CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews what has been done previously by the researchers on the relationships of management and decision making styles with academic staff job satisfaction. It introduces and provides examples of a range of techniques and methods that can be used to analyze ideas, find relationships between different thoughts and understand the nature and use of argument in research (Hart, 1998). Besides, it presents the findings of the studies conducted on management styles in the educational sector, about the nature of decisions at Malaysian public universities and the repercussions of management and decision-making styles on academic staff job satisfaction in the working environment. The theoretical framework of this study is derived from the different theories and literature on (a) Management Styles such as Likert’s Management Styles Theory: (b) Decision-making: Rowe Mason Inventory Theory(c) Job Satisfaction: Herzberg’s Theory as well as and the report from the survey.

Management

Literally, management refers to the process of coordinating and integrating the various activities of work to be completed effectively and efficiently through others (Robbin, 1999). To be a manager is not an easy task. In a management position, managers undertake and engage in certain basic activities. These activities and responsibilities are often lumped conceptual stage and call management functions. These functions of
managers are: planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling (Rue and Byars, 2000).

From the educational point of view, the practice of management education today has changed compared to previous practices. Today, the practice of educational management has changed and brought new practices in response to historical conditions and theoretical developments. Education has reached a degree of a great rapidness and development of educational management and characterized by the application of theory to explain and predict phenomena in the field of education (and Ornsten Lunenburg, 1990).

**Management Styles**

Management style is defined generally as a method of leadership used by a manager (Mittler, 2002). In another definition, managerial style has been defined as the ability to use relevant knowledge and methods of working and dealing with people. Besides, it includes an understanding of general principles of “human behaviour” particularly those that involve an innovative skill approach to leadership with the usage of this understanding in day-to-day interaction with others in the work position (Fenwick & Murlis, 1994).

Management style is defined as a habitual set of characteristics that are connected with the decisional process of the firm or individual managers (Tull & Albaum, 1971; Albaum et al., 1995). In another definition which is very similar, Abramson et al. (1993) have defined as cognitive styles; “consistent modes of thought that introduce systematic preferences for particular kinds of information that are applied in problem-solving.
In addition, a manager’s style or behaviour is determined by the situation including the needs and personalities of his or her employees, and by the culture of the organization. Organizational restructuring and the accompanying cultural change has caused management styles to step in and go out of trend, moving away from an authoritarian style of management in which control is a key concept, to one that favours teamwork and empowerment. Therefore, there is one more thing that the managers and principals should attach to their behaviour which is respect, honesty, and freedom of expression whereby the staff can criticize the principal’s decision and consistency (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

**Management Styles Theories:**

**Likert’s 4 System**

Management has many different approaches within the organization. In connection with the past, especially during the 1970s, a subject of "Administrative Management" appeared with an article entitled "Understanding the Natural Born Leader That is you." This particular article discusses a lot of historical management literature and tried to reveal the origins of various philosophies of management style. With the trends, many researchers have defined and explored organizational theory as Frederick Taylor, of course, that was the first theorist of the management of large and their styles. His work established the basic disciplines in the field and the position of industrial engineering. Douglas McGregor has a great name in the history of management thought as a remarkable result of his so-called X-Y Theory.
Moreover, the "System 4" theory of leadership styles came into being and became popular, following the writings of Rensis Likert. Besides, Likert has conducted extensive research on human behavior in organizations, especially in the situation of the sector. It has also examined the different types of organizations and leadership styles, and states that to achieve maximum profitability, labor relations and high productivity larger, each organization must adapt to the use of human resources. Furthermore, in the 1960s, Likert developed 4-management systems that describe the relationship, participation and roles between management and subordinates in the industrial sector. These four systems have varied widely Likert type of management style and Likert identified as follows:

**Exploitive - Authoritative System:**

This system is where decisions are imposed and mandated on subordinates. The followers are instructed to follow the rules and regulation by force. It is where motivation is characterized by threats, where high levels of management have big responsibilities but lower (subordinates) levels have virtually none, where there is a scarcity of communication and teamwork.

**Benevolent - Authoritative System:**

This system is where leadership is perceived as a reliable master-slave, where the motivation is mainly for awards, where managerial personnel feel responsibility but lower (subordinates) levels do not, where there is scarcity of communication and teamwork.
Consultative System:

This system is where leadership is based on superiority which has substantial but does not have complete confidence in subordinates, where motivation is based on rewards and some involvement, where a high proportion of personnel, especially those at the higher levels, feel responsibility for accomplishing organization goals, where there is some communication and perceived both vertically and horizontally and a moderate amount of teamwork.

Participative - Group System:

It is the optimum solution, where leadership is by superiors who have complete confidence and trust in their subordinates, where motivation is by economic rewards based on goals which have been set in participation and involvement, where personnel at all levels feel real responsibility for the organizational goals, where there is much communication, and a considerable amount of cooperative teamwork.

This fourth system (participative) is considered as an ideal for the profit-oriented and human-concerned organization and Likert believed that all organizations should adopt this system. It is clear that, the changes involved may be painful and long-winded, but it is necessary if one is to achieve the maximum rewards for the organization in the end. Looking into the effectiveness of management styles, the management styles have been lately in a doubtful situation whereby people believe that there is no universally effective management style. In this situation, Likert and his colleagues had prescribed what organizations should strive to be on the basis of the theory of participative management
which is the most productive in any culture and organization rather than authoritarian management (Likert & Likert, 1976).

At present, one theory is that management styles reflect cultural differences and more importantly a style that is compatible with the culture in which it operates. Research indicates that despite differences in management systems in different cultures, when management practices in the work unit are congruent and matching with the national culture, productivity remains the same and performance is higher (e.g. Morris & Pavett, 1992; Newman & Nollen, 1996). These studies added to the support those that have found home cultures to have a significant and predictable effect on the decision-making styles of managers.

**Douglas McGregor's Theory X-Y**

Regarding Theory X-Y, Douglas presumes that people are lazy, unwilling to work, and it is the sole responsibility of the manager to force or pressurize them to work. McGregor’s Theory X makes three basic assumptions: (1) The average human being hates work and will do anything to avoid it; (2) most people must be forced, controlled, directed, and threatened or punished to work towards achieving the organizational objectives; and (3) the average man likes to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has moderately little ambition, and security over the workplace ambition. According to this theory, the responsibility to show initiative and motivation lies with the employee and failure to perform his or her duties. Employees are extrinsically motivated by rewards such as money, promotions, and tenure.
According to Douglas, a successful management styles involve building teams, networks of relationships, and developing and motivating others. There is a greater emphasis on participative management styles and people management skills. Management theorists have frequently found evidence and facts to support the advantages of management styles such as participative management; Theory Y versus Theory X; Theory Z; Total Quality Management (TQM); Management by Walking Around; Management by Objectives; and employee empowerment.

In connection with the Theory Y, it suggests employees would behave differently if treated differently by managers. Besides, it assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. These are all assumptions of Theory Y; (1) the average human does not hate work and it is considered as natural; (2) people will exercise self-direction and self-control in order to achieve objectives; (3) rewards of satisfaction and self-actualization are achieved from effort put forth to achieve organizational objectives; (4) the average human being not only accepts or believes but limit liability and seeks responsibility; (5) human beings are creative, innovative and imaginative in solving organizational problems; and (6) the intellectual potential of the average human is only partially realized and seen. With these facts, if productivity is low and employees are not motivated, then it is considered failure on the manager’s part not from the employee.

**Participative Management according to Theory X-Y**

According to McGregor's Theory Y and X (1960), participative management involves sharing information with employees or workers and their participation in decision making. Employees are encouraged and empowered to manage their own services and make decisions on policies and processes. It has often been promoted as the quick cure and
a solution for poor morale and low productivity. It is not, however, appropriate in every organization and at every level. For employees to be involved in decision-making, they must have the skills and abilities to participate. They must have the technical background, communication skills, and intelligence to make decisions and communicate those decisions effectively. The organization’s culture must be considered as supportive to employees’ involvement and the issues in which employees get involved must be relevant to them.

Representative allows the participation of workers to be represented by a small group that actually participate. The objective of representative participation is to redistribute power within the organization. In this situation, employees’ interests become as important as those interests of management and stockholders. In contrast to participatory management, representative participation could be a bad option to improve performance or morale. Evidence suggests that the overall influence of representative participation is small whereby the employees involved in representing personnel receive more benefit than those who they represent.

Furthermore, participative management is perceived as just one aspect of shared leadership, and the idea of involving academic staff in school-level decision-making is known by many names. Because of the similarities among different conceptions of academic staff participation, this review includes, as correct, related work in the areas of academic staff leadership, academic staff empowerment, and shared governance (Duke, 2005). Moreover, more than a few scholars have studied academic staff empowerment and motivation (e.g., Kahrs, 1996; Marks & Louis, 1997; Reitsug, 1994; Rice & Schneider, 1994), a concept or impression that is related to academic staff involvement in decision-making.
Additionally, participative decision-making is a system or structure in which academic staff empowerment represents an internal perception by academic staff of having increased authority in their positions and jobs. In Rinehart and Short’s (1998) definition, “Primarily, empowerment has been defined as a process whereby school participants develop the competence to take charge of their own growth and resolve their own problems (Short, 1994, p.635). An additional concept, participative decision-making is somehow perceived as academic staff leadership; which characterizes academic staff participation in decision-making as part of a broader leadership role both within and outside of the classroom.

The unique work done by Crowther et al. (2002), Duke (1994), Leithwood and Jantsi (1999; 2000), Silva (2000), and Smylie and Denny (1990), among others, is that their work describes in detail an image of academic staff leadership as full participation by academic staff in developing a shared vision, planning and implementing instructional improvements, working; engaging with the community, and participating in professional development in job-embedded, collegial ways, in relation to participation in decision-making (Duke, 2005).

Participative decision-making is similarly considered as shared governance in terms of understanding and work. It has been used as a new term by Blase and Blase (1999; 2000) in their work with schools in the League of Professional Schools, a network of schools associated with the University of Georgia. Literally, shared governance or power refers to principals sharing their governing roles with teaching staff; teaching staff participate, in
various ways and to varying extents, in making decisions in schools that were usually made by the principal (Duke, 2005). In fact, this theory shows the completion and existence of confidence and trust between superiors and subordinates and a good relationship between both counterparts.

With the implementation of such decision-making style in the industrial sector, employees are free to discuss their work and ideas are welcome. Therefore, there is plenty of communication and cooperation within the team. Response information is used for the resolution of problems whereby the people that participated will be committed to implementing the change and rewards are made on the basis of participation and the achievement of agreed targets. Unfortunately, participative decision-making or participative management only gained momentum a few years ago, although this concept has been around for a long time. The theme of participative decision-making was formalized and popularized by behavioural scientists such as Blake and Mouton. The central idea of this theory is that, empowered employees will feel better about their jobs and will enhance their productivity (Randal J.E, 1997).

A survey study of Weiss (1993), examining some of the consequences of staff participation at six schools that had adopted participatory administrative structures and high schools using traditional administrative structures of Harvard University, shows that their involvement in decision-making improves school performance. Many studies regarding participative decision-making have been conducted over more than 40 years, nonetheless, a critical question was asked as to how academic staff/administrators engage effectively in the decision-making process. Besides, a replicated study in the 1980s shows that the level
of academic staff/administrator involvement in the decision-making process, their interest and desire in the process is high and their job satisfaction in the working place with participative decisions is undisputed.

In participative management, the optimum use of employees’ expertise is important in increasing the productivity of the organization. In all aspects, participative decision-making or management has been considered as rewards in the decision-making process because people obtain more power, knowledge and information that they expect more rewards, especially when they feel that their involvement has contributed to the effectiveness of the organization they belong to (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992). Using a proper appraisal and rewards, the management can boost the morale of the employees or workers, thus, leading to greater employee commitment and increased performance and motivation.

In any participative management programme, it has been generally said that the greater the commitment of the employees, the higher the success of this programme will be (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992). The participative decision-making model or approach centres its attention on employees’ involvement in the decision-making process, which has lately become a widely discussed issue in the field of administration and management.

The root of a participative management programmes in any organization is to involve the members of the organization in the decision-making process. In this sense, every member of the organization is participating in the decision-making, taking a part in helping the whole organization in achieving its goals and objectives. Furthermore, an
organization has the greatest chance of being successful when all of the employees or staff’s work towards achieving its goals. In the situation whereby the leaders are democratic leaders with the sense of involving staff in the decision and activities, there is big possibility of the leaders achieving their aims.

In addition, participative organization employees are involved in decisions when they are given a chance to participate by the top employers, and an organization which is based on the consent of those being organized is perceived as a participative organization. Thus, people accept responsibility for work to be done and carried out effectively. People accept that it is their job in a business sector to carry out a part of the company’s activities and will be taking the accountability held for the quality of their work. The manager’s job in this situation is to back his subordinate by removing obstacles from the subordinate’s path and pave the way because the subordinate asks for such assistance as the need arises (Manfred, 2006).

