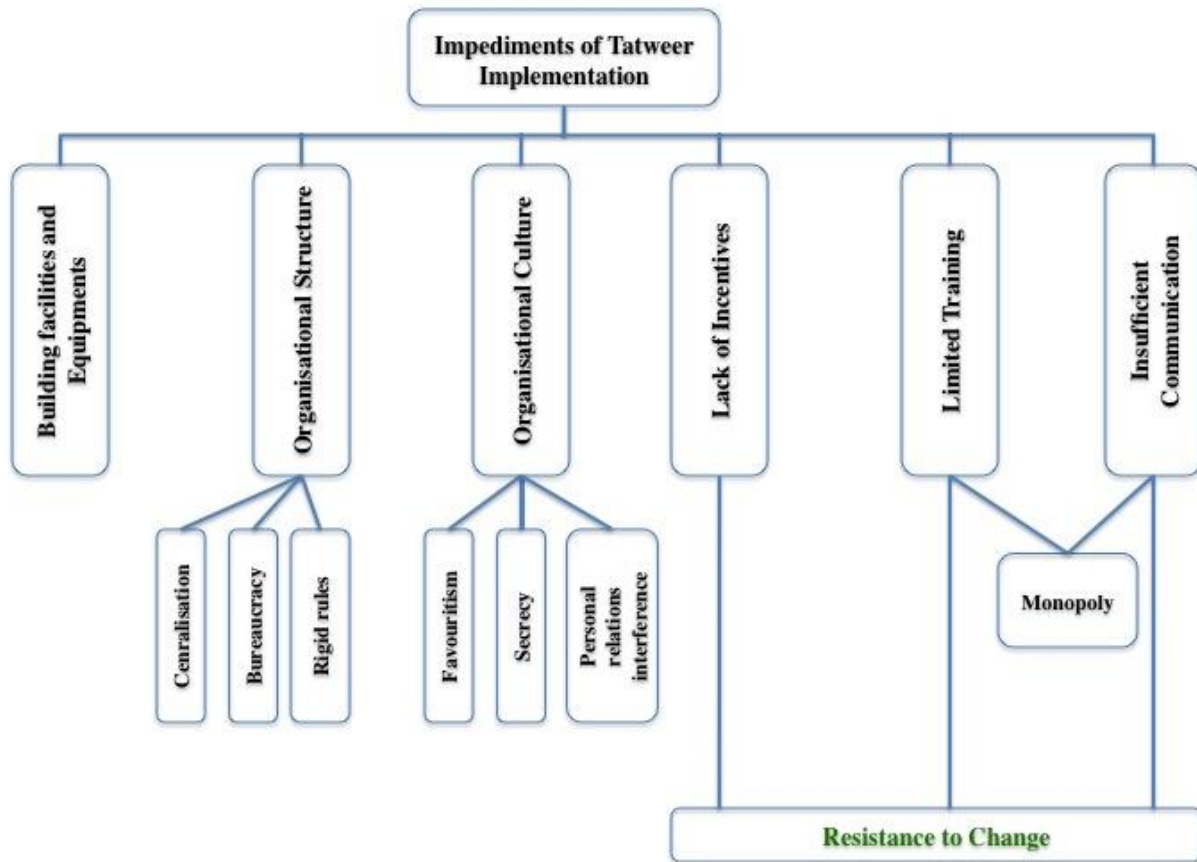


Table 4.1: Factors Inhibiting Tatweer –Implementation Matrix

Factors Inhibiting the Implementation of Tatweer	MoE	TS
Building Facilities and Equipment	2	16
Centralisation and Bureaucracy	8	10
Incentives	19	42
Organisational Structure and Culture	5	10
Training	19	69

4.4.1. Training in the MoE

Training workshops were the main method used to introduce the project within the MoE. Some officials pointed out that employees were provided with many excellent training workshops:

They are very good, and we've been to a lot of training workshops, they are countless (R1, MoE).

However, others disagreed, arguing that some previous development projects had failed due to a lack of training:

Not a lot, I would say that we lack that (training) (R12, MoE).

It was also suggested that training was only provided for a small group of officials who mostly share close friendships and relationships, especially when training workshops are offered abroad:

Unfortunately, training and the introduction of the project was limited to elite groups, especially the ones that took place in other countries (R10, MoE).

Others, however, were ignorant or felt that there had been a lack of a proper evaluation of the outcomes of training:

There has been a good amount of training sessions, and they are good, and yet I think participants should be evaluated to see how much they learned and benefit from the workshop (R2, MoE).

Furthermore, some officials contradicted their answers regarding training. Even though some seemed to agree that training was effective and plentiful, when they were asked about their opinion of the people responsible for making improvements and if they had the skills and knowledge to do so, they revealed that some officials lacked skills, needed training, or were inflexible. One factor that hindered effective implementation appears to be that managers were often not appointed based on a rationale assessment of their abilities and skills and whether these matched the requirements of the post:

Sometimes, but not all of them know enough about their jobs. I think that a successful leader should be knowledgeable and flexible in implementation and not so strict on rules and regulations (R1, MoE).

Some do, others don't, but even those who do need regular training (R10, MoE).

Not all officials have full knowledge of the system or organisation they are working for. Also, development and reforms require high skills that are not found in some of the officials (R4, MoE).

Not everybody, it is rare to find such leaders (R6, MoE).

In addition to that, the inadequacy of the preparation of managers before allocating tasks to them is compounded by disregard for improving their competencies after being hired in supervisory positions. This is witnessed in the implementation of the project's components. While the Tatweer Project focuses on four components for development (curriculum, training, school environment, and

extracurricular activities), it seemed that implementation varied between each component, and training the educational cadres in the MoE and schools was poorly considered:

Officials left everything and focused on the school construction. What did they do? They took off the tiles and replaced them with granite.... They placed marble on the outside of the building... do you understand? So they were interested in appearances and moved away from the true meaning of the project... They did work on teacher training...I don't deny that... this is true. But at the same time... their interest in appearances was more than it was on training (R1, MoE).

Nevertheless, Tatweer commenced in 2007 and its course seemed to be shifted to training teachers and employees in 2011 after it was realised by powerful figures, as explained by R1 (MoE), that the quality of learning was limited, and the quality of personnel in the whole education system, including schools, was poor:

So now they are starting to realise that they should focus more on training, on workshops, and on students, which what they should have done in the first place. When implementing a development project you cannot find enough manpower or the environment is not suitable for the project (R1, MoE).

4.4.2 Training in Schools

The introduction of Tatweer took the form of training workshops that were essential to generate full awareness and understanding of the project. However, when the project was introduced, training for schools was provided during its implementation and not before. As Table 4.1 presents, 69 instances were recorded of comments related to insufficient training. Many suggested that training should have preceded the commencement of the school year, in order for directors and teachers to be fully aware and knowledgeable about Tatweer, how to implement it, what difficulties they might encounter and what solutions should be followed:

What was supposed to happen is that after planning the project, schools should have been trained a year before implementation (Director, TS1).

The curriculum was given but without any training to staff, teachers, and head teachers. There is no one who doesn't want to develop, but how can we if these things are not available for us (Director, TS2).

Moreover, when schools were provided with training many felt that they did not have the time for it during the school year due to the large number of students that might exceed 600 per school and the small number of teachers and staff. Some believed that this issue could be solved if the training was provided inside the school:

We raised the training issue with the ministry many times but there was no response. We want them to provide teachers with more training inside the school, because sometimes leaving school creates chaos due to the large number of students and the shortage of teachers (Director, TS2).

Some felt that the MoE supervisors lacked the skills needed, and requested that they should be trained more in order for the school to benefit from them:

Even many of the ministry's supervisors need training; we rarely benefit from them. From every ten supervisors, we only benefit from one (Deputy, TS2).

On-going training that complies with the requirements of the development project should be provided for officials and employees involved in the change to enable them to adapt to the new management techniques and procedures and to solve obstacles that could affect implementation and employees' performance at both MoE and school levels. Insufficient training was followed by lack of incentives, which tended to hinder their motivation to adopt the change (Table 4.1).

4.4.3 Centralisation and the Organisational Structure and Culture of the MoE

Another obstacle facing development projects in general and Tatweer in particular has been the outdated organisational structures, procedures and systems. The organisational structure and related culture in the public sector in Saudi Arabia, especially the education sector, does not take advantage of the abilities of qualified employees because of the outdated procedures and severe centralization.

Decision-making is very centralised, as pointed out by some respondents. The consequences of such extreme centralisation have also impacted negatively on accountability. Feedback to and from employees is slow and limited:

What cause problems is centralisation. The MoE is the largest bureaucratic government system in the Kingdom, and with the large number of employees of over 5,000 and 500,000 teachers they should delegate the authority to the directors of education in each province (R2, MoE).

The focus is on following high officials' commands rather than on accomplishing the goals (R1, MoE).

The progress of educational reform tends to be impacted by the slow pace of procedures. Officials in MoE sought to preserve or enhance centralization in decision-making. They are still faced with complex, bureaucratic procedures, which are a result of the rigid hierarchical structure, the low levels of accountability and transparency, the lack of evaluation in the governance system, and the insufficiency and ambiguity of criteria needed for measurement and evaluation of performance:

The management is much centralised with no accountability or transparency, in addition to the bureaucratic procedures we are facing (R6, MoE).

The project may not complete 'its journey' under the shadows of bureaucracies and complex procedures (R6, MoE).

Some respondents pointed out how existing rules and regulations of the organisation were incompatible with the requirements of educational reform. The path of the policy's goals is unclear, and even with the change initiatives presented, many feared implementation:

There is kind of an arranged structure, well to some extent, but its career path is unclear and it is not up to date and commensurate with the requirements of change and development. The systems and procedures are a bit developed but still they are complex. There are rules and regulations but they are old and if any change occurs then its impact is pretty much limited (R6, MoE).

However, a few officials disagreed and claimed that rules and regulations are constantly changing, and argued that the ministry possesses a strong organisational structure, and highly qualified personnel:

There are many strong elements in the educational system. For example, the presence of a strong organisational structure at all levels of the ministry and schools. This is in addition to the variety of human resources and educational cadres which includes all levels and different disciplines. Our rules and regulations are constantly renewed and developed, also the availability of materials and technical equipment. So we really have a very good educational system (R11, MoE).

Despite officials' decisions and attempts to improve and develop the educational system, the course that decisions take in the organisational structure (see Appendix I) to reach employees concerned in the project seems to weaken these decisions. This was compounded by centralisation, where any change and decisions cannot be applied without the approval of leaders. The MoE seems to hold a number of qualified personnel and possesses great projects, yet it is characterised by weak performance from some officials:

As usual "the governors of this matter" say something good and issue a great decision, but this decision or project will go down to different departments and different officials with various characters... by the time it gets to us, it will already have lost the main goal that it was issued for (R1, MoE).

It is essential to note that many respondents complained of the vague objectives and goals of the MoE, and the lack of strategic plans:

The ministry's new policies are vague and unclear so that even most employees are unaware of the plans and goals the ministry is working to achieve (R6, MoE).

The current organisational structure is weak in aligning the plans and objectives of the educational field with the strategic plans of the MoE (R3, MoE).

Furthermore, the implementation of a huge number of projects at the same time seems to "burden" officials and schools. Even though the weaknesses in the educational system in Saudi Arabia are recognised, and ministry officials are trying to modernise, this has been implemented in rather an uncoordinated manner, as many projects and programmes have been launched at once. As a result, it

is difficult for officials to monitor all of these projects and their implementation, so that not every school is implementing them as intended:

A huge number of projects are implemented at the same time. This confuses everyone. Why don't I choose the best project and start with it. Start with Tatweer, focus on it, and then see what other projects have. However, due to the fact that education is bad from the beginning, and time is accelerating, it is forcing the MoE to issue all these projects at once, but the problem is not everyone is implementing them correctly because we cannot monitor all their performances, in all the different projects, and this is the main obstacle and many schools are complaining that the head teacher is "burdened" with all that (R1, MoE).

Some officials discussed the effects of Saudi culture on the management system. For instance, officials in public organisations often discourage sanctions as this could interfere with their personal lives, especially if the employee was related or a friend of the manager. As a result, many fail to work effectively knowing that no punishment would ensue from their actions:

I think that the lack of sanctions is one of the issues affected by the culture. We are a society that love "courtesy", and mix personal with professional relations (R2, MoE).

Moreover, favouritism was also pointed out as a manifestation of the Kingdom's culture. As described in sections 4.2 and 4.4.1, favouritism was evident in the unequal distribution of information and in training specifically those that take place abroad.

The organizational structure and culture and increased centralisation tend to be an obstacle for MoE employees in completing tasks related to them and schools, and which have also impacted the level of accountability and transparency.

4.4.4. Incentives for MoE Staff

Poor motivation of MoE employees has impeded the implementation of Tatweer and promoted resistance to change. It was clearly indicated that the only incentive used was the distribution of appreciation letters to successful employees:

We only thank or provide letters of appreciation for hard work, so we do motivate and thank those who work hard (R1, MoE).

Financial incentives have been provided only to cover out of pocket expenses –when employees pay to attend certain workshops as they receive reimbursement of the costs to attend, or some mentioned that the ministry could enable exceptional employees to attend training programmes locally, regionally or internationally:

For those who undertake workshops in another city the ministry pays for their expenses (R2, MoE).

Not financially [motivation]... unless they were sent to attend workshops abroad (R1, MoE).

On the other hand, the ministry's efforts to motivate schools have been very limited. Tatweer schools complained that they did not receive any incentive from the MoE. In fact, MoE officials asked school directors to provide qualified teachers with certificates of appreciation for their achievement:

We ask schools to provide them [teachers] with certificates of appreciation (R2, MoE).

4.4.5. Incentives for School Staff

Lack of incentive is one of the main problems raised by respondents, which led to their lack of motivation to change. To date, teachers are rewarded only via receiving certificates of appreciation either from the ministry or the school director and not financially, as pointed out above. This issue did affect teachers and head teachers' motivation to work and resulted in boredom, early retirement, and resistance to change. Nevertheless, some schools cope with this problem through their co-operative spirit, where the school director encourages and listens to teachers' problems and works with them for solutions:

There is no motivation at all... head teachers and teachers are reluctant to work and they signed up for early retirement... me too...that is why I am taking early retirement this year. In our school five are retiring, me, the head teacher and three other teachers, because the work is "dull"; there is no change (Deputy, TS2).

To be honest, as a school we are trying our best to motivate teachers. But from the MoE unfortunately there is no care. That is why I am retiring this year (Director, TS2).

I wish that when they want to implement any project, they should provide real incentives, not just "talk". They are asking us to motivate teachers, how can I do that? Apply what you are saying first about the importance of motivation and incentives so I can help in achieving the goals of the project (Director, TS6).

On the other hand, ministry respondents claimed that the MoE provided financial incentives for employees, including teachers, to attend workshops either regionally or abroad by covering their costs. However, some teachers argued that they had attended several workshops in different regions in the Kingdom to assist them with the project but had not received any reimbursement for their costs. This led to resistance to attend further workshops:

When we attended workshops in different regions, there should be at least the reimbursement of the costs of these workshops. Teachers paid everything from their own pocket thinking that they will get refunded. This is the fourth year, and no refunds were provided... This caused a feeling that they [teachers] work hard with nothing in return, especially that it is their right. They travel and work and pay for three years and they don't get refunds for anything! This is prejudice (Director, TS6).

We did not get any refund for the workshops we attended (Teacher E, TS6).

We travelled and paid our hotel stay and got nothing in return (Teacher B, TS12).

4.4.6. Building Facilities and Equipment

The programme for improving the school environment and buildings is one of the components of Tatweer. The project's aims highlight a belief that technology plays an essential role in improving learning effectiveness. One of the project's goals is to develop "smart schools" with digital libraries, virtual labs, and smart classrooms. Infrastructure is one of the weakest points in the educational system of the Kingdom in general, as revealed by some school directors (Table 5.1). Many buildings are inappropriate to be schools either because they are leased and not owned by the government, or because they are residential buildings. However, one of the criteria employed by the MoE for choosing Tatweer pilot schools was that the building should be owned by the government. However, it is noted that some pilot schools lacked computer and science labs, playgrounds, and libraries, which made it hard for these educational institutions to achieve the goals set for their development:

There aren't even any computers available or maintenance. There are no facilities such as theatres, library, even there is no storage room. We don't have a classroom for arts and crafts, and there is only one smart board in the whole school, one smart board that serves almost 600 students... The school is not prepared for the project and therefore, there are no outcomes (Deputy, TS2).

I only have tables, chairs, a magnet board and one lab. There is no ICT suite or classrooms for self and group learning. They provided us with forms of request. Until now we did not receive anything (Director, TS3).

This [lack of equipment] certainly has affected the outcomes of education. The concept of education has changed to focus only on memorisation (Director, TS8).

Interviews with pilot schools revealed that four out of the twelve had received laptops for each student and smart boards in each classroom. However, they complained of the lack of maintenance of the devices provided, and how it might cause an extra cost to some parents from needy families to fix their children's laptops:

Laptops were provided to all students; however, we faced many problems when the computers broke down and the student was from a low-income family and they could not afford its maintenance (Director, TS6).

