Negative emotions in Change: An exploratory study of academics' negative emotional experiences during universities' change in Saudi Arabia and the UK

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by

By

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Abstract

The key aim of this thesis was to investigate the emotional impact of change within higher educational institutions in Saudi Arabia and the UK. The study adopted a qualitative approach to investigate how the academic setting influences emotions, specific trigger events and the emotion management strategies of academics. The social constructionist approach provided a theoretical platform for investigating how emotions are influenced by sociocultural situations, and for understanding how each culture has its own distinctive trends relating to emotions, resulting from social practices.

Using semi-structured interviews and photo-elicitation techniques, narrative interviews were carried out with a sample of 40 London and Saudi academics. Thematic analysis was used to analyse and interpret the collected data. The stories of academics revealed that negative emotions were a common response to changes within higher education; however, the main trigger events of negative emotions related to managements' treatment of academic staff during change time. There was lack of transparency in transferring information on the change process to academics in both universities, which lead to various negative emotions such as confusion, anger, fear, indignation frustration and sadness. The study provided evidence of variation in the strategies used by both groups of academics to manage their negative emotions, ranging from personal to situational strategies, although both groups used personal rather than situational strategies most frequently. There were, however, clear differences between the academics, particularly in relation to the expression of specific emotions, which could be attributed to differences between individualistic and collectivist cultures. The study confirmed that change within university is indeed an emotional event, and the impact on academics within higher education needs to be considered by those implementing change. It is also important to note that the different negative emotions expressed by academics and their management strategies can be influenced by social and cultural norms, with organisational structure and religion playing significant roles here.

Keywords: *Negative emotions, university change, Saudi Arabia, the UK, social constructionist theory, management of emotions.*

بِسْمِ اللهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِيْمِ

"In the Name of Allah The Most Gracious The
Most Merciful"

Dedication

To the soul of my father

Abdulmajeed who gave me a great deal without return.

To the soul of my sister

Majeda who was as a second mother for me and gave me considerable help with my education.

To the eternal support of my mother Aisha, my sister Najlaa and my soul mate Mahmoud who gave me and suffered a lot during my study, for their unconditional love and support to make my study possible.

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Declaration

The author, Amal Qassim, confirms that this thesis is her own work, undertaken for the purpose of a PhD degree at Brunel University, London, and supervised by Dr Raffaella Valsecchi and Dr Natasha Slutskaya. No part of the work which is referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or of any other university or Institution.

Amal Qassim

Table of contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

This thesis presents the findings from a study which aimed to assess the emotional impact of changes that occur within higher education, drawing on the experiences of academics from both Saudi Arabia (SA) and the United Kingdom (UK). The research, which adopted a social constructionist approach, focused especially on the negative emotions that academics encounter following ongoing changes - such as restructuring and mergers within the university context - as well as the triggers and management of these emotions. This first chapter will present the context of the current study and highlight the main gaps in the organisational literature on emotions and the contributions made to knowledge. It then explains the main purpose and objectives of the study, as well as the conceptual direction, methods and the reasons for studying organisational change in Saudi Arabian and UK universities. Finally, it offers an overview of the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Research Background and Contribution

Several researchers have acknowledged the importance of recognizing emotions in organisational life, especially as the workplace can be a very emotional environment (see, for instance, Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Fineman, 2000; Ashkanasy, Härtel and Zerbe, 2000; Fineman, 2005). Researchers across the fields of sociology (including Hochschild, 1983; Fineman, 2003), social psychology (such as Izard, 1991; Parrott, 2001), and management, organisational psychology and behaviour (see, for example, Ashkanasy, Härtel and Zerbe, 2000; Ashkanasy and Daus, 2005), have argued that emotions have been mostly perceived as irrational and therefore have tended to be marginalised as inappropriate, disruptive and dysfunctional.

The experience of work is saturated with a variety of emotions, from hope, joy, happiness, pride and satisfaction, to frustration, anxiety or fear, to an enduring sense of dissatisfaction or commitment (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Kiefer and Muller, 2003; Hodges, 2016). Research has shown that positive emotional experiences at work can lead to improvements in an individuals' performance, while negative emotional experiences can have the opposite effect (Fredrickson and Losada, 2005).

Therefore, when emotions have been examined in organisational research, the interest has predominantly been in studying positive emotions, and the focus has largely been from a more psychological perspective. Research has examined, for instance, the influence of positive emotions in encouraging workers to achieve goals (Llies and Judge, 2005); increase productivity (Staw, Sutton and Pelled, 1994; Llies and Judge, 2005), creativity (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002; Andries, 2011) and cognitive flexibility (Staw, Sutton and Pelled, 1994); improve work quality (Andries, 2011); lead to desirable work outcomes (Wright and Staw, 1999); improve workers' well-being (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002) and increase their professional satisfaction (Andries, 2011). This interest has emerged from the belief that positive emotions broaden employees' thought, and motivate them to unfold new and innovative ideas and actions, in comparison with negative emotions that have the opposite influence (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002).

The emotional aspects, such as the concept of emotional labour, have been emphasised by scholarship into different occupations (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989; Wharton, 1993; Leidner, 1999; Grandey *et al.*, 2005; Theodosius, 2006), employee resistance (Sturdy and Fineman, 2001; Sandiford and Seymour, 2011) and organisational processes and power relations, such as decision-making, motivation, leadership and gender (Gianakos, 2002; Pirola-Merlo *et al.*, 2002; Domagalski and Steelman, 2007), but has tended to neglect central topics, such as negative emotions. Although there are some recent and notable exceptions investigating specific emotions in the workplace, especially anger (Fitness, 2000; Glomb, 2002; Domagalski and Steelman, 2005; Geddes and Callister, 2007); fear (Ashkanasy and Nicholson, 2003; Skinner, 2004); jealousy and envy (Dogan and Vecchio, 2001; Cohen-Charash, 2009) shame and guilt (Barclay, Skarlicki and Pugh, 2005; Guendouzi, 2006); and loneliness (Wright, 2005; Erdil and Ertosun, 2011; Wright, 2012), although few of these have explored the various negative emotions in general. This suggests that there is a need to consider an anthology of particular organisational negative emotional events, through drawing on people's experiences in the workplace, as well as how the work setting shapes and influences the emotional expression and management of these emotions. Emotion is an essential part of the work experience (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995), as Tichy and Sherman (1993, p. 64 cited in Hodage, 2016) observe; "work, inevitably is an emotional experience; healthy people cannot just drop their feelings off at home like a set of golf clubs". It is

therefore important to acknowledge that emotions at work matter.

Emotional responses to change are often viewed as burdens that leaders and managers must endure and, in some instances, ignore (Hodges, 2016). Leaders, managers and agents involved in change often mistakenly assume that their conceptions of the purpose and process of change are shared by others at all levels; therefore failing to understand how each person involved in the change responds on an individual level (Talat, 2017). Thus, those who plan and implement change (sometimes referred to as 'change agents') may not foresee emotional responses to organisational change and to most aspects of organisational life, and even if they do, may ignore them (Hodges, 2016). This is a misguided approach, however, as emotions are an important part of any change, and they also have an impact on the behaviour of individuals, which can subsequently affect the success of that change (Hodges, 2016). Therefore, the employees' emotional response to change is important as it represents their reactions towards change (Scherer, 2005). Organisational change scholars have been interested in the impact of emotions upon employees' thought processes and the productiveness of the strategic activity of change (Huy, 2005); the effect of emotions upon the behaviour of employees (Saunders and Thornhill, 2002; Kiefer, 2005; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008); and the resistance to change by employees (Liu and Perrewe, 2005; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008; Rafferty and Jimmieson 2016). Other research has considered stress and fear to be the principally negative responses to organisational change (Spector and Fox, 2002; Bordia *et al.,* 2004; Vokola and Nikolaou, 2005; Cartwright, Tytherleigh and Robertson, 2007). These researchers directed their concentration at responses to change which have perceived it as unacceptable, unwelcome and negative, consequently diminishing employees' well-being.

In research which has examined emotional effects of change, important issues have been overlooked. Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006, p.123), for instance, found in their research that individuals commented within the context of change that "we had to hide what we felt" and "we could not show how it affected us". These findings are significant, but did not consider why employees have to hide their emotions, what they feel when they hide them, and how they manage such emotions. As literature on organisational change focuses on the management of the emotions side of change, how individuals respond to issues that impact on them personally in the work

environment is missing. Therefore, this thesis is an attempt to address the gap in the literature and offer a better understanding of the emotional experience of employees, in particular, the negative emotions that can be experienced during periods of change within higher education. It aims to address the triggers and the management strategies of these emotions, whilst adopting a social constructionist approach, which is under-utilised in the area of emotions and organisational change. Such an approach will help to examine the influence of organisational and wider culture in shaping emotional experiences and management strategies, as this perspective recognises that the social environment in which people live and work shapes their emotions (Fineman, 2000; 2003; 2005). Thus, individuals try to make sense of their workplace by taking signs from different stimuli and processing experiences in cognitive and affective ways. In addition, it has been suggested that employees are the most important factor in making change successful; however, Linstone and Mitroff (1994) believe that they are the most difficult element to deal with. Furthermore, negative emotions may have a harmful effect on employees, which could influence their engagement, satisfaction and reduce their productivity, and lead them to leave work (Andries, 2011). Thus, in order to manage and lead people effectively through change, it is important to appreciate emotional responses to change and to understand how negative emotions, in particular, can be addressed (Hodges, 2016).

The current research aimed to examine such emotions relating to change, but specifically amongst academics working within the higher education sector, especially as the emotional effects of higher education change have been largely overlooked (Becker *et al.*, 2004; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). Higher education has witnessed the powerful pressure of change in the last couple of years last decade (Taylor, 2006), and as such, understanding the ways in which academic staff experience this change and the different emotions they encounter as a result are important to understand. The academic workplace can be an environment where strong emotions can be experienced such as anger, pride, shame and uncertainty, which are not welcomed in academia's emotional culture (Bloch, 2012). As Bloch (2012) argues, however, the emotions characteristic of academia, and how academics manage their emotions, needs to be further examined.

Many commentators argue that academics have traditionally focused on examining the work of other occupational groups and, in so doing, have neglected their own

labour process (Friedman and Miller-Herringer, 1991; Willmott, 1995; Oshagbemi, 1996). There has been some research into the changes that have affected academia in recent years, such as modularization (Dunne, Bennet and Carré, 1997); an increasing emphasis on performance, workload and accountability (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999), as well as procedures and increased fragmentation of tasks (Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003); a change in how work is organised (Gumport and Sporn, 1999); and the lengthening of working hours, with more time spent on administrative tasks (Gornitzka, Kyvik and Larsen, 1998; Gornitzka and Larsen, 2004). There has been some research into the emotional effect of change within higher education, but the focus here was on students' emotions rather than those of academics (Trigwell, 2012; Valiente, Swanson and Eisenberg, 2012). Where researchers have been interested in the emotions of academic staff, it has tended to be within further education (Schutz and Lanehart, 2002; Zembylas, 2011), or on school teachers' emotions when interacting with students in classrooms and during change (Hargreaves, 1998; Hargreaves, 2000;; Hargreaves, 2005; Saunders, 2013).

Within the context of higher education, there have been some studies which have focused on occupational stress for academics during change (Tytherleigh *et al.*, 2005; Taylor, 2006) and its effect on their wellbeing. A small number of studies have also examined academics' emotions in the university environment with a focus on emotion in relation to teaching practices (Stough and Emmer 1998; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne 2011; Trigwell 2012). Whilst there has been some suggestion that literature on school teachers' emotions could be applied to university academics (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), it is also argued that there may be variation between how university academics experience emotions compared to school teachers (Mahoney *et al.,* 2011). This is especially as emotional experiences and expression are likely to differ according to different educational environments (Sutton, Mudrey-Camino and Knight, 2009). University academic roles can involve wide variation within job activities (Mahoney *et al*., 2011), and the university environment is very different to the school environment, with different types of learners, functional expectations for both students and teachers, and learning tasks (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). Sutton, Mudrey-Camino and Knight, (2009) suggest, for instance, that whilst school teachers are under pressure to provide an ideal image of their emotions to their pupils, university academics have greater flexibility as they teach university students. The latter's performance appraisals, however, are affected by evaluation from their

students (Mahoney *et al*., 2011). Thus, students could penalise university academics that do not offer what they consider to be an appropriate emotional atmosphere. Therefore, university academics may be under pressure to manage these emotions (*Ibid*.).

In educational settings, academia is linked with rationality, objectivity, and intellectual excellence (Kennedy, 1997). Intellectual work requires concealing emotions because adding them threatens the academic enterprise (Kennedy, 1997). Critically, if one is to accept the argument that academic staff are a vital resource (Capelleras, 2005), then an analysis of what Fullan (2007) refers to as the phenomenology of change and how staff actually experience change, is of fundamental importance. What is known, for instance, is that change often faces the barrier of emotion (Klarner, By and Diefenbach, 2011), yet we know little about how emotion contributes to this arena. In particular, we know little about academics' experience of negative emotions during university change. Therefore, this study expands knowledge of what negative emotions academics feel during change, why they feel them and how they manage them, and how the university setting influences their experience and management strategies. This is important when such emotions seem to be neglected by institutional leaders who typically focus on the products of research without appreciating the work and the range of emotional effort it takes to produce it in the first place (Neumann, 2006). Therefore, this thesis will add to the empirical literature on the experience of emotions in work-related settings and the even smaller body of research into the emotional aspects of organisational change. This study will contribute to the literature by enhancing knowledge of employees' emotional experiences during change (Klarner, By and Diefenbach, 2011), through the words of the employees themselves. It also hopes to underline the need for recognition of emotional issues in change processes (Erkison, 2004), as this currently remains poorly understood (Klarner, By and Diefenbach, 2011), particularly in the case of negative emotions within higher education.

Several attempts have been made to conceptualize emotional differences across cultures, however, the socio-cultural aspects of emotions have been largely ignored (Mesquita, Frijda and Scherer, 1997; Mesquita, 2001; Mesquita and Walker, 2003). Understanding the social context of emotional expression in organisations is important, as it influences the emotions expressed (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989; Morris

and Feldman, 1996; Fineman, 2000). Emotions are a response by individuals to the social rules, implicit and explicit, in the wider culture in which they live (Fineman, 2000). Social mores and norms drive much of the experience, expression and suppression of emotions (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). From an organisational perspective:

> Culture, whether societal, organisational, occupational, departmental, etc. provides belief about emotional states, a vocabulary for discussing them and then a set of socially-acceptable attributions for the state (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995, p.100).

The literature on emotional labour (Hochschild, 1979; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Mann, 1999; Smollan, 2006; Bolton, 2009) emphasises how cultural expectations can determine the emotions that people express or supress at work. Social context is manifested as social, occupational and organisational norms about what emotions are appropriate for employees to express (Hochschild, 1979; 1983). This thesis is interested in expanding knowledge through a social constructionist lens and offers important insights into how academic staff in Saudi Arabia and the UK respond emotionally to university change, pointing to similarities and differences in their emotional responses. In addition, inspired by old and recent literature, and by the current gaps in emotions and organisational change literature, this thesis explores the negative emotional experience of academics working in higher education institutions in SA and the UK, and how the culture of these universities and the changes implemented triggered such emotions, and influenced the strategies employed by academics to manage these emotional experiences.

1.3 Research Aim and Objectives

The research aimed to investigate cultural differences in relation to the emotional impact of changes within higher educational institutions on academics in SA and the UK. This was broken down into three key research questions:

1) What negative emotions, if any, are experienced by academics during changes within higher education in London and Saudi universities?
2) What events during changes within higher education have triggered negative emotions among academics at universities in SA and the UK?
3) How do university academics in SA and the UK respond to and manage their negative emotions?

The main objectives of the study were therefore:

- To examine what negative emotions could be evoked by the change within the university environment, and the emotions of academics working within such contexts. It was important to not only explore the emotional impact of changes on academics more generally, but also to determine the events that have triggered especially negative emotions here.

- To explore the ways in which negative emotions have been managed by academics in both SA and the UK and to document particularly useful examples here.

- To take into account the importance of cultural context in understanding how the university culture in both SA and the UK influence academics response, expression and suppression of emotions, and to identify if there any similarities and differences in their emotional response, expression and management strategies.

The research objective explores different aspects of the research topic, with the first research objective providing the background to the study through the use of literature and secondary data. Objective one draws on the experiences of the academics themselves, using qualitative semi-structured interviews and photo-elicitation techniques to provide insights into the emotions felt during periods of change and what triggers them. Objective two highlights the management strategies that academics used to manage their negative emotions. Objective three draws on the cultural differences of academics' experience of negative emotions during university change. Such findings provided key experiential data for the study.

1.4 Conceptual Direction (Social Construction)

Emotions are socially constructed phenomena (Kemper, 1987; Markus and Kitayama, 2001) and as individuals live in wider culture, they are expected to respond to social rules implicitly and explicitly (Fineman, 2000). Expression, suppression and experience of emotions are influenced by social norms and mores (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001) which impacts on how people think and respond to events. Social constructionists (e.g. Harré, 1986; Burkitt, 1997) take account of the biological facets of emotions, but understand individual experiences and emotions through the media of social relationships and language. However, even within this tradition, there are

differences in opinion as to whether emotions are totally or partially socially constructed (Schwandt, 1994; 1998).

From an organisational perspective, there is a strong line of thinking that emotions in the workplace have been captured, controlled, managed, harnessed and commodified by organisations for their own benefit and at the cost of the workers (Hochschild, 1983; Fineman, 2000; Sturdy and Fineman, 2001; Fineman, 2003; 2004; 2005). In the context of organisational change, Vince (2006) and Antonacopoulou and Gabriel (2001) point out that social, political and cultural factors influence meaning and emotions that emerge during change events. The social construction of emotions will be discussed further in Chapter Two (page 40) and Chapter Five (page 96).

1.5 Overview of the Method

This research study employs a social constructionist approach, which lies within the interpretive approach, allowing for in-depth exploration of the ways in which academics respond to change events and the social factors that shape their response. The study used secondary literature to review existing knowledge on emotions, change management and emotions in higher education to identify gaps in the area of emotions and higher education in times of change. Semi-structured interviews with photo-elicitation techniques were then used to explore how academics in SA and the UK respond emotionally to university change events, through their own words, and how they manage those emotions. The use of photograph-elicitation techniques combined with semi-structured interviews is relatively uncommon in this area of research, however, it was considered beneficial for stimulating discussion and better understanding negative emotional experiences (Kiefer, 2005; Elving, 2005; Maitlis and Sonenshein, 2010; Klarner, By and Diefenbach, 2011).

Disciplines that focus on organizations, such as management and strategy, have actively borrowed theories and methodologies from other academic disciplines (Corley and Gioia, 2011). However, organizational researchers have made limited use of methodological approaches that have been salient in other social science disciplines, such as visual methods (Buchanan, 2001; Harper, 2002; Warren, 2005; Ray and Smith, 2012; Vince and Warren, 2012). The paucity of studies that incorporate photographic research methods in the organizational sciences is surprising given the many benefits of this technique (Ray and Smith, 2012). Photographs, for

instance, provide a means of constructing multiple realities shaped by social and cultural factors and located in a particular time and space (Guillemin, 2004; Frith and Harcourt, 2007), and are relatively easy to produce, process and publish (in comparison to videos) (Ray and Smith, 2012). Furthermore, by collecting and analysing data in the form of photographs, researchers can capture aspects of organizational reality without the distorting effects of other methods (such as recall bias) or when words alone do not provide the best means to represent experiences (Warren, 2005; Slutskaya; Simpson and Hughes, 2012). Photographic research methods offer a way of capturing organizational phenomena in real time (Ray and Smith, 2012), and allow researchers to incorporate voices from a wide range of organizational members (Warren, 2005). For the current research, the use of photographs was perceived as beneficial for gaining a "more complex understanding of human experiences" (Harper, 1998, p. 7), across two different cultures (see Chapter Five, page 90 for a more detailed explanation of the methodology).

It is hoped that the findings from the study will be helpful in identifying the negative emotions, and the events that triggered those emotions in academics. This information may prove valuable to university and industry stakeholders in terms of putting relevant support and services in place, and in refining academics' training strategies in order to help them to manage workplace events. In addition, industry practitioners can benefit more broadly from the study results by better understanding what the industry can do to minimise the unpleasant effects of change and of negative emotions.

1.6 Background of the Higher Education

1.6.1 Higher education in SA

When the Kingdom of SA was founded in 1932, the nation struggled both in economic and educational terms; there were only twelve schools across the country, comprising 700 students (Alamri, 2011). After the oil was discovered in the country, the situation changed considerably, and 365 schools were established with 42,000 students in 1950 (Simmons and Simmons, 1994). It is important to note, however, that the education only benefited males, as females were not able to access education at this time (Alamri, 2011). Females in SA were forbidden from education, despite the fact that King Saud endeavoured to allow girls to be educated (Alsuwaida, 2016).

This marginalization and the discrimination in women's education lasted until 1960, when educated middle-class males requested that schools be built for women too. It was believed that having an educated wife would better support the marriage and family (Baki, 2004). In 1960, the first government funded school was established and women in SA were permitted to receive education (Yizraeli, 2012, cited in Alsuwaida, 2016), although their education system was entirely different from the one provided to males (Alsuwaida, 2016). In relation to their ascribed role as mother and housewife (Sabbagh, 1996, cited in Alsuwaida, 2016), for instance, it was felt that education should prepare them to be ideal wives according to Sharia law and the holy Quran (Alsuwaida, 2016).

In 1957, the first university in the country; King Saud University, was opened. This institution was located in the capital city of Riyadh. By 1983, SA had, however, undergone extensive development, mostly as a consequence of the large quantities of oil discovered in the nation. Consequently, six more universities with 63,563 students and 6,906 teaching staff were founded (Alamri, 2011), and the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) was also established. The founding of the MOHE was a significant stage in the process of developing higher education in SA (Alsharai and Almadani, 2016), and was considered necessary for improving the organisation and evolution of universities. It predominantly emphasises the progression of students within scientific departments and degrees, supporting research and creating rules and regulations for compliance by all HEIs (MOHE, 2013). It is also responsible for advocating the establishment of higher education institutions (HEIs) and specific courses which meet the needs of the country; representing, producing and regulating HEIs and coordinating collaboration between institutions (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission to Washington DC [SACM], 2011).

The significant advancement of HEIs in SA is evidenced through the rising number of HEIs, with the current figure at 36 HEIs, encompassing the various demographic aspects of Saudi Arabian life (MOHE, 2018). The growing number of institutions is part of the development plan for SA, which aims to improve employment in the country, with a focus on subjects which support national competencies and requirements. Furthermore, it permits Saudi institutions to categorise their careers into managerial, academic and technical abilities (Alsharai and Almadani, 2016). Academic jobs necessitate a higher education process to improve the capacities of

academic staff in regulating the curriculum, enhancing the learning experience and utilising modern strategies (Shay, Ashwin and Case, 2009). There are two main roles for HEIs; the production of research and teaching. Teaching is essentially the most crucial function of a university (Al-Twaijry, Brierley and Gwilliam, 2003). Additionally, in terms of the enhancement of society, the institution has responsibility for developing leadership and professional abilities in various areas and undertaking research to combat challenging community difficulties (Al-Harbi, 2011; Alenezi, 2012).

In 2006, the MOHE introduced 'The Future Plan for Higher Education'. This plan intended to inspire SA higher education (Al-fares, Al-Haboubi and Al-Zahrani, 2013). In order to be world-class in all areas of higher education, the roles at universities were divided into three main areas: education, scientific research and community service (Alamri, 2011). The MOHE specified 20 key areas in research, teaching and community that needed to be addressed, studied and improved (Al-fares, Al-Haboubi and Al-Zahrani, 2013). It was considered imperative to utilise the process of university education in order to convey and distribute the ability, the findings of important scientific studies, and the application of community service (Alamri, 2011). Therefore, the MOHE encouraged proposals and the provision of funding to support these studies (Al-fares, Al-Haboubi and Al-Zahrani, 2013).

In 2009, the number of public universities had increased to 24 universities, with maximum growth of 212.5 per cent registration compared with 1999 (Mazi and Abouammoh, 2009, p.3 cited in Pavan, 2013; p**. 26**). In 2013, there were 25 public universities and nine private universities in SA that covered all Saudi demographic areas (Pavan, 2013). It is expected that 80 per cent of Saudi universities' faculty members have studied abroad, particularly in the United States and UK (Sawahel, 2013). This increase has emerged from various processes which have encouraged young Saudi women and men to be educated oversees (Pavan, 2013). The Saudi government fund and support between 85 and 95 per cent of Saudi students oversees, with the majority being sponsored by the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) (*Ibid.*). The KASP is one of the most superb and largest government educational initiatives that has been created in SA and worldwide (Al-Mousa, 2010, p.719). The budget of this scholarship is around US$ 3.2 billion (IECHE, 2012, p. 2, cited in Pavan, 2013), and in 2013, the King Abdullah confirmed an extension of this

government programme until 2017 (Arab News, February 12, 2013), although subject to tighter restrictions (Abujami, 2016; Britton, 2016). There were between 110,000 and 125,000 Saudi women and men students being educated in 23 different countries around the world. This is the fourth highest number of students educated overseas, after China, India and South Korea (Zong and Batalova, 2018). The aim of this scholarship programme, according to the MOHE (2014), is to prepare a unique Saudi generation for knowledge and skills that will benefit and develop their country. It aims to extend and increase the communication between cultures, through the exchange of knowledge between the students and their host country. It is believed that such experience will introduce highly qualified, professional people, with a high standard of education to the country, which will improve and develop the economic circumstances of the country as a whole (MOHE, 2014).

Despite the fact that the Saudi government supports the scholarship programme and encourages qualified students to study oversees (AI-Youbi, 2017), it also offers students high quality higher education inside the country. The government provides numerous forms of support for Saudi universities and offers an internal scholarship for students who prefer to study in private universities inside the country. The Saudi universities have a range of different subjects and the facilities that universities offer are of a high standard (*Ibid.*). SA is now investing in post-secondary education and research, following the recognition that such an investment will develop and boost the economy. Therefore, all Saudi universities now play an essential role in improving the education system in the country by creating new ideas, technology and innovation, by transferring and sharing knowledge, and through encouraging and inspiring new jobs and business in the country (*Ibid.).*

1.6.2   Higher education in the UK

Education in the UK began with the development of schools during the Roman occupation between AD 43 and 400 (Gillard, 2018). The first grammar school was founded in 598 in Canterbury, with more schools being founded in several cities between seventh and eighth centuries. However, only a small number of people received the education provided in these schools (*Ibid*.). The schools were linked with cathedrals and monasteries, therefore, most who attended these schools later became nuns, monks or priests, although not all desired to do so (Orme 2006 cited in Gillard, 2018). The subjects taught in grammar schools were limited to Latin

grammar and literature (Gillard, 2018). As within SA, girls' education in the UK was also restricted; including only religious instruction, writing, reading, grammar and home craft, such as spinning (*Ibid.*). In the eighteenth centuries, schools started to include extra subjects for girls, including French, Italian language, music and drawing. It has been argued, however, that these schools were focused more on 'coaching for success in the game of matrimony' (Lawson and Silver 1973:256 cited in Gillard, 2018), with the belief that the more women were educated, the more benefit they will bring to their family (O'Day 1982, cited in Gillard, 2018).

In 1096, the first university in the UK was founded which was the university of Oxford. Subsequent to this, other universities were gradually founded, following a call for more widespread higher education (HE) in the UK (British Council, 2014). The University of Cambridge, for instance, was established in 1209, and three other Scottish Universities were founded around the time of the early 15th century, such as Aberdeen, St Andrews University and also the University of Glasgow, followed by the University of Edinburgh in 1583. In 1849, the government founded the first higher education college for girls as a way to improve the education of women (Gillard, 2018). In the 19th century, there was a vast increase in the number of public universities being established in the UK, more than 26 universities covering different demographic areas, for instance, Kings College London, Durham University, St David's University, as well as the University College London (British Council, 2014). By 1962, HE witnessed a considerable expansion and student numbers rose to 217,000 (Gillard, 2018). The UK was a consumer society where people desired better education to help them obtain high salary jobs (*Ibid.*). In the 1960s, education became the most important tool for social policy (Lawson and Silver 1973), which encouraged the government to take more dynamic role (Gillard, 2018). In 1964, the Ministry of Education (ME) was recognised as the department of education and science (*Ibid.*). There are now a range of institutions that provide access to higher education, including universities and colleges, arts colleges and university colleges (Blanden and Machin, 2004).

The rapid expansion in HE has brought great concern in relation to the quality and funding of universities (Bathmaker, 2003). Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are not owned or managed by the British government; rather they are sovereign and separate legal entities that have committees or councils that are accountable for

deciding the strategic course of the university, as well as managing its financial affairs and its general administration and management on a daily basis (Britishcouncil, 2014). It is common and prevalent for universities to obtain a segment of public funds as a proportion of their overall income, although the percentage of income will differ between universities (*Ibid*.).   Funding by the British government for those universities that are publicly funded is controlled and administered by separate bodies that are independent from the government.   The role of these funding councils involves the provision of financial support and generic information to universities (British Council, 2014) and was dependent on students numbers (Bathmaker, 2003). Although, the funding is divided between teaching and research (*Ibid.*), the research-led institutions are funded differently from the teaching-led institutions (Walford, 1991, cited in Bathmaker, 2003). However, employees of academic institutions, such as lecturers and administrative and support staff, are recruited by universities themselves and there is no input from the government in this respect (British Council, 2014). If the academic institution is publicly funded, as opposed to privately, then the remuneration of employees is negotiated nationwide by means of a dual body that denotes mutual management and trade unions, with the ensuing agreements becoming proposals for universities and colleges partaking (*Ibid.*).

Changing social and economic factors have affected the nature of HE. In the 21st century, there has been rapid change in the economic, social and technological environment, which has influenced the nature of people's lives and employment (Bathmaker, 2003). These changes have increased the demands made on the HE sector, which has encouraged universities to provide innovative, new and creative courses of study (Bathmaker, 2003). This has also lead to an increase in competition between universities (Halsey *et al.,,* 1997).   The number of people attending university is increasing every year; in 2017 there were 162 HEIs with 3.2 million students, 206,870 academic staff and 212,840 non-academic staff. In 2014, the UK HE sector achieved 15.2 per cent of the world's most highly-cited articles and represented 4.1 per cent of the world's researchers (Universities UK, 2017).

1.6.3   Justification for the selection of the Saudi Arabian and UK case studies

SA and the UK were selected for the cases studies in the current research for several reasons. First, it was important to draw on two case studies where a variety of distinctions could be made, for instance, on an economic, religious, cultural and

educational level, in order for academics' emotions to be examined in different contexts. These two case studies provided such distinctions. The UK, for example, is considered to be a developed country and the world's first industrialised country (Un.org, 2014). Its economy is the world's fifth largest economy by nominal GDP and ninth largest economy by purchasing power parity (Mathias, 2001; BBC, 2017). The UK remains a great power with substantial economic, cultural, military, political and scientific impact internationally (BBC, 2017). SA is the largest country in the Arabian Peninsula, with the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba to the west and the Persian Gulf to the rest (United Nations [UN], 2018). It is known as the world's largest oil producer and exporter, monitoring the world's second-largest oil reserves and the sixth largest gas reserves (US Energy Information Administration [EIA], 2017). Both countries have also been classified by the World Bank as high-income economies with a high human development index (World bank, 2014; BBC, 2017). Despite these similarities, in contrast to the UK, SA is considered to be a developing country, partly due to its failure to advance its economic, cultural and social values. Little investment in industrial, real estate, agricultural, education and healthcare sectors, and the poverty experienced by many citizens, result in SA being classified as a third world country (Butt, 2016).

Secondly, the culture and religion of both countries are very different. The UK is a multi-faith society, and religion has had an important role in British public life. However, the traditional Christian faith has not totally disappeared from British society, but rather has been marginalized by people (Calhoun, 2016). In 2015, the Commission on Religion and Belief in Public Life announced that the UK is no longer a predominantly Christian country and people should stop behaving like that (*Ibid*.). Affiliation with the Church of England has, for instance, seen the biggest decline, from 40 per cent in 1983 to 20 per cent in 2010 (NatCen, 2011). Of those who are religious, religious practice has also shown to have declined. The British Social Attitudes Survey (2010), for instance, found that people who do not attend places of worship increased from 49 per cent in 1990 to 56 per cent in 2010 (The Woolf Institute, 2015). It has also been shown that there has been a growth in the number of people in non-Christian religions and those who see themselves as not religious (Calhoun, 2016). As the British Social Attitudes Survey (2010) showed, for example, there has been a rise from 31 per cent of people who did not belong to a religion in 1983, to 50 per cent in 2010 (NatCen, 2011). Britain is now considered to

be a country that allows freedom of religion and thought, and gives people the right to express their religion and belief like other countries in the world. This lack of collective faith is also evident in the more individualistic culture of the UK. This individualistic culture, which is reinforced by neo-liberal ideals, facilitates the notion that one's status and fate rests more upon one's own efforts (Gilton, 2007, cited in Alyami, 2015). Thus, how well or poorly individuals do reflects less on their family, village, tribe, or nation. Individuals can succeed or fail without reflecting as much on their points of origin as those in more collectivist cultures (Alyami, 2015).

In contrast, SA has only one official religion; Islam, and that according to the Basic Law of Governance and the constitution is the Quran and Sunna (traditions and practices based on the life of the Prophet Muhammad) (International religious freedom report, 2016). Unlike the UK, the freedom of religion is prohibited in SA under the law and the government does not allow any public practice of non-Muslim religion. The law criminalizes "the promotion of atheistic ideologies in any form", "any attempt to cast doubt on the fundamentals of Islam", publications that "contradict the provisions of Islamic law", and other acts deemed contrary to sharia, including non-Islamic public worship, the public display of non-Islamic religious symbols, conversion by a Muslim to another religion, and proselytizing by a non-Muslim (*Ibid.*, p. 1). Therefore, Islam plays a strong role in all aspects of Saudi society (Vasil′ev, 2000). Islam impacts on culture through its influence on people's day to day lives, their work regimes, the education system, leisure activities, travel and even their daily interactions (*Ibid.*). Even though Saudi society has experienced huge change and development over recent years, it retains the value, tradition and custom of Islam (Saudi embassy, 2018). The country's tradition is deeply rooted in Islamic teaching and Arab customs which people have been taught by their family and culture (*Ibid.*). Being linked to family and tribe is very important to Saudi people, with strong appreciation of the social group, and reference to collective self-esteem (Kim and Omizo, 2005). As the Saudi culture is strongly influenced by Islam and Arabic traditions, it is considered important to provide care for others, particularly close family members, friends and neighbours (*Ibid.*). The high value placed on society, family and the community reflects the collectivism of Saudi culture (Alyami, 2015). Such cultures are reflected through the interdependency of their members, giving significance to the group's importance over one's own needs and promoting behaviour which assists in the common good (Hofstede, 2001).

There are, then, key differences between the two countries, in terms of their economies, religion and culture, in addition to strong differences in their educational histories. It is important to understand how such differences might impact on how universities in both countries operate and are structured and, in turn, how these may influence the experience of employees who work in those organizations. The current research therefore aimed to investigate the experience of academics working in universities in those countries, to offer a clear picture of the experience of university academics and how they emotionally experience the change in their organisations. It also aimed to explore to what extent culture, religion and organisational structure could be considered to play a role in shaping such experiences.

1.6.4 Reasons for selecting the Saudi and London universities

This section discusses the reasons for choosing the two case study universities, and draws predominantly on material from the specific universities' websites and documentation. It is therefore not referenced in order to conceal the identity of the universities. The selection of the two specific universities in SA and the UK were based on three key justifications. Some level of similarity was necessary here, for example, in relation to experience of - and response to - change. First, broader changes relating to increased globalisation, governmental schemes, and market pressures - which have been affecting universities worldwide - were apparent and relevant within both institutions in the UK and SA. These changes have an impact on the university systems and the ways in which they provide their services. For example, the universities' approaches aim to allow the university to be agile and responsive to alterations in the external environment and accomplish its approach efficiently to attain its main strategic goals. In response to change, the London university aims to increase cooperation and discussion processes between staff and students to improve educational priorities and improve the student experience. In addition, it aims to enhance research production through concentrating on large multi-disciplinary grants in areas that are more globally competitive and establishing partnerships with business, government and third sector bodies for doctoral training centre funding. Furthermore, the London university has also responded to the challenges surrounding Brexit by highlighting efforts to retain and attract staff and students from Europe and find new means to access European research funding. It aims to achieve this by building a robust network with like-minded European

universities, looking for substitutional sources of international research funding and evolving transnational education opportunities to educate international students.

The Saudi university has also adopted a new approach in response to global changes which aims to increase the effectiveness and competence of the education system and make a positive contribution to society. Advanced training, development and scientific research are to be aligned with the new requirement of the Ministry of the Higher Education. It endeavours to enhance the teaching and research quality of the university to be associated with the new vision of SA 2030, increasing emphasis on the importance of the accreditation, quality assurance mechanism and research productivity amongst their various departments and staff. The university has approved the new learning system (Blackboard) which replaced the old system that the university used (CENTRA and EMES systems). The new system has been utilized to monitor students' performance and observe the efficacy of the learning process. It also offers great opportunities for students to interact with their lecturers easily and have access the content of their courses anytime, anywhere and using a variety of tools. In addition, it established the Deanship of distance learning to keep pace with scientific, technical and cultural changes as well as increasing access to higher education for particular students.