In relative terms, work can sometimes be a source of satisfaction or frustration, depending on the verifiable conditions, and the extent to which followers get satisfaction from their work is also based on his manager's own management style in of the organization. Besides, people who receive satisfaction from their work will probably like doing it and do it to the best of their ability and performance. In another situation, work could be a source of frustration, and the employees will restrict their effort, commitment, and the work is likely to be done poorly and ineffectively. But in the setting in which staff participation in decision-making is considered, it is perceived as participative.
The Relation of Management Styles and Staff Job Satisfaction

The research background in the west and the literature review has shown the effect of leadership behaviour on job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment (Lock, 2001). Contrarily, in another research, the salary or the economic resource situation did not influence intention to leave or stay (Terje & Eikeland (1990) due to the fact that management style is considered as a major factor in the success and accomplishment of the many tasks required of an educational administrator.

Referring to the term style itself, style might not be the critical variable to success; it is the quality of the manager and the quality of the implementation of a leadership or management style that is appropriate for the organization at a particular moment in its life cycle that makes the difference (Mittler, 2002). However, the styles are usually a combination of what the individual or the person brings with him or her in the organization such as national culture, family or peer influence. It is the way the organizational culture is recognized, the way the individual actually exacts his or her role. In the educational field and others, management style is the pattern of behavior that a manager or director of a school adopts and implements in order to plan, organize, motivate and control (and Murlis Fenwick, 1994). Good managerial styles, according to Fenwick and Murlis (1994), can be specifically on the basis of these requirements that follow:

- Listens;
- Sets goals and standards;
- Develops action plans (short and long-term);
- Directs others clearly;
- Gives feedback;
- Rewards and punishes;
- Develops academic staff/other colleagues; and
- Establishes personal relationships with colleagues.

With all these requirements, it seemed every manager or organization leader has a big role to play and tasks to perform and the success of their task in various situations will depend on their style of management. Indeed, there might not be one right or wrong management style. The style depends on the task, people, and situation to be managed. Thus, in Fenwick and Murlis’ (1994) other explanation, managerial style is a function of the:

- Headship’s personal characteristics (e.g. motives and values);
- Styles which the headship has seen; used by bosses, mentors and peer group;
- Values espoused in the organization of “the right way” to manage; and
- Specific management situations and people with whom the headship deals most.

Furthermore, in a civil understanding, principals with human relations skills understand how their behavior affects not only others but themselves as well. Included in these skills is the ability of members at different levels in the organization to represent their needs and goals to each other in order to comprehend the problems faced by the other (Fenwick & Murlis, 1994).

Based on the theories and explanations mentioned above, management styles are considered as interpersonal skills of an individual and the interpersonal style of an individual depends on the person’s combination of six ego states in relation to four life positions obtaining 24 influence styles (Pareek, 1997). In one such instrument, 12 specific
interpersonal styles were postulated. Being used as managerial style variables of the study, these are some management styles described below:

**Supportive:**

With this style, support is provided when needed. Leaders with this style of management encourage their subordinates and give the essential conditions for continuous improvement. They show patience in learning about their problems and have an understanding with them.

**Rescuing:**

This style shows a relationship of dependency where managerial leaders believe that their primary role is rescuing the followers, who are seen as unable to care for themselves.

**Normative:**

These managerial leaders are more interested in the development of appropriate standards of conduct for their subordinates and to help them knowing why some rules are more important than others. They not only helping them to solve a specific problem, but to help them to develop methods of approach to a problem that raises questions about the reference values

**Prescriptive:**

Headships with this style are critical of others; they develop rules and regulations and impose them on others. Managerial leaders using this style make quick judgements and insist that certain standards or rules be followed by all the subordinates.
Problem Solving:

With this style, a managerial leader concerns solving problems, but not sees them as limited to the task. In this process, managers seek help and participation of subordinates and the participants.

Task obsessive:

Headships with this style are more concerned with the task. Issues not directly related to the task are ignored and abandoned. They have nothing to do with feelings and, in fact, do not recognize them because they do not perceive them as related to the task.

Innovative:

Innovators are enthusiastic about the ideas and new approaches as well as enthusiasm. They pay enough attention to raise their ideas and opinions that are translated into action and are internalized in the system.

Management and Staff

Management should look into the satisfaction of their staff and management should maintain a good relationship between staff and followers, and a strong communication must exist between both parts. Communication between management and staff is crucial and it is the success of individual performance in social and business life which is now widely recognized. Within organizations, effective internal communication between managers and staff is vital to organizational success. In this sense, an organization that is built on this basis is perceived as shared-management, where subordinates’ participation in decision making, including the setting of targets, takes place at all levels of the organization (Manfred, 1998).
Table 2.1.

Organizational Management Styles Dimensionality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STYLE OF MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>Authoritarian</th>
<th>Participative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manager's Job</strong></td>
<td>Managers do as they are told, transmit orders.</td>
<td>Work (responsibility) is delegated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager co-ordinates own group's work with that of the group in which he is a subordinate.</td>
<td>Manager clears difficulties out of path of subordinate.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Work can be a source of satisfaction (voluntarily performed) or punishment (avoided) dependent on controllable conditions (manager and management).</td>
<td>Work can be a source of satisfaction (voluntarily performed) or punishment (avoided) dependent on controllable conditions (manager and management).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decision Making</strong></td>
<td>Decisions are made at the top.</td>
<td>Participation in decision making at all levels.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Military type of organization. 'Line and staff'. 'Chain of command'.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>View of people</strong></td>
<td>Assumes that people hate work, have to be forced to do it, and have to be forced to achieve company's objectives.</td>
<td>People learn not only to accept, but to seek greater responsibility (work at a higher level).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>In modern industrial life, most people's intellectual potential is only partially utilized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
<td>Fear motivation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We need a certain level' or 'more' unemployment.</td>
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</table>

With reference to the above, Table 2.1 shows the dimensionality of Management Styles and a short summary of the role of managers under authoritarian and participative styles of management. It also shows decision taking and the basic characteristics of each style (Manfred, 1981, 1982, 1988, 1995 & 2006).
In another statement, especially in the academic organization, has been reported by Brain (1990) to the academic community is very undemocratic, hierarchical and driven by competition, jealousy and power plays. In this sense, the status and privileges of scholars rely heavily on their professional status and its links with other groups of professionals and executives, all of whom assist in establishing the structure and framework for managing workers lower in the pecking order. Thus, the status and privileges of academics are based on claiming and sharing knowledge as the exclusive preserve of professional experts. So academia is essentially a competition for power and status carried out using bodies of knowledge as bargaining chips.

**Bureaucratic Management and Academic Autonomy**

This freedom of expression and knowledge sharing could take place in a less bureaucratic environment and where the academic system is dynamic and not rigid. It has been reported by Kevin and Kenneth (1994) that public school or university generates greater levels of bureaucracy than in the private sector. In this kind of organization, rules, regulations, and controls restrict teacher autonomy and prevent them from doing what they do best or render them unable to teach properly. From Morgan’s (1997) point of view, the bureaucratic form routinized the process of administration in a similar manner to a machine routinizing production.

Literally, the theory of bureaucracy is one which is the fundamental issue of control in many organizations today. Bureaucratic management or administration is described as being perceived as a formal system of organization in the sense of maintaining efficiency
and effectiveness (Jeffrey, 2002). Therefore, labor-bureaucratic relations are characterized by discord, levels of control, dictatorship, and insecurity (Hoy and Sweetland, 2001).

The term bureaucracy is related to the notion of hierarchy and it was generally believed to be a practice to degrade summarily bureaucracies as rigid, unproductive, sclerotic, and rife with inflexible policies and procedures (Jeffrey, 2002). Besides, in large organizations, it was believed again that bureaucratic characteristics, such as hierarchy, span of control, and formalization, were reported to have an effect on the autonomous traits, loyalties, and behaviours of the professional. With the facts surrounding this issue, it seemed both bureaucratic and staff professionalism share something in common because a bureaucratic structure emphasizes disciplined compliance and loyalty, while the professional is an expert accustomed to a large amount of autonomy in which to do his work (Jeffrey, 2002).

However, as the relative power of workers increases, both the task-oriented organization and bureaucratization are less likely to subdue job autonomy (Seunghee, Jeffrey & Donald, 2008). According to Morgan (1997), individuals operate more effectively when their satisfied and their needs are met. From the result of researches conducted decadently in social science, the evidence shows tremendously/convincingly that re-organization of work to increase participation and involvement; promote the exchange or rotation of tasks; and reduce hierarchy results in equal or greater productivity; increases job satisfaction; reduces absenteeism and employee turnover and increases quality of output (Brain, 1990).
In most cases, when the centralization and bureaucratization increases and maintains, it reduces central clearance of educational reform (Cuban, 1990). In view of this, a growing concern should be given to the refurbishment and development of university management and oversight of public universities in Malaysia. Moreover, a major effort is required in most cases, when the centralization and bureaucratization increases allegedly or maintains, it reduces central clearance of educational reform (Cuban, 1990).

**Autocratic/Directive Management**

In many organizations, a person with authority has the right to command and use power to demand obedience (Manfred, 1981, 1982, 1988, 1995 and 2006). An autocratic or authoritarian organization is the organization which leaders of government by "divine" right to demand obedience and through private ownership. In this context, authority is derived from ownership of the sources of production and the penalty or consequence for disobedience is dismissal. Therefore, the authority focuses on the top and it is the owners who assign authority to the chief executive (Manfred, 1981, 1982, 1988, 1995 & 2006).

More precisely, authoritarian management delegates orders from the top and the manager’s role is to give orders down the ‘chain of command’. The manager is usually not expected to make decisions and so carries little responsibility. On the other hand, authoritarian organizations are effective in an emergency and perhaps the best known authoritarian organizations are the armed forces. Generally, an authoritarian enterprise’s leadership usually has many problems since the orders are transmitted and easily give errors rise to a critical appraisal and dismissal. In addition, in authoritarian organizations or settings, crisis always succeeds crisis due to mismanagement, but in an extremely
authoritarian management, crises are often almost artificially created by managers or administrators with the sense of obtaining co-operation from their subordinates (Manfred, 1981, 1982, 1988, 1995 & 2006).

On the positive side, people try to help each other in an authoritarian organization. Crisis may succeed crisis as this is one way of getting work done. As a matter of fact, in the organization or management where decisions are centralized, the decision-making will be always quick and decisions could be implemented quickly but it generally fails to utilize the potential of the employees (Manfred, 1981, 1982, 1988, 1995 & 2006). This type of management style of the organization is a massive shift in management style when an authoritarian leader is a person who made all operational decisions for the organization (Mittler, 2002).

**Findings on Management Styles**

For a long time, system 4 of Likert’s management styles has been perceived as the most productive system. According to Effrat (1968), System 4 is considered to be the most productive and ideal in work settings. When combining good management and achievable goals, this system has shown a good result in terms of loyalty, better production, higher motivation, and more profit than the other systems. Looking into management and staff development, workers were more satisfied with supervision/management on the job and work on the job in accordance with the Vroom-Yetton model (1973) study, although they were not more satisfied with pay or the opportunity for promotion.

Moreover, the inquiry indicates that poor relationships between staff in a department or between academic staff and their heads of department may cause an increase
in the level of stress perceived by academic staff. Besides, weak relationships between staff in ambiguous, autocratic and political departments as well as poor connections in departments are a primary source of stress for academic staff. Insufficient feedback from heads of department was perceived by respondents as stressful (Paul, 2003). Thus, a relationship between management styles, job interest, manager’s trust, co-operative decision-making and cooperation with teachers’ job satisfaction was found in Shahabfar (1997).

In terms of the teaching environment, data revealed a stressed teaching force, when the management style exhibited by the head of department is autocratic or non consultative; it could probably be a factor leading to stress as reported by academic staff. In Paul’s (2003) findings, 96% percent (150) of the respondents claimed they felt stressed. Of these respondents, 50% (78) indicated they were often or always stressed. With this finding, academic staff felt the profession should be more open about stress and claimed an effort should be made to reduce the problem as respondents felt it was getting worse each year.

In the same findings, it was reported that the management styles exhibited by heads of department and the way in which departments are managed may be significant factors in making academic staff stressful in their work. Academic staff in ambiguous and autocratic departments reported the highest levels of stress, closely followed by those in ‘political’ departments. Additionally, staff in subjective and collegial departments reported low levels of stress (Paul, 2003). Collegial and subjective departments were regarded by respondents as friendly by academic staff. The analysis of subjective and collegial departments revealed
that these managers were social architects who spent time drawing department members into cohesive, supportive groups (Paul, 2003).

In addition, still on Paul’s findings (2003), it was reported that academic staff felt there was a high level of monitoring and screening, which they claimed had a negative effect on their morale in bureaucratic departments. Moreover, staff in bureaucratic departments described their heads of department as inflexible, rigid and highly traditional, although these departments were not as goal-orientated. In this particular department, there was a strong emphasis on rules and regulations. There was strong evidence to support the claim that academic staff in bureaucratic departments suffer ‘decision deprivation’ as a result of not being involved in the decision-making process.