On the other hand, many expressed their anger at their school's current status regarding its building and facilities provided:

Please, talking about this [Tatweer] really "hurts my heart" (Deputy, TS2).

Imagine a Tatweer school; the computer course exam is written and not practical. The teacher draws a keyboard and the student should draw arrows and write how to perform certain commands (Director, TS1).

According to paragraph 55 in the Public Schools Rules and Regulations, to achieve the school's goals, the building should include a library, labs, theatres, a shaded yard for break times, and storage. Most pilot schools lacked these facilities. It was highlighted that sometimes teachers participate in buying projectors, printers or any other devices that the school needs:

Teachers participate together to buy a projector for the classroom from their own money (Director, TS11).

The tools and equipment that serve the curriculum should be provided from the start before implementation (Teacher D, TS2).

4.5. The Impact of the Project: Pilot Schools' Reaction and their views on Educational Development

Different reactions were given by teachers and schools' directors. On one hand, frustration and unhappiness were common among a number of schools mainly for the following reasons:

1- Limited training and information about the project as noted in earlier sections of training:

The curriculum was given but without any training to staff, teachers, and head teachers (Director TS2).

2- The project goals and vision are unclear, and the school's role in achieving these goals is unknown:

We didn't know what it was for. Was it to promote and develop students, teachers, or the school? The idea was vague (Director TS9).

3- Inability to gain answers and information from ministry supervisors about the project:

Their response to all our questions were: "we are not sure yet, we will get back to you later" (Director TS9).

4- Lack of initial impact so that some directors are not optimistic about the future of the project due to failure of previous development initiatives, which generated a sense of scepticism:

We are zero in Tatweer... there are no outcomes (Director, TS2).

Frankly, I am afraid that education is falling... unfortunately I would say that "Tatweer" here is "destruction" and not development same as previous attempts to change, so I really doubt its success (Director, TS2).

5- There is only one way communication from the MoE to the school:

We want our voices to be heard (Deputy, TS2).

You cannot reform or develop education without effectively communicating with all parties involved in the process (Deputy TS4).

- 6- The inability to answer parents' questions about Tatweer due to the limited information provided to schools from the start:

A parent once asked me what is Tatweer and I didn't have an answer (Director, TS4).

This point is further elaborated in the next chapter.

- 7- Lack of research preceding Tatweer. Many teachers and head teachers complained that they were unaware of any research on educational development underpinning Tatweer, and when asked of local research about educational reform they were not aware of any. It was argued that the MoE lacked an evidence base on which to make appropriate decisions. Most studies on education were provided from the Ministry of Higher Education in the form of postgraduate dissertations that were not used:

I do not know you should ask the administration (Teacher A, TS6).

Or ask the Ministry (Teacher B, TS6).

To be honest the whole idea was not carefully studied. There is no plan, no clear process, and no appraisal (Director TS9).

In order for higher education students to be able to conduct their research easily in the field of education, the MoE requires them to provide a copy of their study... yet, their research are kept there without profiting from their accurate scientific results (R5, MoE).

Moreover, it was suggested that any development project should have been researched, pre-planned, and educational cadres in schools should have been trained. This process should be taken into consideration according to some schools to avoid wasting money, as the education budget is the largest of all the government sectors in the Kingdom. It is essential to note that attempts to track down information on the budget of Tatweer and expenditure per pilot school were unsuccessful due to secrecy of information, as officials refused to declare any information regarding this matter:

From my perspective, the ministry should not carry out any project unless they pre-plan for it first, and train the educational staff to succeed and to have educational outputs, but lack of follow-up and preparation... money is wasted... this is unacceptable. The government budget for education is the largest (Director TS2).

It has been found that the use of academic research is not prevalent, as reported earlier by Al Tajm (1998) in section 2.9.2.

- 8- Many projects are launched and implemented at the same time (TS1, TS2, TS4, TS6, TS7, TS8, TS10). The latter schools implement Tatweer along with at least another two development

programmes assigned from the MoE. This caused confusion, overload, and the inability to balance efforts between the different projects:

There are also another couple of projects that we are applying too in the school [besides Tatweer] (Director TS7).

We implement Tatweer along with other programmes... it is difficult because we are learning and implementing everything at the same time, which in most of the times confuse us (Teacher B, TS6).

9- Lack of co-operation from parents and lack of follow-up from the MoE made many school directors doubt the success of the project. MoE officials are preoccupied with executive aspects, which distract them from their main role of planning, organizing, coordinating, monitoring, and following up in the project:

I hope the King Abdullah Project succeeds, but if there is no co-operation from parents or follow-up from the ministry, then I doubt that (Director TS7).

On the other hand, some school directors indicated their satisfaction with the outcomes achieved. They described how they were overloaded for the first year of Tatweer but with their hard work and their ambitions to achieve, they managed to undertake training. According to the Deputy of TS4, she said that she trained about 5,000 teachers and MoE employees. The Director of TS5 invited other pilot schools to receive training from her qualified teachers and staff. Furthermore, they pointed out the successful outcomes in teaching and learning that they have reached, and expressed their happiness with the project as the level of students' critical thinking skills have risen:

Honestly, it was a very tiring year to the extent that teachers felt they will "explode" from all the pressure and heavy work load... It would have been better if they trained us first before implementing the project, however, the MoE were very understanding and told us not to pressure ourselves even if we applied a small part of the project, but because teachers held high expectations and were very competitive, they pressured themselves to achieve faster... and we did succeed (Director, TS6).

4.6 Competition with Private Schools

Competition between public schools is negligible. At this stage, the school's performance seems to depend on the head teachers' and other employees' potential and initiative to develop and change, even when there is a lack of guidance and incentives. Moreover, due to the poor condition of public schools, which have deteriorated over the years, many parents prefer to enrol their children in private schools (Albawaba News, 2000). However, it is essential to investigate whether the existence of Tatweer, as the most comprehensive education development project introduced in the public educational system in Saudi Arabia, has improved public schools and resulted in increased competition with the private sector. Interviews with eight private school directors were conducted to explore their views on Tatweer and their communication and competition with public schools.

Directors of private schools believed that development in the Saudi education system is due to the development and change generated from private schools:

Most of the development in education is from us in the private sector (Director PS1).

Most were aware of the Tatweer Project and its expenditures, but some were cynical about its future and suggested that it will not lead to any change or improvement in public schools because many development projects had been launched previously that had not generated the desired results:

I don't think it is heading anywhere (Director, PS1).

We didn't see any improvements especially in public schools; all I can see is that they are still the same (Director, PS3).

Private school directors did not notice any competition between private and public schools:

Why would there be any competition? (Director PS2).

Private schools are viewed by some directors as a business that cannot be compared with any state school, not in terms of buildings, curriculum, training, facilities, resources, or even financially:

There is no comparison at all (Director PS1).

Some even argued that they could not hire teachers from public schools due to their lack of skills in creativity and development and their inability to cope with the workload and pressure that exists in private schools:

We cannot even risk hiring a teacher from a public school. Their training is poor, and they are most likely unable to work under the pressure and workload we have (Director PS5).

I think that local [i.e. public] schools are here only for those who are unable financially to get their children in private schools; other than that, I mean from the education point of view, there is no comparison (Director, PS3).

Within the public education system, there is a little competition to attract pupils. As the Directors of TS1 and TS2 described, while a public school's budget does depend on the number of students enrolled, this makes little difference, as the per capita funding for each student is limited (approximately £200 per year). This fee is often seen as inadequate given the existing large number of students, lack of building capacity, lack of teaching staff and equipment. Limited incentives impact on the schools' willingness to compete with other local schools to recruit pupils, which leads to the limited existence of competition:

Each student for example gets about SR 1,000-1,200 [about £200] per year, which is not enough, and about recruiting students we do not do that. We have around 400 students and there are no places, and sometimes we lack teaching staff and we definitely lack resources (Director TS1).

4.7 Conclusion

Despite the government's generosity in allocating one quarter of its annual income for the development of the educational sector (Section 1.4), several factors hamper the successful implementation of development projects and Tatweer in particular. The general four components of the Tatweer project were clearly known, and yet secrecy of information is common in the MoE. Unequal distribution of knowledge, lack of internal communication, and limited transparency led to limited understanding of the projects' aims and procedures. The weak management of the project is because the developmental plans and policies were not accompanied by executive plans, taking into consideration the necessity to provide the required local workforce, finance, resources, supplies and devices in accordance with a defined schedule. Moreover, the bodies responsible for the implementation lacked an adequate trained workforce to be able to implement and monitor the programme at all stages.

Moreover, the project's introduction was through training workshops, which may have not included all relevant individuals who are affected by the change, especially when multiple projects are being implemented at the same time, which burden employees and increase their job pressure. A lack of incentives, and sanctions for ineffective employees, decreased employees' level of motivation.

Diverse reactions were reported by schools about Tatweer. Even though developing the educational system is crucial and Tatweer could be one of the projects that would serve to improve education, frustration and lack of motivation were also reported. These stemmed from the lack of communication, insufficient information, and the absence of a strategic implementation plan. Moreover, the training that occurred either prior to or during implementation was largely inadequate. The lack of incentives made some teachers reluctant and unwilling to participate or change. Another factor contributing to limited implementation is the poor state of buildings and equipment, which means that aspects of the project could not be adequately implemented.

On the other hand, neither communication nor competition seems to exist between public and private schools. Public school status has deteriorated over the years and parents generally prefer to enrol their children in private schools if this is financially possible. Lack of incentive curtails public school's willingness to recruit pupils so that competition is hardly evident. The next chapter is concerned with internal and external communication to investigate their impact on change initiatives and identify the consequences of their limited application in the educational sector.

Chapter Five: Findings Concerning Resistance to Change and Communication

5.1. Introduction

After identifying the major impediments to the implementation of the change initiative as identified by interviewees in chapter four, this chapter identifies forces resisting change, stakeholders' engagement in change, and further evaluates the concept of internal and external communication to investigate its application and role in the Saudi educational system.

The first half of this chapter commences with an analysis of sources of resistance to change. It identifies the factors contributing to resistance forces at the MoE, schools, and public levels, which were linked to the factors inhibiting the project's implementation, as discussed in the previous chapter. This is followed by the strategies used by MoE officials and schools to reduce resistance.

The second part of this chapter explores the level and nature of communication both within the educational system (MoE and schools) and the wider public (parents, religious authorities etc.). It evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of communication that exist within the MoE, as well as their communication with schools and the public. This incorporates an assessment of the role of the Communication Department, the Media Unit, and Public Relations within the ministry in maintaining external communication. It also considers schools' views of the role of external communication, their level of partnership with the public, and the challenges to community involvement and participation. The chapter explores whether the communications employed helped overcome resistance to change and whether better communications would have aided project implementation and parental involvement. It further considers schools' views of the necessity of marketing, the means employed, and the elements that could impact on such a process.

5.2. Resistance to Change

In light of a previous discussion in Section 2.6, Hamlin *et al.* (2001) identifies six factors contributing to failure of change within organisations:

- Change is viewed by many as a target not as a process that requires careful preparation, planning, and management
- Lack of clear vision
- Failure of previous projects, so that the organisation witnesses cynicism and resistance to change from employees and/or general management towards any new projects

- The inability to provide employees with the training and encouragement required to adjust to the change
- Poor communication with employees and failing to provide them with all the information required to ease the transition process
- Emphasising one aspect of the change initiative and ignoring the rest, such as focussing on training and failing to provide incentives and reward systems that are required to manage behaviours.

Hamlin *et al.*'s (2001) factors accord with many of the issues identified in the previous chapter. Resistance to change and disruptions caused internally and externally are possible factors that limit the success of educational initiatives in general, and Tatweer in particular. Sources of resistance have included teachers, parents, conservative groups, and some MoE officials.

Table 5.1 presents a matrix-coding query that identifies the coding references relating to sources of resistance identified at the levels of the MoE and pilot schools. The main attributes of comparison are: culture, habituation to the existing system, lack of incentives, information deficiency, lack of confidence, fear of losing power, and lack of training.

Table 5.1: Sources of Resistance to Change (RTC) Identified by MoE and TS Interviewees

Sources of RTC	MoE	TS
Culture	1	1
Habituation to the Existing System	7	10
Lack of Incentives	13	30
Information Deficiency	19	38
Lack of Confidence	2	1
Fear of Losing Power	2	0
Lack of Training	19	50

5.2.1 Sources of RTC

1- Teachers

Respondents 1, 2, 4 and 10 from the MoE and Directors 1, 2, 4, 6 and 7 from the pilot schools agreed that the most resistant force they had encountered was from teachers. Many teachers had resisted participating and attending training workshops:

We were surprised that many teachers did not want to participate or attend training workshops (R1 MoE).

Teachers were resistant to work (Deputy TS2).

The main reasons given for teachers' resistance to change were: their heavy workload, which prevented them from having the time to attend such training sessions; lack of incentives; and/or being used to the old system and unwilling to change, especially if they had only a few years to serve before their retirement:

They [teachers] did not want to and believed that they could not work on a new system and change how they were working for 20 years (R1, MoE).

It is much easier for them [teachers] to work with the old system (R10, MoE).

We also faced some resistance from teachers who are retiring soon ...they did not want to change the system and methods they are used to. But the rest were happy with the project. However, during the second year when teachers did not receive any reimbursement for their training, they complained a lot and were frustrated (Director, TS6).

Moreover, it was suggested that unclear information about the project and lack of communication and training were common contributors to teachers' and the school administration's resistance, simply because they had no idea what to do. Establishing an appropriate environment and readiness for personnel to accept change is crucial to overcome the above mentioned factors that impacted the project implementation (Section 4.4), and to reduce employees' scepticism (section 4.5) and cynicism (Section 4.6), as reported earlier:

Teachers were resistant to work because they had no idea what to do (Deputy, TS4).

Of course there will be resistance. Look, I think that not only men, money and material should be prepared and available but also the environment. The schools, staff, employees, everyone should have accepted the concept in the first place. So before starting Tatweer, I should make a satisfactory environment to accept it. There should be promotions, incentives, clear communication, and training seminars, so that no one would be in doubt or hesitant (R9, MoE).

We resist what they [MoE] are doing. Every time they develop a project they force us to implement it without any help or guidance from them. We need information... we need training... we need people who can answer our questions, and we need a clear strategic plan for implementation (Director, TS9).

Some directors explained that teachers' resistance was due to inadequate information provided about the implementation process, in addition to the lack of materials, resources, educational tools and devices that supplement and improve the learning process:

There are many complaints from teachers and even me. I mean what the MoE did is provide us with basic information about the project... this is the project... go ahead and implement it in the school... ok... let us pause for a second... how can I implement it? What resources did you provide me with for

implementation? What strategies should I use? Which parts should I start with? What training should I get? And many questions that they had no answer for. (Director, TS2)

Some teachers argued that the contents of curriculum books had been improved but others disagreed, seeing the newly developed books as a “dilemma” with a lack of adequate supporting materials:

Because when a new curriculum was developed, it only developed the content of it. Not all changes were applied; there aren't any tools or devices provided because they are not available by the school (Teachers D, TS2).

The director of TS6 raised another issue, she argued that English teachers in the school resisted adequately planning and preparing their lessons this year (which at the time was the fourth year of implementation), because since the commencement of the project, the English curriculum had changed every year.

Unclear information and the lack of strategic plans had led some directors to become frustrated and regret becoming involved in Tatweer:

Sometimes I ask myself why I asked to implement the project. Because it is “a headache”; it would be better if I just sit there and do the work I'm already used to, and receive my salary. It is a lot of work, and the ministry is not following-up with us (Director, TS7).

2- MoE Officials

Interviewee 4 (MoE) perceived that behind resistance, whether it came from teachers, parents, or the community, was a fear of change. However, RTC from MoE officials was highly linked to fear of losing power and scepticism in regard to the likely success of the project:

Sometimes there is some resistance and objections from the school administration, families, and the community in general. The rationale is: fear of an inability to implement the project, fear of losing power especially from the MoE, fear for their social relations, lack of confidence in the change programme and the belief that it is unfeasible, fear of losing bonuses, and lack of incentives.

Nevertheless, Interviewee 3 (MoE) remarked how the government's move towards decentralisation in education, by devolving certain powers to schools, had met resistance from some officials who feared losing power:

Some departments in the MoE objected to the powers granted to schools' head teachers because it gives them freedom and self-management away from direct, authoritarian supervision.

There are many internal barriers that we are facing, resistance from very important people within the society. I think that some organisational change tends to increase the likelihood of internal resistance

from many officials due to unclear vision, the absence of a powerful guiding coalition, the presence of obstacles from the old system. So there are many elements to be considered in organisational change to reduce resistance. Also before I forgot internal communication, as we certainly lack it. It is very important that internal communication is present within an organisation and also regular communication (R7, MoE).

It is important to note that when interviewees were asked to provide more details about the officials impeding change or their departments, they refused to do so, even though they were ensured of the confidentiality of information provided.

3- Parents and the Community

The third source of resistance was parents and the wider. Pilot schools expressed their disappointment regarding parents' limited involvement in the education process:

Most parents are busy, so normally they don't participate or attend parents' meetings (Director, TS1).