Secondly, both selected universities have undergone a restructuring and merging process, resulting in a major internal reorganisation in the past four years. The changes within the London university took two main forms: first, there were structural alterations involving eight academic 'Schools' becoming three streamlined, reportedly more effective 'Colleges' (as the schools/departments were merged together, and changed names); second, there has been a complete redevelopment of the University's visual identity, which will be used on every piece of media released by the University. In the Saudi university, the girl's college for art and design has been merged with the university and re-restructured its department and changed the name to the Faculty of Art and Humanities. Moreover, the university has restructured some departments, and opened new departments to be associated with the new development in the country, most notably the 'Developing Curriculums Unit' which was established to review and monitor the curriculums in line with the requirements of the work market (MOHE, 2018).

Thirdly, both universities are public universities with high research production and have been serving their society for 50 years. They also share a similar vision of being a world-class university with sustainability and community engagement; to be a leader in developing standards of assessment for student performance; to have high-quality research and development programmes, to generate the trust of society and the corporate world. In recent years, the London university has been ranked 332 on the QS global world ranking and the Saudi university has been ranked 231, and both are striving to move higher up the list of top world-ranking universities.

The selected universities were therefore considered to be appropriate case studies for exploring the academic setting in both universities within a period of change, how it may have triggered and influenced the negative emotional experience of academic staff, as well as how these negative emotions have been managed within such conditions or circumstances. It was believed that the case study approach here would aid in generating rich layers of data and advance understanding about the particularities of negative emotional experiences during change in higher education from the perspective of academic staff in the selected universities.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is structured as follows. This first chapter has provided a brief background to the study and its contributions, research aims and objectives, the conceptual direction of the study, an overview of the method, and the reasons for selecting the universities within SA and the UK. Following this, the next two chapters (Two and Three) present a review of the literature relevant to emotions, with Chapter Two reviewing literature on approaches to emotions, including psychological and sociological approaches which consider central the concept of emotion management and display rules within the workplace. Chapter Three also discusses emotions at the organisational level, placing emphasis on the experience of emotions in organisational settings and specifically within academia, as well as management strategies used by employees. It also discusses the importance of emotions and change management, particularly employees' response to change, change in academia and academics' response to change. Chapter Four presents the links between the research questions and the conceptual framework of the study. Chapter Five discusses the philosophical foundations upon which the research is based, and the methodological approach adopted. The latter provides justification for the case study approach and research

design, before outlining the data collection methods (semi-structured interviews utilising the photo-elicitation technique), and the merits of such an approach within organisational research in general and emotions research in particular. The sample selection is also discussed, before explaining the ethical considerations and data analysis process. Chapters Six, Seven and Eight present the findings of the study in both countries, discussing the negative emotions identified, their triggers and the various strategies that academics have used to manage these emotions. Chapter Nine demonstrates the ways in which the research questions have been addressed and discusses the study's contribution, practical implications, limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review on Approaches to Emotions

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines emotions by presenting key debates within emotion research from both a psychological and sociological perspective. Emotions within psychological research have more often been associated with various states and strengths of arousal, while in sociological research, emotions are attached to and shaped by socio-cultural contexts. Thus, every culture is regarded as having its own unique pattern of emotions that originate from social practices. The current chapter reviews the literature around these approaches to understanding emotions. The emphasis is particularly on theories of emotions from psychological and sociological perspectives, and especially social constructionist theory which clarifies the importance of cultural rules, social influences and the functions of the language of emotional expression. The chapter then explores social perspectives on the study of emotions in the workplace. Reviewing various arguments related to the classification of emotions is crucial for comprehending the emotional experiences of individuals in their organisational lives.

2.2 Approaches to Emotions Research

2.2.1 Psychological Approach

A review of the literature on emotions in the field of psychology identified three major theoretical traditions in emotions research from this perspective, highlighting several different views on how to study, explain and define emotions. The first is the evolutionary perspective, or what has also been called the Darwinian perspective. Darwin defines emotions in relation to the idea of natural selection. The core idea is that emotions play an important role and provide a layer of protection, which - from an evolutionary and psychological perspective - promotes people's survival (Darwin, Ekman and Prodger, 1998). For instance, in the case of someone being in circumstances which need behavioural practice, an emotion will motivate the substitution of this practice with a different one, provided that it safeguards that individual (*Ibid.*). Consequent to the process of natural selection, every person should participate, to a certain level, in a mutual model of emotional articulation, as well as

display an inherent ability to understand or interpret one another's emotions, particularly by means of facial expression (Chang, Ivonin and Rauterberg, 2015). Darwin's idea is that people's feelings are formed and shaped by their evolutionary background and their knowledge of events that they have found valuable or not (Darwin, Ekman and Prodger, 1998). He pointed to two strengths of feelings; first, individuals cannot realise accurate emotions without evaluating the event and using their experience. Second, evaluating the situation gives people the opportunity to make better judgments and safeguard themselves from harmful feelings. This is known as adaptive behaviour, as each emotion illustrates certain individual behaviours linked to basic needs (Plutchik, 1980; 1984). For example, someone could feel surprise when exploring something new or feel fear when trying to protect themselves (*Ibid.*). This theory involves a biological view and an affirmation that emotions are produced naturally (Barrett, 2006). Based on this theory, individuals exhibit emotions in a universal manner, selected during the evolutionary process and are biologically primordial. Consequently, from this perspective, emotional responses are linked to survival, and are "…preprogrammed physiological reactions and physical behaviours" (Chang, Ivonin and Rauterberg, 2015, p.1332).

The second perspective is the bodily-feedback perspective, or what has been called the Jamesian perspective. In this view, the main focus of the emotional experience is the body's feedback. Psychologist William James (1884) demonstrates that the involvement of the body is necessary for having emotions. According to James, the experience of emotions is an immediate result of bodily change, and he argues that this change is exhibited in the emotion. He explains his opinion by saying that people, for instance, who lose their wealth, may regret the situation and shed tears. In his opinion, however, this presents an inaccurate sequence, and body language should first be inserted in between. Thus, it is more logical that individuals demonstrate regret because they shed tears, rather than shed tears because they regret a situation. As Adam (2007, p.37) explains:

> …the individual notices his physiological arousal and deduces that his body is preparing for the particular situation, for example, a frightening situation. He then feels the corresponding emotion.

Emotions therefore emanate not simply as the result of certain actions, but are also affected by bodily changes. Nevertheless, certain psychologists, such as Lazarus (1991), assert that the concept of emotions being fundamentally grounded exclusively

upon the experience of bodily changes is over-simplistic. This is because the response from physiological feedback is insufficient to interpret the potential emotions experienced by individuals (*Ibid.*).

The third perspective is the cognitive perspective. It was supported by the psychologist Arnold (1961), who argued that an emotion always entails an evaluation of how an object might benefit or harm a person, a process which she called appraisal. She explained that an appraisal means the immediate judgement of joy or pain, and suggested that there will be no emotions without such an appraisal (cited in Adam, 2007). Furthermore, Plutchik (1980; 1984) contends that a review is the assessment procedure which denotes the intellectual facet of emotions, and has an impact upon the kind of response pattern which is realistically perceived. As an example, he says that there are many possible reactions if an individual visualised a stimulate as likely to be dangerous. Such reactions could be to withdraw from it, to encounter it, to dismiss it, or to shed tears and seek assistance. Every one of these responses indicates a clear kind of negative assessment; furthermore, the relevant reaction to each assessment denotes specific categories or classifications of archetypal emotions. Therefore, the intellectual viewpoint of emotions principally involves the essence of the procedural assessment. Nevertheless, it ought to be accepted that an assessment or a concept cannot be regarded as an emotion. According to Plutchik (1980; 1984), assessment is merely a constituent of the entire procedure which concerns the human interaction which is inclusive of its biologically-adaptive methods. Therefore, according to these views, when attempting to understand emotion, it is important to consider how people make judgements about the events in their environment.

Psychoanalysis has been assimilated into the study of emotion. This area has opened new paths in examining the emotional life of people, in analysing the origin and meaning of various emotions and in considering the effects that emotions have on the individual's life (Gabriel, 2000). For example, Frijda (2005) stated that emotion has the ability to organize and manage human understanding and sense making, as well as the environment they are in. She conceives of emotions as private elements of personality, which include an appraisal component, that motivates a suitable response to particular events. In her opinion, emotion aids people in selectively controlling and directing their standards of attention. Such concentration may focus upon the individual or upon the world generally towards evaluation, preparedness to act or

action itself, whether it be simulated or systematic, absorbed or separate. Such variations in attention have resulted in individuals experiencing a variety of different emotions, since such experience includes an interpretation of the world generally or of the individual (a person's state, responses, body and personality) "…permeated by meaning, manifest as perceived felt qualities ("dangerous", "upset", "powerless", "attractive")" (Frijda, 2005, p.494). According to Keltner, Oatley and Jenkins (2013), emotions can be described as a psychological state or development which deliberates upon a person's consciousness of objectives and the situation inside that person's world. Consequently, emotions can be considered as logical because they enable people to manage adaptively with specific consciousness of their recent background (*Ibid.*). Nevertheless, they held the opinion that occasionally emotions may be illogical since certain people in particular circumstances may respond to an occurrence instantly without any logical thinking (*Ibid.*).

Key psychological points of view regarding the nature of emotion and how it is involved in individuals' responses have been illustrated. Researchers have offered theories in evolutionary understanding which present a fundamental comprehension of the ways in which emotions are induced. This theory demonstrates the role that external stimulants, such as events or objects can play in triggering emotions. No interpretation has been provided by this theory, however, as to the possibility of why two individuals experience different emotions regarding an identical stimulate. Bodily feedback perspective provides a small number of possibilities for the election of emotions. This does not demonstrate the position which external stimulates can occupy in inducing emotions, since it is dependent upon the consciousness of bodily change. The cognitive perspective is similar to the evolutionary perspective in considering that emotions may be induced by a stimulate within the surrounding environment. The differences in the emotions expressed, according to the cognitive perspective, are dependent upon individuals' evaluations of whether the environment will be dangerous or beneficial to them. Nevertheless, in this perspective, the concentration is exclusively upon the evaluation process of the environment, which neglects other aspect which can have an impact upon emotions, such as culture. Consequently, it is vital to consider other perspective on emotions, for example, sociological perspectives, and to examine the role that culture can play in influencing emotions.

2.2.2 Sociological Approach

Reviewing the sociological literature on emotion reveals that emotions are described as socially-constructed or transient social functions (Averill, 1980 cited in Turner and Stets, 2005). Studies of emotions in sociology have expressed an interest in the role played by culture in influencing the emotional experience and expression of individuals. This considers emotions to be the products of cultures and societies which are obtained or understood by people through their experiences (Larsen, 2017). In this section, special attention is given to the social constructionist theory, social influences and how language is essential in understanding people's emotional experiences. It will then examine social perspectives on emotions in the workplace.

Sociological researchers have focused on how certain social structures can influence people's behaviour; especially in the expression and experience of emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Fineman 2000). Therefore, emotions cannot be understood completely without including their social context, as Fineman (2000, p.10) states, "there is so much that is learned, 'social', interpretive, culturally specific, in the meaning and production of emotions, that strictly biological, in-the-body, explanations soon lose their potency". Two key approaches to emotions in sociological research include social constructivism and social constructionism. Whilst sometimes used interchangeably, these terms denote different approaches, as distinguished by Kidd (2004) who states that constructivism is connected to the description and accounts from the world, whilst constructionism is associated with the method involved in constructing the accounts. As Gergen (1996, p. 67) asserts, constructivism is a "class of physiological theories…which place particular stress on individuals' psychological construction of the experimental world", whilst social constructionism is a sociological perspective that believes language influences individuals' views of experience. Grotty (1998, p.58) explains, for instance, that:

> It would appear useful to reserve the term constructivism for the consideration focusing executively on the "meaning making activity of the individual mind" and to use constructionism where the focus includes the collective generation of meaning…constructivism in this sense points out the unique experiences of each of us…social constructionism emphasises the hold our culture has on us; it shapes the way we see things and gives us a quite definite view of the world.

The reference to social in the phrase social constructionism reveals the view that a person's perception of reality is influenced by the behaviour of other people (Smollan,

2009), and reality is socially constructed via words, symbols, and behaviours (Putnam, 1983 cited in Smollan, 2009). Social construction of reality indicates that people perceive reality from a range of social and personal situations, and that this reality can be altered with developments over time (Wolfram Cox and Hassard, 2007). Social constructionism stresses that societies provide a culture of ideologies, logics, norms, vocabularies and other symbolic components that particularize what people should feel in specific kinds of events and how they are to display and express emotions (Hochschild, 1979). It emphasises that socio-cultural context plays a role in shaping emotions and indicates that every culture has its unique pattern of emotions that construct from social practice (Harré, 1986).

Social constructionists do not ignore the role of physiological responses in the experience of emotions. Nevertheless, the importance of the normative effects and cultural variations in the understanding of emotions is emphasised (Averill, 1980 cited in Turner and Stets, 2005), and involves a situation-based perspective which differs from cognitive theories of emotion. Instead of being inward looking, social constructionists regard emotions as cultural consequences founded upon learned social rules (Averill, 1980 cited in Turner and Stets, 2005). This stresses the social elements of emotion and the ways in which social contexts have an impact upon a person's emotional state (Chang, Ivonin and Rauterberg, 2015). For them, cultures offer the components of evaluation which are the groundings of emotions, and are constructed within culture in order to satisfy particular social functions (*Ibid.*). This is different from the opinions of the psychological constructionists who contend that emotions are connected socially but are not socially determined. In fact, social constructionists hold the opinion that culture plays a key role in the classification of emotions, suggesting that emotions can be adjusted downwards according to the social situation in which they happen (Gendron and Barrett 2009). Instead of regarding emotion as a particular entity, social constructionists describe emotion as a dynamic process which emanates during the course of an individual's interaction with other people inside a provided social context (Chang, Ivonin and Rauterberg, 2015). They hold the opinion that emotions possess a social role and that in order to comprehend emotions; a person ought to consider the social accomplishment of a particular emotion (Averill, 1980 cited in Turner and Stets, 2005). There is a basic difference between these two opinions held by the two constructionists. For social constructionists, the aim of this sense-making procedure is the external social

situation, while the psychological constructionists consider bodily sensations to be the aim of the sense-making procedure (Chang, Ivonin and Rauterberg, 2015). (See Table 1, page 46, on differences between approaches to emotions).

Culture plays an important role in people's lives from a sociological perspective, as it restricts the emotions of individuals; it controls their feelings and expressions, regardless of the biological foundation of these emotions (Turner, 2009). People move between different cultures, each of which has its own rules and standards for emotional expression, and in families and at work, people show various styles, altering behaviour and emotions as they move between places (Rosenwein, 2002). Cornelius (2000) suggests that cultural and social rules offer what could be described as a script for emotion, which manages emotions from a behavioural point of view; thus the ways in which we become angry or afraid are influenced by our culture. This explains why in certain cultures, fear and anger appear to be different emotions (*Ibid.*). Acceptance of the role of culture in determining the situations we become emotional about and the ways in which we express these emotions offer a strong tool for comprehending emotions and the roles they play (Cornelius, 2000).

As mentioned above, culture influences and shapes what emotions people experience in particular situations and how these emotions ought to be expressed (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). Many research studies have demonstrated cultural variations in emotions (see, for instance, Maukus and Kitayma, 1991; Russel, 1994; Oyserman and Lee, 2008), pointing to the ways in which emotions cannot be considered to be exclusively biologically-determined, but also influenced by the environment, as well as by cultural and social circumstances. An example of this is how, in Western European culture, the well-being of the individual person is considered important (Oyserman and Lee, 2008) and people are therefore encouraged to express their emotions as well as to have an impact upon other people (Kitayama, Markus and Kurokawa, 2000; Oyserman and Lee, 2008). In contrast, in Eastern cultures, the central unit of the group is emphasised; consequently, it is considered important that every individual is loyal to the group in order to maintain social harmony, which encourages people to change their individual lives rather than to influence others (Kitayama, Markus and Kurokawa, 2000; Oyserman and Lee, 2008). According to Cornelius (2000), culture, for the purpose of social constructionism, occupies a key position in managing emotions at many stages. The most significant

aspect is that culture offers the elements of evaluation which create emotions. Although the evaluations process is a biological adaption, the elements of the evaluations within social constructionism are cultural. Therefore, the matters which cause individuals to become angry differ from one culture to another, and between different individuals (*Ibid.*).

Language also plays an important role in the expression of emotions (Harré, 1986), for as social constructionists argue, there are culturally diverse emotional vocabularies, which lead to variations in words according to culture, thus, individuals in different cultures may encode, react to and memorize emotions differently (Russell, 1991). By using language, individuals make sense of their emotions as it allows them to conceptualize and categorize emotions (Ogarkova, Borgeaud and Scherer, 2009). All languages have the same features in the sense that they contain phonemes and syntax, however, languages differ from culture to culture (Turner, 2009). Language helps people to learn, express and share quality of feelings with others and to comprehend emotions in different ways (Keltner, Oatley and Jenkins, 2013). Therefore, language can be an effective and viable means of recognizing personal experiences through emotions (Scherer, 2005).

2.2.3 Differences between the Psychological and Sociological approach to Emotions

Examination of these two key approaches to emotions clearly demonstrates that each of these perspectives provides a significant vision; however, when it comes to conceptualising emotions within the organisational context, these approaches have different interests. For example, research in organisational psychology tends to be interested in emotions and how it affects employees' productivity, creativity, performance and well-being. That has led many researchers in organisations and organisational change to focus on positive emotions, as it is these that are associated with optimizing the quality of work (Andries, 2011); motivating employees to set higher goals and increase productivity (Llies and Judge, 2005) and creativity (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002; Andries, 2011); encouraging cognitive flexibility, labour productivity and performance (Staw, Sutton and Pelled, 1994), and professional satisfaction (Andries, 2011); all of which both enhances employees' well-being (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002) and leads to desirable outcomes (Wright and Staw, 1999). Whilst such psychological research has been predominantly

interested in positive emotions in the workplace, including that which looks at higher education change, there has been some attention paid to emotional labour linked to productivity (Taylor *at el.,* 1998); job satisfaction (Yang and Chang, 2007; Shooshtariam, Ameli and Aminilari, 2013); performance (Meier, Mastracci and Wilson, 2006; Shooshtariam, Ameli and Aminilari, 2013); burnout (Pandey and Singh, 2015); job commitment (Shooshtariam, Ameli and Aminilari, 2013); employment-related stress (Karimi *et al.,* 2014); turnover intention (Kim and Lee, 2014) and employees' well-being (Karimi *et al.,* 2014).

In contrast, sociological research in this area has focused more significantly on how workers conceive certain emotions or address cultural differences in the experience of emotions, looking at how specific social structures shape individuals' behaviours, particularly the experience of emotion (Hochschild, 1983; Fineman, 2000). For example, social constructionism has formed an important foundation for varying literature connected to emotions (Fineman, 2000). This is especially in the context of emotional labour research, which examines how employees make an effort to supress their genuine emotions or express fake emotions to meet their organisational norms (Hochschild, 1983; Mann, 1999; Bolton, 2005; Smollan, 2006). Research has also examined organisational change and the ways in which employees have been affected by the change (Shapiro and Kirkman, 1999; Ford, Ford and McNamara 2002; Ford, Ford and D'Amelio, 2008). For example, several studies have looked at the detrimental effects of change on employees, leading to negative emotions, from increased workload (Shapiro and Kirkman, 1999; Ford, Ford and D'Amelio, 2008) or possible redundancies (Bean and Hamilton, 2006; Smollan and Sayers, 2009), as well as the concealment of emotions. Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006, p.123), for instance, found in their study that individuals commented within the context of change that "we had to hide what we felt" and "we could not show how it affected us". Ford, Ford and McNamara (2002) additionally note that the varying interactions regarding change increase the basis on which each individual forms their own realities of the situation. Oral or visual openness or discomfort regarding change consequently is partly dependent on how people calculate the nature of public reaction (Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006). Other studies have found that some individual employees might be seen to support change even if they disagree, because they are acting professionally (Lively, 2000). Therefore, it may be that behaviour does not accurately reflect actual emotions (Smollan, 2009).

Exploration of the organisational literature, then, shows a strong tendency towards examining positive emotions, or applying more psychological approaches. Whilst some research has focused on emotional labour and its effects, these have predominantly adopted a more psychological approach, which is considered the dominant approach within organisational studies. There is therefore limited research on emotions within an organisational context which provides a more social constructionist approach. The current thesis thus provides a departure from the psychological approach, and instead adopts the social constructionist perspective to gain new insights and provide a more in-depth understanding of the contexts and settings that trigger and shape emotions (specifically, the academic setting), and to illuminate academics' experiences and management of negative emotions. Application of this approach allows an exploration of the role of social elements that could influence academics' expression and experience of emotions, with particular interest given to two different cultures; the UK and SA.

Table 1: The Main Differences between the Sociological and Psychological Approaches to Emotion

Approaches to emotion	Sociological approach	Psychological approach
Definition of emotion	***Social constructionist perspective***: Emotions are cultural products that owe their meaning and coherence to learned social norms, not as others see them as primarily biological or evolved from adaption (Cornelius, 2000).	***Evolutionary perspective***: Emotions are important for the survival of the species and the individual (Darwin, Ekman, Prodger, 1998). ***Bodily-feedback perspective***: The body is the centre of emotional experience (James, 1884). ***Cognitive perspective***: The focus is not on the event, but on the meaning the individual attaches to the event; the resulting appraisal is responsible for the emotion (Arnold, 1961 cited in Adam, 2007).
Nature of emotion	Social and cultural.	Individual.
Affected by	Power, culture, atmosphere, knowledge, language, interactions and social practices.	Personality, cognitive appraisal, organisational climate and culture and evolutionary developments.
Analysis of race, gender and class	Possible when considering sociological structure and power.	Limited.
Critical consideration	Understands the learning experience through interaction with others in different cultures (environment).	Underestimates individual differences and provides superficial snapshots of the social process.
Theoretical contribution	Multi-level theory linking society, macro-level processes, the interpersonal level and the cultural level.	Multi-level theory linking individual and organisational climate and culture.
Methodological approach	Qualitative method using interpretation and reflection.	Quantitative method (e.g. surveys and lab experiments).

2.3 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature on emotions from two key perspectives; psychological and sociological. The variety of theories confirms that there is no simple definition or universal agreement about emotions, and the type of approach adopted depends on the goals of the researcher (Frijda, 2007). The issues involved are complex and the intention of the chapter has not been to resolve the debates on emotions but rather to provide a clarification of the range of perspectives and outline of their ideas. The conclusion drawn is that although the evidence underlying psychological approaches implies a strong, innate component in the experience of emotions, expression of emotions is strongly influenced by socio-cultural rules, which affect the degree to which emotions are expressed, leading to emotions being

inhibited, disguised or put on for effect only (Lazarus, 1991). The chapter concludes that social constructionism is important in understanding emotions, providing insights into social factors and clarifying the role of culture and language in determining, categorizing and labelling of emotions, including the names given to different emotions, the values placed upon them, and the situations that cause them, which can vary cross-culturally. Adopting a more social perspective of emotions means understanding that emotions are influenced by social context, interaction and relationship (Hochschild, 1983), and in the current research, this implies that academics' emotional expressions will be shaped and controlled by their culture (university culture and the culture they are living in). This is especially important in the current research, which investigates cultural differences in relation to the emotional impact of change within higher educational institutions on academics in SA and the UK. The next chapter will look more closely at existing knowledge on emotions and organisational change, as well as literature on the academic profession and the management of emotions.

Chapter 3: Literature Review on Emotions and Organisational Change

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents key ideas emerging from the growing body of literature on emotions and change in organisations. It offers a review of emotions and organisational literature, particularly emotions in organisational change and emotions in academia, arriving at a gap in the change literature addressed by the current thesis. The chapter then examines existing knowledge around employees' responses to change and management of emotions. On a general level, organisations are continuously changing (Mintzberg and Westley, 1992; Vakola and Nikolaou, 2005), with aspects of the organisation maturing and developing over time (Mintzberg and Westley, 1992). In a fast-paced and technically-advanced environment, organisations can also undergo changes that are implemented by management. These changes are not always welcomed and adapted to by employees, which may lead to the experience of negative emotions (Elrod and Tippett, 2002), especially as change often involves moving from the known to the unknown (Bovey and Hede, 2001).

In a dynamically changing environment, management does not always acknowledge the emotional impact on employees, as technological advancements and competition are considered to be key to successful change. The employee is often expected to adapt and welcome whatever management throws their way. When change is implemented from the top down in this way, employees, as active agents, are expected to participate in change programmes and initiatives, and failure to be a part of this process may trigger certain emotions, which can also present barriers. According to Klarner, By and Diefenbach (2011), change often leads to the barrier of emotions, yet we know little about how emotion contributes in this arena. In particular, we know little about how university academics experience change in the academic sector, and more specifically, we know little about what triggers these emotions, and how the culture of academia influences the expression and management of these emotions.

3.2 Emotions in Organisations

This section reviews the literature on emotions and organisation. Emotions have traditionally been considered as disadvantages and threats for individuals (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Fineman, 2000); as inappropriate and illogical in professional life; as hindering reason and valuable decisions, and therefore considered undesirable. As a result, emotions have therefore received relatively little interest within organisations (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Fineman, 2000; Eriksson, 2004; Opengart, 2005). These assumptions have led organisational research to pay little attention to daily emotions in the workplace, and the ignoring of these in organisational life (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). This neglect continued until Hochschild (1983) introduced the idea of emotional labour and the effort involved in workers following organisational rules in their display of emotions. Furthermore, Fineman (2000) suggested that the workplace is an emotional arena and, as such, individual behaviour needs to be understood alongside emotion. This has led to an increased interest in the subject of emotions in the past few years and has encouraged researchers to investigate employees' emotions (e.g. Hochschild, 1983; Staw, Sutton and Pelled, 1994; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Wright and Staw, 1999; Fineman, 2000; Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002; Eriksson, 2004; Boudens, 2005; Fredrickson and Losada, 2005; Llies and Judge, 2005; Maitlis and Sonenshein, 2010; Andries 2011; Klarner, By and Diefenbach, 2011). It has also been recognised that the attainment of organisational objectives can be affected by the expression of employees' emotions in the work environment (Hochschild, 1983; Pelled and Xin, 1999; Wright and Staw, 1999; Fineman, 2000; Llies and Judge 2005; Andries, 2011).

Boudens (2005) conducted a large qualitative study and found that workplace events trigger a range of positive emotions in employees, such as excitement, pride, optimism, joy, relief, affection and empowerment, and various negative emotions such as frustration, anger, embarrassment, pain, guilt, fear, depression, worry, uncertainty, sorrow, disappointment and regret. In another study, Fredrickson and Losada (2005) found that positive emotions could enhance employees' performance and negative emotions could result in negative consequences, and such emotions - Wiss and Corapranzo (1996) proposed - could be based on change events occurring in the workplace setting that affect employees' work attitude and behaviour. A larger proportion of research studies, nevertheless, have been concerned with positive emotions and how to improve organisational outcomes. For instance, it has been

discovered by Andries (2011) that there is a connection between positive emotions and work quality optimisation, as well as with employee satisfaction. Furthermore, research has shown an association between positive emotions and improved cognitive adaptability, performance and efficiency, as well as helping to encourage employees to establish quality objectives (Staw, Sutton and Pelled, 1994; Llies and Judge, 2005). Fredrickson and Joiner (2002) also found a link between positive emotions and the enhancement of the well-being of employees, leading to outcomes which were advantageous for the organisation (Wright and Staw, 1999).

Since it is regarded as advantageous to express positive emotions within the work environment, it has been necessary for staff to hide their genuine emotions and to display only positive emotions in order to comply with work regulations, and also to increase organisational performance and efficiency to the maximum (Hochschild, 1983; 2003). Furthermore, as mentioned above, Hochschild (1983; 2003) utilised the expression "emotional labour" to describe the suppression of a person's emotions and to express appropriate organisational emotions. She interpreted this expression when she observed that flight attendants encounter and express particular emotions in the course of service in order to comply with the expectations of the management regarding the emotions which they display. Regulations regarding emotions result from such expectations; these regulations indicate the scope, depth, time span, and objective of the emotions which ought to be encountered (*Ibid.*). Consequently, Hochschild (1983; 2003) observed, from her research study, the expectation placed on flight attendants to appear happy and amiable while taking care of customers. Hochschild (1983; 2003), as a result of her research, implied that organisations are, with increasing regularity, prepared to govern and oversee the ways in which their employees appear before others, as well as the images which they present to the customers. Furthermore, she discovered that the management, at a growing rate, controls the relationship between customers and employees. This has resulted in the work which several employees undertake being a major constituent in the presentation of emotions which are stipulated and expected by their employers (Hochschild, 1983; Morris and Feldman, 1996).

The implicit regulations regarding social emotions are now being superseded by organisational rules which are more explicit, thereby creating emotions management as an additional type of paid employment which can effectively be described as

emotional labour (Bolton, 2000). It was implied by Bolton (2000) that organisations are attempting, at a growing rate, to subdue, conceal or control their employees' emotions, in reticent acceptance of the prospective strength of emotion. It is implied by further verification that emotions management is certainly a significant component of labour in the professional public sector (Bolton, 2000, 2001; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004), as well as in service in the private sector (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991; Martin, Knopoff and Beckman 1998; Mann, 1999). For instance, Bolton (2000) discovered that in the public sector, nurses are very skilled at changing their facial expressions, apparently shifting from being sceptical to genuine and from secrecy to openness without effort. Whilst remaining isolated from other people, they have the capability of totally undertaking some facets of their assigned function. Ogbonna and Harris (2004) have similarly discovered university lecturers to be discontented with the functions of their work. Moreover, they applied emotional labour in order to conceal their discontent in conformity with organisational and occupational anticipation. In their opinion, emotional labour is seemingly *Janusesque*, meaning that, whereas work-intensifying management strongly stipulates emotional labour with increasing regularity, several employees also perceive it to be a major coping mechanism (*Ibid.*).

Martin, Knopoff and Beckman (1998) discovered that within the private sector, in Body Shop stores, the reason for the management of emotions was often instrumental. They observed the emotional labour methods applied to staff training at the store, which encouraged them to conceal any emotions which could probably hinder a sale. Furthermore, they discovered that Body Shop was utilising emotional labour, not only with regard to productivity-related matters, but also for the purpose of advancing its environmental and political goals. Additionally, Sutton (1991) who utilised qualitative research to study the organisation of invoice collection discovered that there was a requirement for invoice collectors to conform to organisational standards by communicating emotions to debtors. Consequently, it is demonstrated that those who collect invoices are chosen, recompensed and socialised because of their compliance with basic standards of communicating urgent matters to debtors, as such matters involve a high rate of arousal and a little indignation. Furthermore, they are recompensed and socialised for amending the emotions which they have communicated as a reaction to the differences in the conduct of debtors (*Ibid.*). Occasionally, the standards set by the organisations concerned conflict with the

attitudes of collectors to debtors. Nevertheless, in order to manage such emotive discord by applying cognitive appraisals, they received training which assists them in becoming emotionally separated from debtors and also by unbinding unpleasant emotions and not conveying these to debtors (*Ibid.*). It was discovered by Mann (1999), that 20 percent of workers in communication firms feigned their emotions and also that approximately 25 percent were subduing them. Management are encouraged that corporate image, customer loyalty, more problem-free relationships and other advantages will increase when their workers comply with company display rules *(Ibid.*).

Bolton (2000), who conducted research into organisational life, supported the requirement that organisational actors should be considered as proficient emotional employees. Forces occasionally pressurise actors into a different form of behaviour from what is natural to them *(Ibid.*). However, although actors become adapted to conforming to organisational prescribed rules regarding emotions, any attempt to separate the public and private areas of emotion management would be erroneous *(Ibid.*). Consequently, it is vital to comprehend the outcomes of emotional labour since both practical and theoretical evidence implies emotional labour to be intrinsic to frontline service workers' daily experience of work. In addition, it is closely associated with the indicators of the well-being of the workers (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000). Furthermore, its impact upon service employees is detrimental (Chu, Baker and Murrmann, 2011), and is finally an organisational performance (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 2000; Goodwin, Groth and Frenkel, 2011). Goodwin, Groth and Frenkel (2011) suggest that if employees fail to experience the necessary emotions as they associate with consumers, then contradictory or dishonest interpersonal displays of the required emotions may be the result of involvement in emotional labour This may, in turn, lead to a decline in service performance which would have an impact upon organisational outcomes.

3.3 Emotions in Academic Settings

A summary of current literature on the topic of emotions which supports the tasks of educators and more especially of academics is presented in this section. Research which has concentrated upon academics' emotions in university has been minimal (Hagenaver and Volet, 2014), with the greater part of literature focusing on school teachers and emotions (Acker and Feuerverger, 1996; Hargreaves, 1998; Hargreaves,

2000; Sutton and Wheatley, 2003; Zembylas 2005). Nevertheless, the research studies which were attracted to the subject of emotions within the higher education sector concentrated either on the emotions of students (Beard, Clegg, and Smith 2007; Titsworth, Quinlan, and Mazer 2010; Stephanou and Kyridis 2012; White 2013) or on emotions which were professionally-related and experienced by university staff; for example, stress, well-being and burnout (Navarro, Mas and Jiménez 2010). The aforementioned studies also focused on in-work outcomes and emotional labour (Bellas, 1999; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al*., 2011) as well as emotional intelligence in connection with employment burnout (Gopani, 2013; Iqbal and Ababasi, 2013; Subbulakshmi, 2014). Research by Bloch (2012) found that life in academia could produce strong emotions such as anger, pride, shame and uncertainty, which may be unacceptable in academics' emotional culture. In academia, like any other school institution considered as a service provider (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004), workers are required to follow the institution's rules and to generate acceptable emotional expression in order to meet workplace expectations (Bellas, 1999; Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). Thus, emotional labour is required to deliver an effective service (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004) and to control and manage emotions (Hargreaves, 2000).

In the academic environment, minimal research has been conducted in this field, with the majority of current research studies concentrating upon management of emotion on the basis of the idea of "emotional labour" (Hochschild, 1979). Hochschild (1979) regarded the academic occupation to require considerable emotional labour. Academics engage in voice-to-voice or face-to-face communications with administrators, staff colleagues, students and occasionally with the general public (Bellas, 1999). Consequently, there are frequent attempts by academics to evoke emotions in the persons with whom they communicate; this requires the controlling of each person's emotional expression (*Ibid.*). For instance, when working with students, Gates (2000) interviewed academics with regard to their emotions, and found that negative emotions were superseded by gestures which expressed emotional neutrality. It was indicated by the academics that negative emotions were concealed when there was no enthusiasm for the class content. Rather than doing this, they created an enthusiastic frontage, holding the opinion that this would lead to advantageous results (*Ibid.*). It was discovered by Ogbonna and Harris (2004) that certain academics considered emotional labour to be discouraging, whereas others

considered it to be a professional necessity. It is interesting that they contended that there was an increase in emotional labour as a result of growing managerialism within the university environment, in which no one questioned, "a particular source of discontent [which] is the increasing tendency to link student evaluation assessments with probationary reviews and promotion aspects" (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004, p. 1196).

In Bloch's (2012) study of emotions and the culture of emotions in academia, she found that the academic workplace as an organisation is inherently emotional. She claims that even if academics act in ways considered professional and show no emotions, this does not mean that academia is a universe without emotion. Therefore, she suggested that the values of the workplace led to 'emotional neutrality' where academics would hide negative emotions such as fear, anger and shame as well as uncertainty and doubt, due to the competitive workplace that needs to show professionalism and competence. In her study, she described the 'politics of friendliness' within academia that promotes the concealing of anger and irritation behind a mask of friendliness. It was also found that even expressing pride can be considered unacceptable in the academic environment, such as when papers are accepted or positively reviewed, as this can be viewed negatively as a form of boasting (Bloch, 2012, p. 123). In addition, it was not considered preferable to embarrass competitors by telling them about their success, and so pride might only be expressed with colleagues who were not among their direct competitors (*Ibid*.).

Other research on the emotions of academics in the university environment has involved only a small number of studies (see, for instance, Stough and Emmer 1998; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne 2011; Trigwell 2012). This has often examined the relationship between teaching practice generally and academics' emotions. Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) conducted qualitative interviews with academics on emotions and teaching methods and discovered that the academics who described experiencing predominantly positive emotions mainly identified themselves to be teachers. They reported a greater number of positive emotions towards teaching, for example, happiness and enthusiasm. Furthermore, the researchers discovered that enthusiastic academics reported an approach to teaching which is principally student-centred and focused upon learning. A similar connection between teaching methods and emotions associated with teachers was discovered by Trigwell (2012). She found

there was a greater likelihood of transmission-focused teaching methods involving negative emotions, whereas teaching methods which were student-centred had a connection with positive emotional experiences. Stough and Emmer (1998), in a similar way, investigated the emotions of academics regarding evaluation feedback. In their analysis, they discovered that academics' experience evaluation feedback as an emotional challenge, which frequently caused negative, stress-related emotions, for example, annoyance, anger or anxiety. Despite these important studies, literature on the emotions of academics in the area of higher education remains insufficiently researched, which some have suggested results from assumptions that findings could be projected from the current literature on the emotions of school teachers to university academics (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). There may be, however, a difference between the emotional expressions of school teachers and university academics (Mahoney *et al.,* 2011), especially because, as Sutton, Mudrey-Camino and Knight (2009) assert, emotions expression and experiences are likely to vary according to the educational environment structure and culture.

Since there may be a requirement for university academics to fake or supress emotions which differ from those of school teachers, the cause may be the variations within essential work tasks (Mahoney *et al*., 2011) and particular aspects of the university environment (such as attributes of adult learners, functional expectations of both students and teachers, and the attributes of learning tasks). These may be enacted in a different manner and differentially impact on emotions (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). Pressure may be experienced by school teachers as they attempt to offer a perfect image of their emotions to their pupils (Sutton, Mudrey-Camino and Knight, 2009), while university academics who teach older students may have a greater amount of flexibility (Mahoney *et al*., 2011). Nevertheless, unlike school teachers, university academics are appraised by their students by a teacher-rating system, which is often an element in their performance evaluation (*Ibid*.). Consequently, university students are able to penalise academics who present an unsuitable emotional atmosphere. Therefore, in light of this, more pressure may be felt by university academics to control their emotions (*Ibid*.).