In autocratic or directive style departments, the study revealed a greater emphasis on a head of department’s authority within autocratic departments. These departments were strict, with a division between managers and subordinates. Accountability and conformity were seriously considered and perceived as high priority. These departments were task-orientated and they had a tendency to view a department as if they were independent of people. The academics in these departments felt ignored, undervalued, exploited and frustrated. Besides, staff felt there was one rule for managers and another for subordinates (Paul, 2003).

In Malaysia, teachers experienced decision deprivation in the managerial domain as well as the instructional domain in research conducted by Tai (2001) in some of the schools in the District of Perak
Summary

With the theories, research and findings cited above, it appears that there are many types of management styles and management styles unanimously were defined as managers’ personal skills and ability to influence the subordinates and to get the job done. Different styles should be applied based on the situation and circumstances. It was suggested by the researchers that the best style is the style that is applied and leads the organizations to the successful path. Besides, the research conducted by various researchers indicated that there is a strong relationship between management styles and employees’ satisfaction, interest to stay, productivity and autonomy.

In most findings, the staff seemed to be satisfied, motivated and committed to their jobs with democratic style and participative management. In fact, participative management or organization has been ranked as the best style of management to be applied in every organization. The staff believes that bureaucratic style and hierarchical decision-making should be reduced whereas autocratic style should be totally eliminated. Most of the findings show that the organization will be successful by applying a proper management style by involving subordinates in the decision-making process, reducing power and authority. Several of the kills and qualities were mentioned for good managers to obtain. In the academic setting, academic staff complained that they have been stressful in their work because of the style applied by the heads and managers.

Moreover, it was reported that educational settings are undemocratic, bureaucratic and autocratic in nature. They are full of power, authority and conspiracies which make it somehow hard for staff to display their best abilities and derive satisfaction. In this case, the
educational setting should be free of authoritarianism and bureaucratization. In any organization, research suggests a wide collection of potential benefits of employee involvement in workplace decision-making, including high job satisfaction, commitment, productivity, organizational citizenship behaviour, labour-management relations, and overall organizational performance (P. McLagan & Nel, 1995).

**Decision-Making**

In a real situation, one cannot deal with the type of management styles and the main focus in making decisions without having to understand the decision theory and the concept of decision making. Conceptually, decisions are governed by a shared-philosophy and a shared-purpose that ideally comes from empathy and involvement of people committed to the overall objective (Petra & Richard, 2002).

According to Mintsberg (1976), cited by Gore, Murry and Richard (1992), the decision is defined as a definite commitment or devotion to action, and therefore includes all purposeful behavior which concludes with a commitment or devotion to do something instead of just talking about it. Besides, a decision is defined as the moment of choice and some decisions may vary, depending on their level in view of the fact that decisions that are made at the lower level differ from those that are made at the top management level (Gore, Murry and Richard, 1992). In another definition by Gore, Murry and Richard (1992), decision-making is universally defined as the process of choosing from among alternatives. It pervades administrative functions such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-originating and controlling.
However, the decision-making has been associated with resolution of problems and was defined by Stewart and Iyman, (2000) as an option to meet a problem to solve and a process of specifying the nature of a particular problem or opportunity to solve it. In this sense, decision making has two aspects: the act and the process and practice managers or leaders respond to opportunities and threats through analysis of one party and making decisions about specific organizational objectives and courses of action (Gareth & Jennifer, 1998).

Similarly, decision-making is the process through which managers and leaders identify and resolve problems and capitalize on opportunities. Nevertheless, good decision-making is important and crucial at all levels in the organization (Aiken, Clarke, Solane & Silber, 2002). Nonetheless, decision-making is a multifaceted phenomenon because human beings with different preferences, interests, expertise, and need dispositions are involved in the making of decisions. The art of decision-making is vital in ensuring the success of an organization. It has become a source of discussion around the world over the past few decades.

Eventually, decision-making can be summed as a process of arriving at a remedy to a problem where one needs to go through the process of determining the alternatives and selecting the best of them with prior consideration of its constrains and consequences.

Decision-making in organizations or organizational decision-making is considered as a fundamental process in an organization (Marshall & Iftekhar, 2008). Basically, decision-making is the methods and ways of reaching a conclusion or agreement. Besides, making decisions in an organization requires people within the organization to have the
understanding of the organizational process and how it works. This process is closely connected to the role attributed to participants involved in the decision-making process (Marshall & Iftekhar, 2008).

**Staffs’ Participation in the Decision-Making Process**

Academic staff and non-academics’ participation in the decision-making process has become a phenomenon in educational management. Besides, it has become one of the most significant and noticeable in educational settings since the last decade until the present in terms of educational reform. Thus, participative decision-making (PDM) has become one element of leadership that has been promoted as a crucial component of school reform efforts. Hence, the PDM refers to the practice of managers or educational leaders and academic staff jointly making decisions that were traditionally supposed to be done solely by the principal or leaders (Duke, 2005).

In reforming and restructuring the educational setting, it implies new forms of organizational arrangements and instructional strategies, which need to be changed. The national reform reported that academic staff/administrators’ participation in the decision-making process is a mechanism or method of fostering changes within an institution and a source of development in the educational environment (Rice & Schnieder, 1994). In this regard, many studies have been conducted by researchers (e.g.: Denton & Seytinoglu, 1993), in examining staffs’ perceptions or wishes to participate in the decision making process of the university. In addition, the organizational structures and individual roles within the university play a huge role in influencing and affecting the system by being expressed through power, authority and range opportunities.
Notwithstanding, participatory management is one measure on which teaching staff and administrators agree in large part. Taking part or being part of educational management, it has been embodied into practice in scores of school districts and ministries. Thus, shared governance has helped to replace communication barriers with openness and connection; with honesty and trust (Dondero, 1997). Many researchers have related and believed that involvement in decision-making influences organizational outcomes and staff job satisfaction and job performance (Imber & Reyes, 1990).

In employee involvement in decision making, participating in the system and programs, positive changes in attitude and behavior of employees reportedly were realized with the participation or through the process of involving workers in the framework of the decisions that initially reserved for management. From the theoretical point of view, the empowerment of staff is intrinsically rewarding in the sense of providing them with a greater sense of ownership and belongingness which will lead to a better understanding of their works and working more effectively (Carry, Roger & Audrey, 1992).

In the educational environment where policies and decision-makers use power to change the structure of the university and mandate their subordinates, these powers and grounds could differently contribute either positively or negatively to the staffs’ performance and system. As a matter of fact, to achieve the goals of the organization, participative decision-making seemed to be useful as a source to cultivate employee input into decision-making and to recognize employees’ values and opinions (Buckingham, 1999). Furthermore, an interview conducted by R. Heck and P. Brandon (1995) indicates that the participation of the staff and their involvement in academic or administrative
decision-making is needed in regular school-wide, grade-level, or department meetings and senates.

In light of this, the dissatisfaction or discouragement can extend to the level of affecting the nature of their jobs if the issue of staff participation and involvement is addressed. Some factors which are able to influence the decision-making process at the university level are the levels of education and work experience of the staff selected to participate in the decision-making. This is because the selection of the staff into the decision-making committees is normally based on their educational achievements, experience and exposure.

**Findings**

Research in the early 1950s revealed that the academic staff who had the opportunity to participate in decision making were more satisfied with their work (Bridges, 1967). Management must have the technical background, communication skills, and intelligence to make decisions and communicate those decisions effectively. The results show that the sense of involvement in the decision-making process is very crucial and indirectly or directly affects staff’s self-confidence or self-esteem in their career performance. It was assumed that when people are ignored and cast out of the decision-making in their organization, it would probably develop in them a sense of discouragement, dissatisfaction and anger as well.

In a Balse and Blase study (2000) with a sample of 45 principals affiliated with the League of Professional Schools in partnership with the University of Georgia faculty in the
development of working towards shared governance, it was found that most of the principals believed the improvement of teaching and learning as the primary purpose for employing participatory decision-making structures. Besides, it has been concluded by Mohrman, Lawler, and Mohrman (1992) that the high involvement model was most suitable for schools because of the situations in schools of high interdependence among workers, high complexity of the work, and high uncertainty and ambiguity in the methods by which results can be achieved.

The literature on academics’ participative decision-making has focused mostly on the study of academics’ involvement and level of participation in the decision-making process. Those studies rely on academics’ self-reports of their views and experiences with participative-decision-making (Somech, 2002). Moreover, in participative environment, principals who share decision-making authority with teachers or academics have been found to have more loyalty from their teaching staff (Hoy & Sousa, 1984). Smylie (1994) suggested also that “…initiatives grounded in collective and professional orientations toward academic staff’ work and change are more likely to be associated with classroom improvement than initiatives based on individualistic, hierarchical, and bureaucratic orientations” (p. 141).

In Black and Gregersen (1997) looked into all five stages of decision-making and the degree of participation and involvement,. They found that there was some correlation between participation in all five stages and self-reported job satisfaction and performance. In addition, Smylie, Lasarus and Brownlee-Conyers (1996), in a study of the instructional outcomes of academic staff leadership hypothesized that the connection and the
relationship between academic staff participation in leadership and improvement in student achievement is not a simple cause and effect relationship. Rather, they suggested, the effects of academic staff leadership are actually mediated by variables such as: control, motivation, and learning. In another study, Smylie and Brownlee-Conyers (1996) tested their theory by using survey, observations, and student standardized achievement test data with the sample of 3300 students and 200 academic staff over five years. They found the analytical model of three intervening variables (Control, motivation and learning) were sustained.

Moreover, teaching staff participation in school-based decision making is related positively to instructional improvement and to students’ learning outcomes. On the whole, from the result of involvement in participative decision-making, the increases in perceived accountability and organizational learning opportunities, and the decrease in perceived individual autonomy were correlated with higher academic staff-reported student outcomes (Smylie et al., 1996). In non educational sectors, the literature confirmed that, worker participation yields “…higher quality products and services, less absenteeism, less turnover, better decision making, better problem solving, and less management overhead – in short, greater organisational effectiveness” (Mohrman et al., 1992, p. 347). Additionally, the researchers and practitioners in both the public and private sectors totally agree that participative management improves employees’ job satisfaction and commitment.

In research conducted by Kim (2002), the results of multiple regressions analysis show that managers’ use of a participative management style and employees’ point of views of participative strategic planning processes are positively correlated with high levels
of job satisfaction. In this regard, it is compulsory for every organizational leader, whether in the public sector or private sector, to address the issue of changing organizational culture from the traditional pattern of hierarchical structure to participative-management and staff empowerment (Kim, 2002).

**Participation in Decision-Making: The Malaysian Context**

Generally, studies show that decision-making styles differ across occupations, job level and countries (Brain, 2003). In Malaysia, the educational system and the decisions that are related to education are made at various hierarchical levels depending on the decisional system of committees, which facilitate inter-department and inter-division cooperation and structure. The planning of education and research committee is regarded as the highest decision making body at the federal level. Hence, the implementation of policies and plans at the school level is through the State Education Departments and District Education Offices (Nagarajah, 1999).

In schools, principals or heads of academic staff with the senior academic staff are often involved in the decision making process although there is a call for staff participation in decision-making process in schools in different sectors without any clear or transparent statement either in the general orders or in any other circulars concerning this matter. In fact, the exchange of teachers in decision-making varies from school to school and no policies have been applied during the time of the higher authorities governing academics' participation in decision making (Nagarajah, 1999).
In a civil context, the school/university leaders with human relations skills understand how their behaviour affects not only others but themselves as well. Additionally, they know and are aware how both their own frame of reference and that of others colour what is perceived and assumed to be real; how attitudes, beliefs, opinions and values affect behaviour and students’ learning; and how needs and aspirations from the management shape an individual’s investment of her/his energies. Included in these skills are the members’ abilities at different levels in the organization, representing their needs and goals for each other to comprehend the problems faced by the others (Fenwick & Murlis, 1994).

Furthermore, a number of studies have been conducted on academic staff’s participation in decision-making at the university level in Malaysia. Most of these studies conducted were about the academic staff’s level of participation in the decision-making process without investigating the type of decision style (Tsang, 1995; Nagalingam, 1997; Tor, 1997), while some have looked at the relationship between academic staff’s participation in the decision-making process and job satisfaction (Rice & Schnieder, 1994; Ho, 1997) without considering the effect of management styles on job satisfaction.

Nevertheless, sometimes staff are regularly involved in decision-making, giving opinions and sharing views in staff meetings, subject meetings, and informal discussions and eventually higher authorities make the decision, and academic staff are commended/entrusted to implement these decisions. To date, there is little empirical data to demonstrate the level of participation of academic staff and administrators in the decision making process in schools of Malaysia (Nagarajah, 1999).
The efforts of educational reform and restructuring of schools’ standard of education have been among the most notable themes to improve the quality of education. Among these efforts are the advocacies of teaching staff involvement in decision-making to foster the necessary changes and development in schools (Rice, 1994). The involvement of academic staff or teachers in the decision-making process is very essential to identify the learning needs of the students and set high expectations for school effectiveness (Hagar & Scarr, 1983 cited in Hoy & Tarter, 1993).