Even though schools claimed they had tried their best to communicate and hold meetings with parents, there seems to be a huge gap between the two groups. Directors and teachers explained that normally less than ten per cent of all parents attend parents' meetings. The latter approximate figure was provided by the participants' own judgement, since their parents' meeting records did not include a list of attendees:

I have 600 students in my school, when I hold a parents' meeting only 20 parents show up. We try to call them, but honestly there is no response. This year 80 parents attended the meeting, so going from 20 to 80 I believe this is quite an accomplishment (Director, TS10).

However, it is essential to note that parents' meetings take place in the morning during working hours, which could be a reason for working parents to simply not participate due to their job requirements:

Not everyone [parents] is willing to participate in education because they are busy with their own jobs (Deputy, TS2).

Teachers also agreed that parents' limited involvement in the education process is still an obstacle they face, as they would be unable to effectively implement the project without their help and support. Parents' participation is essential in the change process when they provide schools' with their opinions in the decision-making process, along with volunteering and involvement in their child's education, which is typically absent:

Parents do not co-operate with us at all (Teacher A, TS6).

We cannot implement the project effectively without their help (Teacher D, TS6).

Many parents neglect what we asked for in assisting the students to search for information. They also

do not follow-up with the students' progress and do not encourage them. I heard from some parents that the work we are providing the students with is too much and they do not have the time for that. Others I think they do not co-operate because of their own poor level of education (Teacher B, TS2).

One particular issue that aroused parents' resistance was the distribution of personal laptops to students. Parents resisted mainly for two reasons that were identified by some directors. Firstly, some parents come from poor educational backgrounds and found it difficult to assist their children with their studies. Secondly, many were afraid that students might use the laptops inappropriately; they did not mind the use of computers in schools as long as laptops were not brought home. Moreover, laptop maintenance was assigned as a responsibility to parents who generally refused to do so due to high costs:

There was huge resistance against laptops, as a system to use laptops within the school they didn't have an issue; their problem was that each student had to take the laptop home to work on it (Director TS6).

I cannot force parents to fix their children's laptop. Maintenance should be offered by the MoE (Deputy TS6).

Parents were not the only group resistant to change in pilot schools. Directors of TS1, 2 and 8 explained the rationale behind resistance faced from conservative groups in the community:

They [conservatives] tried to make a fuss (Director, TS2).

According to them, the society in general encourages and calls for reform and change, and yet conservatives resisted the project at first because they thought that this development would lead to the elimination of sex segregation in schools and the exclusion of some content from religious studies. However, this resistance was minimized as none of these fears materialised:

To be honest, anything that is related to any kind of development within this country has to be faced with some resistance by conservatives. Not because what they are doing is right or wrong, but because I believe, from my own point of view, that they are still unaware of what these development projects are. I mean now I don't think there is any resistance from them because they have known that Tatweer did not for instance allows girls and boys to study in the same classroom with no segregation (Director, TS1).

The society, from the concept part of reform, says that they are with the reform. But there is the conservative group. They are full of doubt, fear and apprehension for any reforms. They think that any reform will be at the expense of religion (Director, TS8).

R5 (MoE) felt that the public, including parents, clerics, and other conservative groups, misunderstood the concept of Tatweer and the need for change. She added that public engagement

would increase if their confusion about the project was dispelled and the benefits of such change to the future of citizens and consequently the future of the country were comprehensively explained:

I think there is a misunderstanding and not resistance. If we clarify this confusion and explain how this will benefit him and future children, then I don't think there will be any problem. But resistance normally comes from the public because they prefer not to participate (R5 MoE).

5.3 Reducing Resistance to Change

The findings reveal several strategies, which have been used to control and reduce resistance to the project. Persuading employees and talking to them about the importance of change and explaining the outcomes of the project are the main methods used, however, it is not enough as reported by many, who believe that financial incentives should be provided to motivate personnel, in addition to sanctions:

Persuading them, however, senior management should provide them with incentives to motivate them more or sanctions for those who refuse to work (R1 MoE).

Generating awareness of the importance of Tatweer through training workshops and meetings were also used to control resistance, by providing information about the nature of change and its benefits. Nevertheless, sometimes force and threats are used. According to a former Director of Public Education, this includes oral warnings at first followed by a formal written warning sent to the negligent employee. If he/she still resists working, then he/she will be subject to an investigation after the approval of the Director of the DOE. If the employee's actions were proved to be negligent after investigation, sanctions will apply depending on the nature of the behaviour, this may include a written pledge, salary deduction, or transferring him/her to another department after the Director of the DOE's approval:

Sometimes force and threat is used and sometimes negotiation and agreement (R4 MoE).

Respondents 5 and 8 (MoE) argued that motivating employees requires communicating the purpose of the project and providing them with a value and a meaning to their role in development and change, which may be even better than financial incentives:

Before starting Tatweer, there should be a satisfactory environment to accept it... a convenient environment. To achieve this, there should be promotions, training seminars, answers to all questions to make sure no one is hesitant or in doubt (R8, MoE).

Interviewee 8 (MoE) argued that generating understanding of the knowledge economy in the first place and the role the project could play in achieving this would have minimised resistance:

Resistance of change yes there is... and there is a reason behind it, first the person did not know what a knowledge economy is, which is one of Tatweer's long-term goals. Second, he/she is not sold in the idea that a knowledge economy is needed (R8, MoE).

Directors of TSs were able to manage teachers' resistance by holding regular meetings to listen to their feelings and concerns, trying to convince them of the essential role of Tatweer, helping them in searching for more information that would assist them in their work, sending them for training or to other schools to observe their achievements, and encouraging them and acknowledging their success:

We try to convince them and help them by searching on the Internet or send them to attend workshops in other schools (Deputy TS2).

The love and strong relationship between the teachers and our cooperation, all of this reduces their resistance (Deputy TS4).

Some directors were able to calm their teachers, who were overwhelmed with the workload, by agreeing to implement only small portions of the project:

We talk to the teachers, and ask them to implement the project in small portions so they don't feel pressured (Director TS7).

On the other hand, resistance from parents was dealt with through meetings, for instance, clarifying the rationale for distributing laptops to students. Teachers reported different responses. Some thought that it was not their responsibility to overcome this issue, as it was the role of the student counsellor. Others communicated and met with parents, who resisted the new curriculum, perceiving it to be too difficult, and clarified how they are obliged to follow the new curriculum because it is from the ministry:

We held meetings with parents to explain to them the rationale behind using laptops (Director TS6).

We do not know if the school used any strategies because this is the responsibility of the student counsellor (Teacher A, TS6).

We are trying to clarify that these are the new curriculum that we are obliged to follow from the ministry, so we cannot do anything about it but try and facilitate them for the students (Teacher A, TS1).

5.4 The Nature of Internal Communication within the MoE

Communication between employees in a department and during the process of management improvement was typically described as regular but limited. Communication occurred regularly, and yet limited information was provided and as a result transparency of information about the project, its budget, procedures, and any decisions related was minimal:

There is no transparency here (R14, MoE).

There is no transparency in departments and with the public (R6, MoE).

Officials and employees communicate via letters, emails, telephones, meetings, seminars, and circulars. Some explained how communication was a one-way process, while others revealed that internal communication was inadequate as they came to know about the Tatweer Project by chance, even though they were in the Department of Educational Planning and Development, which was responsible for such projects and programmes. Controlling information, with minimal dissemination, was regarded as a means to retain power by divulging information selectively as a way of favouring some employees over others (Section 5.2):

The introduction of the programme, with the monopoly that others enjoy to have, always seems vague. I personally do not know when the programme was introduced, if it was before its implementation, during or after. I actually knew by chance from people talking here and there (R11, MoE).

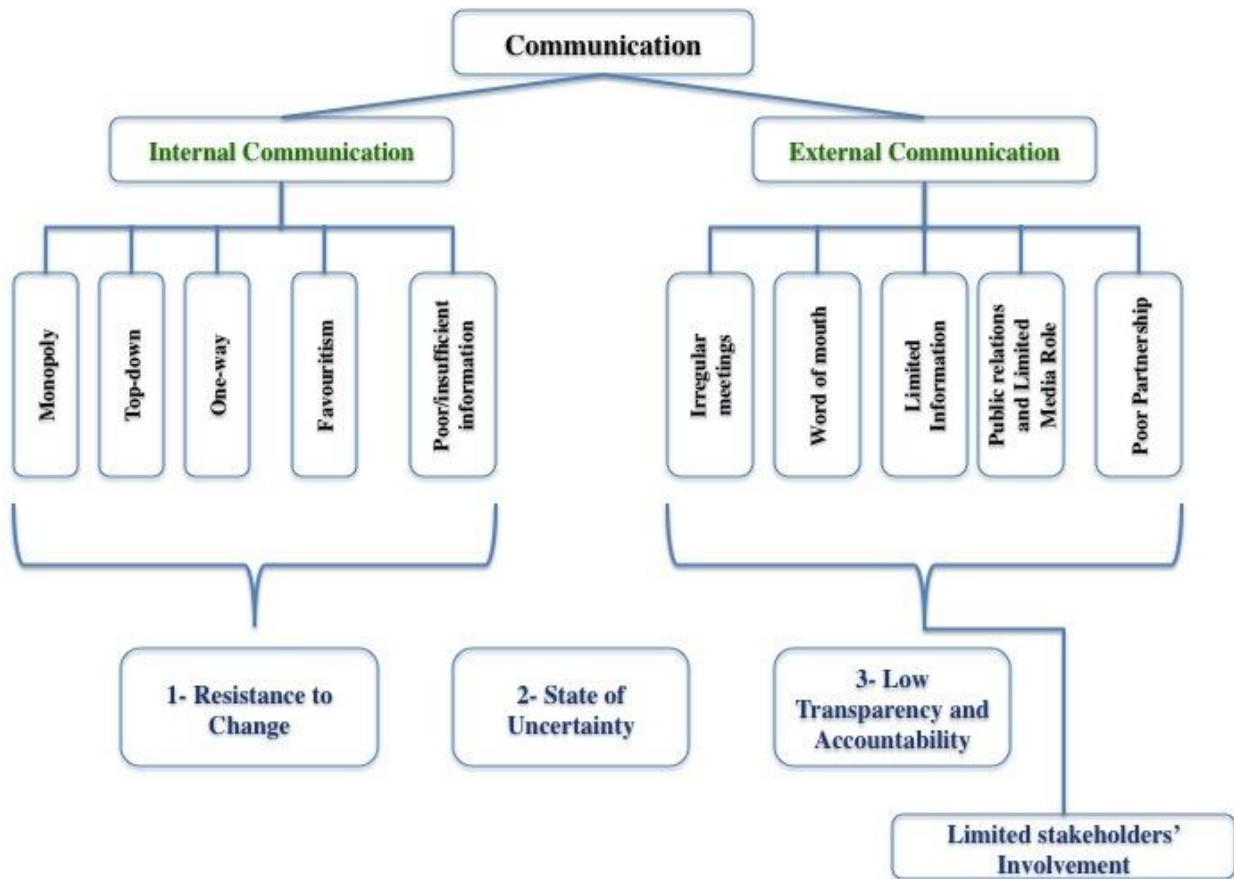
Communication is only a one-way process (R6, MoE).

Interviewee 4 from the Department of Educational Supervision argued that internal communication is effective within it and this is reflected in the organisation's performance. However, within other departments, she described that a "fault" existed in the communication process due to differences in individuals' visions for education development.

Lack of transparency was linked to poor communication, leading to confusion and uncertainty (Figure 5.1):

We live in a state of uncertainty, because we have no idea as to the outcomes of the project or any educational project, this reinforced a state of confusion; we are wondering about what we should do. We have no feedback of projects or even to some of them, how the work went? Where did it reach? What are the percentages of achievements? Was it evaluated? What is its fate? A lot of questions that we generally have no answers to, even if the ministry researches the projects, the results are kept secret (R2 MoE).

Figure 5.1: Tree Node of Communication



5.5 The Internal Communications Department

The internal communications department is considered a “vital artery” (R15 MoE) for facilitating administrative and technical work within the MoE. In the communications department, transactions and outputs and inputs are recorded, saved, and directed in a manner that assists their follow-up and retrieval. Therefore, the department is the central reference that links different departments. It undertakes auditing, indexing, recording, distributing and receiving all inputs presented from outside the ministry:

It [Internal Communication Department] plays a vital role in receiving inputs from 42 educational districts and exporting outputs to them (R14 MoE).

According to R14 (MoE), the internal communications department performs the following main tasks:

- Export outputs, which includes circulars, telegrams, and procedures
- Receive inputs, which includes telegrams and procedures

- Follow-up the recording of inputs and outputs
- Archives, which includes documents and procedures.

Lack of transparency and oversight of the internal communications department was noted by some MoE respondents. Furthermore, the department's communication with the public seems to be limited to receiving external inputs and transactions and forwarding them to the designated department. Nevertheless, an MoE respondent explained her lack of awareness of the main role of the latter department, even though she had been working in the same building for more than five years:

I really do not know what their (Communication Department) role is. I pass by the department everyday but I do not know their contribution to the whole system (R14 MoE).

5.6 The Nature of External Communication between the MoE and Schools

Interviewees 1 and 2 from the MoE described their communication with pilot schools as an “effective two-way communication”. They supervised schools through site visits to evaluate the extent of project implementation. They communicated also via telephones, emails, and meetings that were held to listen to the schools' views and recommendations, and yet processing schools' requests took a long time due to centralisation and bureaucracy, as discussed also in Section 4.4.3:

We use several means of communication. One of them is the forum we have in the website, and this way teachers and employees from different regions in the Kingdom communicate and share experiences. We do also pay formal visits to schools, send emails, and communicate via the website portal, but most of the time requests and transactions' processing takes time because of centralisation (R5 MoE).

The schools, on the other hand, had different views about the means used to communicate with the ministry. Some are delighted with the communication and co-operation they receive:

There is very good communication and they are very co-operative. Sometimes they visit the school, or we communicate by telephone and email (Director TS1).

I think the communication is effective. Every single thing which happens in the school is in accordance with the ministry's instructions; we receive their circulars by email now, which is easier. Also, we communicate through their supervisors (Director TS7).

However, others voiced far more negative opinions, regarding communication as one-way, top-down and lacking transparency. For them, communication is generally limited to direct orders and instructions, a one-way process from top to bottom. With the wide range of supervision and the shortage in qualified personnel, it is difficult to follow-up with schools effectively:

Communication with the ministry is very poor and negative. Communication is only through papers and circulars, not to mention their poor usage of IT (Deputy TS4).

The ministry's communication with the school about Tatweer is very poor (Teacher E, TS2).

They should listen to what we need and not just order us to do what they want (Deputy TS2).

Frustration at the orders given by the MoE rather than the MoE listening to their needs was widespread. Receiving information without being heard or being able to communicate ideas or concerns tended to decrease motivation and burden the job of some, especially when their requests for basic equipment and materials were processed slowly:

It is really frustrating to have qualified teachers and staff and yet no one is appreciating that. All what we want is a two-way communication with the ministry. There also has to be a strategy for implementing Tatweer. We are doing everything without any guidance or assistance (Deputy TS2).

Not listening to our requests is a major weakness. We want our voices to be heard. We raised the training issue to the ministry many times but there is no response. We want them to provide teachers with more training inside the school, because sometimes leaving school creates chaos due to the large number of students and the shortage in teachers (Director TS2).

The school's communication with the ministry does not receive attention. They slowly respond to the school's requests and they lack internal controllers to monitor officials' performance within the ministry. They should respond quickly to our requests, and there should be departments to supervise and monitor their job performance (Teacher B TS2).

Nonetheless, it is crucial to highlight the inconsistency of reports of some individuals. More critical aspects were raised by the same respondent, who provided negative feedback about communication after greater rapport was established with the interviewer. Even though the director of TS4 indicated that their communication with the ministry was effective, she later contradicted her response by implying that communication was a one-way, limited process. Moreover, the school faced multiplicity in requests as it was responsible for responding to different departments separately and providing each with the information they needed, which results in duplication of work, increasing the cost of implementing projects:

Communication with the ministry is very poor and negative. Communication is only through papers and circulars, not to mention their poor usage of IT. They should communicate more effectively with us, and listen to what we have to offer, not just expect us to obey their orders. You cannot reform or develop education without effectively communicating with all parties involved in the process (Director, TS4).

The multiplicity of departments that we communicate with is a major weakness that can be solved if we provide all requests to the supervisor who would be responsible for providing each department with what they need (Director, TS4).

Another instance of inconsistent responses is Respondent 4 (MoE). With probing, she emphasized that communication was disrupted by many obstacles, including delays in the arrival of instructions and requests that delayed work completion, a lack of IT usage in communication between various departments, weakness of some professional abilities either in the MoE or schools, and individuals' lack of knowledge about the roles they had been assigned to:

Many instructions and announcements are made at the same time, announcements and instructions do not arrive on time, which disrupts or delay the completion of some work, and lack of IT usage in communication between various departments (R4 MoE).