The aim of this thesis, therefore, was to make a contribution to research on university academics, by looking at different contexts to previous research. Thus, rather than focusing – as existing literature on university academics has tended to do – on

emotions during teaching (Stough and Emmer 1998; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne 2011; Trigwell's, 2012), interaction with students (Bells, 1999; Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harries, 2004), and in daily life (Bloch, 2012), this thesis attempted to address an important gap by looking at university academics' emotions during change within higher education. Furthermore, it aimed to examine the emotional impacts of such change across two different cultures. It was hoped that such a focus would present new insights into an overlooked area of the topic, but would also inform understandings of the emotional experiences of academics, through in-depth investigation of emotional expression and management in different settings.

3.4 Managing Emotional Experience in the Workplace

It is important to also explore how employees manage difficult emotional experiences in the workplace. In organisations, workers are required to manage their emotions by following display rules and showing only positive emotions to fulfil their tasks, performing successfully and producing positive job outcomes (Van Dijk and Brown, 2006). From Hochschild's (1983) point of view, display rules are the appropriate and acceptable emotions that employees have to show in public, even if it contradicts with what they truly feel. As discussed earlier, she gives the example of customer services workers (flight attendants) who are required to smile all day, even if they do not feel happy. What emotional expressions are considered appropriate are influenced by the society, the industry, organisation, profession, group, gender and the individual (Smollan, 2006). The national and ethnic setting of the organisation can also have an impact on the ways in which emotions are displayed (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1990). Industry norms require employees, and particularly those who work in service-oriented jobs, to express appropriate emotions, such as warmth and pleasantness (*Ibid.*). In other services, for example, in debt collection, employees are required to display what might be considered more negative emotions when dealing with customers, such as anger or irritation (Sutton, 1991). Other sectors, such as academia (Bellas, 1999), law (Lively, 2000; Harris, 2002), and health care (Mann, 2005), require a high level of emotional labour from employees, involving professionalism and the display of appropriate emotions when interacting with customers. Therefore, emotional labour becomes an important aspect of organisational culture (Pizer and Hartel, 2005).

Emotional labour is strongly associated with the role that social factors play in

influencing emotional expression and experience (Hochschild, 1983; 2003). Therefore, employees use emotions regulation techniques to manage their emotions at work. Emotions regulation is known as "…the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience or express them" (Gross, 1998, p. 275). Emotions regulation includes surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting occurs when employees hide and control their natural emotions and replace them with the display of more appropriate emotions without actually feeling them. Deep acting, on the other hand, includes changing the internal emotions in order to follow the required emotional display rules of organisations and generate more genuine emotional expression (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Rupp and Brice, 2015). Mayer, Caruso and Salovery (1999) and Mayer, Salovery and Caruso (2008) suggest that emotional regulation is associated with emotional intelligence, as some employees have a higher ability to manage their emotions than others (Goleman, 1996; Mayer, Caruso and Salovery, 1999; Mayer, Salovery and Caruso, 2008). Employees show differences in the ways in which they manage their emotions, which may be influenced by their personal characteristics, especially as some individuals appear more emotionally and socially effective than others in aspects of social life (Fisher and Ashkanasy, 2000; Diefendorff and Richard, 2003). Therefore, employers require employees to display appropriate emotions in the workplace, and expect them to know how to manage their emotions effectively during work events and situations (*Ibid.*). However, some organisations offer their workers clear rules about acceptable emotional expression at work, while others rely on workers' prior emotional socialisation to lead them to manage their emotions (Fineman, 2000).

In academic settings, academics are forced to display a certain amount of emotional labour to meet their institutions' requirements, as they consider them a service provider (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). Therefore, academics are expected to display certain emotions, mainly positive, towards students, management and administrators, whether face-to-face, in writing or in voice format (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). For example, they are expected to perform enthusiasm during lecturing to engage their students' attention (*Ibid.*). Thus, academics perform emotional labour in their daily work lives in order to be successful in their service delivery (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). Therefore, being an academic is arguably not limited to holding appropriate academic qualifications, but also requires

the ability to deliver positive emotions (*Ibid.*).

In addition, the daily experience of emotions suggests difference in the duration of single emotional experience, as one can feel angry for a couple of seconds and others for the whole day (Verduyn *et al.,* 2009). The differences can also be between emotions, surprise for example, can last less than sadness, and it could also differ between people, as some individuals can still feel sad after personal loss, while others can overcome it quickly (*Ibid.*). Oatley and Johnson-Laird, (1987) cited in Verduyn *et al.* (2013) believed that emotion can be a flash-like reaction that usually lasts for a couple of seconds. This perspective has been challenged by Frijda *et al.* (1991) who argue that emotions can last longer than seconds; it could last for minutes, hours, days or maybe longer. In a study by Scherer *et al.* (2004), of 1200 Swiss citizens who recorded their experience of the most intensive emotion that had been felt on the previous day, over thirty five per cent remembered emotions lasting over one hour, whereas only eight per cent reported emotions lasting for a few seconds (*Ibid.*). Sonnemans and Frijda (1995) have found that the more important the event that triggers the emotions, the longer the emotional experience will last. As emotional experience refers to the subjective feeling element of emotions, which has been explained by a number of emotions theories (Frijda, 1986; Russell, 2003; Scherer, 2005), emotional experience is considered different from mood, in being triggered by specific events. As a result, emotions have a clear onset point, whereas mood does not (Beedie, Terry, and Lane, 2005).

3.4.1 Emotional Coping Strategies

There are other methods that individuals use to cope with emotions, or with the stressful situations that trigger these emotions. Hochschild (1983), for example, found that flight attendants relied on each other for mutual support to release the negative emotions they felt when interacting with difficult passengers; she referred to this mutual support as 'collective emotional labour'. Collaborative social relationships with colleagues have been found to be an important source of support for the educator's emotional health (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006). Several researchers have found that help and support from colleagues can lead to a reduction in stress, particularly in academia (Griffith, Steptoe and Cropley, 1999; Schonfeld, 2001; Devonport, Biscomb and Lane, 2008), and encourages employees to achieve their goals and grow personally (Devonport, Biscomb and Lane, 2008). Rimé (1995)

points out that sources of social support are not limited to colleagues, however, as employees also seek support from families and friends, which assist in reducing anger and enhancing well-being (Rimé, 1995; Korczynski, 2003; Rimé, 2009).

Venting is discharging one's negative emotions by expressing them to others (Pearlin and Schooler, 1978 cited in Brown, Westbrook and Challagalla, 2005). This strategy helps in obtaining relief from negative emotions through vocal expression (Brown, Westbrook and Challagalla, 2005). Research by Li and Lambert (2008) found that nurses coped with workload stress by using the venting strategy. Humour has also been found to be an effective way for workers to manage their emotions (Francis, Mohanan and Berger, 1999), particularly for venting their anger and tension (Taylor and Bain, 2003). Other studies found that talking, reading and challenging the self to complete the task are strategies used to deal with emotions, such as boredom (Game, 2007; Bruursema, Kessler and Spector, 2011). Looking further at how individuals have managed boredom, research has shown that workers have stolen items, damaged property, or withdrawn from the environment (Bruursema, Kessler and Spector, 2011).

Religious activities such as spirituality and prayer have also been found to be a means of relieving anxiety amongst some workers (Iwasaki, Mackay and Mactavish, 2005; Chai *et al.*, 2012; Aflakseir and Mahdiyar, 2016), which also produced an improvement in employee welfare. Furthermore, individuals have helped to manage their problematic circumstances, stress and depression through their religious practices and beliefs (Abernethy *et al.,* 2002; Smith, McCullough and Poll, 2003). It is apparent that people who employ religious means to manage their conditions are able to deal with their situation in a more effective way than those who do not use such practices (*Ibid.*). Frequently, when rebuilding from distressing events, religion plays a role and also supplies a structure to understand meaningless accidental events, more unfair results, and the most excruciating pain (Aflakseir and Mahdiyar, 2016).

Exercising is considered to be another strategy that workers use to deal with their stress and negative emotions. Indoor games, gym, aerobics, yoga (Iqbal and Kokash, 2011) and walking (Iwasaki, Mackay and Mactavish, 2005), have been cited as common strategies for reducing stress among business faculty members. Moreover, travelling is highlighted as a commonly-used strategy to reduce stress and help

workers to relax and rest (Iso-Ahola, 1982 cited in Iwasaki, Mackay and Mactavish, 2005). Several researchers agreed that leisure offers workers an opportunity to boost their physical, cognitive and emotional abilities, as well as social well-being (Caldwell, 2005; Mannell, 2007). Distraction has also been used as a strategy by workers to deal with stressful situations, by engaging themselves in alternative pleasurable activities (Shimazu and Schaufeli, 2007), although some university academics have dealt with stressful situations by leaving their job altogether (Horton, 2006; Kinman, Jones and Kinman, 2006). For the latter, leaving is considered a way of preventing them from facing the stressful situations again (Helbig-Lang and Petermann, 2010).

3.4.1.1 Gender, emotions and coping strategies

It has been suggested that females and males have different ways to cope with stressful events (Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson, 2002), as each gender has their own unique emotions management strategy (Lian and Geok, 2009). The common view is that for men, management strategies tend to involve facing the problem or denying that the problem exists, or using emotional repression or detachment and rational coping strategies (Matud, 2004), whilst for females, the approach often adopted is to express emotions and share problems with family and friends (Lian and Geok, 2009). This leads to the belief that females and males are different in their management capabilities, with women being considered more likely to employ effective management strategies when compared with men (Griffith, Dubow and Ippolito, 2000). Previous research has shown that women express and share their emotions more than men, allowing them to gain more emotional support (Greenglass, Burke and Konarski, 1998; Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson, 2002); using this support to fight negative emotions with positive ones (Day and Livingstone, 2003; Matud, 2004). It has also been suggested that women usually intensely observe stressful events more than men, thus they spend more effort reacting to these stressors by using these management strategies (Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson, 2002).

Different studies have found varying results when comparing the emotions management strategies of males and females. Hampel and Petermann (2005), for example, found that women utilize less distraction and more aggression when compared to men. Another study, on the other hand, suggested that women use more avoidance coping than men (Frydenberg and Lewis, 1993). Other research has

examined differences between males and females in their use of specific strategies to regulate cognitive emotion (Garnefski *et al*., 2004; Martin and Dahlen, 2005). For example, Garnefski *et al*. (2004) found that males and females reported differential reliance on a number of strategies, with the most striking differences being in rumination, positive refocusing and catastrophizing. For all three of these significant differences, females reported using such strategies more often. In both males and females, it appeared that the increased use of positive reframing during stressful situations was related to decreased levels of depression, whereas those who engaged in rumination or catastrophizing, when confronted with stressful situations, reported increases in symptoms of depression (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010). Martin and Dahlen (2005) also reported that females endorsed significantly higher levels of a number of cognitive coping strategies.

The largest gender differences were found in the strategies of rumination, putting into perspective, and other-blaming (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010). Women reported utilizing rumination and putting the situation in perspective in the face of stress more than men did, whereas men reported blaming others during stressful situations more than women did (*Ibid*.). For both males and females, higher levels of rumination and catastrophizing were strongly related to increased stress and excessive worry (*Ibid*.). In the males, an additional emotion management strategy was related to worry and refocus on planning (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010). Increased reporting of thinking about how to handle a negative event was significantly related to lower levels of anxiety, stress and worry in males (*Ibid*.). On the other hand, the strategies of self-blame, acceptance, and positive reappraisal were related to worry, exclusively in the female participants (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010). In addition, males have been found to cope with stressful events by using problem-focused coping, while females used strategies that adjust their emotional reaction, however, these strategies can be altered in specific circumstances (Matud, 2004). For instance, Ben-Zur and Zeidner (1996) found that females used problem-focused strategies more than men during the Gulf War crisis, while males used emotion-focused strategies more. The application of the strategies were reversed for the genders after the War when they were dealing with daily stressors (*Ibid*.).

The literature on emotions management is complicated when it comes to assessing differences of gender. This is partly because the study of gender is complex because

one single coping style might be given different labels by researchers (Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson, 2002). For instance, distraction, avoidance and behavioural detachment have been used to define avoiding problems via engagement in competing tasks (Feldman, *et al.,* 1995). Other research, however, shows that people use very different coping strategies, including denial, anger, humour, controlling feelings, resignation, physical activities, taking a break and socializing with others (Rosario *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, other studies have described emotions-focused coping as distancing, self-blame, wistful thinking, stressing the positive, self-isolation and stress reduction (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). Therefore, these management strategies include different response behaviours which makes it difficult to generalize findings from one study to another (Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson, 2002), not least to identify distinctions in relation to gender.

3.5 Emotions and Organisational Change

Organisational change is understood as a set of planned actions commonly carried out by high level management employees (Weick and Quinn, 1999) that may change work routines and strategies which impact on the whole organisation, to enhance the performance of the organisation (Herold and Fedor, 2008). According to Amiot *et al.* (2006), change happens due to environmental demands such as changes in economic conditions, technological advances and government regulation. These changes require employees' willingness to accept the change to be successful (Liu and Perrewe, 2005; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008). The employees' emotional response to change is important as it represents their reactions toward change (Scherer, 2005). According to Elving (2005), Kiefer (2005), Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010), Klarner, By and Diefenbach (2011), organisational change provides an opportunity to investigate and examine emotions in the workplace.

One of the major challenges for researchers, as well as for agents of change, is to understand employees' emotions in the course of the change process (Liu and Perrewe, 2005). The research body is motivated by these challenges to commit to comprehending the emotions which emerge during the change process, as well as their impact upon organisational change (Huy, 1999; 2002; 2005; Mossholder *et al*., 2000; George and Jones, 2001; Eriksson, 2004; Rafferty and Jimmieson, 2016). The following topics have attracted the interest of the majority of the research studies in relation to organisational change: emotions as barriers to the implementation of

change (Kiefer, 2005); categorisation of emotions in the course of change (Mossholder, *et al*., 2000; George and Jones, 2001; Erikson, 2004); the impact of emotions upon employees' thought processes and productiveness of the strategic activity of change (Huy, 2005); the effect of emotions upon the behaviour of employees (Saunders and Thornhill, 2002; Kiefer, 2005; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008); and resistance to change by employees (Liu and Perrewe, 2005; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008; Rafferty and Jimmieson, 2016).

In organisational change literature, the trend has been to concentrate upon cognitive and rational facets of change. The literature also highlights the ways in which emotions are perceived as personal weaknesses or hindrances to the implementation of change (Kiefer, 2002), or additionally as the adaptive behaviour of employees who are driven by their emotions (Scherer, 2005). People's emotional reactions to change attracted the interest of researchers (Mossholder *et al.*, 2000), implying that awareness of significant aspects of change processes could be presented; this is inclusive of the negative impacts upon individual thought processes affecting the productiveness of strategic action (Huy, 2005). It was implied by Kiefer (2002) that emotions may emerge on a more frequent basis and also more strongly than they do in situations where there is no change, and on the other hand it may be more straightforward for emotions to be considered and studied in a way which is regarded as being extremely emotional. Frequently, the emotional experience of change procedures often correspond to being irrational (Fineman, 2000). Emotions are therefore frequently perceived to cause the difficulties which occur when change is being implemented, instead of indicating the fundamental problems (Kifere, 2002).

3.5.1 Employee's Response to Change

Many researchers have considered stress and fear to be principally negative responses to organisational change (Spector and Fox, 2002; Bordia *et al.,* 2004; Vakola and Nikolaou, 2005; Cartwright, Tytherleigh and Robertson, 2007). These researchers examined the response to change, which predominantly regarded it as unacceptable, unwelcome and negative, consequently diminishing the employees' well-being. It is perceived that organisational downsizing causes particularly problematic emotional experiences, because it generates, anger, loss of trust, fear of loss, as well as doubt regarding the future (Bordia *et al.,* 2004; Vakola and Nikolaou, 2005; Rafferty and Griffin, 2006; Oreg, and Armenakis, 2011). Consequently, it is implied that the principal concentration is upon the response to change by the individual person and

also dysfunctional behaviour from the organisation's viewpoint, which may be caused by such negative emotions (Nippa, 1996 cited in Kiefer, 2002). Other studies have looked at the emotional impacts of layoffs on survivors (Amundson *et al.,* 2004; Brockner *et al*., 2004). Following the process of downsizing, organisations may be required to manage anger, loss of trust, and lasting fear over job losses (Buzzanell and Turner, 2003; Amundson *et al.,* 2004; Driver, 2009). The fundamentally negative environment which is caused by a particular kind of change, as well as the aforementioned negative emotions, threatens the organisation because of the potential for employees to leave their organisation (Kiefer, 2002). This is because the trust of employees in their managers and a growing rate of withdrawal is undermined by these negative emotions (Kiefer, 2005).

Research has also considered resistance to change by employees, which is frequently regarded by managers to be illogical (Piderit, 2000). Four emotional reasons for resistance to change were presented by Kotter and Schlesinger (1992 cited in Kiefer, 2002). These are: (1) lack of value due to change, (2) failure to comprehend the consequences of change and absence of trust in the organisation, (3) a different evaluation of the circumstances from that held by the initiators of the change, and (4) fear regarding the ability to acquire the new skills which this change demands. It has been discovered by Avey, McKay and Wilson (2008) that employees' resistance to change is the greatest barrier which threatens organisational change. Furthermore, they implied that the positive emotions and the positive psychological capital of employees may be significant in resisting possible unstable behaviour and opinions appropriate for organisational change. They suggest that attentive employees possess a greater opportunity to acquire thought systems which challenge their capability of being confident, productive, positive, and strong, during their work, particularly when organisational change takes effect (*Ibid.*).

Resisting change can happen due to different observations by employees. For example, some employees resist change because they view it as a threat (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003). Employee concerns about their job security, for instance, may be amplified when change occurs, which may make them resistant to change (Bartunek *et al.,* 2006). Employees may resist change because they are strongly connected to the old organisation structure, values, rules and methods, and find it is difficult to disengage themselves from it (Amiot *et al.,* 2006; Jones *et al.,* 2008), which results in

perceiving the change as damaging the organisation's status and prestige (Elsbach and Kramer, 1996; Amiot *et al.*, 2006). This resistance to change could take the form of negative emotions, as employees who resist the change could feel uncertainty and fear due to the lack of adequate information related to change (Bordia *et al.,* 2004; Jones *et al.,* 2008). Alternatively, they may feel confused, anxious and uncertain in relation to their job roles and careers, due to the lack of communication from management during the change (DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998; Terry, Carey and Callan, 2001; Kiefer, 2005; Maitlis and Soneshein, 2010), or experience anger if they view change as unbeneficial (Mossholder *et al.,* 2000; Huy, 2002). Perceptions of management behaviour during change as unfair may also lead to feeling angry, anxious and frustrated, particularly if the employees blame their manager for implementing the change (Smollan, 2012).

There is a long tradition, then, of debate around the idea of resistance to change by workers (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999; Dent and Goldberg, 1999; Kirkman, Jones and Shapiro, 2000; Piderit, 2000; Huy, 2002; Del Val and Fuentes, 2003; Bordia *et al.,* 2004; Amiot *et al.,* 2006; Bartunek *et al.,* 2006; Avey, Wernsing and Luthans, 2008; Ford, Ford and D'Amelio, 2008; Jones *et al.,* 2008). Dent and Goldberg (1999) argue that the phrase resistance should not be used, as it does not fully describe the difficulties of interaction that occur during change in organisations. Piderit (2000) suggests that individuals go through feelings of ambivalence in relation to change, which could be considered as confusion rather than the perceived resistance. However, whether or not the term is used, the literature suggests that individuals' ambivalence to change initiatives is commonly associated with negative consequences, for example, job dissatisfaction and display grievances (Kirkman, Jones and Shapiro, 2000).

It was found by Fox and Amichai-Hamburger (2001) and Friedrich and Wüstenhagen, (2017) that employees encounter change more positively if it conforms to their beliefs and personal opinions. Employees are more resistant to change when it does not conform to their opinions, or if organisations avoid any debate or management of the emotional experiences which unavoidably occur after the implementation of organisational change (Rafferty and Jimmieson, 2016). It was discovered by Saunders and Thornhill (2002) that those employees who considered the outcomes of change to be fair for themselves, and the organisations which they trusted, the change

was more easily accepted. For the people who questioned the fairness of the individual outcomes and who were more mistrustful, on the other hand, resistance to change could be more likely, which would impact upon the change process. Employees may be led by such consciousness to make a deliberate selection of more confident, positive and strong ways of managing change resistance (*Ibid.*). It was supported by Liu and Perrewe (2005), that in order to encourage employees to accept change, the agents of change ought to amend both the content and the timing of the data which is conveyed to their employees.

It has therefore been suggested that workers experience emotions more powerfully when they believe that they are being treated unfairly, indicating that negative emotions are especially associated with change when unfairness is perceived (Tripp, Bies and Aquino, 2002). This unfair treatment could be understood by employees as breaching of the psychological contract (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Solinger *et al.,* 2016). Rousseau (1996) and Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1999) stated that employers could be considered to be breaching the psychological contract when they cannot fulfil the promises that they have given to the employees. When there are alterations to employees' work without notification, for instance, this may be understood as breaching of the psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2002). Several researchers have found that breaching the psychological contract may lead to reduced commitment from employees and an increased employee turnover (Zhao *et al.,* 2007; Bal *et al.,* 2008; Solinger *et al.,* 2016). This may have an impact on employees' perceptions of change, for as Heuvel and Schallk (2009) found, workers' resistance to organisational change is affected by understandings of the level to which both the employee and the organisation have fulfilled their promises. If this is the case, from the point of view of the worker, if more organisations fulfilled their promises, then there may be less resistance to organisational change.

To influence the ways in which employees view change, there needs to be some management of emotions. Therefore, Huy (2002) suggests that as management acknowledges that workers could resist change, they should help to support them to cope with their emotions across the organisation. It has also been suggested that managers should meet workers and give them the opportunity to release their emotions and express concerns relating to change, as lack of communication related to change may also affect employees' enthusiasm and passion for work (Leana and

Barry, 2000).   Similarly, Fineman (2003, p. 103) suggests that for change to be successful, management should have a dialogue with workers to discuss their emotional responses.   As he stated, "the ability to manage change in others is typically considered a key skill for effective management".   Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010) also suggest that the way that management announces change could also influence workers' interpretation and understanding of change, thus influencing their emotional response.   The significance of communication during the implementation of change is likewise stressed by Terry and Jimmieson (2003) since this has the ability to decrease the workers' doubts and to improve their degree of effectiveness in managing the procedure of change.   It was indicated by Wanberg and Banas (2000) that the obtained data regarding the change schedule had a positive association with the workers' acceptance of change.   Furthermore, it was found by Terry and Jimmieson (2003) that when communication is initiated by managers to employees, and the managers assist their employees in understanding the organisational changes, there is an improvement in the employees' job satisfaction and psychological health and also in their level of commitment.

Understanding negative emotions is therefore important because of the high tendency for these to be triggered during organisational change (Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2005), and the potentially harmful influence they can have on workers, such as reducing their emotional engagement, satisfaction and productivity, which may increase their intention to leave the organisation (Andries, 2011).   However, some researchers believe that besides the detrimental outcomes that negative emotions have on individuals and organisations, it may be that such negative emotions provide some value.   It may be, for instance, that they serve as a warning sign to managers that action needs to be taken in certain situations, thus allowing management to swiftly respond in order to reduce negative outcomes (Spoor and Kelly, 2004; Elfenbein, 2007).   The comprehension of employees' experiences in the course of change, then, particularly with regard to negative emotions, is of major concern.   This thesis aimed to address an important gap in organisational change literature through the lens of social construction theory (which emphasises the role of culture in shaping and influencing emotions).   Thus, it investigated the emotional impact of change on employees (university academics), examined in detail how these emotions were triggered, and assessed the impact of the organisational culture (the academic setting), as well as the management strategies of individuals.

3.6 Change in Academia

Having reviewed the limited but important literature on emotions in academic settings, this section assesses the changes which have recently transpired in the academic field. Intense organisational changes have been encountered with the higher-education field in all parts of the world (Elton, 1999; Boyce, 2003; Thackwray, 2007; Silva, Peixoto and Freitas, 2017). Changes in the legal and political environment may have an impact here (Oakland and Tanner, 2007) and the requirement to extend entry into tertiary education could propel such changes (Silva, Peixoto and Freitas, 2017). Consequently, there may be adjustments to the national education law, or amendments to department innovations and curricula (Silva, Peixoto and Freitas, 2017), which could also impact on status, missions and functions, in addition to academic staff having various motivations and viewpoints (Silva, Peixoto and Freitas, 2017). The complications and application of these change initiatives in higher-educational establishments have been debated in organisational change literature (Elton, 1999; Boyce, 2003; Thackwray, 2007). Government resources or restricted support may possibly be the origin of such complications, together with a growing pressure upon universities as they attempt to satisfy the needs of shareholders, both nationally and internationally (Elton, 1999; Boyce, 2003; Mapesela and Hay, 2006; Hammersley-Fletcher, 2007; Thackwray, 2007). For instance, universities in Australia have been compelled to react to the many major transformations within the educational structure, together with reduced government financial support, by reorganising work in the academic field and by restructuring the academic profession, which consequently pressurises the workers (Marginson, 2000).

At the present time, in view of the various transformations in the field of higher education, there have been changes to: the university organisation, developmental strategies and institutional identities, financial support, economic relations with students, management methods, universities' organisational culture, the features of postgraduate education, the relationship between management and staff, and the topics of courses (Marginson, 2000). The academic professional's internal life has consequently been transformed. In the past, its traditions protected it, as did its institutions, leading to high degrees of professional autonomy, peer review, tenure, and self-imposed inertia. Moreover, these changes within the university have had an impact on academic staffs' daily routines (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Marginson,

2000). Several universities, as well as individual academics consequently permitted augmentation and aggregation instead of performing the more demanding assignment of applying key selections and reconceptualising the significance of being an inventive and proficient academic; such assignment also presents a risk (*Ibid*.). Academics therefore continue to remain inherently stimulated by their work; however, several of them perceive themselves to be increasingly pressurised as well as being isolated from their universities (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999).

Several studies have explored the ways in which academics have been affected by transformation in higher education (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Ozga and Deem, 2000; Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000; Winter and Sarros, 2001; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Deem, Hillyard and Reed, 2007; Ramsden, 2008). It has, for instance, been discovered by Coaldrake and Stedman (1999), Ozga and Deem, (2000) and Deem, Hillyard and Reed (2007) that changes in their involvement in decision-making have had an effect upon university academics. Furthermore, they found that such decision-making is now restricted to managers, who apply bureaucratic and unequivocal methods. The necessity for universities to produce a swift and productive response to the challenging and changing situation was said to contribute to the academics' exclusion from their decision-making function, because of the contention that decision-making on a collective basis might decelerate the process. Ramsden (2008) discovered that the efficiency of academics is influenced by the centralisation of decision-making, which also decreases research and teaching capability, and generates academics' disappointment (Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000), and dissatisfaction (Winter and Sarros, 2001).

Research has also drawn attention to the impact on academics of: the weakening of their freedom and autonomy (Taylor *et al.,* 1998; Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000; Askling, 2001; Hankel, 2005); their increased workload (Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000; Chandler, Barry and Clark, 2002; Mapesela and Hay, 2006); additional administrative tasks (Trowler, 1998; Gornitzka and Larsen, 2004); and their changing identity (Sharrock, 2000; Harley, 2002; Henkel, 2005; Winter, 2009). Where the autonomy of academics has declined, there has been an increase in the power of governing authorities and managers (Askling, 2001; Henkel, 2005). As a result, there has been a growth in dispute between employees and managers (Hellström, 2004). Many other research studies have drawn similar conclusions regarding the reduction

in academic freedom; these studies also associated such reduction with the actions of the management of universities (Taylor *et al.,* 1998; Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000). As Askling (2001) asserts, there has been a transformation in academic freedom, which has become freedom for the governing institutions of colleges and universities, as well as for the organisational leaders, since deregulation and decentralisation have reduced academic freedom for individual faculty members. With regard to matters such as promotion, salary and work schedules, responsibilities and entitlements are now defined less distinctly and are less explicit, consequently being less foreseeable (*Ibid.)*.

It has also been shown that academics now work longer hours, however, much of this extra time has been spent on administrative activities, rather than teaching (Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000). Increased administrative work has been shown to impact upon the time expended by academics on research projects and on working with students (Trowler, 1998; Gornitzka and Larsen, 2004; Hankel, 2005). For some academics, it is felt that academic staff ought to be freed from administrative tasks to enable them to undertake the work for which they are paid (Everett and Entrekin, 1994). Research by Mapesela and Hay (2006) also found that academics expressed worry about their greater workload, since they are required to participate in a variety of tasks. This could lead to difficulties finding the time to conduct research, publish material or write articles, which has become a more significant pressure as a result of government policies attaching major importance to a greater output of research. Within the same research study, it was a matter of concern that there was insufficient time for academics to be involved in the small number of staff development courses which are available only rarely (*Ibid.*). Chandler, Barry and Clark's (2002) research on academics from the United Kingdom found that academics were prepared to undertake this greater workload, however, this was due to an atmosphere of anxiety and fear regarding job security and concerns about encountering redundancy.

An additional challenge which is encountered by academics is the change in their identities, as a result of transformations in the field of higher education. It was found by Winter (2009) that the character of universities is being redesigned by the interests and principles of managerialism. This has resulted in them becoming manufacturers of goods which may be selected by customers' demand choices, dependent upon their competition preferences, and the discerned brand image of the establishment. It is

necessary for academics to undertake appropriate work for their position with regard to a performance management agenda according to these business-like plans (*Ibid.*). Consequently, this supplies managers and their organisations with regular reports regarding their contribution towards research objectives (Harley, 2002), as well as satisfying the needs of consumers (Sharrock, 2000). Furthermore, it is expected that they will incorporate the significance of student population, status journal rankings, income from grants, and organisational league tables as market signs of how successful and prestigious their establishments are (Winter, 2009). By discarding their collegiate status, universities assume more collaborative consumer-focused projects; a situation exists where academics are being requested to "operate within more open and contested arenas", and not to be dependent upon presupposed entitlements, and to become accustomed to the management of a "greater variety of relationships within and beyond the academic world" (Henkel, 2005, p. 170).

The rise of the customer culture has become notable in UK higher education institutions (Woodall, Hiller and Resnick 2014; Nixon, Scullion and Hearn, 2016), generating a marketized culture (Natale and Doran, 2012). This situation has particularly developed with the introduction of tuition fees, with UK higher education leaders carrying out policies, strategies and procedures that focus on revenue and income growth (Natale and Doran, 2012), rather than the traditional essential teaching and learning experience (Marginson, 2012; Nixon, Scullion and Hearn, 2016). Following government policy introduced in 2012, universities could charge fees of up to £9,000 per year (Browne, 2012), although it was not anticipated that all institutions would charge this amount, thus generating an environment of choice and competition among universities (Coughlan, 2010). Therefore, moving towards consumerism has been a global trend, with many countries endeavouring to grow their market share of higher education (Naidoo, Shankar and Veer, 2011). This has also generated problems, however, with increasing student expectations of what the university can offer them (Naidoo and Williams, 2015), and strategic decisions within higher education institutions shifting to a reliance on market forces and a focus on competitiveness, competence and consumer satisfaction (Bunce, Baird and Jones, 2016; Naidoo, Shankar and Veer, 2011). This has generated unintentional results, with many UK higher education institutions going through a change process, and with the competition for students increasing, there is pressure to develop both core values

and the branding of the institution, to attract students (Molesworth, Nixon and Scullion, 2009).

In addition, in recent years some assessments have been developed within higher education. For example, in the UK the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) and the Research Excellence Framework (REF) have emerged. The TEF marks a paradigm change in the approach to teaching and learning in higher education. This is not an unexpected shift but is the conclusion of a policy process that has continued since the 1980s by successive governments (Shattock, 2006). Thus, there has been a move towards higher education as "major business revenue generator" (Hubble, Foster and Bolton, 2016, p. 13), with the claim of better opportunities and choice for students, as well as access and social movement (*Ibid.*). The higher education sector has aimed to improve excellence in teaching and research by applying various metrics to record the teaching and research quality. For example, excellence in teaching has been measured through students satisfaction, employability, learning gain and retention (Neary, 2016). The implementation of the TEF has been the subject of debate, with the suggestion that it may reduce academics' commitment to institutions, and also lead to the separation of academic labour teachers and researchers (Wood and Su, 2017). It is also claimed that the TEF does not offer a precise measure of learning quality in higher education (Holyrod and Saul, 2016). For others, it has been regarded more positively, and resulting from the tensions in academic life between teaching and research, where there has been an attempt to balance the influence of the REF by enhancing the standard of teaching via the representation of TEF (Blackmore, 2016).

The REF was first implemented in 2014, replacing the previous research assessment exercise. The funding bodies' shared policy goal was to guarantee the extension of world-class, effective and responsive research foundation among all academic sectors within higher education (REF, 2017). The REF expected to offer accountability for public investment in research and to generate evidence of the benefits of this investment. In addition, it aimed to offer benchmarking information and set up reputational criterion for utilization within the higher education sector for public information, and to report the careful distribution of funding for research (*Ibid.*). It is argued that this has made the REF an essential measure of academic work, reward and recognition, and is considered a significant change to have occurred in the sector in

recent years (Bates and Kaye, 2014). It has also been suggested, however, that it has encouraged university academics to consider research as more vital than other academic responsibilities, which has led to increased frustration and tension (Donovan, 2008; Billot, 2011).

One of the important outcomes of changes to the REF is that it will be required to judge more explicitly than before the social, cultural and economic impacts of research (Smith, Ward and House, 2011), with assessment of how it is understood in practice (*Ibid.*). In this regard, it is suggested that it provides important evidence of how academics are offering the concept practical meaning (*Ibid,* p. 8). The REF also arguably provides academics with a method to transfer their knowledge and research, and establishes "the status of academics in the nation state (as definers, producers, transmitters and arbiters of advanced knowledge) and the power of academic elites to secure widespread acceptance that the fulfilment of these roles required a strongly bounded academic arena" (Henkel, 2005, pp.158-9 cited in So, Ward and House, 2011). However, others see the announcement of the new elements of REF as threatening autonomy and freedom, which is substantial to any filed of professional sector (Smith, Ward and House, 2011).

Research funding has been subject to change over the years; an issue which has had an impact upon academics in the past, as well as the present. As Liefner (2003) points out, the transformation in systems of funding has had a key effect upon universities' behaviour, in addition to their internal resource distribution procedures, which has a subsequent impact upon academics who have direct responsibility for undertaking research and teaching tasks. This is problematic, for as Parker and Jary (1995) have shown, if research funding is decreased, there will be a corresponding reduction in the autonomy and encouragement of academic professionals. It was discovered by McInnis (2000), that academics are inherently stimulated by their disciplines and their associated research and teaching tasks, but are also externally discouraged by elements of their work context; for example, inadequate resources and funding (McInnis, 2000; Winter and Sarros, 2001). As a result of government funding reductions to universities, academics perceive that their functions are seriously undermined and universities are compelled to conduct collaborative tasks with the objective of marketing education and producing income (Winter and Sarros, 2001).

The issue of research funding is likely to become more complex in UK higher education institutions, following the introduction of Brexit. Since 2007, for instance, the UK has gained around 1,400 of more than 5,000 grants from the European research council, which has meant securing twenty two per cent of allocated funds (Lucas, 2018). With Brexit, British institutions and academics may be able to request support from some schemes for EU collaboration outside the union, however, these would be only a portion of what is currently achievable (*Ibid.*). Furthermore, half of the papers that have been written by academics in the UK were in collaboration with international colleagues, and thirty per cent were Europeans (Horvath and Courtois, 2018). The potential difficulties in obtaining funding has therefore caused concern for many academics, as well as triggering fear amongst non-UK academics about their situation in the country, and raised their awareness of general living costs (Courtois, 2018). Moreover, due to the Brexit announcement, academics have raised concerns about potentially under-staffed universities (Buchan, 2018). In a survey by Cressey (2017), forty two per cent of professors and lecturers were considering leaving UK higher education as a result of the referendum outcomes, seventy six per cent of whom were non-UK and EU citizens. Academics thus have a right to be concerned, as academics from EU countries provided around sixteen per cent of the UK universities workforce in 2017, in comparison with twelve per cent of non-EU academic employees (SRI, 2017).

It is clear from the literature that changes within higher education and increasing managerialism has had a major impact on academics in different ways, particularly as academics are no longer responsible for educational approaches and decisions surrounding it (Coaldrake and Stedman 1999; Ozga and Deem, 2000). Thus, these changes clearly influence academic life and work; however, there has been little research on how these changes in higher education impact on the micro-level (Amaral, Meek and Larsen, 2003), and in particular, how academics feel towards the changes within higher education, how they emotionally experience such changes, what specific events have triggered these emotions and how they manage them. Therefore, this thesis attempts to shed light on these issues.

3.6.1 Academic Response to Change

This section reviews the literature on academics response to change. There are limited studies that focus on university academics' response to change in higher education. Although academics' resistance towards managerialism is confirmed by this literature, it gives no consideration to the ways in which such resistance converts into perceptible resources (Anderson, 2008), neither does it address the means by which managerial change and associated actions are resisted, neutralised or alleviated by the efforts of academics (*Ibid*.). However, managerialism has the potential to result in resistance. It is unlikely that academics, who have received training in accustomed assessment and investigative thought processes, will accept the changes submissively, since they consider them to be disadvantageous (*Ibid*.). Furthermore, the *nature* of academic work inherently encourages academics *(Ibid.)*. It is likely that academics, to a greater extent than any other social group, will deliberate upon their circumstances, formulate an opinion, and subsequently, if they regard it as being essential, will act to change their opinion (Trowler, 1998).