**Summary**

In summary, it has been mostly agreed that academic staff should be included in the school decision-making process for the development of the schools and students. Generally, most of the findings of research conducted in the educational field show that the sense of involvement in the decision-making process is very crucial and it indirectly or directly affects staff’s self-confidence or self-esteem in their career performance. Initially, academic staff have a lot of roles to play in students’ lives because they become closer to students by imparting knowledge to them and training them for the future.

In terms of reforming and restructuring the educational setting, it requires new patterns, development, and good management style and leadership which encourage staffs’ participation in the decisions-making process. Based on the people’s report, academic staff/administrators’ participation in the decision-making process is a mechanism for fostering change within and institution and source of development in the educational climate. In this sense, the academic staff and teachers will have the motivation and perceive
themselves as one of the key players in determining school policies and practices as well as in school governance.

In addition, if any effort has to be made in restructuring the educational setting, school reform and improving the quality of education, it will rely on management or school administration styles and their style of making decisions. In non educational settings whereby decision-making style is participative, the employees in that particular organization are free to discuss their jobs, their ideas are welcomed and their voices are heard. Hence, in this type of organization, communication is effective and the relationship and co-operation between management and staff will be strong and useful in the sense that the employees will be empowered and feel better about their jobs. Besides, it will enhance their productivity.

In the Malaysian context, concerning the Malaysian educational system, it has been reported that decisions are made at various hierarchical levels depending on the decisional system of committees and the implementation of policies. It seems the decisions regarding the educational system are made by the Ministry. Academic staff should be considered and motivated to participate in the decision-making process as they are the closest to the students. Thus, since the first priority, goals and objective of the educational setting are to produce quality students for the future and good leaders for the nation, academic staff have to be carefully nurtured and motivated by giving them full authority to use any types of materials to enrich their teaching and encouraged to be involved in any meetings and decisions related to academic issues.
Furthermore, in an autocratic organization, the decisions are deprived and employees have no direct influence on decision-making. In this kind of organization, the advantage of this style is that the decision-making process will always be quick and fast; the delegation of the task will be clear and the information will be disseminated. Besides, the employees will particularly receive help in achieving their goals. But the main problem of applying this type of system is that employees are isolated and neglected.

Moreover, when the staff are deprived of involvement in the decision-making process, it might affect their morale and they will feel de-motivated. Thus, they might have sense that their efforts are not appreciated and their potentials are not considered. Therefore, the conditions of the staff in this kind of environment are most militant with the lowest level of satisfaction. In this regard, it is highly recommended by the research for the top management and leaders to apply a participative style in their working environment with the employees or staff.

**Decision-making Styles**

**History and Definition**

From the historical perspective, the word decision has been defined as a response to a question, solution to some problem, or a choice between two or more options (Rowe, Boulgarides, & McGrath, 1984). Basically, the ability to make a decision is a matter of making within a set of options (Hammond, 1999). Initially, decision-making theory has focused on the cognitive process related to an individual making a decision.
Decision style information can give insights as to how managerial effectiveness can be maintained and or improved in a competitive environment, and can assist managers and the task at hand (Clare, 2002). Considering all these factors, it is very hard to execute any decision in any organization without a good and solid management. Organizational Management is considered as a platform where decisions are made and policies are implemented. Excellent management results in excellent decisions and formulates good polices. Consequently, management style in the educational setting determines the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the staff. Positive actions or styles of management promote worker accomplishment to leaders and to the organization and they are essential in sustaining work values that reduce the likelihood of turnover. Besides, management style is a variable that is frequently ignored in shaping attitudes of the workers and is crucial to understanding why employees stay in these firms (Taplin & Winterton, 2007).

The research on decision-making and decision styles has evolved over the last century. In the late 1940s and early 1950s, the majority of research regarding decision-making was conducted within the area of psychology under the topics of cognition and leadership. In the 1960s, researchers started to concentrate and focus more particularly on the area of decision-making and individuals’ decision styles. In 1969, Schroder, Driver and Streufert made great efforts to develop a style model that examined one’s information processing and problem solving capabilities. In fact, this development was based on earlier work conducted in the area of cognitive psychology (Rowe & Boulgarides, 1983). According to Rowe and Mason (1987), decision style is a cognitive process and is related to brain usage which represents the way an individual approaches a problem. Thus, each
person’s decision style reflects the utility of the brain, and the way he/she thinks, and interprets situations.

**Types of Decision-Making Styles**

*Alan J. Rowe and Richard O. Mason’s Inventory*

Alan Rowe was considered as one of the founders of decision-making styles through the cognitive approach. According to Rowe and Richard (1987), decision-making styles have been formulated into four categories and dimensions which are:

1. **Directive:**

   People with this style tend to use data that is based on fact and prefer structure. They are task-oriented, decisive, work by speeding things up, efficiency and results. People with authoritarian style use power to control. Their approaches are short-range, and try to have the drive and energy needed to perform difficult tasks. They also look at the internal problems of the organization, and at times may feel insecure and want the state to protect its position.

**Psychological Aspects**

This style is more into tasks and looking into technical problems. It considers facts, rules, and regulations. Information is obtained by using intelligence, sensors and short reports with limited data. It assesses information using instinct, experience or rules. This style is complex and has a low tolerance for ambiguity and needs structure.
**Leadership Style:**

Characteristics of style: the leaders in terms of leadership style seems to be practical, focused on the facts and dictatorial. In terms of social orientation, this leadership style is impersonal, uses power and status; is forceful and dislikes committees and group discussions. It is considered as task or action-orientated, speed, action and results oriented. In terms of motivation, this style is situational with measurable achievement potential, tangible rewards and perhaps bonus. For an organizational setting, the style is structured, goal-oriented and bureaucratic; power as well as authority is important to this style. In terms of criticism, the major criticism of this style is its inflexibility, and its impersonal simplistic, and autocratic nature.

2. **Analytic:**

This style has a tendency to over-analyze a situation or, often finding the best possible solution and the remedy. People with this style often reach positions in their companies. They are too technical, to see things in detail, and may eventually become autocratic.

**Psychological Aspects:**

People who use this style focus on the tasks and technical problems associated with a reasonable approach and consider all aspects of a given problem. In addition, this style takes information from a detailed analysis, using a large amount of data. It evaluates the information through the abstract or theoretical thinking, avoiding incomplete data and the complexity with a high tolerance for ambiguity, and is innovative and creative in solving problems.
Leadership Style:

The leadership characteristics of this style are: intellectual, ingenious, and control-loving. In terms of social orientation, this style is impersonal and specialized in organizing events, establishing control and prefers a limited review by others. It is task-oriented, applies rigorous and deep analysis; prefers elaboration, and detailed plans. In terms of motivation, this style of leadership enjoys the complexity of situations and loves challenges with the ability to predict outcomes. For organizational setting, this style is impersonal, likes planning and solving complex problems, and promotes the sciences and engineering. This style could be criticized for being dogmatic, over controlling, impersonal, careful, abstract or mathematical and is sometimes too slow.

3. Conceptual:

This style is characterized by creativity and a wide outlook. It relies heavily on intuition and feelings, enjoys a good relationship with others, enjoys having discussions, and is willing to compromise. Thus, this style is curious and open-minded, but independent and dislikes rules and regulations. There is a tendency to be perfectionist, likes options, and be concerned about the future. Creative problem solvers easily visualize alternatives and consequences. It tends to associate with the organization; value praise, recognition, and independence; loosening control and is willing to share power.

Psychological Aspects:

It focuses on people, considers many options, future possibilities and seeking information by using intuition as well as discussion with others. The style assesses information b. It applies its view, complexity, has a high tolerance for ambiguity, takes risks and is creative.
Leadership Style:

This style of leadership can be helpful, enthusiastic, has a social orientation and personal style, accepting others' opinions and softens the difficulties. Conceptual leadership is people-orientated, adaptable and flexible, uses intuition, looking for new ideas, tend to seek recognition in terms of motivation of others and believe in independence. For an organizational setting, this style likes to release the control, decentralized settings, and believes in the organic organization. A major criticism of this style is that it is too idealistic, indecisive, imaginative, slow, and has difficulty in controlling.

4. Behavioral:

This style is considered as the most people-oriented style of the four; likes to engage with people and exchange views, is a good listener, supportive, receptive to suggestions, share, shows warmth, uses persuasion, agrees losing control, tends to focus on short-run problems, and wants acceptance.

Psychological Aspects:

It focuses on people, social aspects of the work situation and considers the feelings, and well-being of others. This style acquires information by sensing, listening, and interacting with others. It tends to assess information by using feelings, instincts and complexity with a low tolerance for ambiguity.

Leadership Style:

The leadership style is characterized as being sociable, friendly, and supportive; has a social orientation, a talent for building teams, and encourages participation. It is task or action-oriented with the sense of holding meetings and motivating as well as acceptance by peers, and avoidance of conflict. Best organizational fit: well-designed, people-oriented,
collegial settings. It is too concerned about others as a major criticism; it is sensitive, cannot make hard decisions and cannot say no.

**Decision Style and Behaviour**

In depth, decision style models classify an individual’s cognitive and thinking processes by integrating his/her ability to understand, organize, think, process, and formulate information. There is one definition almost always used in the literature for a decision style which is the recognition of a distinctive personality and character type or behaviour (Sternburg & Li-fang, 2001). Although many researchers believe that the term style has been overused, misused, modified, and misinterpreted, Sternburg and Li-fang (2001) note that the working definition of style could be defined simply as a habitual pattern or preferred way of doing something which is consistent over time and across activities.

Table 2.2. *Behavioural Reactions According to Rowe and Mason’s Decision Styles* *(Rowe & Boulgarides, 1992)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision Style</th>
<th>Reaction to Stress</th>
<th>Motivated by Problems</th>
<th>Solves Problems By Analysis and Insight</th>
<th>Thinking Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>Procedural</td>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>Analysis and Insight</td>
<td>Logical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural</td>
<td>Evading</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>Feeling and Instinct</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td>Erratic</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Intuition and Judgment</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Explosive</td>
<td>Power and Status</td>
<td>Rules and Policies</td>
<td>Focused</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Decision-making Styles Orientation

People and Task Oriented

Management or task-oriented leaders focus on implementation. Task-oriented management or leaders can help the team understand the challenges set of measures for providing initial structure of the meetings. In fact, these measures include the creation of a persuasive challenge and ensure that the team has the right skill sets involved, developing a common understanding of their inter-dependencies and provide strategies for getting started. Therefore, managing people or leaders focus on the relationship between team members. Encourage members to build constructive relationships with others and foster a culture based on team performance (Samuel, 2009).

Moreover, task-oriented leader or management behaviours involve structuring the roles of subordinates, providing instructions and behaving in such ways that will increase the performance of the group and members. It is also named as initiating structure involving structuring the roles of subordinates, providing them with instructions, and behaving in ways that will increase the group's performance. Task-oriented behaviours are directives given to employees or workers to get things done and meet the organizational goals (House, 1997). Looking at the relationship between people, people-oriented leader/management behaviours include being concerned about employees’ feelings and treating employees with respect. People-oriented leaders are curious about the welfare of its employees and demonstrate their concern for their actions and decisions (House, 1997).
Decision Styles and Cognitive

In the past, decision style was also referred to alternatively as “cognitive style” “psychological type” or “problem solving style.” All these concepts deal with the way individuals process and assess information related to decision-making, and provide the framework that is necessary for understanding the idea and concept of decision style. Besides, the essential difference between the concepts, however, is that cognitive style and psychological type have been defined as personality traits of an individual, leading to the conduct of an individual to make decisions (Clara, 2002). In relation to this, the cognitive issue has led to a study about brain dominance and the study has been an on-going activity for decades and centuries. Functional laterality (variously found in the literature as "brain left-brain/right," cerebral dominance or hemispheric specialization) had its momentum based on the examination of patients with brain injury (Terry and Wayne, 2005).

Table 2.3.

*Characteristics of Left and Right Brain Hemisphere*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Left Hemisphere</th>
<th>Right Hemisphere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Spatial/multi-dimensional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning</td>
<td>Imagination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical (taking things apart)</td>
<td>Synthetic (putting things together)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear (step-by-step)</td>
<td>Holistic(grasping relationships in one step)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Visual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>Concrete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematical</td>
<td>Musical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre for science and technology skills</td>
<td>Centre for artistic and creative skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right-side sensory and motor functions</td>
<td>Left-side sensory and motor functions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adopted from Terry & J., 2005, Adapted from Sodan, 1998 and Vemon, 1984
Findings on Decision-making Styles

Referring to some findings about the dominant position of the brain and its functions, behavioural decision-making style was the dominant in Alqarni’s (2003) findings on managerial decision styles in Florida State University. Thus, this style was the predominant one followed by the conceptual decision style. The directive decision style was the style used frequently by most of these managers. In a school context, research conducted by Raymond (2006) at St. Thomas University on leadership for school reform and principal decision-making styles shows that, forty-five percent of the partial elementary school principals applied or exhibited a dominant behavioural style, while the dominant styles of principals of full elementary schools were more likely to be either analytical or conceptual styles for senior high principals who tried to be more conceptual and analytical.