The Director of TS6, on the other hand, justified that communication previously was not always as effective as it is now. In the first three years of implementation there was no academic or administrative supervision or follow-up to the school. When the school contacted the DOE, they replied that they had nothing to do with Tatweer. This was a major problem for the director, as the school needed greater help and assistance to implement Tatweer. However, this issue was soon resolved and their communication became frequent and easier when the Department of Planning and Development started their supervision.

Many enquiries raised by schools did not receive attention or answers and, as a result, no support or clarifications were provided and implementation became more complicated due to inadequate information and the one-way top-down communication forcing employees to follow decisions:

When you enquire about something they don't tell you until "they cut your breath". The school has no right on them, and if it was their right they will not leave you until they get it (Director TS2).

There is no one I can refer to who would benefit me 100%, because they are not authorized to take decisions, and I cannot blame them for that... They are "enclosed" on their own selves and this indicates that they don't understand anything (Director TS5).

They just provide orders and we have to obey them whether we like it or not. There is no freedom given to us because they don't trust or have faith in schools, and the problem is that even the MoE representative that supervises the school does not understand what is going on (Director TS9).

Resistance from schools was said to be due to a lack of direct communication with teachers, which resulted in a state of "ambiguity and opacity" (R6 MoE) (Figure 5.1):

Until now many of us are not quite sure what we are supposed to do (Teacher A, TS1).

Schools complained that transparency does not exist and limited communication made their jobs harder as they were unsure as to how to implement Tatweer because no strategic plan was provided, with inadequate responses to requests:

There is no communication. No transparency at all and everything we do is by ourselves without any support from them (Director, TS5).

The Educational Supervision Department, which is a department within the MoE, was the main means of communication with schools. According to the educational supervision development model guide (2012), a supervisor's main roles were:

- Trainer: the educational supervisor works alongside teachers and specialists in developing their knowledge and pedagogical professional performance according to their training needs
- Consultant: the supervisor plays the role of an expert by supporting teachers and specialists and proposes advance strategies
- Evaluator: the supervisor monitors teachers' performance, guides them in a framework of mutual trust, and provides them with meaningful information and strategies for evaluation.

5.7 External Communication with the Wider Public

As mentioned in Section 2.7.2, communication and education can be effective methods to manage RTC. However, educational reform requires the involvement and support of several actors and stakeholders (MoE, schools, parents, community) in order for the implementation of change to be successfully achieved. Public relations and the Media Unit Departments in the MoE are tasked with maintaining external communication with the wider public (R1 MoE).

5.7.1. Partnership

According to the Community Partnership Guide (MOE, 2007a), the aims of school and local community co-operation are:

- To become acquainted with the programmes of schools and local community cooperation and partnerships
- To identify difficulties and obstacles that prevent the establishment of such co-operative relationships
- To determine the expected features and benefits from the establishment of co-operation programmes between schools and the community
- To propose recommendations and mechanisms to develop the level of school / public collaboration
- To plan and organise the partnership between a school and the local and international community
- To generate statistics on the levels of school/community partnerships.

There are certain standards that should exist for a successful school/community partnership, as shown in the latter guide:

1- Communication should be constant, meaningful, and via different means:

- Generation of e-forums to communicate with parents
- Development of routine procedures for parents to review the school and scheduling parents' meetings
- Communication to parents via mail
- Asking parents about school performance regularly
- Designing a school guide for parents
- Distributing school newsletters

2- Support parents to aid their children's education and enhance their parenting and educating skills through:

- Recommendations for parents
- Support services for families
- Workshops and programmes to assist in education
- Research on education
- Other services

3- Enhance student learning:

- Inform parents about educational expectations for each subject
- Involve parents in setting goals for students
- Design interactive activities to be undertaken in the home
- Provide parents with evaluation criteria for in the home activities
- Distribute a guide to the curriculum
- Provide educational guidance on in the home activities

4- Activate parents' meetings: these meetings could collate views and generate some sort of understanding between parents and teachers, which eventually will lead to the desired cooperation between schools and parents. However, they are largely a formal duty and in reality there is minimal interaction between schools and parents

5- Volunteering: it is crucial for the school director to gain parents' support and attract those with expertise to act as volunteers

6- Decision-making: a school's director should ensure that parents play a role in the decision-making of the school. This could be achieved through engaging parents' representatives in the determination of the school's vision, aims, values and objectives. In addition to engaging them in consultation groups, parents can be co-opted on to decision-making committees.

The findings reveal that only some of these activities occur. The two main methods of communication are parents' meetings and e-forums. However, it is essential to note that many participants from pilot schools identify e-mails and SMS as the basic means for reaching out to parents and, therefore, they were categorized under the mail attribute. To date, limited attention has been paid to other means of external communication such as parents' involvement in decision-making, providing them with school newsletters and guides to the school. The limited usage of the different means of communication that are detailed in the Community Partnership Guide (MOE, 2007a) could be one of the reasons for parents' limited involvement in the education process (Figure 5.1), which will be discussed in a later section.

5.7.2 The Educational Media and Public Relations Unit

The unit's main objective is to support and promote the role of the educational sector in the media and to develop close relations between the educational community with the DoE and the wider public in general (MOE, 2007b). Between 2001 and 2006 the unit conducted its activities according to the old organizational structure (see appendix H). The organisational structure (see appendix I) was reformed by a ministerial decree of 1st March, 2006, number 1/25/24. The latter outlined a new organizational structure, which includes separating public relations from the Media Unit and adding customer services to public relations, to become the Public Relations and Customer Service Unit.

Interviewees from both schools and the MoE believed that the media generally did not contribute directly to educational reform, because their discussion or talk about education is too broad, as it seems to focus on the relation between educational outcomes and the labour market or the poor performance of Saudi students. Therefore, the media did not participate effectively. Most of its interest was criticising the current situation with a lack of discussion of suitable remedies:

The media participated by criticising the reality without offering alternatives (Director TS8).

5.7.3 Marketing

Limited attention has been paid to marketing educational reform to stakeholders. It is important to

note the ambiguity in defining stakeholders (Section 2.10.5). In this study, these may include ministry officials and employees, employees in schools, parents, and any other groups in the community that are affected by the change. Despite the financial resources committed to it (Section 1.5.1), Tatweer has attracted limited media coverage, principally a small number of newspaper articles that covered the main decisions regarding the project. Seminars were held by ministry officials from some departments such as the Department of Public Education Supervision and the Department of Educational Planning and Development to introduce Tatweer to the educational community. Sometimes, brochures were distributed.

It is essential to highlight that the participants' initial responses to the questions regarding marketing their schools was full of astonishment and scepticism as the concept and practice itself has to date been rarely applied. Marketing was regarded by most as very limited. "Word of mouth" seemed to be almost the only marketing channel used by schools. They believed that graduated students were the best way of representing the school and forming its reputation:

The school does not need marketing. The outcomes and product of our work are what markets the school (Deputy TS4).

The school's excellent level and its reputation are doing all the marketing for us (Director TS4).

Furthermore, efforts to market the school came mainly from teachers, who felt obliged to market their school through 'word of mouth'. Various reasons seemed to contribute to the lack of school marketing such as the large number of students enrolled in each school and the lack of financial incentives to attract additional pupils, which consequently impacted on the schools' external relations with the public:

I already have more than 600 students; why should I market? And who is going to fund this process? (Director TS2).

5.7.4 Public Involvement

Schools and the MoE encourage public participation and involvement through periodic meetings, seminars, newsletters, SMS, and school websites. The majority felt that these efforts had been largely unsuccessful in stimulating public involvement:

About 10% of parents respond to us and attend meetings, others do not... even when we try to discuss with them the importance of their involvement (Director, TS1).

We suffer when communicating with them. I have 600 students in my school, and when I hold a parents' meeting only 20 parents show up. We try to call them, but honestly there is no response (Director TS6).

Some school directors argued that the community's limited contribution and involvement in education was a natural response, due to the lack of thorough external communication and transparency, as they believed that the information provided was inadequate and there was a lack of transparency in the outcomes and procedures of any project in general (Figure 5.1). Within the MoE, some claimed that information was not provided to the public due to resistance:

Up to this moment information is not available to the public because of the resistance we are facing internally and might face externally (R7 MoE).

The progression of the project is not communicated publicly until internal resistance forces are diminished (R6 MoE).

As part of the study, it was intended to interview parents to explore the factors leading to their limited involvement. Unfortunately, they were reluctant to participate; therefore, they were omitted from the study. Some directors felt that parents would be unable to attend meetings due to their work, while others simply regarded it as unimportant or were unaware of how their participation would develop the school:

Not everyone [parents] is willing to do so (participate and attend meetings) because they are busy with their own jobs (Deputy TS2).

We try to engage parents in the education process because it is beneficial for the students and us, but unfortunately they do not respond (Director, TS6).

Furthermore, others referred to the general limited role of the Saudi family as embedded in the culture and their belief that their role is restricted to raising their children in the home, while schools are fully responsible for education:

Communication with the public is still "confined" and the role of the Saudi family is still limited in terms of influencing educational development in approving their policies or in choosing teachers and the curriculum (R4 MoE).

Unfortunately, the role of the Saudi family is limited because of the lack of initiatives in involving the family in their children's education. They think that schools are fully responsible for their children's education (R4 MoE).

The Community Partnership Guide (MoE, 2007a) points out the rationale for limited family involvement as follows:

- The low educational level of some families and, thus, low level of educational awareness and the lack of understanding of the importance of engagement in education
- Some families suffer from psychological, social, and economic problems that prevent them from participating
- The negative role of the media, as suggested earlier in Section 5.7.2.
- A perception that education and raising children is solely the responsibility of schools.

On the other hand, private schools had recorded a high level of parents' involvement in education. Parents were invited to attend workshops and introductory meetings about new projects and their ideas and feedback were taken into consideration. The schools provided regular information about goals, procedures, and outcomes:

They are very involved and happy with any kind of progress or development we achieve. Parents these days are willing to pay most of their money for educating their children, and this is right because they are the future of our country, especially with the poor education in public schools (Director PS1).

Some parents say “enough”, as they are being informed comprehensively (Director PS3).

5.8 Conclusion

According to the majority of responses from participants, RTC tends to be a result of poor communication and lack of transparency about the project's operations and outcomes, which could make it difficult for individuals to participate and embrace the change. The main means to reduce RTC is verbal discussion and persuasion.

Internal communication within the MoE was claimed to be effective and constant according to some participants, but others were far more critical. Similarly, some directors of pilot schools indicated that cooperation and good external communication occurred between the ministry and schools. They argued that school visits and supervision were very effective and their operation was always in accordance with MoE policies. However, many expressed their unhappiness with the system and the presence of a huge gap between different departments in the MoE, schools, and the public. Communication was generally regarded as a one-way process from top to bottom, which aroused much frustration. Inadequate communication also tended to diminish employees' motivation, especially with the delays they faced when requesting equipment and needed materials. Inadequate coordination when planning a change initiative stems from three factors: firstly, not giving the government bodies responsible for implementing development projects sufficient opportunities to participate in preparing plans; secondly, incomplete coordination in terms of providing the human and material resources for the bodies responsible for planning, financing and implementation; and,

thirdly, the implementation of the project by each department in isolation from other departments.

External communication with the wider public tended to be limited. Even though the Community Partnership Guide (2007) stated the basic standards for a successful school/family partnership, schools reported few methods of communication with parents, mainly parents' meetings, e-forums, e-mails and SMS messages. Furthermore, marketing schools and educational projects received limited attention from schools and the MoE. Schools depended highly on "word of mouth", while some indicated that the huge number of students in their school and the limited resources and facilities prevented them from trying to recruit more students. This was also due to the limited incentives offered that diminished schools' willingness to recruit pupils and compete with others, which in turn affected the schools' levels of external communications with the public. Many were not motivated to pay more effort to communicate with the public except for the basic parents' meetings regarding their children's progress.

Much of the confusion that lasted between 2007 and 2010 resulted from the MoE failing to adequately communicate the project's goals and objectives to stakeholders. This both reflected and heightened internal and external resistance. Finally, public involvement in the educational process in general is seriously limited. Generally, parents appear reluctant to attend meetings about their children's progress in school and more general discussions about education reform and the curriculum. However, it is essential to highlight that their limited engagement may not reflect an unwillingness to participate per se, but rather reflect the inconvenient time of parents' meetings, which are held during working hours.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The chapter critically examines the findings of chapters four and five in relation to the literature. Particular attention is paid to considering the findings in the light of Elving's (2005) conceptual framework for internal communication during organisational change, as well as Kotter's eight steps for transforming an organisation and leading successful change (Section 2.1).

The implementation of change initiatives in the public educational sector in Saudi Arabia is obstructed by several factors including poor communication. The next section explores the impact of communication on change reflecting Elving's (2005) framework. It further investigates other impediments to the implementation of change in accordance with Kotter's (1995) model for leading change. As discussed earlier, in Section 2.5, Kotter's (1995) model was developed in 1995 and first published in 1996. His model is grounded on empirical evidence, as it successfully considered the building blocks for leading change in organisations. His model focuses on how to prepare for change, promoting acceptance and reducing resistance.

After that, sources of RTC are discussed in line with Del Val and Fuentes's (2003) RTC model. The latter is followed by analysing the approaches employed to control resistance, as advocated by Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) and detailed in Section 2.7.2. The chapter further investigates the impact of stakeholders' involvement in change initiatives, by determining the external communication methods that are applied in the educational system.

6.2 The Management of Organisational Change and Development Projects

Tatweer to date has not met the objectives set for transforming Saudi Arabia's system of state education. It is normal for change in organisations to be faced with obstacles that may hinder successful implementation if not overcome appropriately. Some obstacles will be under the control of those tasked with managing reform (Hoag et al., 2002), but others will be non-controllable. For successful change, Judson (1991) identified three main management skills required: the ability to identify problems and solutions to set objectives for the required change, the ability to plan methods and strategies of implementation effectively, and the ability to acquire the acceptance and support from the people affected by the change through effective communication and implementation. Other

authors offer different models for managing the change (Burke-Litwin, 1992; Lewin, 1947, Judson, 1991; Kotter, 1995), regarding a crucial step being to introduce the rationale for change to develop a coherent vision that is clearly communicated to employees.

According to the conceptual framework introduced by Elving (2005) for internal communication during organisational change (Section 2.8), employees' readiness to change is impacted by uncertainty that in turn is highly influenced by communication. Even though the findings reveal that most employees present a sense of willingness and readiness to change, a state of vagueness and uncertainty as to the path of change and its objectives were reported. This confusion tends to be mainly due to insufficient internal communication within the MoE as an organisation, and their limited external communication with schools and the wider public.

Since the nature of change was not thoroughly communicated, the creation of a community based on trust and commitment, as emphasized by Elving (2005), was not achieved. This led to various negative consequences such as RTC, cynicism, and scepticism.

Difficulties in managing and implementing the project were mainly caused by faults in the communication system. MoE employees and schools experienced one-way top-down communication, hoarding of information, and misinterpretation of information.

Kotter also emphasized the crucial role of communication in managing change. The rest of this section examines the transformation of education in the Kingdom in terms of Kotter's (1995) eight steps for transforming organisations, to explore other impediments to change in addition to communication.

Step One: Establishing a sense of urgency

According to Kotter (1995), about one half of organisations fail to transform due to fatal errors that occur from the very start. Leaders of change should understand that change can be very unsettling for employees. Developing a sense of urgency among managers and employees to reduce complacency is important to guarantee change. When people are convinced of the necessity and urgency of the transformation, they become less defensive and anxious about moving from the current *status quo* (Kotter, 2012).

The analysis of findings has shown that there is a sense of urgency with no one defending the *status quo*. Respondents registered awareness and an urge to change (Section 5.4); nevertheless, scepticism was reported among a number of school respondents since they were not optimistic about

the project's future and doubted its success due to the failure or at best limited success of previous initiatives (Reichers *et al.*, 1997) even though they were eager to change (Section 4.5). State education was widely regarded as poor. However, in response to this, several initiatives were introduced at the same time, which created a sense of confusion among employees, even though they were convinced of the need for change. Thus, Kotter's first step of transformation was in place in Saudi Arabia.

Step Two: Forming a powerful guiding coalition

Leaders should not underestimate the efforts needed for change, especially the demands for implementation (Kotter, 2012). The latter emphasized the importance of forming a powerful group to lead the change. A single manager alone, for instance, would not be able to perform different acts such as creating the vision, communicating it to all the employees, eradicating difficulties encountered, planning short-term wins, managing several initiatives at once, and consolidating the new approaches into the organization's culture.

For Tatweer, establishing a powerful guiding coalition proved problematic. The hierarchical system of governance led to knowledge and power being centralised with limited involvement of schools and parents in guiding the reforms (Section 5.4.3). In addition, delays in responding to applications, transactions, and complaints emerged due to bureaucratic procedures resulting from the monopoly of centralised power in the MoE. Time and effort were often wasted when employees, specifically in schools, prepared unnecessary and sometimes duplicated documents that obstructed the management of change (Al Qahtani, 2013) and impacted on transparency and accountability levels (Section 4.4.3). In addition, such centralisation and bureaucratic procedure, where any change and decisions cannot be applied without the approval of leaders, implies that having the appropriate and qualified leaders is crucial for the reform to succeed. While the government has indicated a desire to decentralise decision-making, this has not occurred in practice. Rather instructions to schools are passed down in hierarchal manner, with the original intentions often lost in the process.