The management of academic labour has been increased as a result of changes within the field of higher education (Deem, 1998), leading to accusations of the academic profession resisting change. When they do accept change in the field of higher education, they do so only at an extremely slow rate (Norris *et al.,* 2008). Becher and Trowler (2001) and Hughes (2007) stated that academics might negatively respond to the change for several reasons. For example, high work competition, new teaching methods, increasing numbers of students and new technologies or discerning managerial practices as incompetent, unproductive, and being the cause of high-quality and excellent academic standards being compromised (Anderson, 2008). According to Clegg (2008), change may be resisted by academics when they have a powerful conception that the standards of the university are being undermined by the introduction of enterprise and marketing which was not compromised from their own perception of an individual project (Clegg, 2008).

Academics may also respond negatively to change in their university if they feel there is an alteration of their identities triggered by the new managerial reforms (Demm, Hillyard and Reed, 2007; Clegg, 2008; Smith and Boyd, 2012). These studies stressed the significance of academics' identity in exploring their response to change. Smith and Boyd (2012) found that managerial and market forces have created a new

72

coherent social reality that reshapes academic identity in terms of who they are and what they should do, and such an impact on identity has not always been perceived positively (Clegg, 2008; Smith and Boyd, 2012).   Hankel (2005) found that academic responses to change in their identity was also associated with resistance. Moreover, research suggests that academics become deprived and disengaged and detach themselves from their institution (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003). It has also been shown, however, that academics may respond differently to change depending on the type of institution, with one study finding that academics working in elite and old universities could be more capable of resisting change than academics in newer universities (Arthur, Brennan and de Weert, 2007).

In terms of job satisfaction, Taylor and Boser (2006) found that some academics felt dissatisfied as a result of change initiatives, but that their dissatisfaction was related more to change in work structures and less to the philosophy underlying the change. Nonetheless, Bellamy, Morley and Watty's (2003) research on academics in Australia found that there has been a general reduction in job satisfaction amongst academics, especially with regard to salary, security as well as major working conditions, due to adjustments in working regulations as a result of changes within the university itself. In their research study into changes within university, Wilhoit *et al.* (2016) discovered resistance to change in relation to alterations to the workspace used by the academics. The academics in their study reported feeling that their existing office spaces provided everything they needed and an alternative working environment, such as hot-desking, would fail to supply the majority of the facets desired or required by the faculty. Perhaps this highlights the importance of consultation with academics prior to implementing change.

Overall, the arguments presented here indicate that emotion is significant and could have a serious implication for change management. As academics can interpret the events of changes as unbeneficial and harmful, this understanding depends on their interpretation of the change events, which reflects a range of issues, as discussed above. The management is, to some extent, responsible for providing greater levels of support and communication of change to employees. Furthermore, as Klarner, By and Diefenbach, suggest "…a better understanding of how emotions unfold during and across changes can lead to more focused managerial interventions intended to effectively manage the change process" (2011, p. 339).

3.7 Summary

This chapter has discussed the literature on emotions in organisations in general, and emotions during organisational change, with particular focus on the academic profession. These studies have shown how emotions have been traditionally viewed as a disadvantage to organisations and individuals, believed to hinder reason and valuable decisions, and therefore undesirable. As Hochschild (1983; 2003) and Fineman (2000) have shown, however, individual behaviour needs to be understood alongside emotions, as employees' emotions are shaped by their organisational culture's rules. The focus of the majority of studies that have followed, has been on positive emotions because of its relation to organisational outcomes (such as optimising the quality of the work and enhancing cognitive ability and productivity). Thus, in organisational settings, it has been shown how positive emotions have been the desirable emotions for the workplace and employees have been required to mask or to regulate their authentic emotions, and perform emotional labour, to follow their organisation working rules. The literature has also shown how these employees manage and regulate their emotions, by employing surface and deep acting, and by using different coping strategies to deal with stressful situations. This was combined with different strategies that included venting, seeking social support, doing leisure activities, distraction and the practice of religious activities.

The literature has shown that implicit social feeling rules are being replaced by more explicit organisational rules, making emotions management a necessity for employees to safeguard their job in the organisation, whether in the public or private sector. In organisational change, emotions can be easily triggered as change involves various change events that could affect and alter the work rules of employees. In organisational change literature, emotions have been viewed as stress to be managed or resistance to be reduced, as during change, employees can feel uncertainty about the future, as well as anxiety, insecurity and feelings of loss. The academic setting has been affected as well by the change in higher education. Thus, the academic working role has been changed, and the way they experience their work has been changed as well. The change, for example, has reduced their autonomy and freedom and excludes them from participating in decision making due to the centralisation of decisions. These changes have affected academics and their level of engagement in the university and has led them to resist the change by, for example, refusing to

participate in organisational initiatives, and for others having a sense of withdrawing from a university.

In academic settings, the literature has focused little on the emotions of university academics in the workplace, with more interest in school teacher emotions. The limited research on university academics' emotions has drawn attention to issues of stress, well-being, burnout and emotional exhaustion, as well as practising emotional labour. It has been shown that focusing specifically on university academics' experiences is important, as they encounter a very different educational environment to that of school teachers. Academics interact with students, colleagues, administrators, staff and sometimes the public, and have very different work activities and practices to school teachers, which shape and influence their experience of workplace emotions. The current research therefore focused on the academic sector, particularly exploring university academics' emotions during change within higher education. It investigates what academics feel and why, as well as how they manage these emotions, through the lens of the social constructionist approach, which is considered under-utilised in this topic area. This approach assists in understanding how the academic setting shapes and influences university academics' emotional expression and management, in two universities in different countries (the UK and SA). Such research can enhance our knowledge of how academics in different cultural settings experience and manage those emotions. The next chapter will present the theoretical framework.

Chapter 4: Rearticulating the Research Questions in a Theoretically Informed Way

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines how the research attempted to examine - at both individual and organisational levels - the context of negative emotions and change management among academics at Saudi and London universities during changes within higher education.

4.1 Which various negative emotions can be experienced during changes within higher education among academics at universities in SA and the UK?

Emotions are immediate responses to events, issues, relationships and objects that are significant to people (Lazarus, 1991; Frijda, 2005). Organisational change is likely to trigger both negative and positive emotions in employees, depending on various factors (for instance, the processes of change that are used; the nature of leadership; the timing, speed and frequency of changes; the perceived valence of the outcomes; and employees' personalities and emotional intelligence) (Wanberg and Banas, 2000; Kiefer, 2005; Smollan, 2006). Several studies suggest that change generally produces negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, stress, and frustration (Nelson, Cooper and Jackson, 1995; Mossholder *et al.*, 2000; Huy, 2002; Bordia *et al.*, 2004). However, not only are there a range of other negative emotions that may be experienced during times of change, but emotions also affect people in different ways, for as social constructionist theory indicates, emotions are social phenomena that are culturally shaped and culturally mediated (Hochschild, 1979; Fineman, 1993; Callahan and McCollum, 2002). Thus, the same event can happen to two different people, and induce stressful emotions in one person, but not in the other (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987), due to the personal elements of the situation, object, or event for the individuals (Lazarus, 1991) and the culture they inhabit.

In an organisational context, organisational change generally happens when there is an alteration of the environment (Porras and Silvers, 1991). In this respect, there will be an alteration of the vision and beliefs of the organisation that will create a new

work life for the individuals who work in the organisations (Jimmieson, Terry and Callan, 2004). Thus, those individuals and their work will be affected, which could lead to change in their behaviour and organisational outcomes, as organisational change can be seen as a significant life event which can evoke negative thoughts, emotions and stress responses in employees (Jimmieson, Terry and Callan, 2004). It is important to note that employees respond to change events differently, with some being excited by the change, as they feel hope and see opportunities, whereas others perceive threat to their employment or uncertainty around their role, and thus feel fear or anger. However, the culture of the organisation influences the ways in which employees respond to the changes on emotional level (Hodges, 2016), as organisational culture (the university context in this study) plays a significant role in triggering employees' emotions and impacts on the flexibility of expression or suppression of their emotions (Hodges, 2016).

Social constructionism provides an important perspective here, emphasising the significance of variation in cultures, through facilitating understanding of emotions, influences, and how variations are viewed as changeable and relevant (Averill, 1983; Harré, 1986). Thus, an individual from one country may evaluate an event differently, or experience different emotions, from an individual in a different country because their social lives contrast (Harré, 1986). The same can apply to people from different institutions and from different organisations. Such an understanding of emotions as socially constructed phenomena underpins the current study, and has been important in exploring the types of negative emotions that are experienced by academic staff during times of change, and how these emotions are shaped by their culture and organisational context.

4.2 What events during changes within higher education have triggered negative emotions among academics at universities in SA and the UK?

Negative emotional responses happen for a reason, and it is therefore essential to address what triggers these emotional reactions in the first place. There were fundamental presumptions in the organisational research literature that organisational change is experienced negatively (Kiefer and Muller, 2003; Kiefer, 2005; Desjardin, 2017). The literature indicates that the inability to work professionally; misgivings regarding one's personal status and future in the organisation; and alteration of the

policies and values of the organisation, represented the most frequent events relating to change in the organisation, which can trigger negative emotions in the workers (*Ibid.*). Thus, these negative emotions may directly influence the individual's behaviour (Desjardin, 2017), which may threaten the change process as it may hinder the support and engagement of the workers (Erikson, 2010).

The current research aimed to examine triggers further during organisational change, with a specific focus on university settings (which have been relatively under-researched in the literature), and to compare the dominant triggers of negative emotions in SA and UK university culture, as the culture of the organisation is essential in informing employees in how their emotions should be displayed or controlled (Hodges, 2016). In a country such as the UK, for instance, where individualism is prominent, the expression of emotions is considered as one's right and an essential individual experience (Safdar *et al.*, 2009). Portraying emotions is normally encouraged in individualistic values and as a custom of private manifestation (*Ibid.*). In contrast, in SA, which is considered a more collectivist culture, emotions are regarded as interactive encounters that show the societal perspective and reveal links to the soul *(Ibid.)*. Displaying emotions is inclined to be greatly controlled as there is a larger emphasis on how the emotions may affect the relationship between that individual and other members of the group (Mesquita, 2001). Further to this, collectivism is disposed to encourage emotions in moderation and is restrictive in a sense in comparison to individualism which is inclined towards endorsing the expression of emotions (Eid and Diener, 2001).

Displaying one's emotions is inspired more by means of the situation and the objective of the emotion in collectivism rather than individualism (Matsumoto, 1991). Araki and Wiseman (1996) discovered where detrimental or negative emotion is a consequence or reaction to people within the group, then it would be inappropriate to display such emotions, as such behaviour would compromise unity, which is held to a large esteem in collectivism. In addition, if this type of negative emotion were to be displayed in public, it could result in loss of respect for the individual or the community as a whole (*Ibid.*). Nevertheless, if the adverse emotion is towards other parts of a rival community, it could be deemed as acceptable to display such emotions within the group as it would nurture the unity of the community. Nonetheless, it is noted that those from cultures that promote individualism are more inclined to display

negative emotions in contrast to those from collectivist cultures (*Ibid.*). The aspects of individualistic and collectivistic cultures appear to be enlightening with regard to cultural distinctions in how emotions are perceived; in particular, the display of negative emotions (*Ibid.*). Correspondingly, Matsumoto (1991) observed that those from individualistic cultures would have a higher tendency to display a positive type of emotions rather than negative emotions to rivals than those who have collectivistic values. Individualistic principles promote more variation in displaying emotions and comparatively there is a larger degree of expressing emotions than in collectivism (*Ibid.*).

Social constructionism is central to understanding the role of culture in emotions because meaning and emotions unfold during change events that are shaped by social and cultural norms (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001), thus the way the people interpret the event will differ. People make sense of their workplace, using different stimuli and processes (such as past negative experiences or attitudes) to interpret this experience of emotion in a cognitive and affective way (Fineman, 1993), and as such, the level of emotional impact plays a role in the intensity of attitudes towards organisational change. This can influence future behaviour (Vuori and Virtaharju, 2012). Neurological studies have found that emotions allow people to respond to changes flexibly in order to adjust personal preferences, determine what behaviour may assist them to succeed, and identify long-term goals in events with lack of information or negative behavioural choices (Damasio, 1994 cited in Desjardin, 2017).

Emotional experience is also culturally constructed (Mesquita and Frijda, 1992; Mesquita, 2003; Barrett, 2012), as the most common and intensive emotions vary by cultural circumstances (Kitayama, Mesquita and Karasawa, 2006), and in each circumstance, emotions are those that assist people to respond in desirable ways (Mesquita, Boiger, and De Leersnyder, 2016). People look at events that promote emotions that are beneficial to culturally centric missions (Tsai, 2007; Koopmann-Holm, and Tsai, 2014), in the same way that they use emotions that are beneficial to other kind of tasks (Tamir, Mitchell, and Gross, 2008). However, cultural construction of emotions goes beyond looking for preferred emotions or avoiding unacceptable emotions (Mesquita, Boiger, and De Leersnyder, 2016). For instance, people utilize anger to attain their personal goals, thus it tends to be more commonly

expressed in cultures that collectively value achievement of personal goals in comparison to cultures structured around interpersonal harmony (Kitayama, Mesquita, and Karasawa, 2006; Boiger, *et al.,* 2013). Therefore, the content and meaning of specific emotions fit cultural connotations and assist in attaining cultural goals (Uchida, and Kitayama, 2009). Thus, for this study, a significant issue was how academics in both countries (SA and the UK) interpret the events of university change that have impacted them, and which emotions have been experienced, expressed and managed. As a response to this question, interviews were conducted with academics in both universities to examine the events during change at both SA and UK universities that trigger negative emotional responses among academics.

The photo elicitation technique was used as a tool to help in drawing such experiences out. Studies have shown that using photographs triggers richer discussion and conversation about memories, communities and reflection (Hazel, 1995; Holliday, 2000; Clarke-Ibanez, 2004), acting as a bridge between the social and cultural world of the participants and researcher (Harper, 2000; Epstein *et al.,* 2006). This can assist in enhancing the interpretation and understanding of the social actors' point of view for the researcher and readers (Becker, 2002). Therefore, the use of the photo elicitation technique not only assisted the participants in communicating their feelings, but also helped with researcher interpretation of these emotions and the meanings given to them. This was an important aspect of the research as it identified specific events experienced by several academics in both universities in different cultures. These findings will provide insights into the features of those universities with regards to the events that trigger negative emotions and how academics respond to them.

4.3 How do university academics in SA and the UK respond to and manage their negative emotions?

Organisations could be viewed as ways of orienting and stabilising passion, feelings, and sensibilities, which have otherwise existed in a non-organised form (Flam, 2002). When organisations are established; they implicitly construct norms regarding feelings using rules and procedures (Bloch, 2012), thus emotions have been seen as presenting the organisation's particular goals, vision, values and self-image, which is known as the concept of representative emotions (Flam, 2002). Flam (2002) and Hochschild (1983; 2003) suggest that emotions are formed by cultural conceptions

and values. Organisations can shape and control the ways in which individuals display their emotions, thus, they engage in what Hochschild (1983, p. 7) refers to as emotional labour (see Chapter 2, page 36. In an organisational change context, emotional labour might be desired by a manager and employees to supress their authentic emotions about change in case their display of emotions is interpreted as an unwelcome form of resistance (Hodges, 2016).

Individuals more frequently experience emotions that present them as a good person in their culture (Mesquita, Boiger, and De Leersnyder, 2016), as experience of these culturally standard emotions are related to better well-being (*Ibid.*). Cultural norms offer guidelines for people in relation to how to think, feel and what to do in ways that are acceptable and anticipated by the group (Matsumoto *et al.,* 2008). Thus, they diminish the equivocal of events and sustain social order (*Ibid.*). Cultural norms request behavioural modification; they are linked to emotions regulation because emotions are a source of behaviour motivation (*Ibid.*). In individualistic culture emotions are linked to greater interpersonal meaning (Suh *et al.,* 1998). The free expression of emotions and personal feelings of individuals is more important than social relationships (Matsumoto *et al.,* 2008). In collectivistic cultures, in contrast, free expression of emotions and personal feeling are considered less important than interpersonal meaning (*Ibid.*), and aim to facilitate and sustain group harmony, collaboration and cohesion to a higher degree when compared with individualistic cultures (Matsumoto, 1991). For example, the collectivistic culture fosters an expression of positive emotions that can link individuals together and discourage negative emotional display, which could weaken group cohesion (Matsumoto *et al.,* 2008). Individualistic cultures encourage less virtue within groups because they do not depend on identification with the group for the successful functioning of groups or people for survival, thus there is more freedom in expression of emotions *(Ibid.).*

The current research focused specifically on the UK (an individualistic culture) and SA (a collectivistic culture), and thus provides important insights into emotions within these different cultural contexts. Therefore, understanding the cultural differences in guiding, informing - and rules relating to - the emotions of academics in Saudi and London universities is significant in distinguishing how academics experience, express/supress and manage their emotions regarding the university rules. According to Goleman (2006), it is essential to individuals to comprehend their

81

emotions, to manage their response and to understand how their emotions influence their behaviour and the behaviour of others. Academics who work at Saudi and London universities might feel the change events as prescribed as being negative, but there can be a contradiction between what they actually feel and what they 'should' feel, according to their university culture rules and norms. For example, they might feel fear or anger, but they hide these emotions and show hope or excitement just to follow the university rules. These rules can be declared explicitly in training materials or by observation of colleagues (Grandey, Dickter, and Sin, 2004), as many workplaces have their emotional display rules that employees should follow in what to express in the public (Gopinath, 2011). Employees should show positive emotions to the customer or colleagues to achieve organisational goals; failure to do so may negatively impact on performance (*Ibid.*). Employees' emotions influence not only performance, but also decision-making, teamwork, creativity, turnover and leadership (Wharton, 2007).

Being intelligent in how to manage emotions at work is a desirable skill that is required by managers, leaders and employees. Therefore, emotional intelligence is important in showing the abilities of people in managing their emotions and others, and is defined as "social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Emotional intelligence competencies are associated with the social roles of the social constructionist paradigm, because of their acknowledgement of the essentially social or interpersonal features of many emotions (Griffiths, 1997 as cited by Carblis, 2008), and when and how to express emotions, and to identify and specify the use of transitory social roles in self and others (Carblis, 2008). Employing insights from emotional intelligence and social constructionism theories to examine these practices allows us to identify the negative emotions experienced by academics in both cultures and to show how academics have demonstrated the ability to recognise their own emotions and others, particularly as social constructionism views emotions as an 'exchange between individuals' (Lutz, 2011, p., 212).

Using emotional intelligence theory gives insight into emotional regulation abilities of academics in dealing with change events, as emotions regulations fit with the concept of emotional intelligence in which adaptive responses of individuals to emotional

situations are observed as abilities (Mayer and Salovey, 1995; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2008) or traits (Pérez, Petrides and Furnham, 2005), that can be employed to manage the emotions of self and others (Smollan and Sayers, 2009). It is important to understand how academics manage their negative emotions. Thus, the current research aimed to examine the shared discursive strands that are used by academics in their narrative, describing the strategies or ways that they manage their negative emotions during university change. It is essential to identify the similarities and differences in the strategies that have been used by academics in different universities, as this may provide insights into academics' thinking and the role of their experiences in using emotional intelligence skills and other strategies to manage their emotions.

As discussed previously, the two selected universities are located within two different cultures; one collectivist and one individualistic. The decision to include these two countries was therefore to determine potential distinctions between academics on an emotional level during change. The researcher aimed to include two very different cultures in order to assess whether culture is influential here, thus Saudi Arabia was selected to represent more collectivist cultures and the UK to represent individualistic cultures. Collectivist cultures promote managing or handling relationships and restraint of emotion (Allen, Diefendorff and Ma, 2014). In view of this, it is assumed that in Saudi traditions it might be more common than in the UK for academics to control feelings or emotions within specific situations. Controlling emotions could be a standard process within collectivistic cultures that arises from the requirement to uphold harmony and collaboration amidst communities (Mesquita, 2001; Mesquita and Delvaux, 2013; Allen, Diefendorff and Ma, 2014). On the other hand, the requirement to control or restrict emotions in cultures where individualism is prevalent could be more likely to be consequential to the specific circumstances (*Ibid.*). Studies on emotions across nations imply that in cultures which are individualistic, expression of emotions is accepted (Eid and Diener, 2001). Thereby, people from such cultures are much more content in displaying their natural feelings and could feel that the guidelines in the workplace on behaviour or emotional display founded by their employers are much more invasive (Allen, Diefendorff and Ma, 2014). Therefore, given these cultural variations, one would anticipate that academics from the UK would observe greater expression of emotions than Saudi academics.

As a response to this question, then, an attempt was made to investigate the abilities of academics to regulate their emotions to deal with the demand of emotional labour of their work. Additionally, the intention of this element of the research was to examine strategies that academics use to manage their negative emotion, by using semi-structured interviews and photo elicitation techniques. These were selected in order to assist with the unfolding of the narratives and stories of academics' negative emotional experiences of change events, and to explore how they manage those emotions, which aid in better understanding, and presenting, real-life experiences (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000; Creswell *et al.*, 2007). It is hoped that the findings from this question will assist in developing guidance and recommendations for university settings, paying close attention to similarities and differences of thinking and strategies that are employed by academics in both UK and Saudi universities.

4.4 Summary

Emotion is not an internal and unique phenomena, it is a social reaction in which individual and social factors are present from the start to the end (Russell and Fernández-Dols, 1997; Frijda, 2005; 2007). It is currently accepted that emotions change within and between subjects, and that cultural context plays a significant role in those emotions. Culture can play an influential role in determining both internal emotional experiences (such as cognitive appraisals) and external emotional responses (such as display rules) (Fernandez, Castilla and Moore, 2000). Thus, it is difficult to determine exactly what people feel, as true feelings may be concealed from others.

The theory of social constructionism stresses that emotions are shaped by their socio-cultural contexts and that every culture has its own pattern of emotions that originates from social practices. Social constructionists attribute the importance of normative influences and cultural variations to the understanding of emotion without ignoring the existence of physiological responses as a component of the emotional experience. Therefore, social constructionism is beneficial in exploring the negative emotions and their triggers during university change, and academics' responses to such emotions. Comparing data from within the same profession, but across two different cultures - SA and the UK - offers the ability to see how negative emotions, triggers and management strategies might vary across those universities' cultures. These findings will have significant implications for evaluating emotional expression and response, and for dealing with emotions in these two cultures. Answers to these research

questions will help researchers to better clarify and distinguish the cultural norm differences of expressing and responding to negative emotions in Western (UK) and Arab/Muslim cultures (SA), and to better understand how academics are managing their experiences and dealing with these norms of emotional expression in both cultures. The next chapter describes the philosophical basis, research approach and methodology adopted for this study.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological approach adopted for this study and rationale for the approach taken. It presents the research methods employed to answer the research questions, which involved a qualitative case study using cross-cultural interviews with two academic university groups. The sample and setting, materials developed to collect the data (semi-structured interview guide and photo elicitation), and the data collection procedures employed in each country are discussed, as well as the data analysis approach (thematic analysis). A summary of the ethical considerations of the study is also provided. For clarity, the chapter is divided into two parts. Section 5.2 provides an in-depth overview of the research methodology; Section 5.3 describes the methods of data generation and analysis.

5.2 Philosophical Descriptions and Research Paradigms

5.2.1 Philosophical description

Research philosophy or paradigm is defined as set of standards to which practitioners refer (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The key research philosophy paradigms associated with human resource management research include positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism/realism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Positivism relates to classic objective, quantitative 'scientific' research, whilst interpretivism is concerned with conversational subjective qualitative research. Pragmatism/realism tends to adopt elements of both approaches (for instance, applying mixed methods) (*Ibid*.). The present study adopts the interpretivist research paradigm to describe the experience of change in higher education from the perspective of academic on negative emotions, and providing an explanation for the triggers of these negative emotions, and emotion management strategies.

The four prominent philosophical categories (ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology) are connected to how researchers interpret reality, expertise and principles, which ultimately affect how the study is conducted (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Ontology is regarded as a "…particular way of looking at the world" or "…the nature of social reality that is investigated"

(Blaikie 2007, p.12-13). The ontological presumption in this particular piece of research is that reality is socially devised, can be altered, and might be numerous (for instance, the negative emotions and emotion management strategies are socially devised by academics, might differ, and may alter). Epistemology refers to "…assumptions about the grounds of knowledge" and "…how one might begin to understand the world and communicate this as knowledge to fellow human beings" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.1), or, as Blaikie (2007, p.18) puts it, "…how we know what we know". It relates to how knowledge of reality is acquired or notions regarding the world are experienced (Blaikie 2007, p.13). Furthermore, axiology is regarded as confronting the issue of the researcher's principles at the start of a project and assessing the impact that these have on the study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Lastly, methodology is regarded as the tools that are utilised by the researcher to collect and to approve empirical data so as to answer the research questions. Such suppositions are crucial, and interact with each other. As such, the perspective of ontology invariably impacts upon the epistemological influence that will affect the view of human nature. In addition, the methodology chosen commonly relates to the presumptions that the researcher has previously formed (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

5.2.2 Research Paradigms

A paradigm refers to the all-encompassing practical framework and meta-thinking relating to the generation of research (Hua, 2016). It is "…a way of examining social phenomena from which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted" (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012, p.118). It symbolises a regular philosophical trend and the type of research that is studied (Creswell *et al.*, 2007). The positioning of descriptions will be altered according to the presumptions made by the researcher. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) suggest that the paradigms and philosophies are formed at each stage of the study and influence how understanding and realities are perceived (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). When conducting an investigation, it is crucial to have an awareness of varying research paradigms, as they outline the methodological choices and research processes that the researcher implements (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Johnson and Clark (2006) suggest that these choices enhance the researcher's awareness of the concept that is being reviewed, and that each researcher must ensure

they provide justification for the choices made, especially when viable alternatives are available.

The four general philosophies connected to research studies are pragmatism, positivism, realism and interpretivism (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007) (see Table 3 below). Each has a range of ontological and epistemological presumptions. Interpretivism has been connected with a wide array of methods, such as constructivism, as interpretivists do not agree with the objectivist perspective that the world is separated from consciousness (Collins, 2010). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007, p.116) assert that interpretivist philosophy might be the most pertinent philosophical approach for studies researching the field of business and management because the researcher is required to "enter the social world of the research subjects and understand their world from their point of view". This strongly relates to the topics of human resource management which are incorporated into the theme of this study. This is because the field of emotion management is intricate, distinct, and refers to particular circumstances at that specific time (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). Interpretivism emphasises the importance of epistemology in enabling the researcher to acquire an awareness of differences between humans in their functions as social actors, following recognition that individuals devise their own reality in which they construct meanings and truths, which are influenced by varying perspectives (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

Table 2: Philosophical Descriptors and Research Philosophies

Philosophical Descriptors	Research Philosophies			
	Positivism	**Realism**	**Interpretivism**	**Pragmatism**
Ontology: The researcher's perception of the nature of reality.	Reality is external, impartial and not influenced by social actors.	Reality exists externally to human notions and values of knowledge of their existence (realist). However, it is interpreted via social conditioning (critical realist).	Reality is socially devised and not an objective measure. It could fluctuate and there are various realities.	Reality is external. There are a wide range of perceptions that are selected to most effectively allow for the answering of the research question.
Epistemology: The researcher's perception concerning what is considered to be appropriate knowledge.	Only observable elements can result in credible data being formed. There is an emphasis on causality and law like generalisations, limiting the aspects to their most basic form.	Observable elements include credible data, information. Inadequate data means that there are errors in sensations (direct realism). Conversely, phenomena result in sensations, which are vulnerable to being misconstrued (critical realism). The emphasis should be on explanations within the circumstances of the research.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Place the emphasis upon the details of a certain context. A reality behind these detailed subjective meanings providing the incentive of behaviours.	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective definitions can result in acceptable understanding in relation to the specific research question. The emphasis is on the practical applied research incorporating various perspectives so that data can be appropriately reviewed.
Axiology: The researcher's perception of the function of values in research.	Research is conducted in a value-free manner and maintain objective stance	Research is value laden; the researcher is prejudiced by global opinions, their environment and their cultural context. These will have an influence upon the research.	Research is value bound. The researcher is involved in the research, and cannot be distinct from it entirely. Hence it will be subjective.	Values have a significant impact on the analysis of data. The researcher takes on both objective and subjective perspectives.
Data collection techniques most frequently utilised	Highly organised, extensive samples, measurement, quantitative but could utilise qualitative.	Methods selected need to be the topic, quantitative or qualitative.	Small samples in detailed exploration; qualitative.	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative.

(Adapted from Saunders *et al.,* 2016, p. 136, 137)

5.2.3 Objectivity vs. Subjectivity

Objectivism and subjectivism are regularly presented in terms of the discussion regarding positivism and interpretivist research methods. Positivism incorporates a scientific approach to data, which is exemplified by its implementation of the compilation and analysis of quantitative data. This method is generally reliant on the regulation and elimination of variables (Creswell *et al.*, 2007) and the transition from theory to data and hypothesis testing (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). Quantitative methods typically adhere to a fixed approach, which does not permit differing interpretations (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). The positivist approach has also received criticism because of assumptions around objectivity. This approach emphasises the presumption that social entities being reviewed have consistency within different environments despite the individuals being different (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). The positivist approach would not be suitable for a research project that intends to acquire an understanding of how individual social actors connect their personal interpretations with the social entities (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

The current study utilised a subjectivist ontological perspective to investigate the negative emotional experiences of the academics (social actors) within a change in university (the social phenomena). Ontology, from the subjective perspective, recognises that social phenomena are produced based on the subsequent response of the social actors to a specific situation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007), and regards an aspect as being real when it is devised in the minds of the individuals connected to that situation (*Ibid.)*. When using this method, the researcher places the focus on the significance of the subjective experience of people in creation of the social world; the main consideration is to gain an insight into how people create, change and explain the setting in which they are situated (*Ibid.)*. These interpretations are regarded as being "continually accomplished" by the varying viewpoints of the different individual (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 23).

Scholars researching emotions have attempted to quantify and gauge emotions as an object distinct from social interaction (Fineman, 2004). Interpretivism considers knowledge to be an element of social phenomena and thus it cannot incorporate independent human existence. Berger and Luckmann (1967) assert that knowledge is

generated and maintained via social interaction. The reason for this is that when individuals interact, they have awareness that their own observations and view of reality are connected and because their behaviour is influenced by this awareness, their collective understanding of reality becomes unbreakable. As such, the reality is socially created. The manner in which a positivist epistemology reduces the "…rich insight into this complex world", for instance, social interaction, to "law-like generation" has been criticised (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007, p.116). Consequently, social interaction can be perceived as an interpretive mechanism where "…large-scale social phenomena, for example, organisations, institutions, conflict, and the like, is considered as patterned relations among the actions of the individual actors in interaction with one another" (Wilson, 1970, p. 698).

The social aspect of academics' work-lives and situations are complex and therefore the positivist approach would not be suitable, as rich insights about phenomena are lost, as may be the case with emotions and emotion management. The researcher is of the opinion that the interpretivist approach is the most appropriate approach for this study. As social interaction is regarded as an integral element of this study, it complies with the "constructionist" perception of emotions. This is outlined by Averill (1980, p. 305 cited in Turner and Stets, 2005) as "emotions are social constructions, not biological givens" and those "emotions are improvisations, based on an individual's interpretation of the situation". Consequently, the consideration of the individual actors can enhance the interpretations connected with social interaction that could assist with the process of this research. Understanding such issues requires exploration of variations between human experiences and subjective meanings of the situations/events that trigger those emotions. Therefore, it is essential to concentrate on the details, the reality behind these, and the subjective meanings that promote actions. Accordingly, the social constructionist approach will assist in better exploring and understanding negative emotional experiences and emotion management, which involves various social actors. Thus, it does not simply aim to understand *what* strategies academics use to manage negative emotions, but also *how* the academic culture influences this emotional experience and the management strategies that have been used.

5.2.4   The Research Approach

The implementation of a research philosophy helps with the formulation of the method for the study. Inductive and deductive are two prominent research methods of relevance that have been considered. The inductive method intends to compile data to advance a theoretical idea (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2015). This method is more repetitive and a constructionist paradigm is appropriate for it (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). In contrast, a deductive method involves a more scientific approach that has the objective of examining a theory and devising a hypothesis, thus following the view of positivist philosophy (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). The benefits of the deductive method approach are its objective nature, ability to quantify information, and the fact that its conclusions can be generalised (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). On the other hand, it overlooks how individuals are influenced by, and engage with, their surrounding environment. The current research intends to examine how academic settings within situations of change trigger academics' negative emotions and how they experience and manage these emotions, therefore a deductive approach is unsuitable, as it overlooks aspects of social meaning.

5.3 Justifying the Methodological Approach

5.3.1 Interpretivist, Constructivism and Social Constructionism

The terms interpretivism and constructionism have frequently been used interchangeably with regard to research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), despite the fact that there are subtle contrasts (Schwandt, 1998, 2003). The interpretive method is recognised as a "…constellation of procedures, conditions and resources through which reality is apprehended, understood, organised and conveyed in everyday life" (Holstein and Gubrium, 2005, p. 484). The method intends to provide an insightful or detailed outline of situations and circumstances (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), or "finely nuanced accounts" (Gergen and Gergen, 2000, p.1027), to clarify why people act in the ways they do. Consequently, interpretivist methods are particularly able to capture the 'how and why' elements in the kind of detail that quantitative approaches cannot fulfil. Follkman and Moskowitiz (2000), for instance, assert that if researching how people deal with stress-induced situations, quantitative approaches generally just reveal brief indicators of the circumstances; narrative accounts, in contrast, give additional information. Lazaurs (2006) observed that a coping questionnaire provides advantageous data but cannot be removed from the personal situation of the person

concerned. People form their versions of reality by attempting to understand the meaning of the situation (Mason, 2017). Researchers subsequently have the task of co-constructing or reconstructing the reality that the participants experienced (Schwandt, 1998; Mason, 2017). One objective is to devise an outline of a person's experience that is subjective, relevant, holistic, intricate and occasionally conflicting (Creswell *et al.*, 2007; Mason, 2017).

The reference to social in the phrase social constructionism reveals the view that a person's perception of reality is influenced by the behaviour of other people (Smollan, 2009), and reality is socially constructed via words, symbols, and behaviours (Putnam, 1983 cited in Smollan, 2009). Social construction of reality indicates that people perceive reality from a range of social and personal situations, and that this reality can be altered with developments over time (Wolfram Cox and Hassard, 2007). Social constructionism stresses that societies provide a culture of ideologies, logics, norms, vocabularies and other symbolic components that particularize what people should feel in specific kinds of events and how they are to display and express emotions (Hochschild, 1979). It emphasises that socio-cultural context plays a role in shaping emotions and indicates that every culture has its unique pattern of emotions that construct from social practice (Harré, 1986).

Social constructivist method believes that "…realities exist in the form of multiple constructions socially and experientially based, local and dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.27). For instance, an objective set of events will be interpreted in a different way by individuals within a group based on their individual perspectives, incentives, approaches and principles (*Ibid.*). Guba and Lincoln's (1994) preference was to utilise the term constructivism, which follows the relativist ontological perspective in suggesting that there are varying realities; a subjectivist epistemology conclusion results from the engagement between the research and the researched, as well as the interaction between one or both of the controversial and hermeneutical approaches. The ontological perspective is dependent on a precise view of an individual construction; the subjectivist epistemology involves forming a comparison between alternative perspectives.

The social constructionist approach was considered the most appropriate perspective for the current study, as it places emphasis on subjective experiences. Social constructionists believe that there are differences in emotional expressions depending on the culture, whilst evolutionary supporters argue that the fact that emotions such as anger, fear, and happiness are present in all languages indicates their universality (Plutchik, 1980; 1984). The notion of social constructionism indicates that emotions are influenced by their socio-cultural situation and that each culture has its own distinctive trends that result from social practices (Harré, 1986). Whilst not discounting the presence of physiological reactions as an element of the emotional experience, social constructionists place their emphasis on the importance of normative impacts and cultural variations within the context of how emotions are understood (Harré, 1986; Thoits, 1990). These varying and influential factors are regarded as being liable to fluctuate, as people from one nation might review a situation in a contrasting way and may have emotions that do not correspond to an individual in another country, due to the difference in their cultures and environments (Harré, 1986). As this study is concerned with identifying the triggers of negative emotions of academics and how the university culture in both countries influenced their emotional experiences and the ways they manage those emotions, it was felt that social constructionism provided the most appropriate theoretical platform from which to launch this thesis.

5.3.2   Qualitative Method

It seemed appropriate for this research to utilise qualitative research approaches, as its prime interest was in interacting directly with academics regarding their negative emotional experiences within a time of change at university. The method of interviews was selected, as opposed-to survey questionnaires. An individual prepared to outline their personal negative emotions is discussing a potentially sensitive area that benefits from privacy and reflective opportunities, making individual interviews more suitable. A descriptive survey questionnaire may have been beneficial in reviewing an extensive sample of the negative emotions of academics, but the nature of questionnaires – with their closed questions and specific topics – can restrict responses and provide little opportunity to develop a wide range of insights in detail (Follkman and Moskowitiz, 2000).

This research was also exploratory as it intended to increase awareness of detrimental

emotions and the ways in which academics respond and regulate these feelings within times of change at university. Longitudinal research would have been a useful approach here, but, as it usually includes more than one event of data collection and the same participants could be interviewed many times (Ritchie, *et al.*, 2013), it was not considered possible within the time restrictions of this doctoral study. Thus, a cross-sectional interview approach was considered more appropriate for discovering how these processes of change occur, due to the limitation of research time. These personal insights could then be combined and reviewed together, with a cross-cultural comparison undertaken between UK and Saudi academics.