Additionally, the managerial decision style was the predominant behavioural decision style for the majority of Florida’s State University main libraries’ managers, followed by the conceptual decision style in the research conducted by Alqarni, (2003). Also, the finding also confirmed that the majority of Florida’s State University main libraries’ managers think using the right side of the brain rather than the left side. Moreover, more than forty percent of the partial elementary school principals displayed a dominant behavioural style in a study conducted by Raymond (2006) on leadership for school reform and principal decision-making styles. Thus, the dominant styles of principals of full elementary schools were more likely to be either analytical or conceptual making styles and for senior high principals they were likely to be more conceptual and analytical.
Furthermore, Ann Otto’s (1993) finding on management styles using the four system of Likert reported that there is a strong relation between management styles in terms of “Communication and Decision-making” and staff performance. In a similar study, there are significant correlations between all management styles: leadership, motivation, communication; decision-making; goals and control with job satisfaction in the research of Newstrom and Davis, (1992) using Likert’s management styles theory.

**Decision-Making: An Islamic Perspective**

Considering the non-western perspective and perhaps viewing more specifically from the religious perspective, decision-making has been part of the Islamic entity and culture for a long time. Islam, the “religion of peace,” it is not about anything but peaceful, particularly when it has to deal with other religions. In Islam, there is no God but Allah and Muhammad is his Prophet, the seal of the prophets at that. Besides, Islam tolerates people of the book, namely Jews and Christians. It treats them as brothers and shows the hands of acceptance. According to Baha’s reported by Amil, (2006), blind or dogmatic imitation and obedience to any authority is anathema and totally rejected in Islam. Besides, Baha believes that the human mind and the gift of reason should guide or lead a person in making decisions about all matters.

**Participatory Decision-making in Islam**

Amil (2006) reported that the value of decision-making through the practice of consultation is a process where everyone, regardless of any and all considerations, has a voice in decision makings. This shared-decision-making, also termed the participative
decision-making principle, it is seen as an important privilege of some conservative Islamic leaders who have been the main beneficiaries of dictating affairs, and building self-interest. Also, at all levels of society, including the family, all affected members should have the opportunity and responsibility to voice their opinions without fear.

The Concept of Democracy in Islam

The argument has arisen regarding the practicality of democracy in the Muslim world and the west. Some believe that democracy is basically a western concept and ideology and fundamentally has probability with the values and principles of Islam. In this sense, is it possible to say the Muslim world that consists of 55 countries and has a population of more than 1.4 billion people, is perceived as a set of dictators and oppressors? It was said by one of Islamic scholar that there is no inherent contradiction between Islam and democracy and that democratic ideals and principles are also Islam’s ideals and principles. Thus, the explanation of why so many Muslim countries are not democratic lies in historical, political, cultural, and economic factors, not religious ones (David, 2002).

Findings on the Participative Decision-Making Process and Job Satisfaction

The study of Belasco and Alluto (1972) explored the relationship between the level of satisfaction faced by individuals in school and their eagerness to participate in making decisions. He concluded that there is a significant relationship between teachers’ and members’ satisfaction levels and the state of decisional participation. They also reported that the decisional environment is the main factor influencing staff job satisfaction. It is also indicated in the study that staff with the lowest satisfaction level also experienced the highest level of decisional deprivation and isolation.
The research of Presiosi and Gooden (2003) was conducted to examine the relationships of different organizational variables and workers’ satisfaction. The findings show that there is an impact of organizational variables on staff job satisfaction. Kim (2002) found that employees with whom managers used a participative management style experienced higher satisfaction levels than those employees whose managers did not use such a style. Moreover, Bhuian and Mengue (2002) found in their study that when expatriates perceive higher autonomy, freedom, identity and feedback in their jobs, they experience higher job satisfaction. In another Kim (2002) study, it was found that employees were involved in the strategic planning of the organization had higher job satisfaction levels than those not involved or who did not participate.

A study of Soonhee (2002) on participative management and the job satisfaction of the employees show that the managers that applied participative management styles with the employees' perceptions of strategic planning are positively associated with high levels of job satisfaction. Moreover, in the same study, effective supervisory communications on strategic planning are associated with high levels of job satisfaction. During the 80s, in a research conducted by Marchant (1982) on participative management in information services, it was reported that the service improves when staff participate in the decision-making.

Yulk (1982) concluded that the participative decision-making approach helps employees to have a better understanding of the objective of the decision, and leads to greater acceptance of change and higher commitment and responsibility. It ensures that the
employees have a better perception of the reward contingency in the organization and greater autonomy; and freedom over the decisions. Finally, it results in greater cooperation, enhancing the contribution of the workers towards the organization’s development and growth as well as creating a healthy working environment where differences among the workers and management are solved amicably by exchanging ideas.

Across the borders, participative decision-making has driven the educators’ attention especially in the US for decades and it has been the critical concern for them. A completed agenda, successful school and educational reform have been presented by the transformation of American education. The educational reform with the successful agenda presented has been strongly advocated and the involvement of the staff in the decision-making has increased (Rice & Schneider, 1994). Therefore, reform and school improvement are carried out with staff participation in decision-making process of the school (Rice & Schneider, 1994).

In another finding of Alutto and Belasco, (1972), investigating the relationship between extending decision involvement and job satisfaction, they found that staff had lower levels of satisfaction for being isolated and not involved in decision issues. Participative decision-making in school plays an important role in encouraging the making of better and more effective decisions; enhancing greater understanding and acceptance of a decision; improving staffs’ job satisfaction, and creating a sense of ownership as well as sense of belonging. Although many studies have been conducted on academic staff participation in decision-making in the west, not many of this kind has been conducted in the Malaysian environment at least to the best of the researcher’s knowledge.
Furthermore, Rice and Schneider (1994) again found that academic staff’s perceived levels of influence “were positively correlated with levels of decision involvement, interest in decision issues and job satisfaction” (p. 55). Similar findings were reported by Rinehart and Short. In Duke and Gansneder’s (1990) findings, it was found that when academic staff were not involved generally in decision-making, their desire and motivation to become involved increased, and academic staff with high levels of empowerment and motivation perceived school leadership more positively and effectively.

Finally, the participative management approach also seems to be exploited by certain top management, using this approach as a personal interest and technique to persuade employees to accept decisions already made by the management. Duke (1980), in one of his studies found some of the staff that he interviewed expressed their views on shared decision-making and perceived it is a technique used by the management to rubber stamp the administrative decisions. Having knowledge about the shortcomings of the participative decision-making approach will give the administrators some ideas and alternatives to effectively use this method in administrating and managing their organizations.

**Summary**

Research showed that there is a relationship between the level of satisfaction experienced by teaching staff in school and their status of participating in decisions. Besides, it was concluded by the majority of researchers that there is a significant
relationship between individual members’ satisfaction and the state of decisional participation. Further, the participative decision-making approach contributes to the quality of decisions made in an organization, employee’s creativity, innovativeness; greater human dignity; autonomy; freedom of expression; personal growth; greater acceptance of responsibility, higher levels of morale and team work; and a higher acceptance of change among employees within the working places.

From the Islamic point of view, it can be summarized that, it supports the idea of struggling hard and accepting participation to come up with the right decision. As a matter of fact, being open-minded is vital factor in decision-making and its process. Besides, Islam believes that decision-making is an ongoing process. The Islamic point of view is not only about citing or quoting the Quran and Hadith but, the Islamic worldview goes beyond this by giving some ways and ideas in making a good decision. Islam pointed out that making a decision is about choosing between different alternatives and options. Islam has provided some alternatives such as focusing, deciding and discussing before making decisions.

**Job Satisfaction**

**Definition**

Job satisfaction is a measurement of quality work life (John, 1999). Workers produce excellent work when they are satisfied and motivated. Historically, from the 1930s to the mid-1960s, it was widely believed that happy workers were productive workers. Meanwhile, a person’s job satisfaction is the degree to which an individual feels positively or negatively about the various aspects of the job (John, 1999). In De Nobile’s (2003)
definition, job satisfaction is the degree to which a staff member has favourable or positive feelings about the job or working environment. Hence, it refers to the positive attitudes or emotional dispositions of people gained from their work or through aspects of working (Furnham, 1997; Locke, 1976). In addition, job dissatisfaction refers to unhappiness, sadness or negative feelings about work or the working environment (Furnham, 1997). In a similar definition, job satisfaction is the degree to which people or individual’s like their jobs and how they feel about their work (Spector, 1997).

According to Chellandurai’s (1999) definition, job satisfaction is an attitude that people have about their works or getting from their works. Thus, job satisfaction is the feeling or thought that a worker has about his or her job, and job experiences in relation to previous experiences; current expectations; beliefs and available alternatives (Balser, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, Robie, Sinar, & Parra, 1997; Smucker & Kent, 2004). It was defined by other researchers as the employee’s general feelings or impression towards his or her job situation. However, organizations seek to become competitive in the sense of looking for employees who are satisfied with their jobs and it has become an important issue. Job satisfaction could have a direct positive or negative effect of causality in the commitment of the organization (Brown and Peterson 1993).

In the 1970s, job satisfaction has been defined differently and categorized into various factors such as Campbell, Dunnett, Lawler, and Weik (1970) categorization of theories of job satisfaction in either content theories or process theories. Content theories on various factors which influence and have a direct-effect on job satisfaction while process theories took into account the expectations, needs and values, and interests opposed to the job to produce job satisfaction.
In addition, job satisfaction is an effective response and reaction to the employment status of a person. It can be defined a general feeling or, more generally, a passion about one’s job or career in terms of specific facets of the job and career (e.g., compensation, autonomy, coworkers) and may be related to the exact results such as productivity (Rice, Gentile and McFarlin, 1991). Similarly, job satisfaction is the degree to which an employee has positive emotions and feelings toward the work role (Douglas, 1999).

Work satisfaction is “an affective response to one’s job as a whole or to particular facets of it” (Cooley & Yonanof, 1996, p. 314. Based on previous definitions, we can summarize the definition as an individual’s or person’s common attitude or behaviour towards his or her job. Besides, it is an important attitude or mind-set that can and does influence behaviour at work. In consequence, according to Price (1997), job satisfaction is the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organization. Job satisfaction is perhaps the most widely studied work orientation and general phenomenal issue studied over the last four decades in organizational research. Researchers have defined and measured satisfaction, globally, internationally and locally as a concept with multiple dimensions or “facets” (Price, 1997).

Job Satisfaction Theory: Supported theories

- **Herzberg’s Motivator and Hygiene Factors**

  Frederick Herzberg has contributed immensely to studying humans’ behaviour and their thought within the working climate. He looks into things such as individual recognition, the opportunity for advancement, job security and positive working conditions to create job contentment among employees. Besides, Herzberg’s research on human or
individual’s behaviour proved that people will strive for and need ‘hygiene’ because it is hard for humans to be happy without them. As now, poorly managed organizations and environments have surely failed to understand that people are de-motivated due to the management not addressing the issue of hygiene and their failure to accept that people need to be hygienic. In any circumstances, people are only truly motivated when they receive satisfaction factors or what could make them satisfied in their work as was predicted and prescribed by Herzberg as real motivators, such as personal growth, development, etc., which represent a far deeper level of meaning and fulfilment.

Meanwhile, Herzberg is well noted for his famous and remarkable ‘hygiene’ and motivational factors theory. He was initially and essentially concerned about people’s or employees’ well-being at work. Underpinning his theories and better academic teachings, he was basically attempting to bring more humanity and caring into the workplace. He and others did not develop this theory to be used mainly for ‘motivational tools’ to improve organizational performance, rather, it was primarily aimed to explain how to manage people properly and humanly at the working place.

Herzberg’s ‘hygiene’ needs (or maintenance factors) in the workplace are

- policy
- relationship with supervisor
- work conditions
- salary
- company car
- status
- security
- relationship with subordinates
- personal life

Herzberg’s research identified that true motivators were other completely different factors, notably:
• achievement  
• recognition  
• work itself  
• responsibility  
• advancement  
• personal growth

With what is stated above, Frederick Herzberg theorized that employee satisfaction depends on two sets of issues: ‘hygiene’ issues and motivators. Hence, once the hygiene issues are addressed, he proclaimed that the motivators create satisfaction among employees.

Table 2.4.