The project was introduced to schools through a series of workshops that documented the main elements of the change. Nevertheless, many of their questions were not answered, as some of the representatives of the project were not fully aware of the vision, plans, and strategies the project requires. This led to a state of confusion and uncertainty among teachers and school heads, who often viewed the people responsible for change as weak and lacking the skills needed to achieve the change (Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2). Consequently, this generated a degree of cynicism, especially among PS directors who were certain that such an initiative would not generate any change or improvement in the public system (Section 4.6), and scepticism at public school level about the project's future

(Section 4.5). The MoE underestimated the importance of establishing a powerful guiding coalition, and indeed did not establish one. This was linked to a mixture of factors: an impatience to implement reforms, unwillingness to deviate from a hierarchical, top-down mode of governance, and a fear that coalition building might degenerate into the assembling of a united group resistant to change.

Step Three: Creating a vision

The third step of leading change is developing the change vision, as Kotter (2012) highlighted –to shed light on how the future of the organization will be different from the past. Once the vision is established, it is the leaders’ role to support it with appropriate strategies that show stakeholders that the change is feasible and the future vision can be achieved.

Hoag *et al.*’s (2002) study of the obstacles to successful organizational change revealed that when there is no vision for the future of the organization, leaders are regarded as poor, lacking clear goals and strategic plans. Hoag *et al.* (2002) emphasized how staff expect managers to create a clear vision for the future, communicate it comprehensively to them, and provide the support needed in order for them to work towards the given goals. In Kotter’s (1995) model, a guiding coalition should be formed to create the vision, whereas in the case of Tatweer the vision was created before any form of coalition was formed.

The vision of King Abdullah’s Project is “to contribute effectively in increasing the competitiveness of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and build a knowledge society that contributes to the country’s civilisation, well-being, growth and prosperity” (Tatweer, 2012). Varying responses were reported from the MoE and schools’ employees when asked about the project’s vision. Many school directors identified their yearly objectives as the vision, while others had to check the project’s booklet to explain the vision. On the other hand, the vision was clearly identified by most MoE officials. Inconsistencies in explaining the vision could arise from ineffective communication, which is discussed in the next subsection.

Step Four: Communicating the vision

In order for people to “buy into” a change, the vision and strategies for change should be communicated effectively to all stakeholders. Organisational transformation often fails due to weak communication (Kotter, 2012). The findings for Tatweer reveal that communication both within the MoE and between school and the MoE overall was poor. The accumulation of power was by key actors in the MoE, who controlled the flow of information, and thus limited effective communication.

The unequal distribution of knowledge resulted in unclear objectives and most actors only possessing vague notions of the project's vision.

Kotter (2012) emphasized the importance of communication in the implementation of development projects. As discussed in chapters five and six, for Tatweer this proved problematic as a culture of secrecy prevailed. For instance, when the researcher was referred to the project's main webpage for all the information about the project's execution, limited information was available, and that which did consist of the project's components with brief descriptions, newspaper articles concerning the project and educational development, and an employee forum for complaints and concerns which could only be accessed by MoE employees and the schools that were associated with implementing the project. Some school directors expressed their confusion about the process of change, and they were unsure as to its direction due to lack of vision, unclear objectives, lack of strategic plans, and poor communication.

Kotter (2012) explains how communicating the vision should be presented in "hour-by-hour activities" and not just through a memo or speeches from the executive team, as this is insufficient. However, the latter has been the case with Tatweer. Employees and middle managers received information through a one-way communication process, and consequently they communicated it to schools in the same manner. The inadequate distribution of knowledge reflected a 'monopoly approach' whereby a select few, designated officials were allowed to hold the knowledge and not disseminate it equally among other employees. As in previous research, blockages in the communication system in public administration are a serious issue that result in goal ambiguity and negatively affect employees' motivation (Kitchen and Daly, 2002; Pandey and Garnett, 2006).

Communication within a single department in the ministry can be effective, and yet a "fault" exists in communication between different departments, making each department function autonomously with limited information about the activities of others, which limits departments' collaboration within a single organisation, as discussed by Al Qahtani (2013). For instance, an official from the Educational Supervision Department explained her unfamiliarity with the role of the Internal Communication Department even though both departments exist in the same building (Section 5.5). With this fault and very limited transparency, a state of uncertainty and confusion occurred with no clear path and direction as to where the project was heading, and what was to be achieved. No evaluation studies have been published. Communication with schools seemed to be no better than between departments within the MoE. Negative attitudes toward MoE communication with schools were reported, as documented in Section 5.6. The absence of transparency in information and the

top-down one-way communication they received resulted in the development of a state of ambiguity and opacity, and consequently to RTC. Limited communication, failing to consider other parties' views, concerns, and requests made school employees' jobs difficult due to their obligation to execute a project without support and a strategic plan for implementation. While employees of the MoE and schools believed that change was needed, mostly they did not 'buy into' this change process.

Step Five: Empowering others to act on the vision

With every change barriers arise that reduce the chances of successful transformation. These barriers could be structural or managerial according to Kotter (2012), and it is the leaders' and managers' duty to eliminate these blocks. Important barriers identified in previous research include employees being disempowered by the organizational structure and culture (Kotter, 2012). This could be due to an employee's preference to serve only their personal interests. Hoag *et al.* (2002) illustrates this in his study of how staff viewed the internal system of an organisation as an obstacle to change. This internal system included inadequate incentives and a system of bureaucratic and slow decision-making.

The analysis revealed (Section 4.4.3) that increased centralization in decision-making in the educational sector in the Kingdom slows the progress of the reform in general and the project in particular, due to the complex, bureaucratic procedures in addition to the low levels of accountability and transparency. It also restricts public participation in education (UNESCO, 2006) (Section 2.9.2). Moreover, an MoE official argued how, given the long chain of command in the organizational structure, decisions taken at the top are highly distorted by the time they reach schools. Respondents highlighted that direct penalties for inadequate management, for instance, are discouraged as this could interfere with officials and employees' personal lives. Interviews highlighted that when personal and professional lives overlap, a manager would not take direct action against an employee with whom he or she is friendly and/or related. Personal connections insulate some employees from criticism or effective scrutiny of their activities. Social and cultural constraints are impediments to organisational development as they weaken it, impact on the implementation of modern plans and strategies, and promote unethical practices such as favouritism (Al Qahtani, 2013). Favouritism was viewed as a practice used by some MoE officials in the distribution of information regarding the project, as many exercise the power of monopoly by disseminating information to elite groups (Section 4.2), and also provide training to selected officials as gifts, especially when workshops take place abroad (Section 4.4.1).

Moreover, the organizational structure also played a role in weakening the implementation of Tatweer, whereby managers valued the retention of knowledge or only very selected dissemination.

With access to information very unequal, a lack of consensus regarding goals was inevitable. Furthermore, the length and lack of clarity of the procedures followed to complete transactions is a serious issue in detecting management faults. Due to the lack of comprehensively explained steps and procedures, employees would complete transactions according to their own judgements, resulting in different procedural measures because of the multiplicity of assumptions.

Step Six: Planning for, and creating, short-term wins

Transformation and organizational change often require a long time for the outcomes to be visible, especially within the educational sector. For a change initiative to not lose its momentum, Kotter (2012) proposed this step. He suggested that normally employees expect to see successful evidence of the change within six to eighteen months; otherwise, they become resistant and give up on an initiative. Therefore, Kotter (2012) emphasized the importance of planning and developing short-term wins by establishing yearly objectives, for instance, and celebrating and rewarding employees who participated in these achievements to gain their commitment and motivation to continue with the change process, and reduce their resistance. It is essential that these rewards are clear and associated with achievement to convey to employees that their sacrifices and hard work are recognised.

However, employees of MoE and schools are faced with many obstacles and challenges such as boredom, the relative attractiveness of early retirement, and resistance to change, mainly due to a lack of incentives.

Schools and teachers did not gain short-term wins from Tatweer, as the implementation was delayed and there was a gap between rhetoric and reality. Incentives to create short-term wins were absent (see Table 4.1). Financial incentives were lacking, and even the reimbursement of out of pocket travel expenses to attend training events proved problematic. The limited reinforcement and motivation provided for employees heightened a sense of disappointment and resistance.

Step Seven: Consolidating improvements and producing still more change

According to Kotter (1995, 2012), many organisations fail to transform when managers declare ‘success’ prematurely, before the new approaches and practices are embedded within an organisation’s culture. Rather, improvements must be consolidated and built on.

In the case of Tatweer, even if an organisation (schools, MoE) recruited new employees, the majority of staff predated the initiative and were used to certain methods and management styles. Tatweer did not change organisational culture. The project was launched in 2007 and the pilot

implementation was scheduled to be concluded within six years to make sure all elements were carefully refined before rolling out the project to other state schools. However, interviews conducted five years after the start of the project revealed that few elements had been implemented and a senior official believed that the project was still “in its infancy” (Section 4.2). Furthermore, the implementation of the project at the start focused on school buildings and construction, often in rather a superficial manner, with learning and training educational cadres receiving little attention, apart from some rather patchy employees’ training (Section 4.4.1). The case of Tatweer reveals that officials’ focus on the reform was centred on “engineering” (MENA Development Report, 2008) at first, which created a fault in implementation as limited efforts at the time were paid towards professional development and training. Insufficient training for schools was also a dilemma for directors and teachers. Training was not provided before the implementation of the project but instead this happened during it. This action led to schools implementing a project without knowing what or how to do so due to their lack of skills and knowledge, and also generated frustration regarding the heavy workload, as training coincided with implementation at the same time. Unfortunately, it was too complicated to provide the researcher with documents regarding employee workshops and training, and since the researcher was unable to obtain these materials, it is difficult to confirm respondents’ comments about the limited training without documentary evidence, even though a large number of respondents agreed to this fact.

Some schools’ resistance to attending workshops and training, especially teachers, is reported in the data analysis. This was mainly due to two reasons: first, while accepting the importance of change, some teachers and school directors believed it did not apply to them either because they saw no point in changing given imminent retirement or because it was easier to work with the old system. Second, teachers were unwilling to attend training events during working hours outside the school premises as they had teaching commitments without sufficient cover. Training and adequately preparing employees for change is vital for the application of Kotter’s final step in institutionalising the new approaches to become part of the organisational culture.

Step Eight: Institutionalizing new approaches

The final step of Kotter’s (2012) organizational transformation is for the new practices and approaches to be strongly embedded in the culture of the organisation. Cultural change is an essential final step, with acceptance that new working practices are superior to the old system of work. In achieving this, it is essential for leaders and managers to show employees how their behaviours and attitudes are connected to the improvements achieved (Kotter, 2012).

However, most of the time employees were left to make these connections by themselves, even if these connections were erroneous and misinformed. Even with the efforts to change and reform education, some school respondents made it clear that they had seen no evident positive results from Tatweer. However, others were satisfied with their own school's achievement, noting that any positive outcomes came from the school staff's hard work rather than the MoE.

The Kingdom's educational system still lacks communication between schools, as there is no school-to-school learning. Communication and learning between schools could have assisted with exchanging knowledge and learning lessons of best practice in implementation. Each state school has a relationship with the ministry, with inadequate information from the MoE, with parents in turn having a very limited relationship with schools.

Kotter (2012) stresses that when new initiatives are implemented in a rapid manner, it does not necessarily mean that they will succeed. Not implementing any of the eight steps can result in serious consequences such as obstructing the implementation of new strategies, creating unnecessary stress for employees, and causing organizational failure.

6.2.1 Going Beyond Kotter's (1995) Model

The above section highlights that the implementation of Tatweer was rarely in accordance with Kotter's (1995) model for leading change and discusses some of the reasons for this. Nevertheless, content analysis revealed that other factors, not included in Kotter's model, should be considered for successfully managing change in educational organisations. One of the key issues to managing change is managing financial resources. Even though resources for the change were present in the case of Tatweer (the budget for the programme totalled \$3.1 billion), one of the major impediments was its inappropriate allocation, which is not highlighted in Kotter's (1995) model. The project was designed to achieve success in four elements (Section 1.5.1), and yet its resources were mainly allocated to improving school buildings and the amount assigned to teacher retraining was relatively small. This caused delays in successful implementation with some teachers having undergone training and others not, with the latter often lacking the skills required to apply the new strategies and methods. This course was later shifted, as explained by an MoE official. On the other hand, even with the project's initial focus on improving buildings and resources, many school respondents complained of the inappropriateness of their schools' buildings and their lack of resources and educational equipment (Section 4.4.6). Accordingly, change programmes in organisations should consider resource allocation carefully to make sure that it is assigned appropriately.

Kotter's (1995) model of transforming an organization is an internal model that deals with a single organization. However, educational reform normally involves several initiatives and different actors within and beyond a single organisation, in this case the MoE, schools, THC, families, and the community in general. Moreover, in Saudi Arabia several change initiatives are being implemented, which is normally the case in any educational system. Therefore, it is crucial to discover procedures and techniques to prioritise and ensure that they fit together in a coherent manner.

6.3 Resistance to Change (RTC)

RTC was reported by various respondents due to differing reasons that affected the implementation of the project. Resistant groups included MoE officials, teachers and school directors, and some parents. Unfortunately, being unable to interview parents directly meant that the reasons for their resistance could not be explored in greater depth. Conservative groups within the MoE and in the wider society, and other unidentified sources that were described as having a powerful influence in the community, were also identified as forces that resist change.

The sources of resistance are grouped according to Del Val and Fuentes' (2003) study, which originated from Rumelt's (1995) categorisation of RTC and inertia sources. The matrix-coding query presented in Table 5.1 reveals that resistance occurred across all five groups identified by Del Val and Fuentes (2003). The first three groups were problematic in the formulation stage, and the last two groups emerged in the implementation stage, as suggested by Del Val and Fuentes (2003). The groups are further discussed in the subsections below.

6.3.1 The Formulation Stage

The first group involves those who misperceive change, which may cause their interpretation of change and strategic priorities to become vague. The findings show that poor communication was reported as a significant barrier and one of the leading causes of RTC (Table 5.1). Limited communication and employees not being able to express their opinions, since communication was only a one-way process, resulted in the project's vague vision and aims, and misinterpretation. This group included both MoE and school respondents.

The second group involves limited motivation towards the change. This was present among some school participants due to past failures and limited initial successes that made them doubt the future of the project. Moreover, different school employees reported different interests. Those who valued change tended to be satisfied about the achievements and changes they made in their schools, while others argued that no progress had been made due to a lack of assistance from the MoE, which prompted their early retirement. Frustration with a heavy workload was also reported by some school

participants, who viewed change as the responsibility of the MoE, and they resisted making any extra effort to embrace the change. This impedes educational reform, as reported by Bashshur (2005) in Section 2.10.

The third group refers to blocks that limit employees' creativeness to apply appropriate strategies for change. This was mainly due to a lack of detailed plans and a strategic approach for Tatweer. School respondents reported frustration with the lack of effective implementation strategies, which resulted in some directors, deputy directors, and teachers applying for early retirement due to the lack of incentives. Their frustration tended to cascade to fellow teachers in a particular school. The lack of a clear strategic plan for implementation suggests that it might be that its design was neglected, as in the case of many Arab governments (Abi-Mershad, 2010; Bashshur, 2005) (Section 2.10), or an implementation plan was designed, but not communicated to all involved in the change.

6.3.2 The Implementation Stage

The fourth group reflects political and/or cultural barriers to change. Organisational culture was an element in generating resistance, whereby employees, for instance, resisted attending training workshops and no sanctions could be taken against them. Some MoE officials and school directors reported that the culture is one of the causes of resistance (Table 5.1).

The fifth group includes miscellaneous factors. Findings show that internal resistance within the MoE existed from some people in powerful positions, due to their lack of confidence and fear of losing power and influence. As a result, they tended to obstruct the implementation process. Certain MoE and school employees were used to the existing routine and old system and were unwilling to change, so they resisted attending training workshops. Moreover, there was a capability gap, whereby personnel were not equipped with the necessary skills for implementation, which further reinforced RTC (Table 5.1). Finally, interviewees revealed a high degree of cynicism and lack of confidence in Tatweer due to previous change attempts either being brought to a halt or resulting in limited outcomes. Scepticism was also reported among various respondents from the MoE and schools, but while they were eager for a positive change, they doubted the success of the project because of the way it was managed.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that resistance and inertia exist beyond the boundaries of the MoE and schools. Parents and some groups within the community (such as conservatives) exhibited resistance. This conservative resistance was soon diminished when they realized that the project's elements did not contradict with religious aspects. Parental inertia, on the other hand,

remains a dilemma and, unfortunately, the rationale behind their action is not clear as interviewing them in this study was not possible.

6.4 Managing Resistance to Change

Minimising resistance is crucial for implementing change projects (Section 2.7.1). Therefore, middle managers in the MoE and some directors of schools tried to reduce the resistance they faced through various methods that are explained below in alignment with Kotter and Schlesinger's (2008) approaches to controlling resistance.