The ideographic research method emphasises the crucial element of permitting a person's subjective opinions to be revealed within the investigative stage (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.6) and to produce detailed descriptions (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). The most effective way of achieving this is through individual interviews. Gubrium and Holstein (1997, p.12) assert that:

> Qualitative research is studying social life in process, as it unfolds. Seeing people as active agents of their affairs, qualitative enquiry has traditionally focused on how purposeful participants construct, and deeply experience or imagine their lives.

Exploring and understanding the negative emotions, triggers and the management of emotional phenomena can be best described as an explanatory study which is, according to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007), any study intending to ascertain insights and provide clarity on a particular concept. They emphasise that detailed or semi-structured interviews can be used to achieve this process, and that such a method is beneficial if the research aims to be explanatory, as it is crucial to devise personal contact when questions are difficult or open-ended (*Ibid.*).

5.3.3 Case Study Strategies

5.3.3.1 Case Study Research

For the purposes of this research, one university from the UK and one university from SA were selected as the location for a cross-cultural case study; which involves a detailed consideration of a specific circumstance. The case study process grew from the notion that the aspect being investigated should be scrutinised in extensive detail (Yin, 2013). For example, an individual can be scrutinised in detail relating to a

compilation of individual elements. These factors might be considered from varying perspectives, such as a theoretical construct or the outlook of a specific researcher (Stake, 1995). Stake (1995, p.76) refers to a case in the following way:

> A child may be a case. A teacher may be a case. But her teaching lacks the specificity, the boundedness, to be called a case. An innovative program may be a case. All the schools in Sweden may be a case. But a relationship among schools, the reasons for innovative teaching, or the policies of school reform are less commonly considered a case. These topics are generalities rather than specifics. The case is specific, a complex, functioning thing.

The definition of a case study is "…an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2013, p. 18). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) additionally comment that a case study is the most effective method for answering why, what and how questions. This applies to the present research since it is asking 'what' and 'how' questions; particularly what negative emotions are triggered during university change, what triggered them and how do academics manage these negative emotions? Furthermore, qualitative case studies provide researchers with the opportunity to investigate or outline a concept within its context. The case study permits the researcher the opportunity to examine people or organisations (Yin, 2013), and assists with the deconstruction and the following reconstruction of numerous phenomena (Burn and Robins, 2003). This guarantees that the topic is not examined via one lens but rather through a combination of them, which permits varying aspects of the concept to be explained and comprehended. The numerous strengths of the case study enable the researcher to acquire a holistic perspective of a specific phenomenon.

5.3.3.1.1 Unit of Analysis (London and Saudi Universities)

When the researcher has decided upon the case, the second step is to determine the unit of analysis. This refers to the major aspect being reviewed, such as people or groups, geographical units, or social engagement. The unit of analysis within the present study, in part influenced by the philosophical perspective utilised, is the negative emotional experiences of academic staff.

5.3.3.1.1.1 The Saudi university

The Saudi university selected for this study was established in 1967 as a private institution by a group of businessmen aiming to transmit knowledge and to address the necessity for higher education in the Western Region. In 1973, the university became a public institution by Ministerial decree. It is a multi-campus system dedicated to the service of the Western Region and its people and is considered to be one of the most prestigious universities in SA, with unique professional disciplines and specializations, which differentiate it from other universities in the country (MOHE, 2018). Over the years, the university has witnessed vast quantitative and qualitative development, in terms of enrolment and the variety of academic programs on offer in both the social and natural sciences. It has grown from 98 students, with a single faculty of Economics, to an enrolment of more than 49,000 candidates, with 24 faculties, more than 160 academic departments providing various different specializations, and 120 post-graduate programs. In 2016, it celebrated 50 years as a university (Times Higher Education [THE], 2018).

The Saudi university adopts an inclusive approach to education. It has, for instance, endeavoured - since its foundation - to make higher education more accessible to women. It is the first university to permit women to be taught in classrooms and the campus for females' instruction operated from the same day as the men's campus (MOHE, 2018). In addition, in recent years, the university has established a faculty of distance learning to keep up-to-date with developments in the academic and cultural domains, and to simplify education for more mature students who do not meet university undergraduate admission requirements. It has also established an external learning programme for students whose circumstances prevented them from continuing their college education *(Ibid.)*. Further to this, the university provides services to the community, including a central library, medical research centre, university hospital, a sports stadium, conference hall, bank, central cafeteria and post office (*Ibid.*).

The Saudi university aims to be an outstanding institution in the Arab world. Therefore, it seeks to advance society through pioneering research and cultural and scientific excellence. It has established eleven scientific journals, 29 scientific societies, fourteen centres of excellence and research centres, and nineteen scientific chairs for advancing technological, medical and social studies (Tayeb, Zahed and

Ritzen, 2015). It is considered an exceptional university in SA and the Gulf region, offering students unique specializations that are unavailable in other universities. These include Marine Science; Meteorology and Arid Land Agriculture; Earth Science; Nuclear Engineering; Aeronautical Engineering, Mining Engineering, Biomedical Engineering, and Astronomy. This has contributed to its increasing reputation as one of the most prominent local and international higher education institutions, providing educational programs that prepare graduates to work in line with the community's changing needs (*Ibid*.).

The university has promoted worldwide partnerships through cooperative educational and research programs that provide global links with international academic institutions. More than 80 agreements have been signed with world-class universities in the US, UK, Canada, France, Spain, Australia, China, Japan and Argentina. It also recruits staff internationally, although Saudi academics represent 73 per cent of the total number of employees (Tayeb, Zahed and Ritzen, 2015). Arabic and English are the main languages of instruction in most university departments. The faculties and departments of engineering, for instance, as well as medicine, dentistry, pharmacology, applied medical science, science, department of European languages and literature (English and French) and university community college, all provide instruction in English, in addition to Arabic.

Higher education in SA has changed in recent years, with further plans for the development and enhancement of higher education in 2016 from both the MOHE and the KSA's crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman (MOE, 2017). In relation to the latter, a new vision was introduced in 2016, for SA to become one of the most advanced countries in the world within economics and education by 2030 (MOE, 2017). This has increased pressure on all higher education institutions in SA, including the university selected for this research, resulting in the development of a university plan to further improve the quality of education and research (See Saudi Education and Vision 2030).

To align with the development of the country, the Saudi university encourages its academic staff by all means. It awards prizes for excellent research and sponsors staff to go to international conferences to exchange knowledge and experience (Tayeb, 2015). It also founded a patents unit with the paperwork and procedures needed for

patent registration (*Ibid.*). As the university encourages and supports high academic performance, it also offers the highest-achieving academic graduate students the opportunity of a scholarship to continue their Masters and Doctoral studies in a high ranked university abroad, as well as an academic job on their return. By doing this, the university also ensures that in the future, it will have the best professionally qualified academic staff in order to improve the university's quality of education and reputation (*Ibid.*).

The Saudi university has developed criteria of performance that will attain the best scientific, ethical and professional standards for its students, improve research and development programs, increase the cultural contribution, improve the optimal investment in university resources and develop capabilities (Tayeb, Zahed and Ritzen, 2015). It also raises the awareness, education and training of employees and all related to the University plan, to help in its application and monitoring. It aims to expand and permit the exchange of knowledge and culture and the reinforcement of experience by making an agreement with international institutions of higher education, research centres and centres of excellence. It also aims to develop and actively further university cooperation with the governmental and private sectors to reformulate the labour market in the Kingdom and make it commensurate with the Kingdom's economic capabilities, its human resources and its place in the world (*Ibid.*).

5.3.3.1.1.2 The London University

The London university selected for the study was established some time before the Saudi university, in 1798. The university has grown in size since 1966 and the reputation grows year by year. The university currently hosts around 11,359 students, 41 per cent of whom are international students (THE, 2018). In 2016, the university celebrated 50 years as a university and is the home of technological education, championing innovation and advancement, and providing the UK with the knowledge base it needs to compete on the international stage. The university operates in a competitive national and global market, attracting students and staff from across the UK and around the world. It is an independent institution and controls its own mission and strategy, although as a supplier of publicly-funded higher education, it is subject to regulation and legislation to ensure that it acts responsibly in its usage of public funds. The university received funding grants from the Higher Education

Funding Council for England (HEFCE) for research and teaching (although this is likely to now be provided by the Office for Students and Research England, as of April 2018) (Davies, 2018). Research England is responsible for coordinating the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and manages various funding sources (for example, the Higher Education Innovation Fund), supervises data collection and analysis, and offers strategic support to the HE sector via engagement with HEIs (*Ibid*).

In response to general changes in higher education institutions, the London university has developed a plan that allows the university to be agile and responsive to the changing external environment and to manage its approach effectively to reach its strategic goals. The new strategy took place in 2016 and involved extensive consultation with staff, students and external stakeholders. The London university development plan focuses on four key areas: (a) education and the student experience (b) research outputs, (c) health and well-being of staff and students and (d) global impact. The current goal is to improve education and the student experience between 2017 and 2020, and for that to be aligned with the introduction of the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) in 2017 (The Guardian, 2017). It is believed that this development will allow collaborative and consultation processes between staff and students, and stakeholders, facilitating plans for future educational directions and priorities (Unesco, 2014). This strategy aims to advance students' engagement and adopt approaches to teaching and learning that entrench deep learning and critical thinking. The aim is to introduce a more interactive approach in the classroom which inspires students to think, discuss and challenge, rather than to absorb information passively. This involves decreasing the amount of lecture-based teaching and providing opportunities for interactive learning through a range of approaches, such as team-based learning, flipped learning/teaching (the latter stems from the premise of inquiry-based and egalitarian philosophy: with the growing access to vast information through the internet, the traditional model of teacher as the sole steward of knowledge has become obsolete, see Jenkins *et al.*, 2017, p. 1), peer to peer learning and project-based approaches. As a result of this latest strategy, the university has received a silver award in respect of the TEF. The university is also developing distance learning programmes in some Masters degrees, such as public health and project and infrastructure management.

The university has a robust record of engagement with industry and currently has the thirteenth largest portfolio of funding from innovation in the UK. It's latest development plan involves building on its strong research reputation through delivering a more integrated, cohesive research culture and being associated with the REF exercise. Global competition has also meant that the university continues to concentrate on large multi-disciplinary grants in internationally competitive areas, and the formation of partnerships with business, government and other third sector institutions. The university aims to increase support for early career researchers, boost the number of recipients of research grants, increase involvement in doctoral training centres and partnerships, enhance graduate and undergraduate participation in Institute research, offer opportunities for students to conduct Masters and doctoral level research projects, augment students' employment opportunities that deliver research experience on campus, and to inspire research students to gain experience of other working environments through short internships and, where possible, with worldwide partners (UK university website).

It is worth noting the impact of recent changes in Europe on the UK university specifically, as whilst the university strives to develop its international strategy and build on the university's strong international ethos and standing, it is evident that Brexit may pose a new challenge here (Marginson, 2017). It has been shown that Brexit is likely to negatively affect the ability to attract and retain staff and students from Europe and to access European research funding and networks (Marginson, 2017). UK universities currently receive £1 billion a year from European programmes, for example, the European Institute of Innovation and Technology. Any decrease in research funding will therefore strongly impact on the leading and middle-standard universities (*Ibid.*). Concerns have therefore been expressed around how Brexit will influence science, with suggestions that universities will have an important role to play in encouraging collaboration and understanding (*Ibid.*). In addition, there is ongoing pressure in relation to immigration and the increasing regulation of students' visas (*Ibid.*), which may challenge the university's ambition to recruit overseas students. The Brexit process is yet to be completed, with the projected date for completion being March 2019. Thus, there remains uncertainty around whether or not EU staff will be likely to keep their residency or not, as there has been lack of information regarding this issue to date (*Ibid.*). The London university is working to mitigate these issues in several ways, especially as the recruitment of international

students is crucial to the university, including through building a strong network with like-minded European universities, seeking alternative sources of international research funding and developing transnational education opportunities to educate students outside the UK (Marginson, 2017).

5.3.1.1.1.3 Key issues and challenges for the Saudi and London universities

The Saudi university

The evolution and enhancement of HE in SA has benefited the industry overall. As a result of the recognition of this, the MOHE developed a strategic plan for development and change, which has had important consequences for the HE sector (Alhazemi, Rees and Hossain, 2013). The strategic plan for development was formulated in 2005 (see the Ministry of Economy and Planning, the eight development plan), and aimed to significantly develop the present educational institutions and to improve the standard of education provided (*Ibid.*). Some of the most notable elements of this strategy include increasing the emphasis that universities place on research, increasing the quantity of scholarships available to students, utilising accreditation strategies and enhancing the cooperation between higher education and the private sector (*Ibid.*). The Saudi government enhanced the education budget by 32 per cent in 2010; which was intended to provide additional training opportunities (MOHE, 2013).

The higher education sector has progressed in correlation with the significant increase in those attending university (Alghamdi and Al-Salouli, 2013; Alharbi, 2016). As Mazi and Abouammoh (2013) assert, 222,000 freshers in 2009 attended university; this was a notable increase on the 137,438 students in 2005. This led to increased employment being provided in a broader range of specialist areas (Alenezi *et al.,* 2010). This rise in demand forced the sector to address several key issues, such as the population increase and geographic spread (Alkhazim, 2003). The increase in the quantity of students, for instance, forced the sector to improve areas of self-education, mass education, lifelong learning and the utilisation of science and e-learning processes (Altowjry, 2005). It has also involved the provision of an elevated quality of teaching and improving the scientific and educational competencies of academic staff in order to broaden the provision of education (Al-Fahad, 2005; Alenezi, *et al.,* 2010; Memon, Mahar and Shaikh, 2015).

The KSA's Crown Prince, Mohammed bin Salman, implemented an innovative plan in April 2016, for SA to become one of the most advanced nations worldwide in the fields of economics and education by 2030 (Alharbi, 2016). Recent economic alterations in the country have led to a new process of attempting to enhance the economy's prosperity (Alamri, 2011; Hamdan, 2013; Hilal, 2013). The country's new plan is to decrease the high dependency on oil and to boost the generation of non-oil revenue (including an increase in the number of visitors to the country, increase in foreign investment, improving the education system and improving the job prospects of young Saudis) (see Saudi Vision 2030). Thus, there are greater expectations on HEIs by the government to become world class institutions. Consequently, university leaders in the Kingdom have attempted to meet these, but difficulties remain, particularly in relation to research productivity, accreditation and enhancing quality (Alharbi, 2016). Mazi and Altbach (2013), for instance, asserts that research is the sole element on which universities from different countries can be compared, resulting in a number of measures being adopted for assessing the quantity of articles published and reviewing their impact. Various studies have verified the importance of an institution's research productivity for enhancing a university's standing (Dundar and Lewis, 1998; Lertputtarak, 2008; Morales, Grineski, Collins, 2017). As Larry and Abouammoh (2013: 170) outline in relation to HEIs in SA:

> …if the Saudi higher education system is to achieve its stated goal of having its leading universities recognized internationally as 'world-class,' then it must give urgent priority to its research effort, because global university ranking systems are heavily based on the quality and quantity of an institution's research activity and outcomes.

Despite this, a low number of published articles are produced by Saudi HEIs, with limited understanding and expertise, and limited capability in English contributing to this low rate (*Ibid.*). Research output thus remains a barrier for Saudi HEIs, suggesting that the country's educational reputation can suffer in this respect.

HEIs are attempting to improve academic quality to enhance their global appeal and to provide more successful outcomes (Hazelkorn, 2007; Mazi and Altbach, 2013), thus requiring an awareness of the importance of international accreditation of institutions in order to be identified internationally and globally through the quality assurance of universities (Alharbi, 2016). The quality of a university must

consequently be assessed and monitored via an effective independent governance organisation (Al-Musallam, 2009). The globalised accreditation position means that international accreditation has become a notable requirement so as to advocate global education in Saudi Arabian institutions (Hamdan, 2013). Nonetheless, such quality and accreditation processes have tended to pose additional difficulties for Saudi HEIs acquiring world class status. In reality, numerous Saudi universities do not possess quality institutions and efficiency; which has resulted in lack of international recognition (ranking) (Alharbi, 2016), and that could be because several new universities in the country are focusing more on teaching and give little importance to research activities (Onsman, 2011). However, there are some courses in different Saudi universities that have acquired international accreditation from the British Quality Foundation; including some diploma education programmes (Hazelkorn, 2011).

Whilst progress in respect of international accreditation has been limited to date, the prospect of receiving such accreditation has resulted in many HEIs putting measures in place to improve standards and provision, in order to emerge as a world-class university in the Arabian Gulf region (Alharbi, 2016). The higher education system in SA is required by MOHE to implement a benchmark process for finding a solution to the difficulties that universities encounter so as to fulfil the increasing demand of the economy and to meet the vision of the Prince Muhammed bin Salman for the KSA. Individuals in leadership positions at these universities are required to vigorously respond to these difficulties in order to enhance the standard and prestige of these institutions over the next five years (*Ibid.*). This new vision of SA, and the pressure it places on the universities to seek to be well-recognized and elite higher education institutions indicates the potential for significant change processes in the coming years, which are likely to impact on the academic employees, and are therefore an important consideration for the Saudi HE sector.

The London university

Higher education in the UK has significantly increased over the years, for instance, the numbers of students in 1960 was 400,000, in comparison to the year 2000, where it was 2,000,000 students (Greenaway and Haynes, 2003). Many observers regard this increase in higher education as advantageous as more people receiving higher education increases the skills of the national workforce and therefore progressively

subsidises productivity across the country (Blanden and Machin, 2004). A major development occurred in 1992 when the Further and Higher Education Act was established; which abolished the binary divide and provided polytechnics with the same status that universities had during this period (Blanden and Machin, 2004; Boud and Lee, 2005). The intention of this Act was to react to the growing clamour of students by ensuring a 100 per cent increase in the quantity of institutions able to offer degrees and to compete for research funding (Willmott, 2003). Consequently, the variety of universities originating from the former polytechnics are referred to as 'post-92' or new universities, in addition to the second wave new universities; university colleges and other HEIs. Such changes have resulted in university numbers growing three times as large in comparison to the 1960s, with approximately 130 HEIs operating in 2017. The changes have allowed universities to compete for and serve students, as a business organisation would do clients; similar is also true for attempts to secure funding (Chapleo and Simms, 2010). Indeed, this reflects a modern comparison between universities and businesses, including marketing and the provision of a suitable service to the relevant stakeholder (Willmott, 2003; Chapleo and Simms, 2010).

There has been a development in the financial operations of the higher education field over recent decades. In 1998, for example, up-front tuition fees totalling £1,200 per year were required to study a degree course; these had not been in place previously. Higher maintenance loans were also introduced with maintenance grants being eradicated (Wilkins, Shams and Huisman, 2013). Fees were increased further between 2006 and 2007, ranging up to £3,000 annually. These were applicable to every student, irrespective of their background. However, this could be deferred until after the student had graduated, with the loan being subsidised by the government initially. The maintenance grants available for the poorest students were also substantially raised (*Ibid.*). The UK system prescribed a process where a range of fee levels could be stipulated, based on the quality of the institution and aspects such as its ratings and reputation. Yet, in reality, most English universities declared that they would set their figures close to the maximum level allowed (Coughlan 2011).

From 2012, the coalition government operating in the UK at the time allowed universities to charge tuition fees of up to £9,000 per year from 2012. This was a hugely contentious policy change, prompting extensive student protests. However,

the overall correlation between tuition fees and participation in university remains unclear (Wilkins, Shams and Huisman, 2013), although as Dearden, Fitzsimons and Wyness (2011) suggest, a £1,000 rise in fees leads to a 3.9 percentage point decline in university participation, while a £1,000 increase in grants leads to a 2.6 percentage point increase in participation. The change in fees has also presented challenges for HEIs, and some universities have recorded a small reduction in admissions in the first year compared with previous years (Pollard *et al.,* 2010). Older universities, with well-known reputations and high performance have not been affected by the increase of fees, however, there was some reduction in mature students who study part time and were sponsored by their employers (*Ibid.*).

In addition to addressing the growing numbers of institutions and university students, and rising student fees, research output and funding have played an important role within UK HEIs. In the 1980s, for instance, a Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) was devised. This increased the concentration of British research in fewer universities, predominantly for academic purposes (Shattock, 2018). The new REF was introduced in 2014. This was a process for measuring the standard of research in UK higher education institutions (REF, 2014). The REF differs from the previous RAE in many ways; (a) the number of the units of assessment has been decreased from 67 to 36; (b) inclusion of the research impact as evaluation elements; (c) the environment section is evaluated under different criteria and contains all the staff activities data, not only for those whose outputs were submitted; (d) the weightings for the contributing components have been adjusted; (e) measures to boost equivalence and variation have been reinforced and used systematically across all units of assessments (University of Reading, 2014). Moreover, the funding bodies' shared policy intention for research assessment is to ensure the continuation of a world-class, dynamic and responsive research base across the overall academic field of UK higher education. Additionally, the REF aimed to ensure accountability was present for public investment in research and to generate evidence relating to the advantages of such investment (*Ibid.*). The REF is undertaken by expert panels under the guidance of four prominent panels. These expert panels are comprised of senior academics, international members, and research users. There are distinct aspects scrutinised for each submission: the standard of outputs (publications, performance and exhibitions), their influence beyond academia and the environment that supports research (*Ibid.*).

For a number of different reasons, it can be said that the REF has significantly influenced universities. The REF requires universities to present several case studies for each subject to be submitted. The number of impact case studies relies on the number of full time academics whose research publications are included for evaluation (Parker and Teijlingen, 2012). The case studies should identify the social, cultural and economic impact that have occurred beyond academia and which are supported by good quality research (*Ibid.*). However, this requirement excludes research that helps develop teaching in the universities or research that adds to the sum total knowledge about a specific phenomenon, which increases the pressure on academics to consider how their research will provide wider social benefit (Moriarty 2011).

Academics who have disagreed with the introduction of the REF suggest that 'impact' represented an encroachment of faculty staff rights of freedom, autonomy and the ability to be led by inquisitiveness (Ladyman 2011), restraining exploration and potentially important discoveries or developments (Smith 2012). Furthermore, academics have expressed concern about the difficulties of producing and recording non-academics' research impacts and particularly issues involving the measurement result and impact assessment (Watermeyer, 2016). Such pressure for excellence in 'innovation and enterprise' and the prerequisite of being impactful could lead to schism or departure, inside and from the HE community as a whole, as academics are faced with the exposed reality of the alteration of the nature of what it is they do (*Ibid.*). However, others could be more flexible and easily persuaded and more skilled at playing the game, and have the ability to retain the more traditional academic identity, and its relative value-framework, whilst discussing the impact assault course (Watermeyer, 2016).

With emphasis being on the research output, there has been criticism that research is more important than teaching (Shattock, 2018). As a result of this, a Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) has been established (*Ibid.*). The TEF is supported by the government as a means of measuring the standard of teaching across every HEI in the UK. This was reinforced in the White paper 'Success as a Knowledge Economy, Teaching Excellence, Social Mobility and Student Choice' in May 2016 (Hayes, 2017). It is believed that the strategies for the TEF will be an indication of notable

development in the HE industry in the UK; as it is thought to signal significant changes in UK higher education as it will transform the ways in which universities have been reviewed.

It has been suggested that the TEF was introduced as a means to overcome the challenges of measuring teaching quality face to face with students, so they can be offered a better service in the future (Wooda and Sub, 2017). According to the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, the TEF will offer obvious, comprehensible information to the students about where teaching quality is excellent. In addition, it will send robust signals to potential students and their future employers, and inform the competitive market (2013, cited in Wooda and Sub, 2017, p, 454). Thus, it is believed that this will help students to find the best provisions and boost the level of teaching amongst universities (Wooda and Sub, 2017).

The introduction of the TEF has, however, presented some cause for tension in academic life, as academics are expected to make a balance between the REF and the TEF (Blackmore, 2016). According to Wooda and Sub (2017), the TEF was understood by several academics to be problematic as it is felt that it may decrease their authentic commitment to teaching excellence to an evidence-collecting process. Other academics have perceived it as a way of enhancing their teaching profile in a similar way to research status (*Ibid.*). However, Blackmore (2016, p. 10) argues that 'it remains unclear whether a TEF can or will achieve its aims of raising the status of teaching', and as we have seen in previous years, there has been little development in methods for evaluating teaching, and so the effectiveness of the TEF is yet to be shown (Gibbs, 2016).

The TEF is also likely to have an inevitable influence on the ways in which universities operate, particularly as the institutions who offer the highest quality provisions with an excellent standard of teaching, that allow students from all backgrounds to realise their potential, will be given a gold rating (Department for Education, 2016 cited in Hayes, 2017). The Silver and Bronze ratings involve only good outcomes being anticipated for most students (*Ibid.*). In this respect, it has been suggested that the TEF can enable the industry to avoid academic nepotism and instead to implement a system that is more transparent and identifies and rewards genuine instances of outstanding teaching in the UK institutions (Beech, 2017). In

line with this, the TEF can be seen to emerge from a discourse related to 'placing students at the centre' of higher education; focusing on student social mobility and 'choice' (Gourlay and Stevenson, 2017). It has also been argued, however, that the TEF is effectively intended to permit organisations to enhance fees, in accordance with their level of performance (*Ibid.*).

Finally, it is important to reflect on the more recent transition facing the UK; that of Britain leaving the European Union, or 'Brexit'. This is a significant event that will impact upon UK HEIs. It should be noted that approximately 34,000 academics working in the UK are from elsewhere in Europe, whilst this is also true of fourteen per cent of students. Furthermore, ten per cent of the overall research income originates from Europe, whilst thirteen percent of academic papers have been co-authored by European academics over the past decade (O'shea and Fitt, 2017). Consequently, Brexit might notably reduce the numbers of students from across Europe with the opportunity or the inclination to study in the UK. The fact that these students will be regarded as international students, for instance, from the perspective of tuition fees and the visa process, might result in a decline in the free movement of students (BBC, 2010).

Brexit has led to notable uncertainty for UK institutions, including their ability to hire and retain staff, the possible effect on university revenues and the ability of UK universities to secure funding from foreign sources (Marginson, 2017; Mayhew, 2017). Consequently, change and a lack of certainty can be anticipated in the coming period. However, it should be noted that the demand for higher education remains at an extremely high level in the UK. The anticipated decline in the quantity of European students in the British universities will probably be compensated by the increasing quantity of domestic students increasingly enrolling in these universities. Additionally, it is anticipated that the perception of the UK's universities will keep attracting international students (Marginson, 2017). This said, the increase in students' expectations due to the increased financial cost of the courses means that organizations will need to invest in infrastructure, teaching and career support (Grove, 2015). If additional changes are not made then these institutions face a notable financial threat as expenditure levels begin to exceed growth in income. Consequently, it is important that the sector continues to evolve so as to minimize the threat of financial struggle. Every organization is required to adjust its operating

strategy and cost structure in order to spend its money in the most efficient way, whilst continuing to obtain revenue (*Ibid.*).

The London and Saudi universities were thus considered to be ideal case studies for exploring the issues that unfold during times of change, and to better understand what challenges they face to become world class universities. In recent years, HE in both countries has encountered many challenges due to wider changes in the countries' economics and to the growing competitive market of the universities. The case of SA, for instance, demonstrates attempts to reduce dependence on oil and to establish other sources of income; with a strong education system being one of these sources. This has resulted in improvements to teaching and research quality, the seeking of international accreditation, and expansion of international collaboration and exchange of knowledge. UK HE has also been affected by changes in the country, with the introduction of Brexit and its potential impact on university funding and collaboration with European countries. This has been compounded by the increase in student fees, the introduction of the REF and TEF, all of which place growing pressure on universities and their abilities to compete in the global market. Therefore, exploring how these changes impact on academic life in both universities is significant, as it sheds light in how those academics perceive such changes, how they emotionally experience these changes and how they manage the emotional experience. It was felt that these case studies would offer rich layers of information and expand knowledge about the hidden emotional life of academics, highlighting various events that may trigger negative emotions during change in HE in different countries, and advance understanding of the management strategies of such an emotion.

5.4 Research Design
5.4.1 Semi-Structured Interviews
This study employed a cross-cultural descriptive case study design involving qualitative semi-structured interviews. By using semi-structured interviews, the researcher was able to ask why and how questions rather than how much and how many (Fylan, 2005), as the thesis investigates why university academics experience negative emotions during change time and how they manage these emotions. The intention was to use a list of issues, questions and themes in the interview schedule (Kajornboon, 2005), which allowed for the order of the questions to be altered depending on the participants' answers, and the management and direction of the

interview (Kajornboon, 2005). By using such an interview schedule, the researcher could be flexible, allowing the identification of elements of the topic that were most significant from the participants' points of view (Fylan, 2005). Structured interviews were not considered suitable for this research as in this kind of interview, the researcher asks the same questions to all participants, which are predominantly closed questions, which can result in restricted responses, as well as difficulty understanding the questions and thus, answering them (Corbetta, 2003). Furthermore, as the study involved academics from different countries, using identical questions was not considered sufficient for gathering the data required for the answering the research questions. Using unstructured interviews could also have been problematic because the researcher may not gather the relevant data to answer the research questions without prompts and questions, or could be biased and influence the direction of the interviews in an inappropriate way (Kajornboon, 2005). Also, data coding and analysis could be more difficult, compared with other types of interviews (*Ibid.*).

5.4.2 Photo-elicitation Techniques

Photo-elicitation is 'based on the simple idea of inserting photographs into a qualitative interview' (Harper, 2002, p.12) to obtain data. Photo-elicitation is intended to stimulate reactions and memories and provide insight into the views, principles and interpretations of an individual, or to explore group dynamics (Meo, 2010). Collier and Collier (1986) suggest that photos are mechanisms which "bridge communication gaps" (p.99). One benefit of incorporating photo-elicitation into interviews is that photographs provide a different type of representation to language than is conventionally conveyed via written or verbal form. Hence, the process can acquire "more complex understanding of human experiences" (Douglas, 1998, p.7), and provide additional validity to a survey or interview process (Harper, 2002).

There are a variety of factors that provide justification for photo elicitation being incorporated in the present project (See Table 3, page 118). The viewpoint that:

> …photographs have to be seen as social constructions, that is, as artefacts of the contexts in which they were constructed by the researcher, and then, later, in which they are consumed by readers. What readers bring to research photographs interacts with what the researcher has chosen to highlight (Fasoli, 2003, p.36).

111

Consequently, the choice of pictures provides an insight into how academics have formed their interpretation of their negative emotional experience. The social constructionist theoretical perspective indicates that photographs are a way of generating a variety of realities that are dictated by social and cultural aspects and situated within a specific time and space (Guillemin, 2004; Frith, Shaw and Cheng, 2005). Furthermore, Evans (1999) asserts that:

> In common with the move from realism to the social construction of identity within the social sciences, in photo-elicitation methods the focus has been shifted from seeing the visual as an objective representation of the other to seeing it as a collaborative enterprise between observer and observed (cited in Croghan *et al.,* 2008*,* p. 346).

Photo-elicitation approaches seemingly present a way of obtaining understanding of alternative viewpoints by gaining an awareness of how the individual perceives the image, which can provide greater insights into their thought processes (Richard and Lahman, 2015; Winton, 2016). In this context, the use of photographs would allow the interviewer to gain a better understanding of attitudes towards university changes, other people and themselves. It might also be regarded as a means of encouraging them to understand or express their negative emotions and to improve the way in which they manage them (Löfström and Nevgi, 2014), during stressful times (university change). Schulze (2007) suggests that academics have alternative ways of incorporating photographs into the interview phase. He discovered that photographs encouraged academics to consider situations in a more analytical and reflective way (*Ibid.*).

Additional benefits of using photographs in interviews reportedly include providing an icebreaker (Allan and Tinkler, 2015); helping to understand how meaning is created when individuals from varying social backgrounds engage with their environments (Schulze, 2007); and encouraging discussions in terms of common interpretations and feelings (Harper, 2002). Schulze (2007) also suggests that photographs enable frustration to be expressed and provide the chance to acquire sensitive personal details that the individuals would not be prepared to uncover in a communal setting (Padgett *et al.,* 2013). In other studies, the use of photographs has reportedly provided the opportunity to develop the involvement of the individual, in addition to their traditional role in being interviewed as part of a research project (Bolton, Pole and Mizen, 2001; Richard and Lahman, 2015).

Table 3: Benefits of Using Photo-elicitation Interviewing Techniques by Researcher

Use and/or benefit	Source
Utilise photo-elicitation as a mechanism via which individuals are able to: • Communicate their expertise and intensive emotions • Understand their suppressed emotions and principles	**Collier (1957)**
Photo-elicitation interviewing is advantageous as it offers the possibility to: • Conquer the illiteracy of the participants • Give a feeling of welcome and belonging to the participants • Advocate coherent thoughts • Advocate participant agency	**Collier and Collier (1986)**
Use photo-elicitation to help participants: • Identify cultural awareness and elements of 'social psychology' • Scrutinise their ideas, notions, and behaviour in social situations	**Suchar (1989)**
Photo-elicitation interviewing is advantageous as it offers the possibility to: • Act as a collaborative approach involving the participant and the researcher • Lead to a collaboration with discussion between the participant and the researcher that is 'stimulated and guided by the images' (Harper, 1998: 410) • Provide specific details of the context recognised via the images and the accompanying discussion (Collier, 1995)	**Harper (1998) and Collier (1995)**
Utilise photo-elicitation interviewing to: • 'Explore participants' values, beliefs, attitudes, and meanings' • Identify memories or emotions that have been suppressed or enable the participant to have an understanding of this • Display characteristics that are hard to convey, subtle or overlooked relationships, and varying truths regarding participants	**Prosser and Schwartz (1998)**
Use photo-elicitation interviewing to: • Bring clarity to memories • Give an emphasis of direction for the interview • Strengthen uncomfortable interview circumstances • Permit participants to celebrate • Advocate participant agency	**Banks (2001)**
Photo-elicitation interviewing is advantageous as it offers the possibility to: • Extract an enhanced number of memories (use of black and white photographs) • Invoke an emotional reaction • Avoid interview tiredness or misunderstandings • Reduce the gap in different cultures	**Harper (2002)**
Photo-elicitation interviewing is advantageous due to its possibility to foster: • Exploration and extended reactions • Disclosure • Authorised discussion	**Banks (2007)**

(Adopted from Richard and Lahman, 2015, p. 7)

There are different methods to generating the photographs, for example, the photographs being produced by the researcher only, photographs being produced by participants only, using archival only photographs and hybrid photograph production. The 'researcher only' process involves the researcher producing pictures that relate to the research questions posed (Ray and Smith, 2012). This method is suitable when the researcher studies organisational process, in different times with different activities (Buchanan, 2001). The 'participant only' photographic production depends entirely upon individuals working for the organisation taking photographs in the relevant setting, which can offer a range of interpretations and viewpoints (Burt, Johansson and Thelander, 2007; Venkatraman and Neslon, 2008). 'Archival-only' photographic production is connected with utilising archived photographs, which can enable scrutiny of evolvement over a given time period by undertaking a comparison between photographs of different eras (Ray and Smith, 2012). A 'hybrid approach' means incorporating photographs from the participant, archives and researcher processes within the study (Ray and Smith, 2012). Alternatively, it can involve a combination of researcher-participant photographs in which a researcher interacts with the participants during the process of photograph production (*Ibid.*).

The choice of method will be determined through the questions, context and outlook of the researcher within the relevant study (Ray and Smith, 2012). In the current research, the photographs were produced by the researcher due to time restrictions, but also because prior communication with participants demonstrated a lack of inclination to produce their own photographs, in part due to their concern that the photographs might be inadequate or unsuitable, and in part due to their own limited time. However, the use of the photographs was beneficial for this study as it also facilitated access to participants. When the researcher emailed the target sample, for instance, and explained the research topic and photo-elicitation techniques being used during the interview, the participants demonstrated more interest in the research and agreed to take a part. At the end of the interview, some participants mentioned that using the photographs had encouraged them to participate in the research as they were keen to learn about this new method, and as researchers themselves, they welcomed learning something new that they could also use in future research. One participant even took pictures of the photographs to send to friends and share the research technique, telling them how the photographs had made the interviews more enjoyable and fascinating. Moreover, the use of this technique led to longer interviews in some

cases. Where participants had initially offered only ten or twenty minutes of their time, for example, the use of photo elicitation prompted additional discussion and lengthier interviews of up to an hour.

The photo-elicitation technique also assisted in the unfolding of academics' different experiences and highlighted cultural differences in picture interpretation (will be discussed further and in details in chapter 6 page 141). This means that different interpretations of photographs that the academics provide can improve our perception of the reality of university changes and how these influence academics' emotional experiences, because each academic's interpretation is likely to be influenced by their perspective of university change and culture. As culture is constructed and our ideas of reality are reliant upon culture, and reality is constructed in a similar way, the use of the photograph technique was beneficial in utilising varying perceptions of the social world (Allen, 2011). Thus, not only did the photographs help within the interviews, acting as an icebreaker, helping to reduce the researcher's nerves, extending discussion and assisting with interpreting responses, but they also attracted participants to the study.

5.4.3 Photographs Process

The photographs were taken by a Cannon Camera SX30IS on April 2015 (See appendix 3 page, 315). The decision as to what pictures should be taken or what the pictures should represent was based on extensive reading of studies related to emotions in the workplace in general and emotions during change specifically (see Hoschild, 1976; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Fineman, 1993, 2005; see also Chapter Two). The workplace offers a wide opportunity to experience enormous different emotions, such as hope, sadness, depression, shame, guilt, envy, anger, pride and anxiety (Lazuras and Lazuras, 1994; Fineman, 2005). These experiences of emotions depend on how employees appraise the work event, if it was in their favour it will trigger positive emotions. If harmful for them, it is likely to trigger negative emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996).