*Herzberg's Job Satisfaction Dimensions/Factors*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HYGIENE ISSUES (DISSATISFIERS)</th>
<th>MOTIVATORS (SATISFIERS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company and administrative policies</td>
<td>Work itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Syptak, Marsland & Ulmer (1999)*

As a contribution to Herzberg theory, Sergiovanni conducted research testing hypotheses related to teachers grounded from the Herzberg theory. Besides, Sergiovanni found that achievement, recognition, and responsibility contribute predominantly to the job satisfaction of teachers, whereas inadequate style of supervision, poor interpersonal relations with colleagues, interpersonal relations with students, and parents; rigid and inflexible school policies and administrative practices, were factors which lead to teachers’ job dissatisfaction.
Extensively, many theories of job satisfaction have been proposed, but one of the most common and widely utilized in educational settings has been that of Hersberg and his associates (Abu Sad & Isralowits, 1992; Derlin & Schneider, 1994; Dinham & Scott, 1996; 1998; 2000; Lester, 1987; Mercer, 1993; Scott, Cox & Dinham, 1999). According to Herzberg’s two-factor theory, job satisfaction comes from what has been perceived as job variables: motivator needs or satisfiers, and job dissatisfaction from other variables: hygiene factors or dissatisfiers. In terms of satisfaction, satisfiers in his/her job included: recognition, responsibility for one’s work, personal growth, achievement and advancement, while dissatisfiers included many aspects of work external to the self such as pay, supervisors, relationships with colleagues and work conditions and security (Hersberg, 1968).

In the research of Herzberg (1959), Locke (1976), Lee and Wilbur (1985), and Kacmar and Ferris (1989), however, with the concept of job satisfaction, employee motivation and workforce commitment affect employee satisfaction. Thus, it is important that work conditions do not stop the individual to do a good job. Participation and sharing decisions in other studies aimed at employee satisfaction. Thus, staff’s working skills are of great importance and elements to attain a high quality of care to improve the performance. Also, job satisfaction is determined by the pressure of work, equality and rapid development; knowledge, development and cooperation between professionals. It was argued that employees’ welfare and their productivity lead to employees’ motivation and satisfaction (Lord, 2002).
In the past, the mechanisms of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction have been described in more detail elsewhere (Gruneberg, 1979; Herzberg, 1968), but it is essential to note that, according to this theory, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were considered separate constructs and entities which are not coherent or do not go along with each other. Indeed, the absence of hygiene factors was believed and proclaimed to lead to job dissatisfaction, but their fulfilment did not lead to job satisfaction. Thus, the presence of motivator needs leads to job satisfaction, but their absence did not lead to dissatisfaction as was proclaimed by the theorist. The sense of dissatisfaction of staff at their working place could have implications for job performance and organizational effectiveness (Reyes & Shin, 1995). Absolutely, dissatisfied employees or workers may exhibit job avoidance behaviours, such as reducing their level of effort and quality of work.

Findings

Job satisfaction was once a controversial topic in academia. From the 1960’s till the late 1980’s, management theorists looked at the question from every angle they could think of, trying to find ways to create a contended labour force. Academic staff or teachers’ job satisfaction relates positively to participative decision-making, higher autonomy at work, work environment, quality of work and definitely leads to student improvement and achievement (Ferguson, 2000; Jacobson, 2005; Mertler, 2002; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005; Singer, 1995).

Researchers expected to find a strong significant correlation between the job satisfaction of the workers and productivity (Peter, 2006). Job satisfaction has stimulated a great deal of research interest and opened the doors for researchers partly because it is
viewed as important in its own right and partly it might be because of its association with other important outcomes and results. In a recent meta-analysis, looking into relations of job satisfaction and human behaviour, Organ and Ryan (1995) found average significant correlated variables. As human nature, satisfaction in human’s life triggers happiness and leads to the positive side of the human. As a matter of fact, when humans feel satisfied in their life, especially in their working climate, humans seem to commit themselves to come out with quality and outstanding jobs and performance. Therefore, satisfaction provides performance and commitment.

Latham (1998) and Mertler (2002) suggested the best ways to strengthen the teaching profession and provided some tips such as: (a) to make teaching a more satisfying and enjoying career, (b) encouraging young academic staff or teachers to become academic staff, and (c) motivating experienced academic staff or teachers to stay in the profession. Harris (1995) surveyed a national sample of over 1000 American academic staff and found only seven percent very satisfied with the profession and motivated about their teaching job, compared to 38% who were between satisfaction and great dissatisfaction. This indicated that these teachers would change careers in the near future looking for satisfaction in another organization. Colgan (2004) reported that 14% of the new teaching staff in the profession leave after one year of searching for another job, and the cumulative rate of academic staff leaving the profession after five years is 46% (National Education Association, 2004).

Determining academic staff satisfaction is a complex endeavour. Teaching staff job satisfaction has a very strong relationship with school reform issues such as staff
professionalism, academic staff personal growth; participative decision-making; staff empowerment; autonomy; collegiality; perceptions of school climate; and workplace conditions (Fullan & Hargreaves, 2002; Ma & McMillan, 1999; Quaglia & Marion, 1991; Rindler, 1994; Singer, 1995; Stockard & Lehman, 2004; Wu & Short, 1996).

Searching for staff satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their working places is ongoing research and studies continue to search for a connection between the internal construct of academic staff job satisfaction such as the things that can keep humans happy and their needs: sense of success, motivation for coming to work, commitment to the profession, or self-perception of worth, and the external conditions of academic staff evaluation such as work place conditions, collaborative processes, autonomy, freedom of expression; professional development, or management support (Butt & Lance, 2005; Davis & Wilson, 2000; Woods & Weasmer, 2002; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2005).

Further, Ma and MacMillan (1999) found that workplace conditions positively affect workers’ satisfaction. In school settings, educators assess their work roles by determining how they feel about coming to work each day and the sense of success they have for their performance. Darling-Hammond (1992) emphasized that rigidity of the policy, bureaucratically administered schools have not succeeded in implementing and applying changes in school reform. In addition, Robinson (1998) posed a question related to academic staff job satisfaction and academic staff evaluation systems as well as suggesting that diverse evaluation models maximize academic staff growth and academic staff satisfaction. Robinson further suggested that boosting academic staff job satisfaction would motivate academic staff to continue to improve their instructional practices,
teaching; generating improved learning environments and increased student achievement as well as their performance.

Woods and Weasmer, (2002) and Victoria (2005), from their suggestion “when academic staff or teachers are satisfied, the rate of frustration is reduced, motivation is received; collegiality is enhanced, and job performance improves. Teachers who find their work environment supporting, motivating and nurturing have self-perceptions of competence, worth, ownership, belongingness and satisfaction with their school and find it difficult leaving the workplace” (Wu & Short, 1996, Victoria, p.23, 2005). The literature assumes satisfaction causes commitment and work devotion. Moreover, it presumes higher job satisfaction produces higher organizational commitment and performance. However, the relationship between satisfaction and commitment was found with the same data set (SEM) and indicates considerable empirical evidence and proof for significant positive causal-effects of job satisfaction on commitment (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Mueller et al., 1994; Price & Mueller, 1986a, 1995).

In a 2001 a survey conducted among the Canadian employees it shows that good employment relationships are the key factor of an excellent job. Moreover, the study also shows a strong relationship between job satisfaction and productivity growth and development (Graham & Grant 2001). Furthermore, a result of the Hawthorne studies is that leaders generalized and concluded that if their employees or subordinates are satisfied with their jobs, that satisfaction would be translated into high productivity and great performance (Robbins, Stephen & Marry, 1999).
In educational settings, staff’s satisfaction is generally about teaching staff’s job satisfaction, autonomy of using a variety of teaching methods, freedom of expression, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; self-efficacy and relationship with the management as well as students. Besides, academic staff/lecturers should be considered as one of the great elements for school quality and student achievement.

Last not the least, the studies of Blake, Lucy and James (2006) in on educational setting show that non-managerial employee job satisfaction is higher in companies that use participative management and decision making. The findings also indicate that the respondents refused to have autocratic managerial decision-making because autocratic decision-making leads to lower job satisfaction while consultative and delegative decision-making leads to higher job satisfaction. The workers working at Respiratory Therapy departments received higher job satisfaction compared to the workers in larger departments.

**Staff’s Job Satisfaction: Motivational and Hygiene Factors**

In relation to job satisfaction, in 1966 Herzberg has theorized dual factors and proclaimed there are two types of needs that workers mostly need generally in their working environment:

- **Motivator factors:** these factors derive from job satisfaction e.g. achievement, responsibility, recognition, advancement etc.
- **Hygiene factors:** these prevent and stop dissatisfaction among the staff at the working place, e.g. company policy and administration, supervision, status, security, interpersonal relationships, and money.
Herzberg has developed this theory and made people believe that employers must meet the motivational needs through personal fulfilment and hygiene needs through good working conditions. He developed the idea by making motivational factors and hygiene factors as part of workers’ rights which they must have at their workplace and part of organizational responsibility and development.

In a learning atmosphere, there is no general agreement upon specific terms or a definition of academic staff or teachers’ job satisfaction or of what constitutes teaching satisfaction. Academic staff are most satisfied by matters related to intrinsic motivation to the role of teaching such as helping students, being curious about student achievement; having positive relationships with students and others; self growth and so on (Dinham & Scott, 2002; van den Berg, 2002).

Concerning motivator factors or what contributes to staff job satisfaction in their workplace, various factors have been identified such as promotion, compensation, salary, recognition and so forth. Eventually, based on the various researches conducted, motivator factors are described as the factors that lead workers to have control over their work and satisfaction. Indeed, motivator factors are related to job content, or what people actually do in their work, and are associated with positive feelings of an individual and his attitude toward his/her job. Based on the two-factor model, motivator factors include the work itself, recognition, advancement, a sense of achievement, and responsibilities.

Furthermore, staff recognition plays a huge role especially in the school context. Data from the National Center for Education Statistics (1998) confirm that staff recognition, academic staff participation in school decision-making, parental support,
influence over school policy, and classroom management and control are the factors most strongly associated with academic staff satisfaction. Additionally, recognition and feedback have been cited as important motivators for teaching staff, and evaluation is an obvious vehicle for using these incentives to direct the academic staff on the path towards professional development and improvement (Farase, 1992).

Logically, when the staff needs are provided and they are motivated, such recognition from their boss, praise for their achievement and their contribution to the organization, the more highly satisfied they will be at the working place and the more effort they will put into their job to achieve the goals and objectives of that particular organization. Besides, it has been theorized by the psychologists such as Maslow, Hersberg, McClelland and others that humans need to be motivated. Alternatively, in a short form, motivation is part of human needs in surviving and living because motivation is the internal force that drives employees’ behaviour in their working place and workforce commitment is the psychological ownership a person has for his/her job in the work environment. These concepts and ideologies often go along with each other where employee motivation influences job satisfaction or workforce commitment while job satisfaction may provide motivation; workforce commitment and work devotion (Rosemary & Joseph, 2001).

As described, the first step to motivate employees is to try to eliminate the dissatisfaction. With this understanding, managers are advised to ensure that wages, working conditions, company policy, etc., are appropriate and reasonable. Leaders can motivate their subordinates as well as satisfying them through extrinsic motivation such as
providing rewards for contributions and efforts, pleasing them by payoffs and so forth which will definitely determine or develop workers’ intrinsic motivation. Hence, if a worker does a better job, he/she intrinsically feels good about it and feels so proud of what he/she has done.

In this situation, there are many factors contributing to staff's job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as hygiene factors that were associated with job dissatisfaction, for example, frozen-salary, lack of promotion, unappreciated work by the management or supervisor, and isolation as well as deprivation from the meetings. However, interpersonal relationships between staff and management and colleagues; working conditions and organizational policy seemed to have a direct-effect on job context in the staff working environment (Brain, 2003).

Intrinsically, an individual who shows an interest and likeness for their work is more motivated to stay longer and perform well in their jobs (Katzell and Thompson 1990). Moreover, dissatisfaction is related to complaints about the job situation or factors in the immediate work setting. To satisfy and motivate staff, there are some additional elements which should be incorporated such as: meaningful, interesting, and challenging work (Kreitner, 1998). Hence, in the situation whereby the organization rewards and compensates staff’s effort; recognizes workers’ performance; increases salary and promotion as well as productivity are considered by the management, in return, it increases the level of satisfaction with the job (Brain, 2003).
Biologically, humans feel happy and pleasant when they find their work has been rewarded, praised and compensated because, wages are important to them for being providers of both the necessities and pleasures of life. Furthermore, if the work pressure increases, it will lead to a decrease in job satisfaction. As a matter of fact, decline in job satisfaction causes an increase in staff attrition and frustration. Additionally, the basic lesson of Hersberg’s research is to guide the leaders firstly about eliminating dissatisfaction with the sense of making sure those working conditions, pay levels, and organizational policies are reasonable. They should then concentrate on giving motivation by providing opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, and development. In light of this, if a workplace should be considered as attractive and creating job satisfaction, the individual should be enabled to perform high-quality work.

As a reminder, management must have an attitude of willingness to institute changes, accepting employees’ suggestions; recognizing good work and efforts; and rewarding them for improvements. Based on evidence, we can assume that greater organizational rewards in return for a good job done by the employees lead to greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment and loyalty (Douglas, 1999). The capital value model suggests that workers’ job commitment to their work and satisfaction about their jobs are derived from pay, skills and worker productivity.