6.4.1 Education and Communication

Even though this approach is widely advocated to control resistance, as discussed by Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), in the case of Tatweer its use was limited. The latter authors argued how initiators of change should involve those who are resistant in discussions and presentations, and yet the findings show that meetings were held infrequently or not at all between school directors and teachers to listen and discuss their concerns and persuade them to participate. Inadequate communication was reported to be one of the main cause inhibiting implementation and increasing RTC in this study (Tables 4.1 and 5.1).

6.4.2 Participation and Involvement

Another approach to controlling resistance is the involvement of those who are resistant in some aspects of the change initiative and its implementation, to increase their commitment. Nevertheless, participation was limited to training workshops and presentations from the MoE and schools, to generate awareness of the importance of the project. Some directors of schools reported that their school was selected as a pilot institution even without consultation. Involvement in decision-making and aspects of the project's implementation tended to be limited and resulted in RTC.

6.4.3 Facilitation and Support

Supporting employees involved in the process of change is another way to overcome resistance whereby managers provide training for staff to equip them with new skills, giving them a time to adjust, and/or providing them with emotional support. These skills are essential for employees to reduce their anxious feelings and fear about the change and this could be achieved through training and also persuasion and rewards, as suggested by Judson (1991). It is a positive approach to use with employees when incentives are offered either financially or non-financially such as training. School directors were reported as being emotionally supportive to teachers by holding regular discussions with them and listening to their concerns and complaints even when the solutions were not under their control. Moreover, some directors managed to send teachers to other schools for training.

6.4.4 Negotiation and Agreement

Even though this approach can be costly, it can avoid resistance from groups who are powerful in the change process and will lose out in any reforms. This strategy is used when the resisting group, such as the teachers and directors in this study, are influential and able to halt the implementation of the project. Managers in this instance would negotiate with them in order to implement the proposed change. However, it is also believed that providing incentives and sanctions can be of great help in controlling this phenomenon. This approach was not used even when some employees applied for early retirement. Mild and infrequent persuasion was the only method used by some MoE managers and school directors to convince other employees and teachers of the importance of the project.

6.4.5 Manipulation and Co-optation

Co-optation is a common form of manipulation in which a manager would involve resistant individuals in the implementation of the change. This is often superficial, involvement is not a form of participation; rather, it is a method used when a manager is not interested in advice or support. This method was not used to control resistance despite the fact that it could control it in the short-term, and could cause future problems with employees when they feel that they are manipulated.

6.4.6 Explicit and Implicit Coercion

This approach is mainly used when the implementation of change has to be quick and the initiators are powerful. Coercion can be used when employees continue to be resistant, and yet the use of this strategy should be limited as it can sour employees' future commitment and morale. It can also generate widespread feelings of fury against managers, which is what happened when some schools were forced to implement the project and when they were forced to apply new rules sent by circular.

6.5 External Communication

As previously mentioned in Section (2.8), external communication cannot be viewed as a separate field, rather external and internal communication should be conceptualised as integrated as the boundaries of an organisation tend to be blurry (Cheney & Christensen, 2001).

Elements of external communication do exist in the educational system; nevertheless, they have not been appropriately utilised. Generally, public schools in Saudi Arabia tend to operate within a "closed system" in which they set boundaries against the external environment and resist any penetration (Section 2.8). However, as education is slowly changing and the role of the community and stakeholders are beginning to be considered as essential in the reform of education, a more "open system" is required whereby interaction and effective communication with the environment is crucial (Bush, 1999). It has been argued in section 5.6 that the limited level of communication and

transparency tends to be one of the reasons behind parents' lack of participation. However, MoE officials claim that their withholding of information is due to resistance from within the organisation and from the public.

Moreover, marketing communications to recruit pupils seem to be absent in the MoE and state schools. The term "marketing" itself, when the interviewer posed the question regarding respondents' engagement in marketing, was encountered with astonishment and most doubted that marketing was conducted in any form (Section 5.7.3).

Most state schools reported that they did not market their school to recruit students due to the large number of students already enrolled and the limited resources and financial incentives available. Many viewed marketing as counterproductive as it would make their jobs more difficult. On the other hand, a few expressed that word of mouth was the medium they used to market their school, mainly because they wanted to create a positive image and reputation for it.

Regarding the MoE's external communication with schools, it was reported that their communication is almost exclusively with schools' directors. Schools' external communication with parents seems to be problematic. Despite teachers' acknowledgement of the importance of building relationships with parents, they complained about how a lack of clarity in the project's vision and plans resulted in them not being able to clarify issues related to the project simply because they did not know what was happening (Section 4.5). Public relations seemed to be the main means of external communication used by the MoE. Nevertheless, it was reported that the media unit of the MoE did not contribute directly to educational reform, and generally what was published or reported was related to broad educational issues and decisions (Section 5.7.2).

External communication with stakeholders received poor attention. Not only is the concept itself poorly understood, minimal media coverage was generated despite the financial resources available for Tatweer being substantial. For schools, marketing was never viewed as a means to communicate or to "sell" what they do. They mainly depend on reputation management the "word of mouth" of graduated students or their parents. It is important to note that schools and MoE participants' main reaction to the concept of marketing itself was sceptical; it felt like an alien concept to them as they related the concept to goods marketing and not relationship building. Moreover, private school participants pointed out how competition with public schools is minimal because of the latter's perceived poor educational standards and the inability of public school teachers to fulfil what is expected by their counterparts in private schools. The study was conducted in schools within major cities in the Kingdom and it revealed that competition between private and public and even

between state schools themselves was minimal, as many directors did not want to recruit more pupils and therefore external communication practices were limited due to a lack of incentives (Section 4.6).

Partnership building is present in the educational system. The Community Partnership Guide provided by the MoE to schools (see Section 5.7.1) outlines certain standards and means of communication in order for schools to develop home-school relationships. Analysis indicates that the MoE's standards for building a school/family partnership includes regular communication via different means, supporting families to become active in their children's learning, regular meetings between teachers and parents, schools' benefiting from parents' expertise and skills, and involving parents in some decision-making. Nevertheless, interviews with schools revealed that external communication with families was limited to irregular parents' meetings, SMS, and sometimes e-forums. Such limited involvement in the decision-making process resulted in parents not participating in school activities that would benefit the change process. Directors explained the need for parents' involvement in assisting their children, assessing their progress, and providing feedback on different educational aspects. Despite the importance of parents' involvement to increase the effectiveness of reforms and facilitate a child's learning, schools attempts at involving parents did not result in their participation and, therefore, became one of the obstacles to the project meeting its objectives.

Even though interviewing parents was envisaged to be part of the study, to understand the reasons for their limited involvement, they were, unfortunately, reluctant to participate. However, according to the Community Partnership Guide (2007), such involvement is limited due to the low educational attainment level of some families and the negative perception in the media that education is the sole responsibility of schools. Overcoming this is likely to be a long-term challenge, although schools in certain cases may have overstated parents' unwillingness to participate to justify their own lack of flexibility (such as the timing of parents' meetings).

In conclusion, external communication have received limited attention in the public education system in the Kingdom, because of the nature of the environment, where there is little or no competition because institutions. The involvement of parents, the community and partnership development are crucial, as Guhn (2009) emphasized in Section 2.10.

6.6 Conclusion

Several impediments affected the implementation of Tatweer. The most prominent obstacles were the length and complexity of procedures, lack of work procedures and modern technology, inappropriate work environment and building facilities, poor coordination between related departments and the administration units within them, undefined objectives, an inadequate communication system,

overlapping functions of the administration units and poor coordination between them, and the limited application of external communication. Readiness and urgency to change was not enough without the proper and thorough communication. Insufficient communication developed a vague and uncertain state amongst employees, and therefore, according to Elving's (2005) conceptual framework, a community based on trust was not developed. Consequently, this confusion led to RTC and difficulties in implementing change.

Considering the experiences of Tatweer against Kotter's (1995) model for transforming organisations reveals that many of his steps were not applied in this case study. A sense of urgency was developed and employees understood the need for change, and yet a powerful guiding coalition was not formed. Moreover, a vision was created but was inadequately communicated and was not formed with the active involvement with those tasked with implementing the reforms. Other obstacles, such as a hierarchical decision making structure in which information is hoarded, were not transcended as some key MoE officials feared losing power. A lack of incentives and short-term wins resulted in boredom, early retirement, and RTC. Limited training and development for existing employees and the lack of communication and learning between schools also hindered successful implementation of Tatweer. However, the examination of Tatweer also highlights gaps in the model of Kotter (1995). For instance, he did not consider the allocation of resources and assumes decision-making within a single organisation. Educational reform, however, normally includes several change initiatives and different actors that should work in a coherent manner to achieve a project's vision.

It has been revealed that the lack of training and incentives and an information deficiency were the main common causes of RTC amongst MoE and school employees. Nevertheless, when training was offered, some teachers refused to participate either because they were used to the old system of work and were unwilling to change, or due to training sessions taking place during school working hours and outside the school premises, which made it difficult for teachers to leave the classroom due to inadequate cover. RTC also existed beyond the institution's boundaries, as some parents and community groups also resisted the change. The study findings show that persuasion and regular meetings and talking about the change were the main means used to reduce RTC. However, other strategies to reduce RTC were not pursued. Some of the elements of external communication were present in the state educational system, and yet they were employed only to a very limited extent. Marketing was limited. The main medium employed for marketing schools was "word of mouth", and mostly it was not used to recruit new students due to high existing enrolments and the limited resources and space available. As a result, external communication was limited and schools were not interested in competing for pupils' enrolment. Partnerships between schools and parents were very

limited, as families tended to be unresponsive and reluctant to participate due to several issues related to the working lives, cultural norms, the media, and the actions of the schools.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This study aimed to identify the factors that inhibited the implementation of organisational change in the public education sector. It draws on the case of the Tatweer ‘King Abdullah for educational development project’. It also sought to identify sources of RTC encountered in the project and the methods employed to minimise such force. It further explores stakeholders’ engagement in the change process of Tatweer and the roles of internal and external communication in successful management of change. Furthermore, it proposes recommendations for the better management and communication of future public organisational change initiatives. The thesis commenced with an overview of the research background, followed by general information on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, its administration, economy, and educational system. After that, a review of the relevant literature was presented. A case study based research design was employed for the conduct of the research. The findings were analysed and discussed according to different models, including Elving’s (2005) conceptual framework for internal communication during organisational change, Kotter’s (1995) model for managing change in organisations, Del Val and Fuentes’s (2003) model of RTC, Kotter and Schlesinger’s (2008) approaches to managing RTC; it also reviewed the work of Welch and Jackson’s (2007) internal communication matrix and Cheney and Christensen (2001) on external communication. Implications are drawn for both change leaders in the Saudi Arabian public system and academic researchers.

This chapter includes a brief summary of the research and its main conclusions according to the research questions, followed by its contribution to the literature and its implications for practitioners. The study’s limitations and recommendations for further research are then presented.

7.2 Research Summary

Change in an organisation’s policies, procedures, structure, and technology, and in an individual’s behaviour, are crucial for successful adaptation to environmental change. However, managing this change can be complex and overwhelming due to several factors. Organisations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are faced with ongoing pressures in order to adapt to a knowledge-based economy, thus strengthening the country’s economy and competitiveness by developing better qualified workers as presented in the country’s Ninth Development Plan (2010-2014). The educational system in Saudi Arabia is one critical element of the public sector that must adapt if the Kingdom is to prepare its citizens better to compete in a globalised economy.

Various reform initiatives were implemented to develop the educational system. The latest and most comprehensive attempt to reform education is the King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project, which is also known as Tatweer. Implementing comprehensive change in the MoE and educational institutions resulted in several factors that hamper the successful implementation of this change and, as a result, the project's outcomes are limited to date. Possible factors were identified before the commencement of the study to include the Saudi management system that could not be commensurate with the requirements of organisational change and development projects, and the resistant and disrupted forces that originate internally and externally. The study sought to understand the obstacles that are chronically inhibiting organisational change in the Saudi Arabian education system, using Tatweer as a case study from its commencement in 2007 till early 2013. As part of this, the study sought to explore the role of internal communication and external communication in managing change, and to propose recommendations for the effective management of organizational change in Saudi Arabia. Specifically, the six research objectives were:

- 1- To investigate the reasons for the limited success of organisational change initiatives in the Saudi Arabian education system, using Tatweer as a case study.
- 2- To identify sources of resistance of change within and without the education system encountered in the Tatweer project.
- 3- To explore the strategies used to control and minimise resistance.
- 4- To gain a better understanding of stakeholders' engagement in the change process in the case of Tatweer.
- 5- To study the role of external and internal communication in managing educational reform in Saudi Arabia.
- 6- To propose recommendations for the effective management of organisational change in Saudi Arabia's public educational system.

Following the setting up of the research objectives and questions, the research design was formulated to be both descriptive and analytical in nature. It adopted a qualitative case study approach to explore in-depth information about the organisational context of the MoE and their management of change and reform taking into consideration hidden factors that were only identified by participants when interviewed directly, to gain insights on unanticipated forces that weaken effective implementation, to identify RTC forces and the techniques used to manage it, and to investigate the internal and external communication procedures adopted in the educational sector.

Data collection was a combination of in-depth interviews, focus groups, and documentary evidence to maximise validity and minimise the risk of missing data in the analysis. Data were collected in three stages. The first round of interviews took place in summer 2011 to include face-to-face and telephone interviews with MoE officials from the Department of Educational Supervision and the Department of Planning and Development. Due to the fact that the summer holiday was taking place for schools during the first phase, the second round of interviews occurred in December 2011 to include pilot schools and additional MoE officials. Focus groups were mainly used with teachers to encourage them to share their thoughts as a result of their interaction and to save time, as some were reluctant to participate at first due to work. Even though interviews and focus groups generated rich data about the nature of change and the factors hindering successful implementation, a third stage of data collection occurred in summer 2012 and January 2013 to include interviews and documentary evidence. This was crucial to understanding the nature of internal and external communication processes and to identifying sources of resistance to change in greater depth. The analysis of the data collected utilised NVivo10 software to facilitate its management, coding, linking data, developing content analysis, annotating, and creating matrices to synthesize ideas and generate new understandings to answer the research question.

Research findings revealed that although the project commenced in 2007, its outcomes to date have been limited. Initial implementation was limited, despite substantial resources being available. To deal with this, the government established a company called the Tatweer Education Holding Company (THC), which is owned by the government with the aim of quickly implementing Tatweer, out of the reach of government bureaucracies, especially the MoE.

Moreover, it has been brought to light that both organisation and social factors have hindered educational reform in the Kingdom. Establishing what precisely has occurred has not been easy – there are inconsistencies in interviewee’s statements regarding whether the project was implemented as soon as it was announced or it was delayed. The administration changed in the MoE, a new minister was appointed, after the project was launched. During the process of organisational change, there was no shared vision and collaboration was not encouraged. Another issue that was raised is that some officials may accumulate power by controlling the flow of information. Many MoE employees may not be fully aware of the project and knew about it by chance. Any information related to the project always seemed vague, internal communication was very limited if not absent, and training and workshops were limited to an elected group of employees. In addition, some officials who were responsible for improvements misunderstood the system and lacked the skills needed.

Nevertheless, even though interviewees recognised the need for change, the management of this change was inadequate as many obstacles and forces faced its successful implementation and this resulted in limited outcomes and resistance to change. In accordance with Elving's (2005) conceptual framework of internal communication during organisational change, employees' readiness to change is not very high due to the state of uncertainty and vagueness of the nature of change. Insufficient communication is a main contributor to the development of this state, and the limited information provided also generated resistance. Furthermore, in light with Kotter's (1995) model for transforming organisations, interviewees revealed that a sense of urgency for change was present but this was not effectively utilised. A powerful guiding coalition was not formed; schools were left wondering what the project required and how it would be implemented. Their questions largely went unanswered. The vision of the project was clearly formed and yet minimal efforts were paid in communicating the vision that resulted in a state of vagueness. The flow of information was highly controlled, which led to its unequal distribution among employees. The latter was perceived as a management technique, whereby information is provided to a restricted group of personally favoured officials. Faults in communication decreased employees' motivation. Further barriers were discovered such as lack of incentives and short-term wins, the overly bureaucratic system of the MoE, centralisation, and limited accountability and transparency levels. These barriers were identified by MoE and schools employees, and it is the leaders' duty to eliminate them and empower employees to act on the vision. Insufficient training was also reported to be one of the factors leading to the project's limited outcomes. Moreover, Tatweer did not instil a new organisational culture within the MoE or pilot schools. RTC was reported by interviewees, incorporating internal resistance within the MoE, and resistance from schools, particularly teachers, parents, and the community especially conservatives. This was a consequence of different factors such as poor communication, unclear objectives, the failure of preceding projects, limited progress, a lack of strategic plans of implementation, a lack of incentives, insufficient training, the organisational culture, a lack of confidence, fear of losing power, a capability gap, and inertia.