In the current study, the pictures have been generated to reflect different events, emotional expressions and objects that could represent what participants feel towards change in their university. Some of the ideas for the photographs, which it was planned would include people, were designed using computer software due to the

difficulty of including real people in the pictures. After taking the photographs, a discussion was held with the researcher's supervisory team to ensure that the photographs were relevant to the study. The researcher then conducted a pilot study with one member of academic staff and two doctoral students to determine whether the interview questions and use of photographs were clear, understandable and useable. This allowed the researcher to make some modifications and corrections to the interview guide. This was then reviewed again by the supervisory team and minor amendments made for the final version, before the researcher began re-contacting potential participants to take part in the study.

5.4.4   Sampling

A purposive and snowball sampling method was used. Purposive sampling involves the researcher considering the aim of the research and targeting specific individuals whose insights regarding the topic of study are needed (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). The snowball sampling technique involves locating participants who also have the preferred characteristics, and asking them to use their personal social networks to invite similar participants, in a multi stage process (Sadler *et al.,* 2010). The sample comprised of university academic staff, both male and female, who work in two selected universities; one located in London, UK and the other in SA. Inclusion criteria were academic staff who were willing to take part in tape-recorded interviews, who had an academic title or position in one of the two universities. No attempts were made to control for age, gender, academic position, years of experience and marital status. For the purposes of this study, the number of individuals participating was defined during the research rather than at the beginning of the study, and was decided at the point that sufficient data was deemed to have been collected.

5.4.4.1 Study Sample

Due to the nature of the research, which examined emotions, it was necessary to include all participants who were willing to take part in the study. Whilst a representative sample was desirable, which included an even gender split, as well as variation in ages and levels of experience within the academic sector, the researcher could not control for personal characteristics. Thus, the sample included those who were willing to share their thoughts and experiences with the researcher.

The London sample included twelve males and eight females; senior and younger academics, having academic experience ranging from two to 35 years, and ranging in age from mid-twenties to late sixties. All of the academics held a PhD; all held academic positions in the university (two were professors [one held a managerial position]; six were senior lecturers; eleven were lecturers; and one was a course director). To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the participants' names were changed and every participant was asked to choose a name for him/her self. (A brief summary of the participants' profile and interview duration can be found in Table 4, page, 127).

The Saudi sample included 20 females; senior and younger academics, having academic experience ranging from eighteen months to 30 years, and ranging in age from mid-twenties to late sixties. All of the academics were from SA and held PhDs and Master; all were in academic positions (twelve were associate professors [one held an administrative position] and eight were lecturers). To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the participants' names were changed and as with the UK academics, every participant was asked to choose a name for herself. (A brief summary of the participants' profile and interview duration can be found in Table 5, page,129).

5.4.5   Research Access

Accessing the field of academia was very difficult. Following supervisory meetings confirming that the interview schedules were complete, the researcher began contacting academics in London universities by email. This process began in January 2016, with emails being sent to all academics in all departments at the university. No responses were received. E-mails were therefore re-sent, this time contacting more than 400 academics in all departments. Whilst some responses were received during this period, most declined to take part in the research. It was therefore important to try a different approach, this time involving visits to the departments to talk to the academics about the research and requesting participants. By the end of July 2016, five academics had agreed to take part and the interview process could begin. A form of snowball sampling was then used, where the existing participants were asked if they could introduce the researcher to any interested colleagues or friends. Following this approach, the sample size increased to 20 participants by the end of October 2016.

In the Saudi university, there were also challenges in accessing participants, but this related mainly to difficulties in gaining approval from the Saudi Cultural Bureau and the Ministry of Higher Education of SA (the sponsor) and the university with which the research was being conducted. Access was requested in October 2015, application made and all relevant documents sent. This was refused three months later as their criteria had changed and they required more information, and so additional information was sent. Approval was gained in May 2016, and so the researcher travelled to SA, but as it was a summer holiday (a four month holiday), the data could not be generated, as there were few academics around. Those who were there were on summer contracts and did not fit with the criteria. The researcher therefore had to return to the UK and reapply for approval to re-access the university, during which time, the London interviews were conducted.

The researcher returned to SA at the end of October 2016 but was denied access to the university due to university management procedures which took a week and a half to process. Once access had been gained, email addresses were gained from the administration department and sent to 1,000 academics in total, across all departments. Ten responses were received declining to participate because they were retiring, had personal reasons, were not interested or did not have the time. As with the UK university, visits to the departments were therefore made to meet the academics in person. The academics were, however, less responsive than in the UK case, with the majority refusing to take part for various reasons: personal reasons, not having time, the belief that the research would not benefit them in any way, or for fear that - amongst the non-Saudi academics - if they said something negative about the university, it could affect their contract. When some finally agreed to participate, as with the London sample, they were asked to recommend colleagues or friends, and by the end of December 2016, the sample size also reached 20 within the Saudi university.

5.4.6 Interview Process

After initial interest was expressed by academics to participate, the academics were contacted again by email, with additional explanation about the purpose of the study, details about the researcher, and a request for confirmation of their participation. All of those contacted during this stage replied after a few days and confirmed their participation in the research. A consent form was also sent out which the academics

were asked to sign. They were informed that participation was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from the study. They were also assured that the information they provided would be treated confidentially. The London university academics' interviews were arranged for between July 2016 and October 2016, and the Saudi university academics' interviews were arranged for between November 2016 and December 2016.

It was the responsibility of the researcher to build a safe and supportive environment in which the individuals could explore their experiences openly, so the participants were asked to choose the date, time and the place of the interview. All academics chose to be interviewed at their offices, except for one (a UK academic) who chose to be interviewed in their institution's cafeteria. The interviews lasted for between 30 minutes and an hour (See Tables 4 and 5, page, 126 and 127). The interviewees were aware of the nature of the conversation and the questions they would be asked, and they were also given an overview of the research objectives. They were also offered the opportunity to read the interview transcript upon completion to check for accuracy. The interviews took a conversational shape to elicit rich descriptions of the academics' emotional experiences, thus allowing them to talk freely. They were asked to talk as widely as possible about their emotions in order to allow them to focus on what they thought was important in their experience. The aim of the interview was to assist the academics to describe their emotional experiences and to lead the conversation in a direction which they felt was most important to them.

The academics were encouraged to talk about different emotions (negative and positive) to allow them to share rich experiential accounts. All academics were asked the same standard question: 'Could you tell me about how these changes made you feel'. The academics were given time to think, before being asked which three pictures, in their opinion, reflected most how change in the university had made them feel. They were also asked to explain their choice of pictures. Academics were also asked if they could recall and describe - with a story if applicable - an incident in which he/she had felt strong emotions during change. In cases where academics were facing difficulties in remembering an emotional situation, examples of emotions (such as anger, happiness, pride, frustration, unhappiness) were given to prompt and to help the flow of conversation.

Additional questions were asked to explore in more detail the described emotion, such as (a) the situational context of the experience, (b) descriptions of the people with whom the experience was shared, (c) the trigger event that stimulated that emotion, (d) how they responded to negative emotions (e) what strategies they used to manage any negative emotions (for a copy of the interview guide, a sample interview sample and analysis of themes, see Appendix 1, page, 303). The tape-recorded interviews were fully transcribed. The Saudi university interview transcripts were translated from Arabic to English by the researcher in order to achieve the best attribution of the Arabic data.

Given the recent changes occurring within higher education, additional interviews were later conducted with several participants who responded to the researcher's request for further information. Only five academics in both universities were willing to be interviewed for a second time to answer additional questions that were considered important to enhancing the current study. The questions were related to recent change events, in relation to the REF, TEF and Brexit in the London university, and the academic accreditation process in the Saudi university. These follow-up interviews (see Appendix1 page, 305) were conducted by phone, email and face to face, before being transcribed, and Arabic data being translated to English.

Table 4: London University Academics' Profile and Interview Details

Participants names	Age Group	Gender	Marital Status	Years of Service	Level of Education	Position	Department	Interview duration
Vicky	35-44	Female	Single	18 (M)	PhD	Lecturer	Business	40 minutes
Hana	35 - 44	Female	Married	3	PhD	Lecturer	Business	40 minutes
Constoller	45- 54	Female	Married with children	16	PhD	Lecturer	Computer Science and Engineering	1 hour and 15 minutes
Clark	45-54	Male	Single	19	PhD	Lecturer	Engineering	1 hour and 30 minutes
Dave	35 - 44	Male	Married with children	10	PhD	Lecturer	Business	1 hour and 45 minutes
Mike	35 - 44	Male	Married with children	6	PhD	Lecturer	Business	40 minutes
Erik	35-44	Male	Single	4	PhD	Course director	Electronic and Computer Engineering	45 minutes
Betty	45-54	Female	Single	14 (M)	PhD	Senior lecturer	Business	40 minutes
Bolt	35 - 44	Male	Single	8	PhD	Lecturer	Business	40 minutes
Hopeful	55-64	Male	Married with children	9	PhD	Senior lecturer	Business	45 minutes
Jill	25- 35	Female	Single	1	PhD	Lecturer	Business	45 minutes

Participants names	Age Group	Gender	Marital Status	Years of Service	Level of Education	Position	Department	Interview duration
Keven	65-74	Male	Married with children	35	PhD	Professor	Electronic and Computer Engineering	1 hour and 20 minutes
Max	55 - 64	Male	Married with children	30	PhD	Senior lecturer	Electronic and computer Engineering	1 hour and 30 minutes
Ivan	45 - 54	Male	Married with children	11	PhD	Senior lecturer	Computer Science, engineering, design and physical sciences	40 minutes
Jane	45-54	Female	Married with children	14	PhD	Lecturer	Business	45 minutes
Paul	55-64	Male	Married with children	9	PhD	Senior lecturer	Business	1 hour and 40 minutes
Nat	35 - 44	Female	Married with children	16	PhD	Senior lecturer	Computer Science, engineering, design and physical sciences	1 hour and 20 minutes
Mariana	35 - 44	Female	Single	7	PhD	Lecturer	Business	45 minutes
Jeremy	65 - 74	Male	Married with children	6	DSc	Professor	Mechanical, Aerospace and Civil Engineering	40 minutes
Jonathan	35 - 44	Male	Married	2	PhD	Lecturer	Computer Science, engineering, design and physical sciences	40 minutes

Table 5: Saudi University Academics' Profile and Interview Details

Participants names	Age Group	Gender	Marital Status	Years of Service	Level of Education	Position	Department	Interview duration
Hala	55-64	F	Married	28	PhD	Associate professor	Psychological	35 minutes
Magi	35-44	F	Married	10	MSc	Lecturer	Family Science	40 minutes
Norha	45-54	F	Married	25	PhD	Associate professor	Science / Biology	1 hour
Maria	25-34	F	Married	10	PhD	Associate professor	Science /Biochemistry	1 hour
Monera	55-64	F	Married	25	PhD	Associate professor	Food and Nutrition	1 hour
Arwa	35-44	F	Married	19	PhD	Associate professor	Business/ Public administration	35 minutes
Wafa	35-44	F	Single	8	MSc	Lecturer	Science /Biochemistry	45 minutes
Mai	35-44	F	Married	10	PhD	Associate professor	English Language Institute	40 minutes
Lulu	55-64	F	Married	28	MSc	Lecturer	Food and Nutrition	35 minutes
Hana	25-34	F	Married	10	PhD	Lecturer	Science / Biology	45 minutes
Shmia	35-44	F	Married	15	MSc	Lecturer	Mathematical Statistics	45 minutes
Samer	35-44	F	Married	8	MSc	Lecturer	Mathematical Statistics	1 hour
Shorroq	35-44	F	Married	10	PhD	Associate professor	Psychological	1 hour

Participants names	Age Group	Gender	Marital Status	Years of Service	Level of Education	Position	Department	Interview duration
Noor	55-64	F	Married	30	PhD	Associate professor	Family Science	35 minutes
Dana	35-44	F	Married	18 M	PhD	Associate professor	Family Science	45 minutes
Nadia	25-34	F	Married	6	MSc	Lecturer	Family Science	1 hour
Rana	35-44	F	Married	15	PhD	Associate professor	Science	1 hour
Fuda	55-64	F	Married	38	PhD	Associate professor	Science / Biology	45 minutes
Hajer	35-44	F	Single	10	PhD	Associate professor	Chemistry	35 minutes
Luna	25-34	F	Single	6	MSc	Lecturer	Family Science	40 minutes

5.4.6.1 Reflections on the interviews

This thesis provided an opportunity to learn and develop my research skills. I found doing interviews with academics - interpreting and making sense of their stories and experiences - an exciting and challenging activity that allowed me to reflect and draw on my experience as a researcher. During the research journey, I was aware that as an independent researcher with several years' experience in academia, I had some shared experiences with the participants, which created a greater understanding within the interviews.

The interviews took a conversational style in order to motivate and encourage academics to speak freely and without restriction to share their experiences. The use of photographs was helpful here, as the interviews began with talking about the photos, which created a more relaxed atmosphere. For example, most of the academics who participated in the study expressed their interest and enthusiasm about the idea of the research and were willing to share their emotional experiences with me. If there were any initial concerns, they seemed to disappear as soon as they picked up the pictures and started sharing their emotional experiences. Many showed their interest in the pictures used in the study and the study itself, and appeared pleased that someone was interested in their emotions and feelings about the changes in their university. Some participants even explained that this had been the reason they had decided to take part in the study, as they felt their voice and opinions needed to be heard. Using the photographs assisted as starting point, and in reducing the stress for both of us, particularly as it was the first time I had interviewed professionals and academics. The photographs also helped the academics to understand the research intentions and what kind of questions I would be asking, as we touched on these issues whilst discussing the pictures, which allowed both of us to be more relaxed.

My aim during the interview to allow academics to describe their emotional experiences of change freely was also helped by using the photographs, as they prevented me from leading the interview. I found using photographs useful in gaining initial insights and understandings the academics' emotions, and this allowed me to then ask open-ended questions that were followed by other questions, depending on the academics' answers. Doing this allowed me to create a friendly atmosphere

which I felt allowed the academics to feel more comfortable, relaxed and to respond more openly and honestly.

To be consistent, I initially asked each of the participants the same question "Could you please choose three pictures that reflect what you felt when change has been implemented in your university?". After selecting the pictures, I asked them why they chose these pictures and the focus was on the emotions they felt and the events that triggered these emotions. In some cases, the academics had difficulties in choosing specific emotional events, as some of them felt they did not have anything to tell. This occurred with both Magi and Manal, who stated at the start of their interviews that they had nothing to tell. I tried to help them recall some emotions and events as prompts, by drawing on accounts of other academics' experiences at the same university, before re-asking the question and prompting with examples of emotions, such as happiness, excited, angry, worried and so on. This helped in both cases, giving them more focus and helping them to engage in the conversation. Interestingly, both participants talked about how the change in work routine was affecting their personal lives deeply, and in both interviews, they cried for the same reason, discussing in depth their inability to make a balance between their work and home. At first, I was not sure how to deal with this situation, but I tried to calm them down and talk through it. I reminded them that they were free to withdraw from the study, or to do the interview on another day, and Manal chose to withdraw from the study at that point. Magi wanted to continue, however, and so I gave her a break, then we continued the interview.

The narrative interview with academics helped in exploring the meanings they attach to the emotions they felt and to understand the socially constructed meaning of the emotional events, rather than simply testing a hypothesis, which could be more suitable for more structured interviews. In previous research, it was clear that emotions could be felt differently based on individual feelings, thoughts, interpretations and understandings of the events. The interviews and conversations with academics evoked emotions in them as interviewees, and me as the interviewer. Social constructionist theory is important in making sense of the emotions and experience of change shared in the interview and those experienced by academics during the university change. It helps in understanding how academics construct their meaning of change within their university and how each one interprets the events

based on their experience. It assists in knowing what elements of their job were important and how the change affects them and their work activities. It allows the researcher to comprehend why the academics feel this emotion and how they manage them. However, it is important to note that the findings from my study do not show the certain truth of the change in the university and how academics respond emotionally, but rather demonstrates some academics' understandings of the change and their interpretation of the events and the emotions they felt.

During the interviews, I was asking myself, if I were in their situation, what could make me angry or frustrated more, how I could manage my emotions? I was sure that I could hide my emotions in front of my students, but what about other situations, could I withhold my frustration and my anger in front of my manager? At the same time, I was able to learn from the responses of the academics as they showed enthusiasm when sharing their work and emotional experiences, especially those new to the academic profession. They gave me advice at the end of the interview such as "you have to be strong and patient and you should achieve your goals", "do not make the first failure break you, you will face a lot", "you have to be clever in managing your emotions and do not show your weakness to particular people". This advice was helpful on a personal level, but also provided insights into the emotions of these academics and the ways in which they manage them.

With academics sharing their stories and emotional experiences with me, it allowed me to engage emotionally with their stories and to show concern, empathy and pleasure. In addition, it enabled me to understand their emotions and how they truly felt about the changes that had taken/were taking place in their university, and this greater understanding gave me more confidence as an interviewer. In some interviews, I felt like a therapist as although I did not provide advice, I listened well, giving the participants the opportunity to express their emotions freely. Several participants, including Clark, Mgai, Dave, Rana and others seemed to confirm this as at the end of the interviews, they thanked me and stated that it had felt like a psychotherapy session, which I considered as a compliment.

Sharing the academics' stories made them feel relieved and helped them to make sense of their experience, as re-calling the emotions and how they manage them gave them the chance to get inside their experience and re-evaluate their responses to

emotional events and how they could overcome their unpleasant emotions. On a personal level, I was happy to have helped in this way, and also to learn more about experiences of the academic profession, as I am new to the world of academia. It was very inspiring and valuable, as I have been learning from different people from various backgrounds and cultures, and becoming more familiar with emotional experiences that are both similar and different across these cultures.

In relation to data analysis, the interviews were transcribed and analyzed manually, rather than using computer assisted qualitative data analysis software to organize and interpret the data. Whilst I did consider such software, and tried it, I did not continue as I felt that using software would not help in understanding the meaning of the data, and could affect the coding process. Therefore, I chose to analyse the data manually to gain greater familiarity and deeper insight into the data, giving me the opportunity to immerse myself in the stories and the experiences of the academics. I felt that this assisted in understanding and presenting my findings. In addition, analyzing the data manually gave me the opportunity to reflect on the data with the consideration of the theoretical framework and from my own philosophical stance when identifying themes. An example of this was when I interviewed Magi, as during the interview she was interrupted by one of her students who wanted to ask her opinion on something. Observing this interaction gave me the chance to witness Magi's close relationship with her students, which she mentioned in her stories, when discussing how she hides her negative emotions to protect her students.

During the analysis process, there were certain themes that emerged in both university samples, which was related to the academics' stories and experiences. Even with academics working in different universities in different countries, there were common themes that emerged from the data. The differences, however, could be related to the differences in university culture, norms and structures of the universities the academics were working within. For example, the theme of "high intention to leave" emerged from the London university data, which was not the case in the Saudi university data. This may be related to the university culture, as in SA, the government sector offers greater job security which may limit thoughts of leaving, compared with the London university academics (more explanation about this theme can be found in Chapter 7, page, 174).

The themes identified in the findings helped to unfold the emotional environment of academics in the Saudi and London universities. From a social constructionist lens, understanding the emotional experiences of different people from different cultures may help in seeing how academics interpret and understand being in academia, and how they construct the meaning of events and people's behaviour. The social constructionist approach allowed me to understand the academics' experiences by giving them a voice to share and unfold their emotional experiences, their understanding of university change and emotional responses. Giving the participants a chance to share such experiences is a significant part of qualitative research (Cassell and Symon, 1994)

5.4.7 Data Analysis

As data analysis in its overall form is interpreted in a variety of ways by different individuals, the researcher will wish to utilise a method that suitably relates to the goals, questions, and methodological approach. Schmidt (2004) notes that there is not one particular accurate or most effective method of providing an analysis of a qualitative interview. As such, there is no single method for examining and interpreting the experiences and responses of participants, or how the qualitative data ought to be reviewed. The process of data analysis is guided by the study's main objective, in the current case, to consider the variety of negative emotions, their triggers and management, within change situations, in the academic profession. This section provides an insight into the data analysis method utilised within this study.

Thematic analysis was the method of analysis used within the research because it complies with the objectives of the study (as it includes a focus on the exploration of how people interpret their life situations without examining hypotheses regarding the meaning of the issue being scrutinised) (Eatough and Smith, 2006). Thematic analysis permits the categorisation, scrutiny and recording of thematic trends within a set of data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). It has been suggested that it provides "…an accessible and theoretically flexible approach to analysing qualitative data" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.77), offering an interpretation of differing elements connected to the research study (Boyatzis, 1998), allowing the researcher to present a "…rich and detailed yet complex account of data" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.78).

The research incorporated six stages as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) (See table 6, page 137). These phases were as follows: first, the researcher produces the transcript of the data and then reads the text at least twice to provide familiarity with the relevant information and to record their initial impressions. Secondly, the researcher codes notable aspects of the data within the overall source and compiles data associated with each specific code. Thirdly, the compiled codes and the associated data are categorised into possible thematic classifications, and scrutinised regarding their connection to the code extract and the overall set of data. Fourthly, verifying to see if the themes operate in connection with the coded export and the overall data range. Fifthly, continuing analysis to improve the specific detail of each theme. Lastly, the data set is scrutinised for a final time to extract examples chosen for analysis, which tie in with the relevant research objectives and literature posed.

5.4.7.1 Analysis Process

So as to enhance the clarity and readability of the transcript, various minimal alterations have been introduced to the quotations. An ellipsis (...) is used to indicate a hesitation within speech or the removal of a piece of text that was regarded as being either a repetition or something that was not relevant to the study. There were some instances whereby there were various situations incorporated into a narrative, indicating that negative emotions were frequently triggered by ongoing emotional difficulties rather than being caused by one specific incident; this view complies with contemporary notions of emotion (e.g. Frijda, 2005). In these instances, the aim was to identify the specific element of the situation that had an impact upon the participant. This type of analysis stipulates that a singular situation might have alternative meanings attached. Yet the researcher attempted to omit these from the reports, because it is a review of an evaluation of an event that is linked to emotions (Lazarus, 1991).

The interview transcripts were analysed in connection with the appropriate theoretical framework that comprised part of the literature review. When the thematic analysis process produced insights that were not previously incorporated into the literature, further literature was accessed and scrutinised to provide further context to the results of the current study. The data was reviewed using a thematic analysis process, as indicated by Braun and Clarke (2006); a combination of data and theoretical instigated coding was used, such as observing the thematic elements incorporated into

the data and also looking for themes that were previously noted within the literature. The aspects that were revealed within the data were reviewed by the supervisory team, and with their consensus, the researcher continued with the analysis of the data obtained by the research process.

In terms of the consideration of the initial research objective, the prominent negative emotions that were outlined by the individuals participating in the research were classified into the categories of Anger, Fear, and Sadness. The negative emotional situation that participants encountered was impacted by circumstances connected to changes within their university. The emotional feelings expressed were thus categorised into emotions connected to fear (such as being worried, anxious or confused), feelings connected to anger (such as frustration or indignation), and feelings connected to sadness (being disappointed, lack of happiness or power, and impotence). This categorisation stemmed from the work of Parrot (2001) and Shaver *et al.* (1987) in categorising feelings, as they scrutinised the elementary emotions in relation to antecedents and broad compilation of empirical, physiological, cognitive, behavioural, and expressive reactions. Within this categorisation, anger emotions can be perceived if an element is preventing or restricting an individual from fulfilling their plans or obtaining their objectives. The negative emotion of fear originates from a perception of a society as possibly hindering or being harmful to one's self; this usually incorporates anticipation of physical injury, neglect, loss or a perceived lack of success. The fear antecedents might also incorporate a range of situational circumstances (such as an unusual circumstance or isolation) and is likely to enhance the individual's interpretation of the extent of danger and infringe upon the likelihood of them managing the situation effectively. The negative emotion of sadness initiates with a circumstance in which the danger has already occurred and the individual in question has encountered an unwanted conclusion that produces this feeling. Sadness incorporates discovering that one is powerless, helpless, or impotent to alter the undesirable situation (Seligman, 1975 cited in Shaver *et al.,* 1987).

For the second research objective, the events that triggered negative emotions were grouped into eight themes, four that emerged in both universities, which are (1) lack of communication about process and outcomes of change; (2) lack of consultation or involvement in decision making; (3) change in work routine; (4) lack of appreciation and reward. Three trigger events emerged only in the London university, including

(1) the research excellence framework; (2) the teaching excellence framework; and (3) Brexit. Finally, one trigger event emerged only in the Saudi university; (1) university quality standard and academic accreditation.

For the third research objective, the strategies that academics use to manage their negative emotions generated six themes in the London university case study (1) emotions regulation (2) seeking social support (3) ignoring emotions and accept the situation (4) considering alternative employment (5) re-focusing (6) planning and finding a solution. The Saudi university case study the date generate five themes (1) Emotion regulation (2) planning and find a solution (3) doing leisure activities (4) seeking social support (5) praying.

Table 6: Six Phase of Thematic Analysis

Phase	Description of the process
1. Formalizing the self with the data	Transcribing information, reading and re-reading the data, recording the original idea
2. Producing initial codes	Coding noteworthy elements of the data in a systematic manner across the whole range of data, compiling data connected to each code
3. Searching for themes	Compiling codes into possible themes, collecting all associated data for each possible theme
4. Analysing themes	Verifying if the themes operate in connection with the coded export and the overall data range, generality athematic map of the analysis
5. Defining and naming themes	Continuing analysis to improve the specific detail of each theme. The general research tells generality clear definition and names for each theme
6. Producing the report	The final chance for the analysis selection of clear, engaging examples, obtaining analysis of the chosen extract, connected to the consideration of the research question and literature resulting in a scholarly report of the study.

(Adopted from Braun and Clarke, 2006, pp. 16-23)

5.5 Ethical Considerations

For any research project, the intention should be to conduct the research ethically in every situation. Consequently, particular practices were implemented in the current

research to guarantee that it was ethically suitable and morally permissible. The Brunel London University and Ethics Committee were responsible for the provision of ethical approval. In instances of emotionality, where the information is of sensitivity to the participant, the researcher needs to be willing to consider ethical aspects relating to the situations of the participant (Eatough and Smith 2006). Therefore, an elementary necessity is to possess the consent of the participants (Eatough and Smith 2006). Individuals who were involved in the project were provided with complete information regarding the research process and provided their consent to participate, and to the interview being tape-recorded. The informed consent form was outlined to the academics prior to each interview (the information sheets and consent forms used within this particular study are included within Appendix 2, page 312 and 314). The academics were provided with information about the project objectives and the researcher, prior to the collection of the data. The academics were assured of confidentiality within the research. They were told that publications comprising anonymous statements would be available once the research had been finalised, and it was acknowledged that data from the project may be published, but it was stipulated that nobody's identity would be connected to it.

The British Sociological Association's Statement of Ethical Practice (2017) informs researchers of the need to consider how research might cause discomfort to some of the individuals partaking in it; and to reflect on how to reduce this level of concern. Correspondingly, the researcher for the current study aimed to generate a comfortable and safe environment in order to enable them to share and provide open insights. This was achieved through allowing the respondents to select the location and time of the appointment, permitting a conversational approach within the meetings, being friendly, permitting food and drink to be consumed during the process, guaranteeing their identity was not revealed, structuring the interview so that subject matters arose steadily, and providing suitable assistance and explanation where necessary.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has explained the philosophy, design, data analysis and ethical considerations of this study. As discussed, the research was underpinned by a social constructionist perspective, and utilised qualitative semi-structured interviews (complemented by photo-elicitation techniques) with twenty academics each at two universities. The case study approach was selected in order to provide in-depth

insights into negative emotions, triggers and management techniques that arise during times of change within higher education across two different cultures. Despite initial challenges relating to access, these methods proved both suitable and successful for the research. The use of thematic analysis assisted in drawing out in-depth and original insights. With the sensitive nature of the topic, ethical considerations remained paramount in the study, as addressed in this chapter. The next chapter will present the identified negative emotions by academics, discussing the key findings here and applying them to the existing literature.

Chapter 6: Academics' experiences of negative emotions during university change

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the first research question related to the negative emotional experiences of academics during change in London and Saudi universities. Building on Anna Karenina's principle of "Happy families are all alike; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way" (Tolstoy, 1875-1877/2001: 1), there might be many criteria or dynamics that trigger negative emotions in academic staff members in the UK and in Saudi Arabia. However, these dynamics might be different across these contexts and these two universities. This chapter explores the negative emotional experiences shared by the academics during change in London and Saudi universities, and highlights the contextual dynamics and institutional differences in UK and Saudi universities/work environments.

The academics' described their negative emotional experiences as being influenced by events related to change in the university, which was supported by a selection of pictures that helped in identifying the emotions that had been felt. Whilst pictures provided in the interviews included both positive and negative emotions, all academics selected only those associated with negative emotions. These were grouped into fear-related emotions (including confusion, uncertainty, anxiety and worry); anger-related emotions (such as frustration and indignation); and sadness-related emotions (including disappointment and unhappiness). The negative emotions and their subjective experience, as indicated from statements in the interviews, are presented in Table 7 for Saudi university academics and Table 8 for London university academics (see, page, 162 and 168) and discussed in further detail below. The key findings from the current study support previous organizational research that organizational change is associated with the experience of negative emotions among employees, which is often attributed to specific triggers related to the organisational changes experienced (Huy, 2002, Kiefer, 2005).

In the findings from the current study, it was notable that all academics in both universities had experienced university change differently, which shows variation in the negative emotions that have been felt and experienced. Whilst there were many

similarities in the emotions experienced, there were also notable differences amongst academics in the different universities. The dominant negative emotion within each group of academics was also different; with fear-related emotions being dominant amongst London university academics, and anger-related emotions being more dominant for Saudi university academics. Sadness-related emotions were, however, the least-mentioned emotions for both groups. It is important to note that whilst this chapter touches on some of the triggers in relation to emotions, the discussion is perhaps less detailed than will be provided on this issue in Chapter 7, which focuses specifically on triggers. However, it was felt that the triggers mentioned in direct relation to the pictures below could be considered the most prominent events and triggers for the academics, and the most dominant emotions, as they are more directly related to the selected pictures.

6.2 The Experience of Fear-related Emotions During Change

The academics in London and Saudi universities described experiencing various negative emotions in relation to events that had happened during university change. In terms of fear-related emotions, academics in the London university discussed feeling confusion, uncertainty, worry and anxiety, while Saudi university academics had felt fear, confusion and anxiety. As mentioned above, although discussed by most academics in both groups, fear-related emotions were the dominant negative emotions for London university academics compared with Saudi university academics. For London university academics, the experience of fear was not explicitly expressed by the academics, they mentioned only confusion and anxiety but not fear while for the Saudi university academics it was.

The underlying reason for academics' experience of confusion was similar, in terms of the reported loss of clear direction during the process of change and lack of communication in terms of the its processes. However, the confusion emotion was related to different events from the academics' points of view. London university academics, for instance, mentioned confusion in relation to changing job roles, and whether their job was now teaching or research-oriented. Saudi academics, on the other hand, discussed confusion in relation to increased workload (See Chapter 7, page 174 for further detail on triggers). Only the London academics discussed feeling worried and anxious in terms of what they felt was growing conflict between management and academic staff's expectations of one another. They also described

feeling stressed, which they considered a type of negative emotion, due to the lack of resources and information received during the change process, which could make them feel less secure in relation to their job and its future security.

As a way of reflecting on the emotions they felt during the introduction and the implementation of change, both groups of academics chose different pictures (See Figure 1 below) to explain their feelings further.
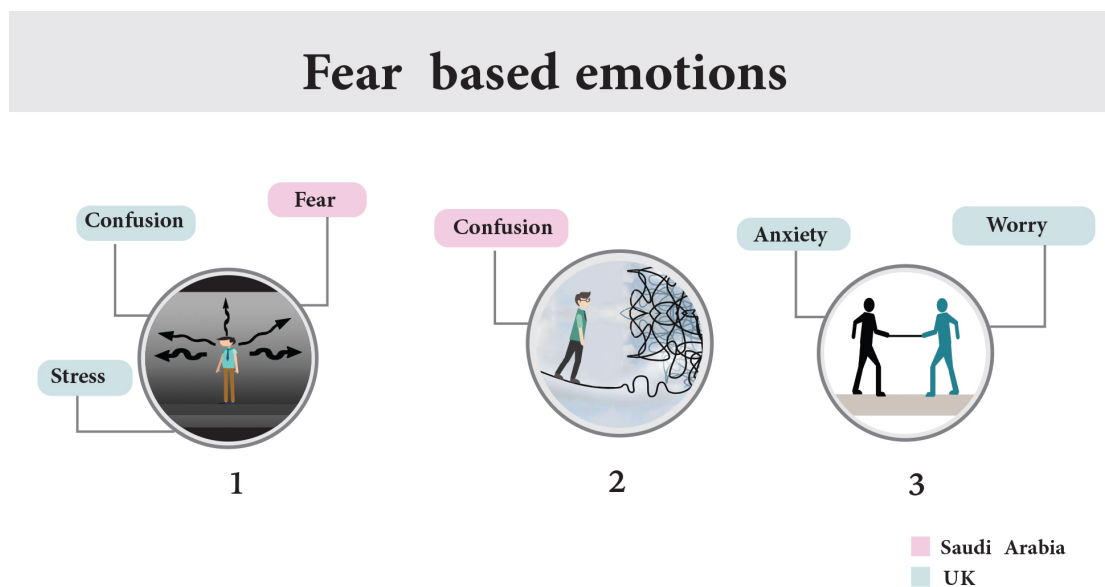
Figure 1: Fear Based Emotions

Based on these pictures, academics showed different feelings and related events that had led to a specific emotion. Both academics in both universities selected pictures 1, 2 and 3 to reflect their various emotions related to fear. The pictures most commonly selected by both groups of academics to represent the emotion of confusion, were 1 and 2, with London academics choosing picture 1 to explain their confusion in relation to loss of clear direction during change and to changing job roles, and whether their job was now teaching or research-oriented. This confusion is a result of the lack of communication between academics and management during the time of change. As they expressed:

> This picture reflects feelings of loss and confusion in the sense that there is no clear direction of change of where to go. In your job you do not feel like you have a direction. You feel like you were pushed one way or another and that is the feeling of lack of control. I think that is where a lot people's feelings around how the changes were done,

because management do not communicate fairly with us (Vicky, London university) (Referring to Picture 1).

We have no idea what we were supposed to do. You have got all these arrows, you go this way, that way, the other way and then you get told again, "Why did not you do it this way?". All this confusion going in all the other directions, one of the new issues is that they are saying, "Forget about research, you now have to only be a good teacher". I have been here for 14 years; we have been told it is only about research, nobody cares about teaching here (Jane, London university) (Referring to Picture 1).

The lack of communication about the change process and the unclear direction of change were also mentioned by Saudi university academics in relation to confusion, however, they chose a different picture (number 2) to represent this emotion. As they stated:

This picture reminds me of when the change happened. I felt confused and unstable because I do not know what will happen. While you are working, you suddenly find that a new decision was issued and it changes the work you are doing. There is no good communication channel. Sudden things happened. You do not know the right way, or where the change will take you, which has confused all of us (Mai, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 2).

This picture reflects the confusion we went through when the change happened. The steps were not clear. The direction was not clear. They asked us to accept the change without clarifying things for us or what their vision and the logic behind the change was (Nadia, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 2).

Other Saudi university academics tended to choose picture 2 to refer to their confusion, or feeling overwhelmed by the increased workload and how it has affected them. It was explained, for instance, that the increased workload made them forget other responsibilities in relation to students. Such an issue may have long-term consequences in terms of reducing their productivity and well-being. As they reported:

This picture reminds me of how I was confused and lost I felt, when I found myself overwhelmed with the workload, which triggered my confusion and made me unable to concentrate on my work. For example, one day, I found out that I did not prepare an exam for Masters students. I got a message from a student who asked me for

something, and then I remembered that there was an exam. At the last moment, I fixed the situation, but I feel that I prepared the exam improperly (Arwa, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

This picture reflects how I feel confused because of the workload. I am usually an organized person, but when tasks increased, I got lost and confused. Sometimes a week may pass, and I sit with myself to find out that I have done nothing. When I ask myself "why did not I finish it''?, I find myself stressed and confused, I cannot postpone it because it is all required at the same time and I do not know where to start and when I will finish (Magi, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

Other fear-related emotions mentioned were worry and anxiety, and the London university academics most commonly chose picture 3 to explain their worries around the changes taking place within their university, and the conflict that has occurred between management and some staff members regarding these changes. Some academics felt this situation was like a war between management and academics, as everyone wants something different. As Hana expressed:

There are opposite colours and there is sort of pulling something towards themselves like a tug of war. So, I feel like management wants something and the staff want something else. There is sort of a conflict going on and that makes me worried and concerned about what will happen in the future (Hana, London university) (Referring to Picture 3).

When talking about their worry and anxiety, some academics combined such emotions with stress as they considered this an emotion. They chose picture 1 to show how they felt anxious, worried and stressed in terms of lack of resources and information during the change process. As Controller expressed:

Well, in practice what I am experiencing now is far worse and I feel really stressed. When the resources provided by the organization do not match what they expect you to do, and you can only try your best, but when you are not equipped with the right things you would not be able to do it. So, you feel worried and stressed about how you will deliver the work (Controller, London university) (Referring to Picture 1).