Regarding job satisfaction in terms of job dimensions, it is advantageous to specify the aspects of work that might lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction for areas to focus on for the process of remediation (Furnham, 1997). Eventually, some dimensions were identified from previous studies on schools such as work recognition, promotion, interpersonal
relations, principal, relations with colleagues and students; participation in decision-
making, salary, communication, responsibility, work conditions, school culture, feedback
from others, and the work itself (Chaplain, 1995; Dinham & Scott, 1996; 1998; Hersberg,
1968; Lester, 1987; McCormick & Solman, 1992a; 1992b; Scott & Dinham, 2003).

In relation to academic staff’s health and sanitation, some of the hygiene factors
under different research methodologies have been identified and discovered as sources of
job satisfaction. According to Moriarty, Edmonds, Blatchford and Martin (2001), it was
found by them that the working environment is a significant source of job satisfaction for
academic staff. Likewise, Menon and Christou (2002) identified headmaster relationships
with academic staff as a significant source that leads to job satisfaction for a sample of
primary school teaching staff.

In this sense, academic staff’s satisfaction and the factors leading to their teaching
satisfaction have been reasoned out and recent studies have been carried out across the
countries, drawing school’s management attention to the degree of job satisfaction among
teachers in terms of their working intensification and loading (Hargreaves, 1994) and
community concerns about academic staff overworking (Naylor, 2001). Besides, it has been
reported that imposing rules and policies, centralizing system accountability, lacking
professional sovereignty; relentlessly imposing changes, constant media criticism, reduced
resources, and moderate salary are related to low teaching staff satisfaction in many
developed countries around the world (e.g., Dinham & Scott, 1998b, 2000a; Scott et al.,
2001; Van den Berg, 2002; Vandenberghhe & Huberman, 1999).
As a result, the effects of the decline in job satisfaction reduce the ability to meet students’ needs, causes of psychological disorders leading to an increase in absenteeism, and high levels of stress-related disability claimed by workers (Farber, 1991; Troman & Woods, 2000). Most importantly, it seemed the academic staff or teachers’ dissatisfaction appears to be a main factor for them leaving the teaching profession in many countries (Huberman, 1993; Woods et al., 1997). Thus, research on academic staff satisfaction is becoming a more and more important issue and topic, not only about the number of academic staff leaving the teaching profession but also the association and effect of dissatisfaction on productivity and decreasing good performance (Tshannen-Moran et al., 1998).

**Findings on Job Satisfaction and the Motivational and Hygiene Factors**

Job satisfaction has become the most frequently studied variable to write about in published books and articles. Besides, the list of such publications continues and most of them put strong emphasis on job satisfaction and refer to one’s feelings about a job. The investigators assume such feelings might have a positive-effect or negative-effect on work motivation and job performance. It was perceived as a critical variable in life and development of every organization (Fresko, Kfir, & Nasser, 1997; Gasiel & Maslovaty, 1998; Podsakoff & MacKensie, 1997) suggested what could lead to employees’ job satisfaction and increase their performance by making the working atmosphere more pleasant and supportive.

The results of John on relationship of job satisfaction with turnover (1999) showed that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and staff turnover. This means satisfied
workers are more likely to stay and dissatisfied workers are more likely to quit their jobs. A positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity was found (Allen, 1996; Bassi & Van Buren, 1997; Laabs, 1998; Sauter, Hurrell, & Cooper, 1989; Savery, 1996). Satisfaction was found to have effect quality of service and organizational commitment (Alpander, 1990; Van de Looij, 1995). Since Holger Hofmann (2004) has defined that job satisfaction represents the attitudes of workers towards their jobs, therefore, the discontent could have an impact on absenteeism, turnover rate, and on productivity in general.

Reyes, (1990) found academic staff and administrators experienced similar levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and autonomy in decision-making in a research examining organizational behavior and what related to organizations with job satisfaction among the school administrators. Thus, it is important that staff perceptions should be included when assessing quality work life. Further, research shows that many good academic staff leave teaching in the first three years when the environment is not conducive or favorable and when they were not satisfied with their teaching profession (Frase, 1992).

Besides, researchers in special education programmes have found job satisfaction and academic/administrative staff stress correlated with each other and with special educator attrition (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Culver & Wolfle, 1990; Platt & Olson, 1990; Singh & Billingsley, 1996). In this regard, education leaders need to find ways to keep academic staff in the profession and keep them motivated. A motivated staff member, as described here, is one that not only satisfied with their work, but also is empowered and motivated to pursue excellence, growth and development in teaching practice (Frase, 1992).
Staff were satisfied or pleased with rewards and with the salary and benefits in a study of Ford (1992) among the academic and administrative at Mid-Plains Community College in terms of salary and rewards. It has been suggested by Steers and Porter (1983) that performance leads to rewards and rewards lead to satisfaction. From their perspective, employees are satisfied when they receive outcomes that are valued and when they feel they have been treated fairly and empowered. The rhetoric of academic staff or teachers' empowerment and shared decision-making has apparently given principals the impression and signal that the wish has been translated into practice and consideration (Jianping, 2001).

Heck et al. (1990) found principals’ democratization of the school governance process indirectly related to school outcomes and it did have effects on schools’ instructional organization and internal environment. Besides, principals’ democratization of the school governance process was highly correlated with academic staff satisfaction with the degrees to which principals recognize teaching ability, consultation with the about policy decisions and generally respect them (J. Stewart & Hall, 1997).

In contrast, Kim, (1996) stated in his empirical results that there is no statistically significant relationship between pay and job satisfaction/organizational commitment. Similar findings in the school setting confirmed that salaries and subsidies have no significant influence on teacher’s job satisfaction (Pisciotta, 2000). Although, some previous research pointed out that a teacher’s job satisfaction has a relationship with welfare, salaries and promotion (Richard & Joshua, 2000).
Whereas these findings might be surprising, it has been confirmed earlier in qualitative reviews that there is a relationship between pay and the turnover process based on studies conducted at the University of Iowa (Gaertner, 1999). In addition, both the motivators and hygiene factors are essential in different ways in predicting and determining teachers’ job satisfaction (Naylor, 1999). Additionally, the majority of the teachers in the two schools were less and least satisfied with their salary, promotion and fringe benefits in a study conducted by Syed, Mohammad, Sivanand and Nilufar, (2005) in Bangladesh on the job satisfaction of women teachers.

Further, achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement were strong determiners of job satisfaction in a study conducted by Gawel (1997). Similarly, achievement, responsibility and recognition significantly to job satisfaction of teachers, while others, such as inadequate supervision style, poor interpersonal relationships with peers and pare relationships with students, rigid and inflexible school policies and administrative practices were factors mostly leading to teachers’ job dissatisfaction in a study of Herzberg in Sergiovanni (1967).

A generally high level of job satisfaction with certain administrative concerns was found contributing to a decrease in satisfaction in a study of Nussel, Edward J., and others (1988) surveying 426 teacher educators. Findings of Ping-Man and Chi-Sum, (2005) proposed to provide a better understanding of academic staff promotion in general in a research conducted in Hong Kong with a sample of 210 principals and teachers or teaching staff from both primary and secondary schools. On the other hand, salary as a major hygiene factor did not seem to be true in a study conducted by Bellott and Tutor (1990)
among the elementary and secondary school teachers in the Tennessee Career Ladder Program, comparing Herzberg’s characterization of salary as a hygiene factor.

Meanwhile, motivators were found to be the factors that lead to job satisfaction in Nwachukwu’s (2006) study among the teachers in Nigeria. A study conducted in Thailand by Rathavoot and Stephen (2003) in non educational settings confirmed achievement, recognition; work itself; responsibility and advance to be sources of job satisfaction among staff.

- **Maslow Theory**

  Additionally in working sectors, management theory generally tries to link motivation with psychological factors. Combining the work of Herzberg and Maslow, Herzberg emphasized practically every aspect of job enrichment or satisfaction approaches, while Maslow’s theory infused all levels from pay, health and safety at work to the self-actualizing need of creative leaders or management to provide in their workforce. Scientifically, it has been argued by the scientists that workers seemed to be motivated by financial rewards. However, human relations views pointed that workers are motivated by different factors.

  Looking into Maslow’s theory (1954) about the hierarchy of needs, he predicted five levels of what a human being needs in relation to workers’ needs in achieving their work satisfaction. Maslow proclaimed that a worker needs to satisfy his or her needs, hunger and taste as a human at the lower level at least before he/she can move to another level in fulfilling their needs. Thus, employees’ need, at the first level, to satisfy themselves
psychologically, sensing safety, being given the chance to act socially and have the feeling that they are part of a social entity; developing self-esteem and self-actualization.

• **Equity Motivation Theory**

Equity motivation theory was theorized by a prominent scholar: John Stacey Adam. This theory is one of the famous theories used worldwide in putting workplace psychology into action as well as motivating teams and workers. Equity motivation theory came into being in 1963 and fundamentally lies on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs as well as Herzberg’s Motivators and Hygiene Factors. This theory explains that, the workers and employees unhappy or de-motivated when they believed that what they are putting in is much greater than what they are receiving (Lyndsay, N.d).

Moreover, this proclaimed that, motivation can be explained in many ways such as: recognizing workers’ efforts and being hard working, their loyalty to the company and commitment; their ability, skills and adaptability as well as flexibility of the employers. Besides, motivation can be appreciated through tolerance of the management and the workers about the situations in their jobs; their determination, enthusiasm towards works; trust receiving from managers or superiors; support and rapport amongst colleagues and their personal sacrifices to get the job done. Furthermore, the output from the working place should something tangible and non-tangible such as salary, benefit; promotion,; bonus,; rewards,; allowances,; advancement; growth’ praising and thinks giving as well as achievement.

In addition, Equity Theory suggests that there will be a regression towards the mean, even with the existence of additive tasks (Adams, 1965). According to Equity Theory, people desire the ratio of their outcomes and investments to be roughly equivalent
to the ratio for some other referent person or group. If ratios are not equal, and the
difference is beyond some individual threshold level, emotional responses occur and the
desire to restore equity manifests itself. In order to restore equity, people have a number of
choices. They can change their outcomes, change their inputs, distort the value of either
their outcomes or inputs, leave the field, change the outcomes of inputs of another, or
change the referent person or group (Kenneth, Tobias & David, 2006).

**Job Satisfaction among the Academics in the Malaysian Context**

Moderate levels of job satisfaction in some public universities were found among
academic staff in a research conducted by Fauziah and Anizah (2003). The research also
shows the relationship of the organizational climate and employees’ job satisfaction, using
some of Herzberg’s job satisfaction factors. Similarly, a study of Solucis and Syed Shah
Alam (2005) on job satisfaction confirmed the mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation
such as pay, promotion, fringe benefit, working conditions and others as the significant
determinants of job satisfaction among academic staff in private universities in Malaysia.
Also, job satisfaction was related positively with pay/salary, promotion and working

A significant linear relationship between income and job satisfaction is consistent
with existing literature in the Malaysian context. A moderate and positive relationship
between participation and workers’ job satisfaction and a weak relationship between
employees’ participation and job satisfaction was found in a study conducted by Michael,
Rahim and Abu Daud (1996) in Malaysia in the business setting. Also in Malaysia, a study
conducted by Mirza (1996) confirmed a correlation of Job Satisfaction among Malaysian
managers in Malaysia which means that it is possible that the relative worth of money rather than money per se may be more important, particularly when the cost of living is rather low.

Summary

Job satisfaction has been defined in similar ways and most of the definitions were about something pertaining to the happiness, positive feelings, and attitude of the staff or workers towards their job facets. Job satisfaction plays a huge role towards an organization realizing their goals. Job satisfaction of the workers was perceived as motivation which is always related to organizational commitment. It was reported in many places that job satisfaction is essential for the staff motivation to perform a good job. In the situation where staff or workers are dissatisfied at their working place, the implications will be expensive for relating to employees performing well in their jobs and organizational effectiveness. Job satisfaction is a measurement of workers’ expression about how they feel about their work.

Job satisfaction is somehow the inner part of a person and emotion towards their happiness and unhappiness about a situation. Hence, if the workers are happy about their job and feel motivated, it leads to positive inner feelings, motivates the worker to work hard and apply their best performance. But in the case where the workers are de-motivated and dissatisfied about their job, automatically, it will affect their work and performance. Further, various research has been conducted on what motivates workers and staff in their work. Eventually, the findings show many factors that contribute to job satisfaction of the workers, such as salary, promotion, motivation, compensation, recognition and others.
Most of the researchers stated that there is a strong relation between leadership and how management handles things as well as the style applied to carry out their work with job satisfaction of the workers. In addition, it was reported that there is a strong causality of the motivational factors on staff job satisfaction in any organization proving salary increment, promotion in the job, being motivated by the management, autonomy, appreciation and recognition of the leaders all lead to workers’/staff job satisfaction and interest to stay longer in the job. Deprivation of the staff from the university or school decision-making process and the organizational features such as policy can affect how staff view their quality work life. That is why when determining staff perceptions about quality of work life, it is important to look into what motivates individual to work and it points to consider by the employers to instill organizational commitment in workers, effectiveness and productivity.