Approaches to managing resistance were employed yet some were not utilised appropriately. In alignment with Kotter and Schlesinger's (2008) model for managing RTC, education and communication were reported to be limited and a major factor inhibiting implementation (Table 5.1) and engendering resistance (Table 6.1). Participation was limited to training workshops, and involvement in decision-making in some of the project's aspects was poor. Moreover, facilitation and support for resisting groups to minimise their anxious feelings was rarely used, such as in the case of some school directors who provided emotional support for teachers through regular discussions

regarding their complaints and concerns. Offering financial or non-financial incentives could be beneficial. However, this was limited to appreciation certificates and sometimes reimbursement of training expenses, which was reported by some schools as problematic. Manipulation and co-optation were not used, but coercion took place when schools were forced to implement the project and new procedures that were distributed via circulars.

Given the essential role of the community and stakeholders in the reform of education, the Saudi Arabian education system is starting to shift from its “closed system” to operate in an “open system” manner; however, its management of external communication needs to be enhanced, especially as a reason for parents’ limited participation was reported to be insufficient communication.

Marketing as a mean of external communication was minimal as public schools revealed their limited activity in marketing their school to recruit new students due to the high existing number of students and minimal resources to reward recruitment of additional pupils. Moreover, the establishment of long-term networks and interactions with stakeholders were also problematic both in general and for Tatweer specifically. With the unclear vision and plans of the project, clarifying several issues related to the project to parents was problematic. The primary methods of external communication employed in the education sector in the Kingdom are: parents’ meetings, emails, and newsletters. Nevertheless, the usage of some methods is limited and sometimes they do not seem to be utilised appropriately. This consequently made developing long-term networks with stakeholders problematic and resulted in their limited involvement. The media unit of the MoE did not contribute directly to educational reform and its role was restricted to publishing rather broad statements about educational decisions and issues. Despite the substantial resources allocated for the project, minimal attention was paid to external communication and media coverage. It was revealed by some MoE officials that this was due to a lack of transparency since they suggested that information was not provided to the public because of their expected resistance to change and, therefore, secrecy of information was better.

As part of the MoE objectives, establishing partnerships with parents and their involvement in education was important to increase the effectiveness of reforms and facilitate student learning. The Community Partnership Guide (2007) outlines different means for developing such relations; however, the analysis shows that external communication was limited to regular meetings that most parents would not attend, SMS, and sometimes e-forums. Competition was reported to be negligible between public schools and between the latter and private schools. However, competition between private schools was evident as they strove to improve their quality and performance to attract more

pupils. On the other hand, public schools did not compete with each other or with private schools. Even though the allocated budget for the school was dependent upon the number of students, the growing number of students in the Kingdom and the reportedly limited resources and professional development hindered schools' urge to attract more students, and consequently no effort tended to be made concerning external communication, Tatweer has not changed this.

7.3 Research Conclusions

Conclusions are presented relating to each of the research objectives:

- 1- To investigate the reasons for the limited success of organisational change initiatives in the Saudi Arabian education system, using Tatweer as a case study.*

The limited success of the project is attributed to several factors that were revealed in the analysis of data. Insufficient training and lack of incentives were the main obstacles identified followed by a focus on building facilities but inadequacies in basic school equipment persisting, the organisational structure and culture. Even though a sense of urgency and an eagerness to change was evident, this alone was insufficient. A powerful guiding coalition was not formed and led to the generation of confusion and uncertainty among personnel, who viewed the people responsible for change as weak, which consequently led to resistance. Another obstacle encountered was weak communication. Overall communication within the educational system is insufficient and limited. The vision of the project was unclear to many participants who reported widely different notions of the project's vision and objectives. Training was problematic and failed to adequately support organisational change. Training was offered during the implementation phase and not before that, which overloaded employees with work and frustration, and in addition training was viewed as insufficient and limited, while others resisted attending workshops and training given their imminent retirement, being used to the old system, and/or inadequate cover for their teaching commitments. The findings indicated inappropriate resource allocation (superficial improvements to buildings rather than training educational cadres at the outset of the project's implementation).

- 2- To identify sources of resistance to change within and without the education system encountered in the Tatweer project.*

Many of the previously mentioned factors impeding change, resulted in resistance to change from different groups for different reasons. Poor communication was one of the leading causes of RTC, in addition to insufficient training and limited incentives. The management culture was also viewed as a cause of RTC, allowing employees to resist engagement with direct sanction. Furthermore, some

power figures were also resistors and obstructed implementation due to a lack of confidence in the initiative and fear of losing power. Cynicism was also reported in the findings due to previous failed initiatives that resulted in doubt even though an eagerness for change existed. It was also indicated that resistance occurred among some groups within the community, such as conservatives, whose resistance was soon diminished. Nevertheless, inertia and limited involvement of parents persisted. A huge divide between the 'closed system' of schools and homes also remains.

3- To explore the strategies used to control and minimise resistance.

Few methods were used to minimise resistant forces. Yet, the adoption of such methods was limited. Despite the fact that the communication and education approach is strongly considered a central technique to control resistance, it was limited in this case study to infrequent meetings and insufficient information provided. Participation and involvement was also restricted to few workshops. Moreover, emotional support was adopted by some directors through frequent meetings to address concerns and find solutions that were manageable by them. Mild persuasion tends to be used to convince influential groups, such as teachers, of the importance of the project and their crucial role to assist in the achievement of the project's goals. Finally, force and coercion was sometimes used specifically when employees continue to resist change.

4- To gain a better understanding of stakeholders' engagement in the change process in the case of Tatweer.

Stakeholders' involvement and engagement in education in general is minimal. Parents' limited involvement and participation in education and their inertia was indicated as a dilemma for educators who are in need of their support and engagement to increase the effectiveness of reform and students' learning.

It was indicated that parents' limited involvement was due to limited communication and low transparency levels. This issue is further addressed in the next research objective.

5- To study the role of external and internal communication in managing educational reform in Saudi Arabia

Faults in the communication system within the MoE exist between different departments and sometimes within a single department, in addition to the gap in communication with schools. Communication was highly selective as knowledge was regarded as a source of power. Several consequences resulted from weak communication, such as confusion, low transparency, and RTC, as

blockages in communication meant that a collation in favour of Tatweer was never established. The findings indicate that two-way communication is necessary for reducing employee resistance, and generating their support to change.

The hoarding of information by certain MoE actors (a ‘monopoly approach’) increased secrecy and consequently decreased transparency. Moreover, communication was reported as a one-way, top-down approach that affected employees’ motivation negatively. Other barriers related to the organisational structure and management were presented with little action taken to overcome them. Furthermore, limited reinforcement and short-term wins impacted negatively on the process and resulted in boredom, meaning that many school staff wanted to take early retirement and/or directly resisted the implementation of Tatweer.

Reducing the divide between educational institutions and the external environment through external relations is one of the objectives the educational system is trying to achieve in order to operate in a more “open system”. However, the main means used for external communication is marketing at school level, as a personal effort, through word of mouth. At MoE level, the Media Unit only communicated broad statements and acted in a rather reactive and defensive manner. Moreover, partnerships with parents were generally weak or absent, and competition was negligible in the public education system.

6- To propose recommendations for the effective management of organisational change in Saudi Arabia’s public educational system.

Achieving effective management of change initiatives within the public sector of the Kingdom is crucial. Since poor communication was one of the major problems impeding the implementation of Tatweer, a number of recommendations are proposed. First, efforts should be directed towards bridging the gap in communication and information flow between MoE officials and employees within a single department, with different departments, and between MoE, schools and stakeholders. Second, communication should be a two-way process, in which MoE managers listen to what employees and schools have to offer. Third, transparency should be increased within the MoE and with all stakeholders involved in the change, minimising the “monopoly approach” used to control the flow of information. Fourth, education and communication should be employed as a tool to control RTC.

Further recommendations regarding the management of organisational change should be considered. Sufficient training should be provided to all personnel involved in the project prior to and during its implementation. A powerful guiding coalition has to be formed to promote employees’

belief in the change and to reduce their resistance and cynicism. A clear vision and strategic plans should be continuously communicated. Moreover, it was proposed that follow-up visits from MoE supervisors to schools should be carried out more often (Section 5.6) to monitor progress and report difficulties to provide solutions. Faster and less bureaucratic procedures are crucial to process employees and schools' requests to facilitate the process of change. Furthermore, resistance, boredom, and the early retirement of many employees could be minimised by offering incentives and short-term wins. The role of internal controllers in government organisations should be promoted to raise accountability and transparency, and to ensure that financial resources are efficiently allocated to improve all components of the change initiative. The launch of several educational programmes to be implemented at the same time was reported as an impediment to the project (Section 4.5). The desire of educational leaders to improve the system quickly should be controlled, and they should accept that the process of achieving sustained educational reform takes time (Fullan, 2007) and concentrate on the most important elements first.

A significant recommendation to be considered is the establishment of an “open system” of decision-making and accountability to promote collaborative work between policy makers, MoE and school employees in the design and implementation of the project. This would involve forming an educational board for teachers, constant evaluation, and conducting research prior to change to gain a thorough knowledge of the changes needed from the perspective of schools.

The utilisation of better external communication is crucial for the educational sector of Saudi Arabia. This could result in maximising stakeholders' engagement and collaboration, generating competition between public and private sector education, reducing the rigid bureaucratic management to respond to any needs and difficulties that emerge during the implementation phase, which consequently might improve the quality and achievements of change projects. Active engagement of all stakeholders is crucial through the establishment of communication and collaborative mechanisms, which intend to reduce bureaucracies and rigidity to respond effectively to emerging obstacles and demands in the implementation phase. Effective communication strategies should be utilized as part of the education system to improve transparency and engagement of stakeholders providing the latter with sufficient information regarding reform goals, plans, expenditures, and outcomes.

Furthermore, establishing parallel organisations, such as the THC, or an oversight body, such as the Public Education Evaluation Commission, on one hand is a way of bypassing bottlenecks within the MoE. On the other hand, officials of such organisations tend to have cosy relationships with MoE officials, with a limited degree of accountability and high value secrecy. Therefore, such

organisations might not be able to solve such impediments to change, as long as these relationships and low accountability and transparency persist.

Finally, leaders of change in Arab countries should accept the fact that sustainable change and improvement is a process which requires a long time and, therefore, their desire for rapid reform in education should be controlled (Wilson and Davis, 1994; Fullan, 2007). They should manage the number of change initiatives introduced in the system in a manner that makes education professionals and schools able to implement each element and programme efficiently.

7.4 Academic Contribution

The study offers several contributions to the literature. As a start, the study is, as far as the author is aware, the first of its type for the Middle East in general and Saudi Arabia in particular. Even though a considerable amount of literature on educational reform exists, it largely focuses on North America and Europe. Emergent economies, and Saudi Arabia's in particular, are under tremendous pressure to reform their systems of public sector in an environment of strong internal and external RTC. The study contributes by identifying the factors governing implementation and acceptance of change initiatives, especially in the case of Saudi Arabia where financial resources are available, and yet initiatives tend to fail which clearly indicates faults in implementation. There are certain characteristics in terms of Saudi culture and also the structure of its economy, which make it similar to other Middle Eastern societies, and therefore has wider relevance.

The second contribution of the study relates to the organisational change literature. This study contributes to the studies of organisational change management by refining Kotter's (1995) framework for transforming organisations and including two more steps to be considered. In addition to the issues discussed by Kotter, improper resource allocation was revealed to be one of the main impediments to successful implementation of the initiative despite its availability. Furthermore, the model focuses on internal relations for organisational change rather than external communication. Reform in education typically involves managing several initiatives and handling different actors at the same time. These initiatives should operate together in a coherent manner.

The limited debate on how external communication can be used to best manage change initiatives, and how education organisations and institutions employ both internal and external communication to promote change is limited. The implementation of change initiatives will be limited if they fail to receive acceptance and engagement of personnel and wider stakeholders. External communication has not been widely regarded as a means for reducing RTC, but appears to be essential in countries such as Saudi Arabia where the persistence of a 'closed system of education' inhibits

reform of educational practices. Qualitative research in this domain generated an in-depth understanding of RTC from the participants' own perspective. It developed additional insights into factors provoking resistance, and drew a clear picture of the crucial role of communication and incentives reducing RTC and inertia and to promote outreach and engagement. Understanding educational reform as part of knowledge-based development initiatives and the crucial role of communication and engagement is also presented as a key practice for successful change in the public sector.

7.5 Implications of the Study for Practitioners

The study provides several implications that can be of benefit to practitioners in public sector education in particular, and public sector organisations in general, who are implementing change initiatives. Emerging economies normally lack financial resources, which are a barrier to change; so that most common solution is seen to be to increase resources devoted to the problem. In Saudi Arabia of the education budget is sizeable but outcomes are disappointing. Therefore, the study generates a comprehensive understanding of other faults in change implementation for public education practitioners.

The findings revealed that the communication system within an organisation and with external stakeholders plays a key role in the effective implementation of development projects. Leaders of change should focus on communication and reduce the secrecy of information to improve transparency. Further efforts should be paid to ongoing communication to all stakeholders and individuals affected by the change.

Greater competition between schools in the recruitment of pupils would lead to more responsive schools. This would entail fostering external communication and could generate more involvement and engagement of parents. For this to work, funding should be linked to school enrolments, with adequate incentives to enrol additional students.

Regarding the future implementation of change initiatives, educational leaders and managers should provide a comprehensive plan for strategic implementation that draws the path towards achieving the vision. While the need for reform is widely recognised, several barriers persist and these should be carefully considered, particularly providing sufficient training, incentives, delegation of authority, and overcoming bureaucracies.

Education in Saudi Arabia is different from that in North America or Europe. Therefore, the implementation of reform initiatives will differ. It has been emphasized that reform in the Arab world

cannot be based purely on importing Western practices into its systems and recognise schools' cultural contexts and problems (Mazawi, 2010; Karami-Akkary, 2014). The organisational culture in the public sector of Saudi Arabia is complex, and burdensome. Administrative reform is required to reduce the overlap between social and cultural obligations and management tasks.

7.6 Research Limitations

As in any other research, several limitations are presented in this study. The main obstacles were encountered during the data collection process due to various factors.

Firstly, some desired interviewees were unwilling to participate in the study, principally teachers. Some did not have the time during working hours to be interviewed and were reluctant to take time out of their personal lives to participate, while others commented that nothing would change even if studies were conducted and felt that their participation would be a waste of time.

Secondly, responses from some participants were incomplete. For teachers this was because they were busy and wanted to finish the interview quickly. Interviews with those in authority in the MoE in some cases generated very cautious responses. Some provided diplomatic answers, while others did not agree to be interviewed in the first place. Moreover, it was difficult to obtain required documentary evidence, particularly regarding resource allocation, due to confidentiality.

Thirdly, requests to conduct interviews with employees and officials from the Tatweer Holding Company (THC) were rejected, on the grounds of secrecy of information. Therefore, it was difficult to understand the role of the company and how it operates alongside the MoE for the project's implementation. The study's scope was limited thus to identifying barriers to change from the perspective of the MoE and schools only.

Finally, it would have been beneficial to the study if it could have involved interviews with parents to understand their limited involvement and views of the project. However, parents were difficult to reach and were not interviewed directly. The only way to contact parents was through schools (gatekeepers) and since parental involvement in education is typically limited and schools did not want to distribute personal information, this was not pursued.

7.7 Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is recommended in the following areas. A comparative analysis with reforms in other Arab countries, such as Gillies's (2010) study of educational reform in Egypt towards decentralisation, school-based management, and community involvement, revealed that their success was mainly limited to the formulation stage. Implementation requires further support and attempts to

reform Egypt's educational system remain in their "early stages" (Gillies, 2010, p.4). Some problems common to Tatweer are evident and it would be beneficial to investigate the relationship between Arab cultures and the management of reform initiatives, because despite the differences in the countries' politics, administration and economies, general management characteristics appear to overpower their public administration (Jreisat, 2009). At present, there seem to be few 'success stories' of educational reform in Arab societies and where identified these should be studied to learn wider lessons and consider their suitability for replication and upscaling.

With the limited participation of parents in the study, as mentioned in the previous section, it would be beneficial to engage with parents and understand their views regarding involvement and change, and how their involvement in education can be improved. It would be interesting to evaluate any pilot projects that seek to foster improved school – community relationships.

The study could further be extended to study some private sector organisations within Saudi Arabia to look at how cultural issues that may conflict with management are overcome, to investigate lessons that could be learned from them.

Additional research could also be beneficial to understand the organisational culture of Saudi organisations, in order to generate approaches to minimise the overlap of social obligations and interests and the professional duties of employees.

7.9 Conclusion

This study identified barriers that have hindered the successful implementation of development initiatives in public sector education in Saudi Arabia. This chapter presented the main conclusions of the study, its contribution to the wider literature, and its implications for practitioners. The latter sections were followed by a discussion of the study's limitations, suggestions for better management of reform in the public sector of Saudi Arabia, and recommendations for future research. The study provides the basis for understanding factors that promote organisational change in the public sector, in addition to understanding the nature of internal and external communication and their role in the success of development initiatives.