Only Saudi university academics chose picture 1 to reflect their feelings of the emotion of fear, which the expressed explicitly. They discussed being afraid about

the future, as well as being uncertain about what will happen to them in terms of promotion. This was very important for them, especially after getting their PhD, as it was felt that being in a high academic position would give them more freedom and control in their activities, compared with their current position. They also wondered about whether they would have the management's support during change and what management aimed to achieve from the change. As they expressed:

> This picture reflects the unclear future for me; I feel fear. I do not know what will be happen to me after I did not get my promotion and become an associate professor after I finished my PhD; and I do not know when I will get it. So, with this change, I feel afraid about my future as an academic (Hana, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 1).

> This picture reflects my fear. The vision of the change is not clear; we do not know what management aims for. Will they help us to overcome this situation or leave us alone suffering? What will happen in the future? What is behind this change? So, we got lost, we do not know how to achieve our goals or make any plans for our career as the change for us is an unclear process (Rana, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 1).

It is clear from the findings that both groups of academics have experienced change events negatively. Previous research has shown that fear is a common emotion that is evoked by unknown situations, which can lead to perceptions of change as a threat, and concerns related to the inability to guarantee that change would lead to a better future for careers or personal lives (Del Val and Fuentes, 2003; Dasborough, Lamb and Suseno, 2015). This is congruent with the findings of the current study, where academics reported various events leading to fear-related emotions, which resulted from change processes and outcomes.

The fear-related emotions described by the London university academics were also consistent with existing research which indicated increased fears around job losses since 2012. The survey indicated, for instance, that 31 per cent of UK employees were anxious about unfair treatment at work, while 52 per cent were anxious about losing their job (Gallie, *et al.,* 2012). It was also shown, however, that fear of job loss was more common in the public sector than private sector, whilst fear of unfair treatment was similar in public and private sector. It is likely that such an increase in fear, particularly in relation to job losses, relates to events that have unfolded in the UK following the financial crisis, the instability of the economy and reduction in government spending. These have affected the public sector especially. It may be,

then, that the London academics more negative perception around their employment has been affected by the general social climate and period of instability within the UK. Gallie *et al.*'s (2012) research also suggested that the increased fear and worry expressed by their participants related specifically to the experience of organisational change, and the employees' lack of involvement in the change decisions (*Ibid.*).

The uncertainty and instability experienced surrounding employment in the public sector was not shared in the Saudi case, highlighting a key difference between the cases studies and an important influence on the emotions of the academics. In SA, working in the university context is considered to be the government (public) sector, and in contrast to the UK, such a sector is considered a to provide secure employment. According to a Gallup survey (2015) conducted with 2500 Saudis between 2013 and 2015, there was a preference for employment in the government sector, as this was believed to be more guaranteed and secure than the private sector. It also demonstrated important gender differences, indicating that if females were given the option of working in the private or public sector, 78 per cent of them would choose the public sector (Gallup, 2015). This was similar to the males, as 80 per cent expressed desire to work in the public sector, with only 20 per cent stating that they would prefer to have a job in the private sector (Anderson, 2016). It appears, then, that the broader cultural and economic contexts in which the academics are situated has had an important impact on the emotions experienced. For the UK, the period of economic instability which has been in place since 2006, has impacted on the stability of public sector employment, in contrast to the stronger, more secure nature of the sector in SA.

In addition to wider contextual dynamics, the findings also suggested that there were specific institutional differences which could impact on the experience of negative emotions (although these are also related to broader social processes). The Saudi university academics, for instance, reported feeling fear in relation to issues surrounding promotions (through lack of dedicated time to carry out research and publication activities), and what management aims to achieve through the change. These findings support earlier research which have shown that the actions of some Saudi universities in terms of publication had the effect of demotivating young academics from publishing research that related to their PhD thesis (Altbach, 2014). Specifically, lack of allocated research time, lack of support in relation to

publications, and the failure to allow/count articles generated from PhD theses, has been regarded as hindering promotions (although the latter does not occur in all cases) (*Ibid.*) (this will be discussed further in Chapter 7, page 174).

Furthermore, most of the change events mentioned by the academics related to management behaviour and dealings with this change. This was particularly evident in the London academics' accounts, who chose picture 3 to reference the relationship between management and staff. Two academics, for instance, mentioned the different colour of the people in the picture as representing management and staff, who they described as two different people wanting different things, which then leads to what they referred to as war and conflict between them and management. This description strongly highlights the poor relations between management and staff, and this seems to have been a key cause of the difficulties faced by academics in relation to responding to change. These findings suggest, then, that whilst fear and worry could be experienced by academics in both universities, the academics were affected by differing contexts, with different university structures, policies, regulations, management practices and economic climates which emotionally affect employees in different ways.

Additionally, it was clear from the current findings that academics represented their fear-related emotions differently. Whilst the pictures helped them to label the emotions they felt and to link events to these pictures, and so were useful for allowing academics to express themselves more clearly to the researcher, there was some evidence of cultural differences in terms of the pictures selected by the academics to express their emotions related to triggers. For example, pictures 1 and 2 represented quite similar ideas relating to emotions (from the researcher's point view), however, most of the London academics chose picture 1 and most of the Saudi academics chose picture 2 to represent the same emotion, which was confusion. Picture 1 was also selected, however, by the Saudi academics to represent their fears. This perhaps highlights how there are different cultural understandings about how different emotions are expressed.

In addition to the academics selecting different pictures, there were cultural differences in their expression of fear-related emotions. Saudi academics tended to clearly express their emotions through words such as 'I'm afraid', whereas UK

academics used less direct language to express associated emotions, stating 'I'm confused', or 'I'm anxious', but none of them stating 'I'm afraid'. Such differences may relate to cultural differences in the way people use language to express their emotions, underlining the social construction of emotions and the influence of culture here (Russell, 1991; Fineman, 1993; Turner, 2009). It could be argued, for instance, that people from individualistic cultures (such as the UK) potentially make more of an effort to control their expression of fear, compared with people from collectivist countries (such as SA) (Matsumoto *et al.*, 1998).

6.3 The Experience of Anger-related Emotions During Change

In terms of anger-related emotions, academics in the London university discussed feelings of anger and frustration, whilst the Saudi university academics had felt anger, frustration and indignation. As mentioned above, although discussed by most academics in both groups, anger-related emotions were the dominant negative emotion for Saudi university academics compared with London university academics. The underlying reason for academics' experience of anger included lack of consultation and involvement (mentioned mostly by Saudi academics), as well as lack of autonomy and freedom (mostly discussed by the London academics).

Academics expressed the right to participate in decision making, particularly in relation to their teaching materials and methods, and they felt that this participation was important for supporting positive outcomes and increasing acceptance of university change. Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) previously found that academics who participated in educational decision-making reported an increase in lecture and organisational performance, indicating that involvement in decision-making could have a positive impact on employees. In addition, autonomy and freedom is considered part of the academic identity (Ramsden, 1998), and the current research showed how the perceived loss of these could have a major impact on London academics' emotions. For some, such freedom related especially to being able to select and continue with their own research activities, and being trusted to control their own working life and responsibilities (Henkel, 2005). Thus, "it is a matter of quality life and perhaps the main reward of an academic's career" (*Ibid.,* p. 169). This perhaps explains the anger experienced where such freedom is lost through the change process.

143

Triggers for frustration also appeared to be similar, in terms of the reported lack of appreciation from management for the effort they made in their work. Saudi academics also described feelings of indignation, due to lack of appreciation by management, lack of opportunities for promotion due to difficulties in completing research and publishing, and management's lack of consultation with them in relation to change (See Chapter 7, page 174 for further detail on triggers). The lack of appreciation that both academics have experienced is not a good sign for the universities. According to Lipman (2017), the number of employees who felt unappreciated has increased from 51 per cent in 2012 to 66 per cent in 2017, with high intention to leave their job. Therefore, feeling appreciated is an important matter for employees; and can make a huge difference between leaving the job or staying (*Ibid.*). As a way of reflecting on the emotions they felt during the introduction and implementation of change, both groups of academics chose different pictures (See Figure 2 below) to explain their feelings further.
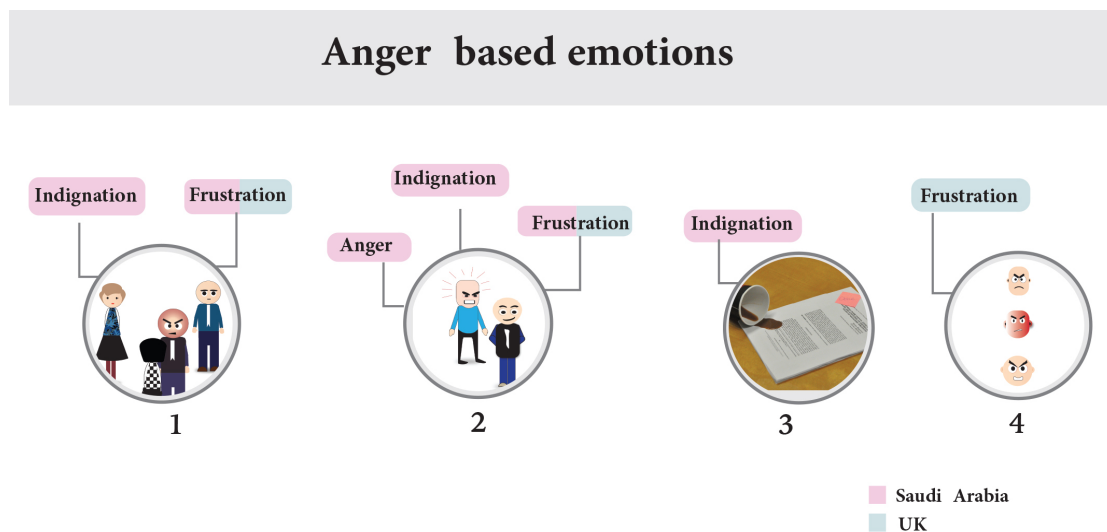
Figure 2: Anger Based Emotions

Based on these pictures, academics showed different feelings and related events that had led to a specific emotion. Both academics in both universities selected pictures 1, 2, 3 and 4. In relation to anger-related emotions, the Saudi academics referred directly to the feeling of 'anger' when linked to the pictures (which London academics did not), and most commonly selected picture 2 to represent this. Such an

emotion was often related to lack of consultation and involvement in decision making. As Luna stated:

> This picture reminds me of anger, an emotion I had felt when the change happened at the University. I was really angry as everything is changing, our voice not being heard, we have not be consulted about change and ignored which makes you feel that you are not committed to this place anymore (Luna, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

> I feel angry because the administration do not hear us and never take our opinion into account about university changes. You feel that any word you say against their opinion in particular is unacceptable, which triggered our anger (Samar, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

In addition to selecting picture 2 to represent anger, Saudi university academics also selected this image to reflect feelings of frustration (in addition to picture 1). This was commonly related to the reduction in their salaries, and to the lack of appreciation from management for the effort they made in their work. The reduction in salary has impacted on all government sectors in SA, not simply the higher education sector, as in 2016, for the first time, the SA government announced pay cuts for public sector employees, in order to curb spending at a time of low oil prices (BBC, 2016). However, some academics in this study appeared to take pay cuts as a personal issue, being related to their university's change plan. As Mai and Arwa explained:

> I feel frustrated by the new decision to abolish allowances. For someone like me who travels abroad for five years to study for a PhD, I hoped that when I came back, the financial return from the post-graduate degree would be good. You want to live in a financially comfortable position. Now the current salary is not enough. That is one of the things that has changed in the university because of the new laws (Mai, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

> This picture reflects my frustration because these changes were not in our favour. The financial advantages were robbed from us. When I returned from my scholarship, I had debts, which compelled me to take a loan. I became in debt, which I should pay. This change in salaries in the university added significant burdens to us (Arwa, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

Two academics in the London university referred to the same issue, in terms of lack of appreciation from management, which similarly triggered the emotion of frustration. One academic also chose picture 1, and the other chose picture 4 to reflect this:

There are some of the senior management, they do not even appreciate what you are trying to do, they do not listen to you, they do not respect you. So, these are some of the things, which I'm really frustrated from (Max, London university) (Referring to Picture 1).

Sometimes I am frustrated because I am not getting the personal rewards even though we do put in the efforts many times, and you come to a point where you can say that there is no need talking, everybody is getting on with it (Dave, London university) (Referring to Picture 4).

London university academics selected pictures 2 and 4 to reflect their frustration in terms of being overwhelmed by the workload, and the impact it has on their personal lives, as well as seeing the change as a waste of time and money and the lack of appreciation from management. As they stated:

So, I feel frustrated, I cannot balance my proper life and work, now with increasing the workload I'm not able to deal to cope with all these changes. I'm taking up my free time to spend with family and, in that sense I am taking up time that I should devote to my family rather than at work during weekends (Jill, London university) (Referring to Picture 4).

In this image, I see myself the one who annoyed others. In my opinion, many of the changes that management were put through are a waste of time and damage quality. So, these people are doing what they are supposed to by following protocols and think we get better quality and I guess we get worse and worse mess and that is what make me feel frustrated (Paul, London university) (Referring to Picture 2).

I thought in a way it was probably a waste of time, and a waste of resources. Which frustrated us. We have moved out from our office to this other kind of setting and many resources have been used to renovate our floor which they could have used the resources in a different way (Jane, London university) (Referring to Picture 4).

Finally, in relation to anger-related emotions, indignation was mentioned by academics from the Saudi university only, and was represented through the choice of pictures 1, 2 and 3. One academic selected picture 2 to represent the indignation they felt as a result of the reduction in their salary (as mentioned above, another academic had selected the same picture in relation to the same issue, but to represent a different emotion; that of frustration). Another Saudi academic selected picture 1 to represent their indignation as a result of management's lack of consultation with them and their lack of involvement in decision making. As they explained:

> This picture reflects feelings of very indignant that salaries are down by approximately "half". The management did not put themselves in the place of academics working in the same place, as you see in the picture they are smiling. They did not think about this decision and did not ask faculty members about their conditions. These things affect the academics' confidence with their career security (Rana, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 2).

> It makes me indignant. The management did not consult and share change with us. They surprise us with change implementation, which makes me not feel affiliation to this change (Maria, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 1).

Other Saudi academics chose picture 3 to explain their reasons for feeling the emotion of indignation, particularly relating this to increased workload (due to administrative work), as well as lack of appreciation, and lack of opportunities for promotion due to difficulties in completing research and publishing. As they stated:

> I feel like I waste my time and life in this university like this coffee that spilt. I work hard for this university for more than 20 years, and at the end, I cannot say my opinion, and I have been totally ignored. No matter how smart and hardworking you are, in this university no one cares about academics, the important things is work which makes me feel indignation and thinking of retired (Monera, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 3).

> This picture reflects a feeling of indignation because of my situation. I really want to write scientific papers and start to publish and get a promotion. Unfortunately, I cannot do that because I cannot manage my time because of the workload. There is a lot to do with administrative work and teaching students, which gives zero time to write a paper and publish (Dana, Saudi university) (Referring to Picture 3).

Anger has been found to be a common negative emotion that employees experience during organisational change (O'Neill and Lenn, 1995; Mossholder *et al.*, 2000; Huy, 2002), which has been supported by this study. Whilst anger has been shown to have negative effects on status and relationships, sometimes resulting in vocal and physical abuse (Gibson and Callister, 2010; Callister *et al.*, 2014), in the current study, even though Saudi academics felt the emotion of anger, this appeared to be expressed silently, without involving expression of any kind of violence towards others or hostile behaviour. The current study also showed that the emotion of indignation that was expressed by only the Saudi academics is considered a strong emotion in Saudi culture during dissatisfaction with something or someone. In Arab/Muslim countries, strong emotions such as this are often associated with perceptions of gross injustice

and oppression (Carroll, 2016), and this was evident amongst the Saudi academics in the current study when they perceived injustice in their treatment by management. In organisational settings, previous research has shown that workers can also feel indignation when they cannot make sense of the behaviours of others (Sims, 2005), which again appeared to be evident in the responses of the academics in the current research in relation to management behaviour.

Additionally, in terms of anger-related emotions, there were some notable differences between the two groups. It was clear from the findings that feelings of frustration were presented in the majority of responses from the London academics, while feelings of indignation were more common amongst Saudi academics. In terms of picture selection, London academics chose two pictures to represent their anger and frustration, while Saudi academics selected three photos to represent their anger, frustration and indignation emotions. It was interesting, too, that the selection of one picture (2) was interpreted differently by academics from the different cultures. One London academic, for instance, selected the picture to represent his frustration in terms of management behaviour, and saw him as the one who was smiling in the picture, which then annoyed the management. The Saudi academic, on the other hand, regarded management as the one who was smiling and did not care about them, which triggered their indignation and frustration.

In relation to picture selection, it was also shown that although some academics in both universities mentioned the same event relating to frustration, different pictures were selected to represent this emotion. Frustration and indignation have been represented similarly by some Saudi academics, and they selected the same picture (2) in relation to similar events. The indignation emotion, however, was also represented by other Saudi academics through the choice of a different picture (3), and this was strongly linked to the picture as they saw the spilt coffee in the picture as a reminder of the years that have been lost in serving the university without appreciation from the management. This suggests that even within the same culture, there are clear differences in interpretations and understandings of the not just the pictures, but of change, and people's different constructions of meaning related to emotions and events. This demonstrates the importance of considering other factors that influence people's emotions and responses, in addition to culture. Therefore, it is important to note not just differences between cultures, but also differences within cultures.

6.4 Experiences of Sadness-related Emotions During Change

In terms of sadness-related emotions, academics in the London university discussed feelings of disappointment and unhappiness, as well as referring directly to sadness, whilst Saudi university academics described feeling sadness and disappointment. As mentioned above, sadness-related emotions were the least-mentioned emotion for both groups, although it was still an important emotion discussed by the academics. The underlying reason for London academics' experience of disappointment was in terms of the reported lack of support by management, restrictions being placed on innovation and creativity in their work and loss of enjoyment of their work. London university academics, for instance, mentioned unhappiness in relation to lack of resources and information and high staff turnover, whereas Saudi academics discussed sadness in relation to work-life-balance issues, inability to do research and publish due to increased workload and subsequent lack of promotional opportunities.

It has been suggested that during times of change, all employees will be affected and will experience some emotional turbulence, as "fundamental change in personnel, strategy, identity or other major organizational issues often triggers intense emotions" (Bartunek, 1984 cited in Eriksson, 2004, p. 111). However, employee responses will vary; some will accept it, others will passively resist it or actively undermine it (Eriksson, 2004). They also differ in how they express it, for example, an individual might express feelings of sadness, disappointment, anxiety and frustration by crying (Wolf, *et al.,* 2016) (See Chapter 7, page 174 for further detail on triggers). As a way of reflecting on the emotions they felt during the introduction and implementation of change, both groups of academics chose different pictures (See Figure 3 below) to explain their feelings further.

Figure 3: Sadness Based Emotions

Based on these pictures, academics showed different feelings and related events that had led to a specific emotion. Academics from both groups selected pictures 1, 2, 3 and 4 to represent sadness-related emotions. Only academics in the London university selected pictures 2, 3 and 4 to reflect their feelings of disappointment in terms of lack of support from management, and restrictions being placed on innovation and creativity in their work, which meant a loss of enjoyment in their position. As they expressed:

> This is more about spilt coffee. So, sometimes you may have some disappointment in a way when things are done, like the change that happened in the university, management do not offer support to their staff and do not care about how staff feel and how they will overcome the change (Erik, London university) (Referring to Picture 2).

> They made massive changes that have affected students, that have affected staff but the main issue is that we cannot innovate; we cannot be creative with our programs of study, with our research. So, I think that is probably the biggest impact, you get demotivated and not that interested (Vicky, London university) (Referring to Picture 3).

> It was more about disappointment and feeling like having a lack of control which makes me not enjoy doing the work, I'm demotivated to come and work because somebody is imposing something on you that you cannot do anything about, you have no opinion about (Jane, London university) (Referring to Picture 4).

Other academics selected picture 2 to reflect their unhappiness in terms of lack of resources and information related to change. One academic stated, for instance:

> When you ask about the change, about the support that we have had and the resources that we are provided with, that is when academics feel unhappy. I'm not happy with the system. So, I'm feeling negativity and unhappiness (Betty, London university) (Referring to Picture 2).

Others combined the feeling of disappointment and unhappiness in relation to losing their colleagues, or the 'best people' as they referred to them, and selected picture 4 to represent these emotions. As they stated, they were:

> Unhappy and disappointed, I felt like people lost their jobs. People start leaving and that atmosphere made me thought who would be jumping from the boat first. Because the boat is sinking and people start jumping and we are not going to the right direction, we are going downhill (Bolt, London university) (Referring to Picture 4).

Other academics felt sadness in relation to the same events mentioned here, but did not directly discuss these when selecting the pictures. Only academics in the Saudi university chose picture 1 to reflect their feelings of sadness, and this was related to issues of work-life balance. Others mentioned sadness resulting from their inability to do research and publish due to the workload they face, and subsequent lack of promotional opportunities. Academics in Saudi universities have been deeply affected by the inability to perform their research activities, which can potentially lead to a great loss and waste of talented academics who hold a doctorate degree. Therefore, the actions of the university management should not take academics away from research, but rather should support them to become more competitive researchers in the global workplace. As they discussed:

> This picture shows how we get affected by change as now the management ask us to do many things that adversely affect even my personal life, my responsibilities towards my family. I have to take work home, which makes me feel I'm taking the time off my family, which makes me very sad (Hana, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 1).

> This picture shows how the change has caused me personal sadness. Like this withered black leaves. My confidence in myself has decreased because of my inability to develop myself academically and my inability to publish research (Nadia, Saudi university) (Referring to picture 1).

Previous research has shown that sadness is common during periods of organisational change (Zell, 2003; Seo *et al.*, 2012; Dasborough, Lamb and Suseno, 2015). Such research explains that when organisational change influences professional bureaucracies, such as universities and law firms, organizational change may be observed as a process similar to death, dying and rebirth. Feelings of loss and sorrow are a natural response to losing traditional approaches to doing things (Zell, 2003; Dasborough, Lamb and Suseno, 2015). Whilst the current research found similarities here with the literature; with sadness-related emotions being expressed by both London and Saudi academics, there did not seem to be a straightforward process of loss similar to that often associated with death and dying, perhaps because the academics were going through change rather than loss as such.

Additionally, Saudi academics mentioned their sadness emotions more explicitly than London academics. The differences were clearly shown through statements such as 'I'm sad'; 'it makes me sad', whereas most London academics spoke more indirectly about sadness, referring to feelings of disappointment and unhappiness. This again perhaps underlines important cultural differences in expression of emotions, with SA culture tending to be very emotionally expressive, compared with the more emotionally-reserved UK culture (Meyer, 2014). This indicates socio-cultural variations in how people express and experience sadness and other emotions across those two cultures, and the role of language in the expression of emotion (Russell, 1991; Fineman, 1993; Wierzbicka, 1999).

Other cultural differences have been shown in the picture selection by both academics and the emotions discussed. London academics selected different photos to refer to disappointment and unhappiness, while most Saudi academics chose one picture to represent their feelings of sadness. Some of them referred to the withered blackened leaves represented in picture 1, to show how much they felt affected by the mentioned events. Picture 2, chosen by some London academics, was seen to represent their disappointment in relation to lack of support and care from management, like the spilt coffee in the picture, which was chosen by Saudi academics to present their indignation in relation to different events. One London academic selected picture 3 to represent the disappointment she felt in relation to management restricting her creativity. Others selected 4 to show their disappointment and unhappiness in relation to management behaviour in different areas. This picture had been previously

selected by other Saudi and London academics to represent their feelings of frustration and indignation, as mentioned above. Thus, the selection of different pictures to represent a range of different emotions may indicate cultural differences, but also, importantly, differences related to other factors within cultures.

The duration of negative emotions

Emotional episodes can differ in the length of the experience, both *within* the same emotion - for example, a person can feel angry for seconds but may at times feel angry all day (Verduyn *et al.,* 2009*)* - and *between* emotions. The experience of surprise, for instance, could be considered shorter in duration than the experience of sadness. The duration of emotions can also differ between different people. It may be, for example, that one person remains feeling sad for a long time after a personal loss, while another can overcome this feeling quickly (*Ibid.*). In the current research, academics in both universities provided some indication of how long their negative emotions had lasted. Some referred negative emotions lasting only a matter of days, whilst others suggested longer periods, with negative emotions lasting from the point of change to the time of the interviews. For example, Nat experienced feelings of anger that had lasted for almost five years, as she explained that the management's behaviour had not been improved.

It appeared that in cases where there was a reportedly long duration in experiencing negative emotions, this could relate to the perceived continuation of negative outcomes as a consequence of change. Disappointment in such outcomes was often the result. Lengthy experience of negative emotions could also relate to management treatment, which did not show signs of improvement. Thus, even when academics reported trying to recover from their negative emotions, the unfair, or mis-treatment from management seemed to renew these emotions. These findings seem to support previous studies which found that negative emotions last longer if the trigger of the event is observed as being opposed to a preferred state (Verduyn *et al.,* 2013). It was clear from many of the academics' accounts that the outcomes of change were not considered favourable.

> Yeah, I still have the same negative emotions, and I think my frustration become stronger because we have now seen the results or the beginnings of the results of the decisions that were made five years

ago and there is nothing positive about any of the outcomes (Nat, London university).

They were long lasting and are still present. I still feel anger. It is because things have not changed in the department. The management behaviour is still the same, maybe worse. I'm not enjoying my work to be honest; there is no excitement at work at all. Now I just want to finish my work, without putting much effort to finish (Clark, London university).

I think I still feel the sadness, when something changed in relation to our teaching materials and methods without consulting us. I remembered the last meeting we have discussed things in relation to the academic accreditation and the new methods that they want us to teach. We were disagreeing with some of the points that related to us as academics. However, no one listen to us and they say we are anti change people. I felt frustrated for a couple of days, and then I tried to recover, as I could not change things (Samah, Saudi university).

Oh, what I can say really, I think I used to live with my negative emotions. I did not think that I have one day at work without feeling frustrated or angry. Things happened not in our favour all the time. You work in a place that no one asks your opinion and feedback, so my negative emotions are always strong, never being reduced as it renewed almost every day, which affects my productivity and wellbeing. I feel I'm not productive as before, there is no motivation to work, to be creative, to give more (Mai, Saudi university).

From the academics' accounts, then, there was some variation in length of emotions felt, although there was also some indication that - for many - negative emotions remained strong and persistent. Previous research also suggests that the duration of emotional experience varies, although perhaps to a lesser extent, with some people feeling it for seconds; and others feeling it for hours or longer (Frijda *et al.,* 1991; Verduyn *et al.,* 2013). Research which has explained longer periods of negative emotions, suggests that this is usually triggered by events that are significant and meaningful for the individuals, and have a strong effect on their main interests (Sonnemans and Frijda 1995; Verduyn and Lavrijsen, 2015). This could explain why academics' emotions were different in duration, but often lengthy. It could be also suggested that it depends on the emotion itself, as previous research indicates that sadness is the longest-felt emotion, when compared with shame, fear and boredom (Verduyn and Lavrijsen, 2015).

The duration of negative emotional experience is an important issue and should not be overlooked, as prolonged periods of negative emotions such as anger or frustration

may negatively impact on academics' health and well-being. Previous research, for example, has shown that negative emotions could lead to cardiovascular disease development (Suls and Bunde, 2005) and Alzheimer's disease (Kiecolt-Glaser *et al.,* 2002). In addition, any unpleasant events at work could strongly trigger their emotions and influence their behaviour and productivity, in addition to affecting acceptance of the organisational change. As Clark and Mai mentioned in the quotations above, the duration of the emotions had affected their enjoyment of their work, subsequently affecting their enthusiasm and productivity. Thus, it is not simply the experience of negative emotions which needs to be recognised and addressed within educational institutions, but where such emotions are experienced, it is important to ensure that these do not affect the academics for prolonged periods of time. Action needs to be taken where negative responses to change are evident, and this needs to be enacted swiftly to prevent longer term consequences for the individuals, the institutions and the society.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has explored academics' negative emotional experiences in relation to changes within higher education. Vivid and emotive stories described the meanings academics attached to the negative emotional experiences of fear, confusion, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, indignation, sadness, unhappiness and disappointment. These emotions appeared to be significant in the accounts of academics in the context of both the London and Saudi universities and illuminated the complexity of the academic profession, particularly during times of change. The findings facilitated the understanding and conceptualization of how negative emotions are felt and expressed by London and Saudi academics, and how they can be dependent on the learned social, cultural and working contexts which they experience. It demonstrates how academics have different understandings and interpretations of the events of change and have different emotional responses to these events, which was both evidenced in, and influenced, by their choice of pictures. It was also shown that the duration of negative emotions experienced by academics could be an important consideration for organisations, particularly in relation to the potential impact of this on wellbeing and productivity.

By using pictures, academics appeared more willing to discuss and share a variety of emotions and events that helped the researcher to better understand these experiences

from the points of view of the academics. It helped as well in demonstrating what seemed to emerge as the most common and important emotions and events for them. The choice of pictures reflects the meanings and experiences of their personal and working lives. It also shows how culture can influence their choice and response to the pictures, and was useful for highlighting cultural differences. Furthermore, the use of pictures indicated the potential influence of other factors, as academics from the same culture constructed their meaning of the events differently, and used different pictures to represent various emotional responses to the same events. The next chapter will present the findings and discussion of the events that triggered such emotion during university change.

Table 7: Summary of various negative emotions experienced by London university academics during change and its subjective experience

Alias	Gender	Dominant negative emotions experienced	Subjective experience	Quotation
Betty	Female	Fear, confusion, anger, frustration	Lack of information, losing of direction, lack of management support, inability to cope with the situation, increase workload, loss of work/life balance, feeling guilty, not involved in change process, change has been imposed on the staff, stressed	"Frustrated because I was not involved in the process, and I think it is like I have no power basically to do anything or to manage anything yes, in that sense of restructure"
Bolt	Male	Sadness, boredom	Not being listen to by management, being neglected and ignored by management, morale down, increase workload, not involved in change process, change has been imposed on the staff, lack of information, lack of management support, unfairness, loss of work enjoyment, demotivated, losing good people, mistreatment, does not appreciate the hard work of staff, not being rewards for the hard work	"Sad and neglected. As a member of staff because many people try to give feedback about this is not working but there is no one who is listening"
Clark	Male	Fear, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, sadness, and impotence, disappointment	Lack of resources and material, mistreatment by management, breach of trust between management and staff, loss of power and autonomy, unfairness, management action and centralization of power, neglected, being lied to by management, lack of management support, losing good people, being neglected and ignored by management, having no say regarding decisions/suggestions, not being listen to, told off and rejected, opinion and	"In all my working life, being an academic is quite stressful because there are a lot of things going on. You never have enough resource; you are always dealing with being un-resourced but I have never felt stress before until that point"

			feedback ignored, mistreatment, lack of information, losing of self-confidence.	
Constoller	Female	Fear, confusion, anger, sadness, disappointment and boredom	Being ignored, workforce being disrespected loses of work enjoyment, losing of direction. losing ability to focus, uncertainty about the future at work, , demotivated, inability to be creative, not involved in change process, management misused the resources, loss of control and freedom, increase workload, department restructuring, change of job roles, being neglected and ignored by management, having no say regarding decisions/suggestions, not being listen to, told off and rejected, opinion and feedback ignored, lack of information.	"We just feel it is a big mess and we are really angry about why so much money, time and effort has gone into instigating this change and now we are almost out the other side of it, we cannot see any different"
Dave	Male	Fear, confusion, anger and frustration	Uncertainty about the future at work, loss of direction, not being rewards for the hard work, increase workload, not involved in change process, losing good people, lack of information, does not appreciate the hard work of staff.	"Unsure of what my roles do, sometimes unclear. You ask yourself are you sure you are doing the right thing? I have been through so many now, because I am not sure there is nothing there to be happy. So, you know you feel anger, pain, sometimes because sometimes I'm not sure of who to talk to, and you are not sure if they would listen"
Erik	Male	Fear, confusion, anger, frustration, sadness and disappointment	Loss of direction, loss of department identity, department restructuring, change of direction, change from school to college, management override things, loss of hard work, management misused the resources, not seeing the logic of change, lack of information.	"Sometimes you want to get things done quickly, you may feel a bit more frustrated because it takes more steps and each step requires a lot of paperwork. It can be quite frustrating"
Hana	Female	Fear and Confusion, worry	Loss of resources, hiding fear, stressed, comforting self, fears of futures, fears of losing job, lack of information, lack of management support, losing good people, loss	"Emotionally, of course it stresses me. I do not know where it is going. I do not know how it is going to end up. What if it stays the same the way it is? Then it might not work out for me.

			of control and freedom, increase workload, having no say regarding decisions/suggestions, losing of self-confidence.	Then I might be forced to look for other venues, other opportunities in other universities"
Hopeful	Male	Anxiety, worry frustration	Uncertainty about the future at work, sometimes feels a bit down, lack of information, losing good people.	"Any change in the beginning is not clear what is going on so you do not know it is direction. And you are sort of dying for information to have a clearer picture and to make your mind up. Is it okay? The other people, not involved in some decision and maybe you feel that you are sort of emotionally excluded so it is anxious"
Ivan	Male	Sadness, disappointed	Losing good people, unfairness.	"Well one of the big change that cause a bit saddened and disappointed really. Because we are losing some really good people"
Jane	Female	Confusion, boredom	Losing of direction, lack of information, lose the ability to focus, inability to perform well, demotivated, increase workload, stressed, not interested to stay, being neglected and ignored by management., loss of job enjoyment, need to be excited at work, inability to innovate, unfairness, not seeing the logic of change, mistreatment, having no say regarding decisions/suggestions, not being listen to, told off and rejected, opinion and feedback ignored, losing of self-confidence, does not appreciate the hard work of staff.	"Actually, I feel bored. It is so boring coming here and getting another email, "Please use this link, please." I think, "Another one?" So, you actually get very bored of your job. And that' is very demotivating. So, You cannot do a job like this well if you are bored".
Jill	Female	Confusion, worry, anxiety frustration	Losing of direction, lack of information, lack of management support, lack of resources and material, stressed, Uncertainty about the future at work, staff being ignored and not listened to by management, not involved in change process, increase workload, not seeing the logic of change, having no say regarding	"The change just reflects the pressure, the confusion. I think every time when we have a change, I think people are quite clear in terms of what change. But the process is confusing, is kind of not supporting or not really assuring. I think that is the thing, and it is definitely going to affect my work, but I do not think it is going to

			decisions/suggestions, told off and rejected, opinion and feedback ignored, losing of self-confidence, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	be in a positive way"
Jonathan	Male	Confusion, anxiety	Losing sense of clear direction, lack of information comforting self, try to keep calm, little bit worry and uncertain about the future, afraid of not meeting deadlines, increased workload, losing of self-confidence.	"Worry is mostly related to maybe not being able to do something. Because maybe there is something that you have not done before so you have to check. So, anything that says deadline, that requires you to adapt by a certain time or to perform by a certain time, generates anxiety"
Kevin	Male	Confusion, worry, anxiety anger, frustration	Losing the ability to focus, loss of direction, lack of information, un-clarity of change process, cannot understand the meaning and reason of change, not happy about the change, stressed, lack of relaxing atmosphere, loss of freedom, unfairness treatment by management, management does not appreciate the hard work of staff and do not respect them, not being involved in change process, losing good people. Not seeing the logic of change.	"There are some of the senior management, they do not even appreciate what you are trying to do, they do not listen to you, they do not respect you. So, these are some of the things which I'm really frustrated from"
Mariana	Female	Confusion, anger, frustration, impotence, disappointment	Losing sense of clear direction, lack of information, management misused the resources, moving offices, stressed, upset, not being involved in change process and being ignored by management, being neglected and ignored by management, having no say regarding decisions/suggestions, not being listen to, told off and rejected, opinion and feedback ignored, losing of self-confidence.	"It is just frustration. For instance, you try to be resilient but then they just block your ability to do things because you have too many things. I think sometimes I cannot really do things as professional as I wanted to do because there is a process of overloading. I think the main emotion was impotence of participating to the change. It was mainly impotence"

Max	Male	Confusion, unhappy, frustration, uncertainty, disappointment	Lose the sense of direction, losing the ability to focus, lack of information, not being involved in change process , see conflict between management and staff, loss of control and freedom, increase workload, losing good people, change of job roles, not being rewards for the hard work, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	"I feel confusion because its change of directions. So, whenever we have something new, change you know, changing from schools to schools to colleges, before that from faculties to schools and so on; so there is always you know, the beginning. You cannot see what is the reason for it, is it research oriented? Is it teaching oriented? Do we try to catch more students? We try to go up? So, there is a lot of you know"
Mark	Male	Anger	Moving offices.	"I was comfortable in my previous office, but now because of this change, we were situated in the third floor and then with the arrival of the manager to the third floor, we were again moved to the second floor and so this structuring has not just affected me, but pretty much every staff member we have over here"
Nat	Female	Confusion, anger, disappointment,	Losing sense of clear direction, lack of information, lack of management support, losing the ability to focus, loss of control and freedom, increased workload, dissatisfaction, injustice, management stole staff happiness, things have been imposed on the staff, staff have no opinion and ignored, not being involved in change process, inability to be creative, department restructuring, mistreatment, not being rewards for the hard work, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	"It was dissatisfaction I would say, It was more about disappointment and feeling like having lack of control because somebody is imposing something on you that you cannot do anything about, you have no opinion about"
Paul	Male	Frustration	Management misused resources, not seeing the logic of the change.	"I feel frustrated with new system we will be provided with new information system. it is very complicated. The system that take a long time than the thing itself that is insane and it makes me frustrated because the long process"

Vicky	Female	Fear and confusion,	Losing sense of clear direction, lack of information, losing the ability to focus, loss of control and freedom, stressed, increase workload, department restructuring, mistreatment losing of department identity, being neglected and ignored by management, having no say regarding decisions/ suggestions, not being listen to, told off and rejected, opinion and feedback ignored, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	"Some procedure has been changed and you are lost, you have to keep asking people, nobody involve you on it"
Jeremy	Male	Happy	Helping people overcome the difficulties of change, change is good.	"I do not affected by change negatively as I went through many changes so I was prepared and I helped people overcome it, so, I'm happy and see the change is good things"