Additionally, some research reported that university policies have somehow been politicized by the country’s leadership. This brings changes in educational polices and inconsistence in the education system. In the Malaysian context, it was generally reported that public universities educational policies seemed to be governed by the Ministry. Moreover, some research published on this field proclaimed that university top-management and the academic including administrative staff are powerless in terms of commenting or giving opinions on the university policy and what should be done. This happened due to the huge financial support given to the public universities by the Malaysian government.
In this sense, academics feel powerless in showing and expressing their views on the implications of policies on their job satisfaction. Besides, they felt isolated in being involved in the decision-making process. In this tough situation, it is hard for academic staff particularly to display their skills and abilities when they have been mandated by the rigid policies and when they have been instructed by the government to just follow the laws without any comments and views.

In light of this, firstly, the Ministry of education specifically should make or draw up policies which will look into academic staff concerns and which will fully involve academic staff at all levels. In addition, university policies should be determined by the university management with the full involvement of the academic staff for being akin to students and related to their field. Secondly, it is advisable for the management and leaders to consider the job satisfaction of their workers. Workers’ job satisfaction yields passively to an organization realizing their dreams and objectives. Job satisfaction of the staff is a key to success for any organization’s achievement and accomplishment. Therefore, it is very vital for management to use proper style, create good relationships and to have effective communication between their subordinates.

**Statistical Techniques used in the Previous Studies**

In this sub-section, the research tries to present the percentage distributions of the statistical techniques used by the various researchers in their empirical studies. All the methodologies and statistical tools are highlighted in this sub-section. The distributions of the statistical techniques used previously are presented in Table 4.5 the analysis of the
distribution of statistical techniques revealed that the researchers used various statistical techniques in their studies.

Table 2.5.

*Percentage of Distribution of Statistical Techniques in the Precious Studies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Statistical Techniques</strong></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>(% Approx.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferential:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Regression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation,</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ronald, Heck &amp; Paul</td>
<td>Academic staff empowerment and the implementation of school-based reform</td>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denton, Margaret Seytino glu &amp;Urla</td>
<td>Perceived participation in decision-making in a university setting: the impact of gender</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice, Ellen &amp; Schneider</td>
<td>A decade of academic staff empowerment: an empirical of academic staff involvement in decision-making</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ronit</td>
<td>Satisfaction of Jewish &amp; Arab academic staff in Israel</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanes, Lucy &amp; James</td>
<td>Respiratory therapists’ attitudes about participative decision-making: relationship between managerial decision-making style &amp; job satisfaction</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous</td>
<td>The satisfaction &amp; stress of being a academic staff</td>
<td>1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James, Scotter</td>
<td>Relationships of task performance &amp; contextual performance with turnover, job satisfaction &amp; affective commitment</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Douglas</td>
<td>The causal order of job satisfaction &amp; organizational commitment in models of employee turnover</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stefan</td>
<td>Structural determinants of Job satisfaction &amp; organizational commitment in turnover models</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.6 (continued)

Methodological Analysis of Previous Studies on Management Styles, Job Satisfaction & Decision-Making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Subject’s Level</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Software</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stefan</td>
<td>Structural determinants of job satisfaction &amp; organizational commitment in turnover models</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul &amp; Marie</td>
<td>Staff retention &amp; job satisfaction at a hospital clinic-A case study</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Hospital Workers</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verdugo, Richard, Greenberg, Nancy, Ronald, Uribe, Schneider</td>
<td>School government regimes and academic staff job satisfaction: Bureaucracy, legitimacy and community</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>3,325</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Academic staff</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>LISREL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ChanMantak, Ching, Chor</td>
<td>Academic staff participation in decision-making: the case of SMI schools in Hong Kong</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>2 Principals &amp; 105 Academic staff</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Survey &amp; Interview</td>
<td>3 Dimensional Models</td>
<td>Academic staff</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson, David, McNamera, James, Hoyle &amp; John Jerald</td>
<td>Job satisfaction in education organisation: a synthesis of research findings</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Correlation &amp; Descriptive</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>Academic staff</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mfondoun</td>
<td>Work environment &amp; job satisfaction among secondary school academic staff in Seremban: A case study</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Correlation &amp; Cross Tabulation Descriptive</td>
<td>Academic staff</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagarajah, Lee Hun</td>
<td>The relationship between participative management &amp; the morale of Tamil primary school academic staff in the state of Johore a normative theory of participative decision-making in school</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoy, Waynek, Tarter</td>
<td>Personal value systems &amp; decision-making styles of public managers</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.6 (continued)

Methodological Analysis of Previous Studies on Management Styles, Job Satisfaction & Decision-Making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Subject’s Level</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Software</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michalinos &amp; Elena</td>
<td>Job satisfaction among school academic staff in Cyprus</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Multivariate Regression ANOVA</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>ACADEMIC STAFF Educators Lecturers</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gail Kinman</td>
<td>A survey into the causes and consequences of occupational stress in UK academic &amp; related staff.</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tor, Siong</td>
<td>Academic staff’s involvement in decision-making: A study of secondary schools academic staff in Temerloh, Pahang</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Public School Academic staff</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ismama</td>
<td>Administrator &amp; academic staff’s involvement in community activities with special reference to Khamatrat Banrung secondary school, Yala, southern Thailand</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Administrators Academic staff</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ida, Kiswigho</td>
<td>Globalization, University policy &amp; Policy process in post Colonial Africa: A critical analysis of the University of Malawi reform.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kim</td>
<td>participative Management Style and employees' perceptions of participative strategic planning</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Multiple Regression</td>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balse and Blase</td>
<td>Improvement of teaching and learning and employing participatory decision-making</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smylie and Brownlee-Conyers</td>
<td>Academic staff participation in school-based decision making in relation to instructional improvement and student academic outcomes.</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>3300</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>Students &amp; Academic staff</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2.6 (continued)

**Methodological Analysis of Previous Studies on Management Styles, Job Satisfaction & Decision-Making**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Subject’s Level</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Software</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Luckner &amp; Hanke</td>
<td>The perceptions of a national sample of academic staff of students who deaf or hard of hearing to assess their level of job satisfaction</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>Academic staff Students</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abu-Bakar</td>
<td>An analysis of job satisfaction among academic staff of universities in Malaysia. (Abstract).</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Titus Oshagbemi</td>
<td>Leadership and Management in Universities: Britain and Nigeria</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Nigeria &amp; Britain</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Descriptive Regression Correlation</td>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Likert</td>
<td>SPSS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.7.  
Definitions of Job Satisfaction & its Factors according to the Theorists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| John,                                      | 1999 | • Measurement of quality work  
• A degree to which an individual feels positively or negatively about the various aspects of job |
| Cooley & Yonanof, Aiken et al              | 1996 | “an affective response to one’s job as a whole or to particular facets of it”  
• Work pressure,  
• Equality development,  
• Knowledge development  
• Inter-professional co-operation. |
| Aiken et al, 1998; Sullivan et al.         | 1989 | • Motivation  
• Compensation, Recognition, Salary and Promotion |
| De Nobile                                  | 2003 | • Extension to which a staff member has favourable or positive feelings about work or the work environment. |
| Furnham, Locke                             | 1997 | • Positive attitudes or emotional dispositions people may gain from work or through aspects of work |
| Chellandurai                               | 1999 | • An attitude that people have about their job |
| Balser, Kihm, Smith, Irwin, Bachiochi, Robie, Sinar, & Parra, Smucker & Kent, Douglas, B | 1997 | • As the feelings or thought a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives |
| Cooley & Yonanof,                          | 1996 | • An affective response to one’s job as a whole or to particular facets of it. |
| Industry week web site                     | 2003 | • As a person’s general attitude towards his or her job. |
| Price                                      | 1997 | • As a degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organisation. |
| Hofmann                                    | 2004 | • Job satisfaction represents employees’ attitudes towards their jobs. |
Table 2.8.
Definitions of Decision-Making according to the Theorists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mintsberg</strong></td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Commitment to action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gore</strong></td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>- Moment of choice&lt;br&gt;- Choosing from among alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>James &amp; Marvin,</strong></td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>A process influenced by information and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stewart &amp; Iyman,</strong></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>A process of specifying the nature of a particular problem or opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Griffiths</strong></td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>A process, which one goes through in order to be able to pass:&lt;br&gt;- Judgment&lt;br&gt;- Terminate a controversy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gareth &amp; Jennifer</strong></td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>- Process by which managers respond to:&lt;br&gt;- Opportunities,&lt;br&gt;- Threats&lt;br&gt;- Analysing potions&lt;br&gt;- Making determinations about specific organizational goals and courses of action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Owens</strong></td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>A process of selecting a course of action among available alternatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dill</strong></td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>A chain of activities consisting of several stages that involve:&lt;br&gt;- Agenda building,&lt;br&gt;- Commitment,&lt;br&gt;- Implementation and evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conway</strong></td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>A process wherein one or more actors determine a particular choice;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lipham</strong></td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>A process that needs:&lt;br&gt;- Consciousness,&lt;br&gt;- Awareness&lt;br&gt;- Alertness of the serious problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aiken, Clarke, Solane, Silber</strong></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Process through which managers and leaders identify and resolve problems and capitalizes on opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sternburg &amp; Li-fang,</strong></td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>One definition used in the literature for decision styles is the <em>identification of a distinctive personality type or behavior</em>&lt;br&gt;Could be defined as a <em>habitual pattern</em> or <em>preferred way</em> of doing something that is consistent over time and across activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mittler</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>• A Management Style is defined as an overall method of leadership used by a manager</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Fenwick and Murlis    | 1994 | • Managerial style has been defined as the ability to use pertinent knowledge and methods of working with people.  
• It includes an understanding of general principles of “human behaviour” particularly those that involve an innovative skill approach to leadership and the use of this understanding in day-to-day interaction with others in the work situation |
| Tull and Albaum,      | 1997 | • Management style is defined as “a recurring set of characteristics that are associated with the decisional process of the firm or individual managers”                                                                                                                                                                           |
| Albaum et al.         | 1995 |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| Abramson et al.       | 1993 | • “Consistent modes of thought that introduce systematic preferences for particular kinds of information that are used in the problem-solving.                                                                                                                                                                                      |
Statistical Techniques and Statistical Power of the Reviewed Studies

The concept of using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) or path analysis is to show causal relations between two variables since Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) or path analysis is used and is adequate if the researcher is examining causal relationships or intending to link multiple and observed indicators to unmeasured causes or trying to assess the overall model to data (Bohrnstedt & Knoke, 1994; Hair et al., 1998).

As a matter of fact, others techniques can be used figuratively for the same objective but in terms of causality and item reliability measuring, Path Analysis, the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), Rasch Model, Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Principle Component Analysis are more robust and inherently stronger and more powerful compared to others univariate techniques such as: ANOVA, CORRELATION and Cronbash Alpha level based techniques. Precisely, those mentioned techniques could estimate or calculate approximately the error.

Statistically, multivariate analysis is an effective technique to deal with or reduce error inflation when various variables are examined simultaneously (Sahari, 1998). Besides, it is only through multivariate techniques that multiple relationships can be adequately examined (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998).
Implications of the Literature Review

The literature showed that management styles, academic staff involvement in decision-making and decision-making styles of the management/principal were related to academic staff job satisfaction. The literature stressed that the principal or top educational administrators must control, monitor, or direct, but must respect the team as a responsible community of adults. Initially, these people must together set in place the framework within which collective action can occur. The goal for the principals, rectors and deans of faculties should be to involve the staff in the process of making decisions and to be aware of the implications of the their management and decision-making styles in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning as well as providing a hygienic environment which will increase job satisfaction among the academic staff and non academic staff.

In many cases, management and decision-making styles play huge roles in the teaching and learning environment whereby the academic staff need to be motivated and satisfied with their jobs. A good or positive management style will influence decision styles and both factors will certainly affect positively and directly teaching and indirectly will have an impact on learning. It was stated in the different literature that when academic staff feel a governance regime is legitimate, they can expect their job satisfaction and sense of autonomy to increase. Even in Islam, it was stated that Shura is synonymous with democracy, it is a deeply contested notion; it is the successful and just practice and it is the institutionalization of these ideas that counts rather than theoretical finessing. “We must, however, be careful not to use the debate between the similarities and dissimilarities of shura and democracy as a surrogate for concluding if democracy and Islam are compatible or not. There is more in Islam than shura when it comes to reflecting over the nature of
good governance and best policies” (Muqtedar Khan, p. 200). The research designs were almost all quantitative. The previous studies employed different statistical methods and research methodologies and the most studied categories were schools, universities and companies. Besides, the majority of the samples used by the previous studies were academic staff/lecturers and managers.

Furthermore, studies on the implications of University Management Styles, decisions and academic staff job satisfaction were scarce and insufficient in academic sectors. Therefore, it is the intention of the present study to endeavour to fill in this gap. This study will adopt a hypothetic-deductive design (quantitative method). The literature review above has helped the present study in designing its research approach. Stratified sampling, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and Rasch Model will be the main statistical tools in the present study.