Appendices

Appendix A: Question Guide for Ministry of Education Interviewees (Phase One)

- 1- Being part of the Saudi Arabian public education system, what are the strongest and weakest points in the educational system in different areas such as the structure/ quality of personnel/ regulations/ equipment?
- 2- Can you give an example of a reform initiative in public education and whether it succeeded or failed?
- 3- In your own view, what are the key components of the Saudi Arabian public education system?
- 4- What is the King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project: “Tatweer”?
- 5- Are teachers provided with sufficient training? How are they evaluated? What are the results?
- 6- What elements of the project are implemented in schools?
- 7- Has the management system in the ministry improved after Tatweer? How?
- 8- Does internal communication occur regularly within educational reform initiatives?
- 9- Are developments related to the department tracked and documented? If so, who does this? Can you offer some examples?
- 10- Do the people responsible for making improvements know enough to manage the process properly? Do they have the skills needed?
- 11- Have you faced any kind of resistance (socially, managerially, economically, etc.) since the creation of Tatweer project?
- 12- Was there a marketing plan prior to the implementation of the project Tatweer? How and why?
- 13- Do you think that local research should have preceded Tatweer (or other similar projects)? If so, what studies have been done to justify the need for changing the educational system in Saudi Arabia?
- 14- Would you like to add any additional observations or recommendations about public education in Saudi Arabia?

Appendix B: Interview Guide for Ministry of Education Officials (Phase Two)

- 1- What is the King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz Project for public education reform?
- 2- What is the timeline for the implementation of Tatweer?
- 3- Did the project affect or change your job role?
- 4- Are there any tools used to motivate employees/teachers during the change process?
- 5- What are your department's primary objectives for this year?
- 6- How are decisions made in your department? (Formal, informal, policies...)
- 7- Generally, what are the main sources of problems at work:
 - Lack of clear data
 - Misunderstanding of mission objectives/ plans
 - Unclear communication
 - Organisational structure
 - Others
- 8- What forms of communication (to ensure accountability and transparency) exist between the ministry, schools, and the public?
- 9- Is it one-way communication from the ministry to schools?
- 10- Does internal communication occur regularly during the process of management improvement?
- 11- Does communication occur regularly between employees in your department?
- 12- Can you describe any formal and informal communication in which you receive and send information?
- 13- What are the strengths and weaknesses of the communication processes in the organisation?
- 14- What are your suggestions to overcome these weaknesses?
- 15- In your opinion, what are the obstacles hindering effective communication?
- 16- Are developments related to your department tracked and documented? If so, who does it? And how often?
- 17- Do you encourage public participation in the process of change? Why?
- 18- Have you faced any kind of resistance (socially, managerially, economically, etc...) since the start of Tatweer? If yes, why do you think that happen?
- 19- What communication strategies, if any, are you using to overcome resistance to change?
- 20- Did a marketing plan exist prior to Tatweer project?
- 21- Is innovation encouraged in your department? Are achievements rewarded?

- 22- How often is, and what is the quality of, employee training and development conducted, including management training?
- 23- Do people responsible for making improvements know enough to manage the process properly? Do they have the skills needed?
- 24- Are there any organizational/ employee or Saudi characteristics that have coloured the implementation of Tatweer?
- 25- Do you think that local research should have preceded Tatweer (or other similar projects)? If so, what studies should have been done to justify the need for change?
- 26- Would you like to add any additional views, observations or recommendations about the development of public education in Saudi Arabia?

Appendix C: Question Guide for Pilot Schools (Phase Two)

1. What do you understand by the King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project “Tatweer”?
2. What is your school involvement with Tatweer?
3. Why is your school involved? If none, why did the school not get involved?
4. Why was your school chosen? What was communicated to you about Tatweer? And how was it communicated?
5. What is the timeline for the implementation of Tatweer?
6. What is the school’s primary objective for this year?
7. How will Tatweer affect or change your job role?
8. Are there any tools used to improve teachers’ motivation during the change process?
9. How often is, and what is the quality of, employee training and development conducted, including management training?
10. What forms of internal communication (to ensure accountability and transparency) exist between the ministry and your school?
11. Does internal communication in the school occur regularly during the process of management improvement?
12. How often do you communicate about Tatweer within your school?
13. Are developments related to your school tracked and documented? If so, who does it? And how often?
14. How often do you communicate with parents/ public about Tatweer? Why?
15. Do you encourage their participation in the process of change? Why?
16. Have you faced any kind of resistance (socially, managerially, economically, etc.) since the start of Tatweer? If yes, why do you think that happen?
17. What communication strategies are you using to overcome resistance to change?
18. What kind of communication is necessary for you to have within your school and with the ministry?
19. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the communication process between your school and the ministry?
20. What could be done to improve the weaknesses?
21. How do you market your school? What marketing channels do you use?
22. If applicable, why are you marketing your school?
23. What information do you provide to the public when marketing your school?

24. Is innovation encouraged in your school?
25. What kind of appraisal system exists in your school?
26. Are your achievements (teachers/head teachers) rewarded? If so, how?
27. Do people responsible for making improvements know enough about their jobs? Do they have the skills needed?
28. In your opinion, what should be the characteristics of leaders who will effectively oversee the design and implementation of change programmes in general, and Tatweer in specific?
29. In your opinion, are there any employee or Saudi characteristics that affect the change process? If so, what are they? And why?
30. Do you think that local research should have preceded Tatweer (or other similar projects)? If so, what studies should have been undertaken to justify the need for change?
31. Would you like to add any additional views, observations or recommendations about the public education in Saudi Arabia?

Appendix D: Interview Guide for Pilot Schools (Phase Three)

- 1- Since the commencement of the Tatweer project, has the school faced any resistance from a religious point of view?
- 2- Does the existence of private schools force public schools to improve the quality of their education and generate competition?
- 3- Does the school budget depend on the number of students enrolled? If so, are any measures used to recruit more students?
- 4- What degree of authority does the school have over its own budget?
- 5- Why is parents' involvement and participation in Tatweer or other educational matters limited?
- 6- What methods, if any, are used to improve involvement?
- 7- What guidance is given to schools for external communication? What materials on external communication are provided?
- 8- What forms of relationship marketing, if any, does the school apply?
- 9- Why is the application of relationship marketing and external communication limited?
- 10- What are the expectations of the school to maintain external communication?

Appendix E: Interview Guide for Private Schools (Phase Three)

- 1- What do you know about the King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Public Education Development Project?
- 2- Does competition exist between private and public schools?
- 3- To what extent has Tatweer increased competition?
- 4- Does communication and shared expertise occur between your school and other local schools?
- 5- Do you receive financial support/incentives from the government?
- 6- Have you faced resistance regarding development projects implemented in your school? If so, how?
- 7- What methods does the school use to reduce resistance?
- 8- How involved are parents and the community in the education process in your school?
- 9- Do you market the school? If so, what channels of communication are used? If not, why?
- 10- Did the school asked the MoE for Tatweer to be implemented?

Appendix F: List of Interviews with MoE Participants

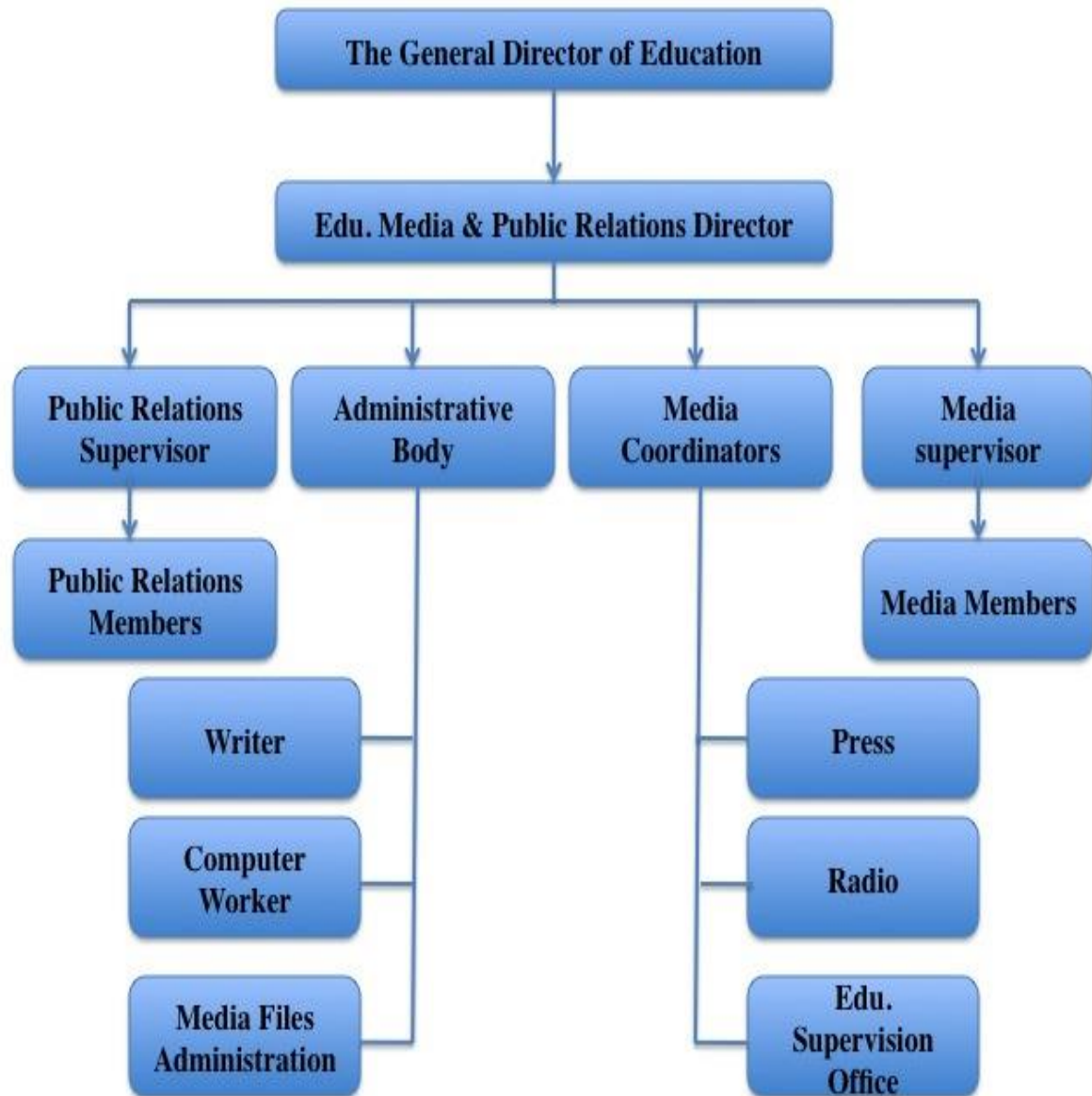
Stages of Data Collection	Respondents	Gender	Department
Phase One: Summer 2011	R1	Female	Department of Educational Supervision
	R2	Male	
	R3	Male	
	R4	Female	
	R5	Female	Educational Development and Planning Advisor
Phase Two: December 2011	R6	Male	Department of Educational Planning and Development
	R7	Female	
	R8	Female	
	R9	Female	
	R10	Male	
	R11	Female	
	R12	Female	
	R13	Female	
Phase Three: Summer 2012	R14	Female	Internal Communication Department
	R15	Female	
	R16	Female	
	R17	Female	
	R18	Male	Educational Media Unit
	R19	Male	

Appendix G: List of Interview with Schools' Participants

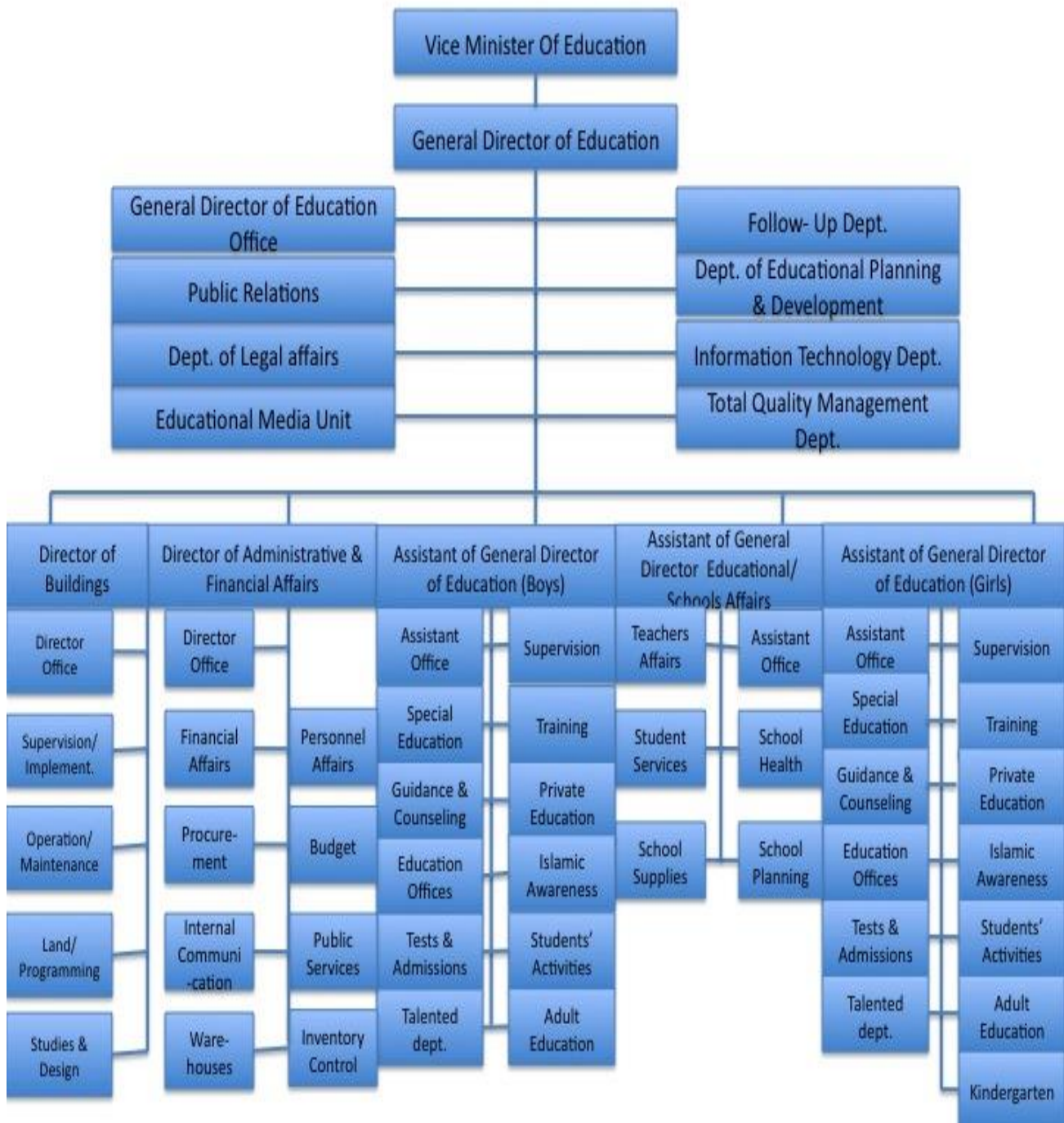
Stages of Data Collection	Type of School (TS: Tatweer School, PS: Private School)	Position	Number of Respondents
Phase Two: December 2011	TS1	Director	1
		Deputy	1
		Teachers (A-G)	7
	TS2	Director	1
		Deputy	1
		Teachers (A-G)	7
	TS3	Director	1
		Deputy	1
		Teachers (A-E)	5
	TS4	Director	1
		Teachers (A-E)	5
	TS5	Director	1
		Teachers (A-E)	5
	TS6	Director	1
		Teachers (A-G)	7
	TS7	Director	1
		Teachers (A-F)	6
	TS8	Director	1
		Teachers (A-G)	7
	TS9	Director	1
Teachers (A-F)		6	
TS10	Director	1	
	Teachers (A-G)	7	

	TS11	Director	1
		Teachers (A-E)	5
	TS12	Director	1
		Teachers (A-G)	7
Phase Three: Summer 2012	PS1	Director	1
	PS2	Director	1
	PS3	Director	1
	PS4	Director	1
	PS5	Director	1
Stages of Data Collection	Type of School (TS: Tatweer School, PS: Private School)	Position	Number of Respondents
Phase Three: Summer 2012	PS6	Director	1
	PS7	Director	1
	PS8	Director	1
	TS1	Director	1
	TS3	Director	1
	TS4	Director	1

Appendix H: The Organisational Structure of Educational Media and Public Relations in the Ministry of Education Since 2001



Appendix I: The Organisational Structure of the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia



Appendix J: Informed Consent Form



I hereby _____ read and understood the information provided about the research. I have been given the opportunity to ask further questions about the study and my participation.

I voluntarily agree to participate in the study, and I am aware that I can withdraw from the study at any time.

The researcher fully explained the procedures regarding the confidentiality of information and anonymity, and I understand them.

Audio recording of the interviews is proposed and I understand my right in accepting or refusing the usage of a tape-recorder.

I agree for my interview to be audio recorded

I do not agree to audio record my interview

I, along with the researcher, agree to sign and date this informed consent form.

Name of participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

Name of researcher: _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

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