Table 8: Summary of the Negative Emotions Experienced by Saudi University Academics During Change and its Subjective Experience

Alias	Dominant negative emotions experienced	Subjective experience	Quotation
Arwa	Anger, Confusion, Frustration, Sadness	Overwhelmed by increased the workload, affect personal life, inability to concentrate in the work. The cutting salaries by management, the administrative work become compulsory the lack of time to do research and publish, academics opinion being ignored by management, working weekend, unfair treatment, reduce of self-confidence, management disrespect staff.	"You feel sadness because sometimes because management considered our views, but in a fake way as the decision already taken. Even I tried once to suggest to them something that will improve our situation of workload, they say that we are spoiled and there is no increased of workload and we did not want to work"
Dana	Confusion, indignation, fear	Inability to concentrate in the work, overwhelmed by the workload, affect personal life, her ideas and opinion being ignored, the lack of time to do research and publish, working weekend, unfair treatment, inability to concentrate in the work, reduce of self-confidence. The administrative work become compulsory.	"This picture is remind me of myself. I feel confused as I have many things to at the same time. The work routine changes now I have to do administrative work besides teaching students, workshop for student, prepare and mark exams. So, I need to do all of these but I cannot concentrate in single task"
Feda	Confusion, indignation, fear	Unclear future of change, do not know what management want from change (merger).	"We did not know what the management want from this merger? The want something and we want something else. We did not know what will happen in the future"
Hana	Indignation, Sadness, Confusion, Fear	Unclear direction of change, believed there is a personal interest behind the change, management do not give chance to be creative and innovative, not get promotion, the lack of time to do research and publish, unfair treatment, reduce of self-confidence,	"I feel confused, fear I do not know what will be happened to me after I did not get my promotion and become an associate professor after I finish my PhD and I do not know when I will get it"

		The administrative work become compulsory.	
Hajer	Indignation	The administrative work become compulsory, Academics being evaluated by administrative work not teaching skills, the lack of time of doing research and publish, working weekend, affect personal life, inability to concentrate in the work, reduce of self-confidence, management disrespect staff.	"I feel indignation. With the change, there became more tasks required from academics".
Hala	Frustration, anxious, indignation	Her idea being ignored by management, increased the administrative work, unfair treatment, inability to concentrate in the work.	"I was in a meeting with the administration, and I presented an idea, which was rejected. It was frustrating for me because they did not see what the idea is. They did not see its advantages, did not get to know it and did not even suggest reformulating it"
Luna	Confusion, Anger, indignation	University change happened without any justification, The vision of the change is unclear, increased of the workload, affect personal life, academics voice not being heard and ignored, the lack of time to do research and publish, working weekend, unfair treatment.	"The vision of the change is not clear because that we felt confused and lost because we do not know what will happen in the future and we do not know sometimes know how to act"
Lulu	Indignation, Frustration, anxious, sadness	Changed the head of the department, not being a part of this decision, increased the workload, affect personal life, no time to relax, management do not cooperate with academics to reduce the work, The administrative work become compulsory management disrespect staff.	"It was a period of suffering, when they changed the head of the department and it was troublesome to deal with her as she is not from our department. She does not know anything about our work and give us orders. She does not have any background about our subjects and what we teach in the lab. She discusses and blames us for anything. This made us unhappy and angry"

Monera	Frustration, indignation, Sadness	Management ignore and do not care about academics, centralization of decision-making, do not have the right to express her opinion, management do not cooperate with academics to reduce the work, unfair treatment, the administrative work become compulsory.	"I feel like I waste my time and life in this university like this coffee that spilt. I work hard for this university for more than 20 years, and at the end, I cannot say my opinion, and I have been totally ignored. No matter how smart and hardworking you are, in this university no one care about academics the important things is work which makes me feel indignation and thinking of retired"
Magi	Confusion, Anger, Sadness, Frustration, Unhappy	Get overwhelmed by the workload, no appreciation for the hard worker, change at the university affect the personal life, no free time during weekend, not being involved in decision making, the lack of time to do research and publish, the administrative work become compulsory management do not cooperate with academics to reduce the work, inability to concentrate in the work, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	"I feel unhappy and very sad of myself because as a result of the excessive workload, I have to take work to the home. This aggravates the situation with the indignation of my husband, which make me very sad"
Maria	Anger, Confusion, Frustration, indignation	The lack of free time to write and publish papers, no clear guidance for academics in specific tasks, not being involved in decision making, management do not cooperate with academics to reduce the work, working weekend, affect personal life, unfair treatment.	"I really want to write scientific papers and start to publish and get a promotion. Unfortunately, I cannot do that because I cannot manage my time because the workload there is a lot to do with administrative work and teaching students which give zero time to write a paper and publish"
Mai	Confusion, Frustration, indignation	Do not know what will happened in the future, The direction of the change not clear, uncomfortable by the lack of privacy in her office, management cut allowances, increased the workload, the lack of time to do research and publish, management ignore academics	"I feel confused and unstable because I do not know what will happen. While you are working, you suddenly find a new decision was issued and it changes the work you are doing. Decisions were not clear from the beginning. Sudden things happen, so you get confused. You do not know

		voice, not being involved in decision making, unfair treatment , inability to concentrate in the work, the administrative work become compulsory, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	the right way or where the change will take you, which is confused all of us"
Nora	Confusion, indignation,	The vision of the change and the plan are not clear.	"I got confused and lost about how to achieve my goal as the university policies is different from what we used to have in our college. To become better education institution was our goal from our union and integration into the university. There are many things in our imagination that we want to achieve. But how can we achieve, the vision and the plan are not clear? We do not know. Which make us very confused"
Noor	Confusion, Frustration, indignation	Management do not respect academics, do not know what management want, management do not appreciate the hard work and the effort academics do, increased the workload, inability to concentrate on the work, not being involve in change decisions.	"I cannot concentrate in one task as the management ask you to finish multiple tasks on the same time. Before change the situation was different everything was clear, now you got lost and confused and you do not know what management really want"
Nadia	Confusion, Anger, Frustration, indignation, Sadness	Change process unclear, inability to develop career and publish research, increased the workload, cutting allowance, management do not cooperate with academics to reduce the work, unfair treatment, management do not appreciate the hard work and the effort academics.	"I feel very frustrated which makes me do not feel affiliation to this change, which could result in rejecting the change"
Rana	Frustration, Confusion, indignation, Sadness, Fear	Cancelling the financial support for research for academics and students, The vision of the change is not clear, do not know what management aim for, academics do not know how to achieve their goals, salaries cut, management do not appreciate hard work the	"I feel fear and have negative energy. The vision of the change is not clear; we do not know what management aim for? Are they will help us to overcome this situation or leave us alone suffering. What will happen in the future? What is behind this change? So, we got lost we do not

		lack of time to do research and publish, management disrespect staff, management not appreciate the hard work staff.	know how to achieve our goals or make any plan of our career as the change for us is unclear process"
Shima	Indignation	Unacceptable treatment by line manager, working weekend.	"This picture remind me of my line manager, when management start implementing the change she starts to talks to me in anger way and gives me her back without giving me a chance to defend myself or even say my opinion about the change plan that happened in our department"
Shorroq	Hope	Better future of the university.	"The change brought new development and improvement to the university, in my opinion that staff afraid from change, the idea of change is always threaten people and prevent them from seeing the good future that change well being"
Samar	Anger, Confusion, Frustration, Sadness	Management kill academics creativity and innovation, increased the workload, do not know what management want, change teaching method and programme, working weekend, management disrespect staff, management do not appreciate the hard work and the effort academics.	"This picture reflect my frustration because our departments at the university kill creativity and innovation"
Wafa	Frustration, anxious, sadness	Increased the workload, no free time at the weekend, feel not belong to the university.	"This picture reflect how I felt sad because I feel not belonging to this place. I feel that my life is lost in this place. I do not know whether I have the ability to give more or not because I lost hope and ask myself. Is it worth to suffer and stay or to look for an alternative?"

Chapter 7: Triggers: Events leading to negative emotions during university change

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the second research question related to potential trigger events for negative emotions during change in London and Saudi universities. The findings indicated that negative emotional experiences often tend to be driven by a series of events coherently organised around a single underlying theme. In many of the academics' stories, several university changes were mentioned - and often described as confusing, frustrating and disappointing - with particular reference being made to the behaviour of management within the institution. Every employee determines whether change brings threat or benefit through her/his perceptual filters (Lau and Woodman, 1995) and has their unique schema of what change will offer them and how this will influence their responses (Vakola and Nikolaou, 2005).

The social constructionist approach helped to examine different understandings of emotions related to triggers, as it was important to be aware that people who are affected by change can understand change in various ways and express different emotions for the same changes (Helms-Mills, 2003; Mills, Thurlow and Mills, 2010). In the findings from the current study, it was notable that each academic in both universities had experienced university change differently; however, the events that triggered these emotions were very similar within the two groups of academics. Recurring themes, for instance, seemed to include lack of communication about processes and outcomes of the change, lack of consultation or involvement in decision making, changes to work routines, lack of appreciation and rewards, the REF, the TEF, Brexit and, finally, university quality standards and academic accreditation. These could be considered 'primary' triggers. In addition to these, what emerged from the findings, was that there could also be 'secondary' triggers which included impact on work-life balance or promotional opportunities and finally high staff turnover (See Tables 7 and 8, pages 162 and 168 for a summary of events leading to emotional experiences of London and Saudi universities academics).

7.2 Primary Triggers

As highlighted above, from the academics' accounts, it was possible to determine what could be considered as primary triggers, of which there seemed to be four key issues, including: (1) lack of communication about processes and outcomes of change; (2) lack of consultation/involvement in decision making; (3) change of work routine and processes; and (4) lack of appreciation and reward. In addition, three key issues affecting the UK academics included: (5) the Research Excellence framework; (6) the Teaching Excellence framework; and (7) Brexit.

7.2.1 Lack of Communication about Processes and Outcomes of Change

It has been suggested that organisations should implement strategies which encourage more successful change implementation through providing employees with sufficient information and education on the change process (Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder, 1993). Communicating the changes with employees is considered to facilitate the process and motivate employees to accept and embrace the change (Petrou, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2018), and this is essential as it impacts on actual behaviour and willingness to cooperate (Porras and Robertson, 1992). It has been shown that managers anticipate that employees can easily adapt to change, and help others to welcome the change (Grant and Parker, 2009). Therefore, the important role that employees play in the success of the change process is equal to the role that managers play in communicating the change (Petrou, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2018). Both agents' roles are therefore critical in the successful implementation of organisational change.

In the current study, the role that managers play in communicating change has been considered poor and ineffective in both universities. More than half of the participants in the London university mentioned the lack of communication during change as the major trigger for confusion, frustration and uncertainty, compared with only five Saudi academics. Those who mentioned the lack of communication amongst the Saudi academics reported their feelings of frustration, confusion and sadness.

> I feel it has not been communicated to employees, to staff members, so it leaves me a bit confused. Sometimes I'm lost; I do not know what to do, where to go, who to ask because my previous resource [information from above] does not work anymore because things have changed now (Hana, London university).

169

> Decisions were taken in the highest level of authority without communicating with us, which makes me frustrated, sad and feel that we are not being respected and that is not good at all (Lulu, Saudi university).

The academics described feeling that management did not provide them with adequate information regarding the change process. This has been seen as a failure of management and indicates the academics' inability to discuss the change process within the university, including the potential impact on their own job role, what will happen in the future, or the benefits of change. As mentioned, such experiences made academics feel lost and confused. Bordia *et al.* (2004), Kiefer, (2005) and Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010), found that in any organisation, confusion and uncertainty are more likely to be triggered among employees if the information related to change is poorly-delivered. Such findings are therefore congruent with the current study; however, the current study found that the lack of communication during university change in both countries triggered frustration and sadness as well. One possible explanation here is that academics' understanding of this lack of communication might be that management do not perceive them as valuable members of the organisation (Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel, 2001). Thus, for the academics in the current study, lack of communication might signify lack of respect, perhaps resulting from feeling frequent negative emotions in relation to management. Poorly-managed communication channels from management during times of change may lead employees to overemphasize negative aspects in relation to change (DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998), which in turn lead to the experience of various emotions, as was evident here.

> I feel sometimes, that management did not respect us, because they did not communicate with us properly before they made their decision, which has been made in the top level, and even they did not bother to explain the reason for it properly, and that act and behaviour really makes feel sad and frustrated, and I cannot respect and trust them again (Noor, Saudi university).

> When there is change it is not communicated to us, we end up finding out about it by chance. So, management do not respect us. Instead of kind of saying, "This is the logic to it," it's kind of like "This must be the logic to it". So, I feel frustrated with it (Mariana, London university).

Being valued as members of organisations is very important for the employees on both a personal and organisational level, as being well-informed about new

developments, activities, goals and plans will encourage employees to learn about the significant features that differentiate their organisation from others (Dutton *et al.,* 1994). This may subsequently increase the organisation's attractiveness to employees (Zajonc, 1980 cited in Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel, 2001), as well as its identification (Dutton *et al.,* 1994), as employees may have a feeling of self-worth (Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel, 2001).

The feeling of disrespect was reported by academics in both universities, however, those who mentioned this point were all originally from collectivistic cultures. They described feeling sadness and frustration in relation to this. However, the Saudi university academics linked disrespect to sadness, while the London university academic (originally from a collectivistic culture) linked it to frustration. Thus, the similarities of perceiving the management's actions in this way may be linked to being from more collectivist cultures, which value relationships amongst groups and communities (Kim and Choi, 1994), so, any mistreatment from this group could be perceived as disrespect. The different emotions expressed by these academics in relation to perceived disrespect, however, could be linked to organisational differences, as it may be that the London university academic has been affected by living in a more individualistic culture, which may explain her frustration in relation to perceptions of disrespect. It has been suggested, for instance, that in individualistic cultures, people rely less on relationships with others as they believe such relationships will not last forever (Kim and Choi, 1994), which could explain their emotional response to the same perception. Nonetheless, even if the culture influences the ways in which people perceive situations and others, their perceptions and emotions could also be influenced by other factors.

In the case of the two Saudi academics, their ages and years of service at the institution might have been more of an influence than culture, as both had served at the university for more than twenty-five years. That means there is a long history between them and the university, which is based on trust and respect, indicating a strong relationship with management that could lead to such perceptions of disrespect and strong feelings of sadness. Observing management action in this way, lead to anticipation that those employees would lose their faith and trust in management. This is because trust indicates both management and employees helping each other in risky situations (Currall and Epstein, 2003), and not behaving in ways that causes

damage to another or benefits from their weaknesses (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Thus, the academics subsequently felt disrespect, which leads to feelings of sadness. Indeed, this finding is not uncommon as previous research has shown that employees receive less respect at work than they expected (Rogers and Ashforth, 2014), indicating that respect "seems to be somewhat of a blind spot within organizational priorities" (Van Quaquebeke *et al*., 2009: 429). Feeling respected is very important for employees as it reflects their worth and meets their universal human needs (Rogers and Ashforth, 2014).

Another issue related to lack of communication by management is the perception of mistrust between management and staff. This issue has been mentioned by two academics in both universities in relation to the lack of communication. One shared a story about the limited information delivered by management to staff and how he felt about this:

> I have found out there is some information that was missed, some incorrect information that was deliberately exchanged with senior management, which does not reflect anything that we have agreed and goes against an agreement the university made with us and this person [decision-maker] seems to have no moral or ethical touchstone by which to guide their actions at all. You find someone's been doing something, which has left you saying, "How can I do my job if someone is changing things but not actually telling me?". It is just shocking and frustrating (Clark, London university).

> I feel anger sometimes; as management did not respect us, mistreated us. If they respect us they would inform us by the change plan, not impose it on us. So, I feel I cannot trust them again (Noor, Saudi university).

It was clear that lack of communication is a big issue for academics, particularly when there is unreliability in delivering the information. Leana and Barry (2000) found that employees tend to have less passion to work when they have been affected by poor communication channels during change. This can influence their interpretation of the situation, based on what they have in their mind in relation to change and how it should be delivered (Maitilis and Soneheim, 2010). The findings from the current study seem to support these studies, as academics have been shown to interpret the lack of communication from management as mistreatment and disrespect. This was evident in the accounts of Mariana, Nat, Noor and Monira, leading to mistrust of their university management. The reduction in clear communication between management

172

and employees in higher education institutions has long been recognised (Middlehurst and Elton, 1992), and the current research has shown that such poor communication continues, which suggests that this is an area that needs addressing to ensure better relationships between academics and management. This might assist in academics feeling more engaged during change activities, which may then foster development and understanding of the process among academics and departments (Zilahy and Huisingh, 2009). Good communication channels will help to increase employees' productivity (White, Vanc and Stafford, 2010), also benefitting the organisation in boosting its reputation and credibility, being more reliable sources in the external stakeholders' eyes (Dawkins, 2004; Hannegan, 2004). Indeed, workers are the face of organisations and have a strong impact on their success (White, Vanc and Stafford, 2010).

The study findings suggested that effective communication during change in organisations is important to the success of the implementation of change (DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998; Lewis and Seibold, 1998), with the majority of the academics in the current study discussing feelings of frustration as a result of this missing element in their university. Previous research indicates that organisations should have two goals in their communication strategy with their employees; one, to offer sufficient information to those who work in the organisations, and two, to create strong community spirit (Elving, 2005). These goals appear not to have been implemented in the universities where the current study's participants work. It has been suggested that providing such information to employees can increase individual commitment to the organisations, as well as facilitate a sense of belonging and appreciation (Postmes *et al.,* 2000). Lack of information can therefore have the opposite effect, negatively impacting on organisation change and strategies (Elving, 2005). The latter situation appeared to be the case amongst the majority of academics in the current study.

7.2.2 Lack of Consultation/Involvement in Decision Making

In the higher education sector, there has been a shift from shared responsibility and decision by all staff members to the centralisation of decision making by management (Gamage and Mininberg, 2003; Tytherleigh *et al*., 2005; Taylor, 2006). This was notable in the current study's findings, which indicated that academics tended to be excluded from decision making. Previous research has suggested that this is a growing issue in higher education (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999), with higher

education management making a move from the collegiality approach (which includes academic communities in decision making) to more bureaucratic and explicit management approaches (Jackson, 1997; Orr, 1997; Anderson, Murray, and Olivarez, 2002; Deem, Hillyard, and Reed, 2007). This may relate to pressures placed on management, with the time and resources needed to involve academics in decision making being less available to academic institutions in recent years (Edwards 1999; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Deem, Hillyard and Reed, 2007). The current study, however, was not able to confirm such findings simply from the accounts of the academics, and so the inclusion of management in future research could provide further insights here.

Whilst previous research has tended to simply focus on the changes occurring within institutions, the current research indicated a strong emotional impact on employees from such changes. Academics in both universities reported, for instance, mistrust of management and perceiving their actions as unfair, which resulted in feelings of frustration and anger; demonstrating a largely negative emotional impact on the academics staff. As several of the academics explained:

> I feel like they have not taken the employees with them; the managers or the senior managers should always include the staff members in decision making, take them along. So, it feels like we have been left behind, which triggers our anger, as we feel we cannot trust our managers (Hana, London university).

> We just feel that management sometimes do not understand us, and they do not bother themselves to involve us in the change decision, to know what we want which is kind of unfair treatment and that's what frustrated me, and led me to mistrust them (Maria, Saudi university).

> I feel sadness because of the centralization of decision-making…They do not have the right to make a decision without referring to us, how can we trust them? Which really makes me very angry (Monera, Saudi university).

> It has been just so unbelievably frustrating, which causes mistrust. Decisions have been made that you look and you think, "What on earth were they thinking?" There were times where we have seen the wrong decisions and if they had actually bothered asking we would have said, "Do not do that because…" (Clark, London university).

Excluding academic staff in both universities from involvement in decision-making lead to many feeling that they were no longer considered a top priority in the higher education environment, that they were disrespected and devalued, causing

174

disappointment and frustration. Academic life has long been associated with greater freedom and autonomy than other sectors, giving academics a high level of interdependence (Noorda, 2013), and for many of the academics in the current study, was an aspect which had attracted them to an academic career. The reality of academia had more recently, however, proved to be very different to such an expectation. This reduction in academics' freedom and autonomy has been previously noted in the literature (Hellstrom, 2004; Musselin 2005; Gordon and Whitchurch 2010), and amongst academics in the current study. As one academic reported:

> I feel angry of course, I feel that we have not had any ability to make decisions and we have had autonomy taken away from us. It has been just so unbelievably frustrating (Clark, London university).

Altbach (2014) suggests that higher education management needs to give academics a sufficient degree of freedom and autonomy in order to flourish, and this appears to be supported by the findings from the current study, which highlighted the negative impact of reduction in autonomy. As shown, academics expressed feelings of frustration and anger; such negative impacts have largely been overlooked in previous studies.

It is also possible that not being involved in decision making could lead academics to feel their identity as professional academics is being threatened. Academic identity refers to the extent to which individuals define themselves in terms of the organisation and their position of managerial authority, or as a member of a profession (Ibarra, 1999). As one academic stated:

> I find it very frustrating. Senior managers have to understand the ground floor or the workers. And they have to involve them in dialogue because any change is difficult, emotionally, physically a lot of things happen and any change is to the partnership, the two working together not, "Them" and "We" (Hopeful, London university).

More recently, academics have been affected by the conflict between traditional academic roles and contemporary managerial identities (Henkel, 2000; Winter and Sarros, 2002). Transformations in the policy, funding and governance of higher education have thus led to academic professions and identities becoming increasingly diversified, fragmented and blurred (Fanghanel 2012; Gornall and Salisbury 2012;

Henkel 2012; McInnis 2012; Ylijoki 2013). Therefore, the traditional notion of an academic as a member socialized into the values, norms, practices, and belief systems of their particular epistemic community and disciplinary culture (Becher 1989 cited in Ylijoki and Ursin, 2013) has been challenged by new, often conflicting pressures and expectations (Ylijoki and Ursin, 2013). These changes - as also supported in the current research - have restricted and reduced the academics' roles and status. The shifts in the process of decision making provide one example here, with management being perceived as failing to recognise the academics as professionals with valuable input.

In relation to teaching specifically, the exclusion of academics from decision-making has been highlighted (Oliver, 2000), and this was discussed by academics in the current study, although interestingly only by the Saudi academics:

> Because we will be working in that new programme and new teaching plan, I think they should involve us, which makes us feel disappointment. As academics, we know better which programme and teaching method are the best for students. Not being a part of this decision really frustrated us (Lulu, Saudi university).

> I feel frustration and disappointment because they impose changes in our teaching method, without taking our opinion, and they want us just to agree and follow their plans without saying anything, and if you say something against them; that means you are an anti-change person (Arwa, Saudi university).

It is possible that the London academics discussed lack of involvement in decision-making in general, which included issues around teaching, but it might also be that the UK academics did not experience this issue as much as the Saudi academics. With the Saudi academics all being female in the study, it may be that there are additional gender issues to consider here. SA is a gender-segregated culture which separates women and men in the workplace, allocating power to men, but not to women (Baki, 2004). Subsequently, women in the workplace have little authority, limiting their responsibilities, and isolating women from decision making and strategic planning (Al-Ahmadi, 2011), even if it concerns their own departments (Al-Halawani, 2002; Al-Ahmadi, 2011). It is important, therefore, to be aware of the potential impact of such cultural factors and gendered expectations, especially as the culture and custom of most Arabian societies follows such an Islamic conservative orientation towards women (Alajmi, 2001). It is important to note that it is not Islam

itself which excludes women's rights in decision making, but Arabian patriarchal culture which places women in more passive roles at work and within the family, interpreting this in relation to Islam to support such subordinate positions and to enforce what is acceptable and what is not for women's behaviour (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). This can affect women's participation in society, in social institutions such as the family, school and media (*Ibid*.). Such perceptions of women are not limited to Arabian cultures, however, affecting women in western cultures too (Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

7.2.3 Changes to Work Routines and Processes

The experience of changes to work routine and work processes was shown to negatively affect academics from both the London and Saudi universities. This was the main trigger for eleven Saudi university academics, who described feeling frustration, sadness, indignation, anxiety and anger. Nine of the London academics also referred to such a trigger, which had led to feelings of frustration and unhappiness. Whilst both groups referred to changes to work routines and processes, involving increased workload and the unfairness of workload distribution, there were also differences, with only the Saudi academics mentioning the impact of increased administrative tasks.

7.2.3.1 Increased Workload

Previous research has demonstrated the impact of changes in higher education to the workplace, often leading to increased workload (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999), and re-organisation of workloads and duties (Gumport and Sporn, 1999). Such changes have been shown to affect employees negatively, with a tendency to find the increased work responsibilities difficult to manage, leading to depression and sadness (Boateng and Agyei, 2013). The findings from the current study supported such insights, with academics from both groups describing how they were struggling to concentrate on their work as a result of increased workload, or to do multiple tasks at the same time. In addition, such changes have led to reduced motivation and productivity, and to negative emotions and stress, supporting findings from previous studies (Schabracq and Cooper, 2000; Tytherleigh *et al.*, 2005; Iqbal and Kokash, 2011). For eleven of the London academics, this had triggered frustration, unhappiness and stress, whereas it had led to frustration, sadness, anxiety and stress for five academics in the Saudi university. The academics reported that their job role

177

now involved multi-tasking, whereas traditionally academic work required deep concentration, thinking, research, collaboration and some teaching.

> You feel frustrated because it is like it is mainly about increase of workload in terms of students to deal with and also other work that has been added up. Even if emotionally somebody can be positive, it is just you have been overloaded and the process of overloading can lead to stress as well (Mariana, London university).

> Workload due to change plans makes me feel anxious, frustrated and leads to stress, because it is quite a stressful situation. It is very hard but I think that the changes affect me in terms of, I cannot concentrate in one task and even I cannot finish the work at required time (Wafa, Saudi university).

In addition, academic responsibility for administrative tasks has increased considerably, resulting from a reduction in the numbers of administrative staff due to wider changes in higher education (Åkerlind, 2005). The additional administrative duties have been shown to negatively impact on academics' responsibilities towards teaching and research (Gornitzka, Kyvik and Larsen, 1998; Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003; Hornibrook, 2012). Such findings were supported in the current study, emerging in the accounts of academics from both universities.

> I'm not happy about the change, because many things, many paper works you need to do so you cannot concentrate on one single thing and you cannot relax. I think you should do a lot of things okay but you need to concentrate on one, two things rather than you doing ten per cent from each one. This can lead to stress (Kevin, London university).

> I feel indignant about the new rules of administrative work, for me it increased our workloads, which we already have. Management makes us feel that first priority is finishing the administrative work, it is more important than teaching students, which has really frustrated us (Nora, Saudi university).

> Because of change, we have got many administrative tasks and meetings, beside our teaching hours, and that puts us under too much pressure and feeling frustrated. Now every academic has to do administrative work for six hours per day, in addition to teaching load, which increased the workload and puts more pressures on us. That means we will fall short in the administrative work or in teaching, and that is make us feel very indignant (Hala, Saudi university).

178

For the Saudi academics, administrative work had become compulsory, not optional, as it had been before changes had taken place. They mentioned that management expected them to finish the administrative work, even if it will affect their teaching hours, thus affecting students' learning, which triggered feelings of indignation and anxiety amongst the academics. Many expressed surprise at such changes, as they felt that their main job role was to teach students and do research and these additional administrative responsibilities only increase the burden of their work.

The academics in the study felt that they received little support from university management for the increased workload, which could potentially be perceived by employees as breaching of their psychological contract. Morrison and Robinson (1997) and Solinger, Hofmans and Olffen (2015) suggest that psychological contract breaches can emerge from the subjective understanding of work events by employees and the ways in which employees interpret and make sense of these events. For example, when workload expectations are changed (increased) without consultation, this could be understood as breaching of the psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2002), thus increasing pressure on the employees (Conway and Briner, 2002; Bal, Hofmans and Polat, 2017). This was supported by the current study's findings:

> What triggers my indignation is the excessive workload. I will give you an example: in our department meeting, I was told that I have to teach four courses. This decision bothered me and made me feel indignation, because I was assigned too many things. Based on my years of experience and competence, workloads on me should be reduced, not increased. Because of [feeling] so much indignation, I got out after the meeting and requested retiring because of the administrative and academic load, tests and grading are too much, and the numbers of students are huge, and there is also the change from paper to electronic processes, the new blackboard system and learning it. So, many things upon me, I felt I was not capable of giving any more and they did not support me which is frustrating (Noor, Saudi university).

> You feel frustrated because it is like it is mainly about increase of workload in terms of students to deal with and also other paper work that has been added up. Even if emotionally somebody can be positive, …the process of overloading can lead to stress as well, especially when you feel that management do not support you with this issue (Mariana, London university).

Whilst previous studies have drawn attention to the problems with additional administrative responsibilities, the current study has explored the negative emotional

impact that it can have, such as triggering feelings of anger and indignation. Many of the academics could not make sense of administrative work, or felt it to be a waste of their time and effort, which they felt was better invested in teaching and other important aspects of their work. Their understanding of what their job entailed had little relation to administrative work, as they understood such work to fall under administrative staff responsibilities. This is consistent with previous research that found that academics suffer a negative impact as a result of the growing volume of administrative work, as it is impossible for them to utilise their time productively and relevantly (Trowler, 1998; Gornitzka and Larsen, 2004). Academics' responses to this event may relate to their experience and understanding of the reality of their job, which has been learned through their relationship with others and within their work environment. Previous research has shown, for instance, that an individuals' understanding is developed and shaped by the environment, and what they have learned and have in common with fellow people (Sandberg and Targama, 2007).

7.2.3.2 Unfairness of Workload Distribution

Managing the workloads of university academics while considering the academic culture is a challenging and complicated exercise (Huston, Meyer and Paewai, 2006). Therefore, it has been suggested that managers and academics need to take an active role in understanding how to manage the workload through advocacy for necessary changes to institutional practice, programme delivery patterns, and reconsideration of activities that detract from the fundamental purposes of higher education (*Ibid*.). Surprisingly, in the current study, such cooperation and understanding between managers and academic staff seemed to be missing, with findings indicating instead the perceived unfairness in the distribution of workload among academics in both universities. This also contrasts with previous research which found that academic workload was fairly distributed among academics, leading to high satisfaction (Bitzer, 2007). Academics in the current study stated, for example, that:

> Now the way they do the teaching load I do not think as a department is fairly done. What does it mean? It means if you are good in teaching, and you have been doing it for many years, automatically you are doing it. So, they actually overload you even more. Even if you are doing more research, they do not take the teaching load away from you. You inherit it year after year (Max, London University).

When workload increases, it is affect you negatively. So, what will you feel when you know the management overload some staff and not others? Angry I think (Samar, Saudi university).

Previous research has pointed to the uneven distribution of workload in higher education, which has had an impact on quality assurance within departments (Kordzadze, 2013). Research by Burges, Lewis and Mobbs (2003) underlined how fair workload distribution was essential to successful work planning, as increased workload can lead to stress and dissatisfaction. What these studies have not shown is how such unfair distribution has affected the academics emotionally, which is what the current study aimed to determine. As discussed, perceived unfairness in workload distribution proved to be a key issue for academics in both universities, with reference made to inequality in management's allocation of the work, particularly for those considered the harder workers. This seems to reinforce the need for managers and academic staff to work together to attain a fair distribution of workload and to take into consideration the policy principles of equity, transparency, reasonableness, safety, and acceptability (Huston, Meyer and Paewai, 2006).

7.2.4 Lack of Appreciation and Reward

It has been shown that rewarding high performing academics can have positive effects, encouraging an environment of fairness where employees can expect reward for hard work (Eisenberger, Malone and Presson, 2016), and demonstrating that organisations value their contributions (Eisenberger, Rhaoades and Cameron, 1999), thus also reducing intention to leave (Samuel and Chipunza, 2009). Such appreciation and recognition did not appear to be evidenced in the accounts of the academics in the current study, and this had resulted in many of the London academics mentioning their intention to leave the organisation as a result (see Chapter 8, page, 211). Lack of appreciation and reward was one of the primary triggers of negative emotions mentioned by the London and Saudi university academics. Seven academics across both universities described feeling frustrated by management's lack of recognition of hard working academics and the ignorance surrounding their efforts. As two of these academics explained:

> Management do not take sufficient time to reward the work each person is doing. I notice sometimes we are finished doing some work and then you will hear the boss, only thanking the boss. And your boss will think that he is the one who did it. You want to think that there is a reward, there is no reward for hard work and competent staff. So it's

just like you are off in the air, which really frustrates us (Dave, London university).

I feel frustration because sincere people who do their work honestly are not appreciated, because people who refuse to work are not punished and come at the end of the month to take the same salary. Frustration grows among academics. Each academic says they do not appreciate me morally, and there is no financial reward (Rana, Saudi university).

Chalmers (2011), in acknowledging that the recognition and reward systems of academics were out of control, stated that there is a difference between what university reward systems do, and what academics want them to do (Ramsden and Martin, 1996), which may partly explain the shift in reward systems for academics in Australia and United States higher education (Ramsden and Martin, 1996), and the UK (Brown, 1995; Gibbs, 2001). These studies are congruent with the current study, and show that lack of reward and recognition by management in higher education still occurs in the UK. What the current study also shows is that this is also a problem in higher education in SA as well, which suggests it may be a global issue affecting many academics (although further studies in universities across the world would need to confirm this), and is thus an issue requiring attention from higher education management.

It has been indicated that any organisation aiming to adjust rapidly to change, needs to demonstrate appreciation of their workers in order to increase their performance (Fagley and Adler, 2012). Evidence of appreciation and reward in this way appeared to be missing from the accounts of the academics in the two universities in the current study. Such ignorance from management appeared to have led to frustration amongst the academics, which could have a negative effect on their motivation and commitment to the university. This has been notable across the findings of the current study as some described feeling demotivated, devalued and had lost enjoyment in their work. This also supports the findings of previous research in the field (Linder, 1998; Fagley and Adler, 2012), although these studies have not related the lack of appreciation to emotional responses as the current study has, instead relating it to motivation and job satisfaction.

Related to issues around lack of appreciation and reward, academics also mentioned the breach of the psychological contract in terms of failure to recognise academics'

creativity and innovation, which was mentioned by two academics in each of the universities, as well as management restricting creativity in their work. As they reported:

> They made massive changes that have affected students, that have affected staff but the main issue is that we cannot innovate. We cannot be nimble-footed, entrepreneurial academics with our programs of study, with our research, so I feel frustrated (Jane, London University).

> I feel frustrated, management kills creativity and innovation, they do not encourage us to be so, and even if someone tries they neglect them (Samar, Saudi University).

The findings indicate, therefore, that another form of perceived mistrust and unfairness by academics was in terms of management's control over their work, for example, in relation to how management limited their creativity and innovation activities. Previous research suggests that managers play an important role in encouraging and supporting employees' creativity, as employees expect their managers to provide a creative environment for them (Scott and Bruce, 1994; Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Mumford *et al*., 2002). The findings from the current study seemed to contradict this, however, with suggestions from the academics that management actually prevents or diminish their creativity and their ambition to be entrepreneurial academics. This is clearly an important issue to address, for the universities and the employees, particularly as research has shown that creative employees are essential to organisation survival and success (Nystrom, 1990; Shalley and Gilson, 2004). There is some suggestion in the current research that this has not been recognised in one of the universities. It is important to note that this is based on the accounts of only a small number of academics, however, and that such statements might relate more to dissatisfaction with their relationships with their managers. Further research into this issue would, therefore, be beneficial for greater understanding of the creativity and innovation issue.

7.2.5   Research excellence framework

Research culture in academia has been altered with the introduction of research assessment exercises, which impact on reputation and funding, and have therefore become increasingly important for academic institutions and academics. In the UK, the REF is the latest form of research assessment within higher education. Bates and Kaye (2014) explain that the REF has become one of the most significant criteria for

work, reward and recognition, and it an important change that has occurred in the HE environment over recent years (*Ibid.*). One study indicated that 33 per cent of university academics treat research as more important than other activities due to the research assessment regimes, and this has led to increased frustration for these academics (Billot, 2011). In the current study, the REF appeared to be generally viewed negatively by the London academics. As two of the academics explained:

> Well it is pointless, I do not get stressed about it because it is a pointless waste of time. It does, I have to fill out forms, I have to give information to the university about things which are completely pointless right. We have to do all these exercises or the mock REFs. So, I feel frustrated about it…But REF is, I'm sorry, it has driven people to sometimes be more conservative or less ambitious in some of the research they do (Ian, London university).

> We were spending hours doing things that we would not have to do, which is frustrating. The university gets quite worried about the whole thing, quite stressed about it (Clark, London university)

For other academics, whilst the benefits of the REF were noted (such as being able to monitor individual research output and productivity), it was also considered a source of frustration and stress, as it had changed their role as a researcher, placing more pressure on their overall research output. As two of the academics stated:

> It caused stress as I feel that the department expects everyone to be good for research and teaching rather than seeing the department as a whole and accepting that some people will only contribute to one. Clear priorities into the fields need to be set for each person so, that both assessments are covered by the department (Mariana, London university).

> I do as much as I can. The only impact REF has really had on me is just a constant nag to be continually taking over doing the research, as it adds to your CV and your reputation. As an academic you can tell from the CV immediately that those are the last five years as far as research has gone, you have had these publications. It is a good way of measuring research but also sort of stressful because…we might get writers block. And then you were worried about why I have not done a journal for six months or something like that (Jonathan, London university).

The effect of the REF on academics is therefore an important consideration for academic institutions, especially in terms of encouraging a healthy and productive research environment. It has been suggested, for instance, that boosting social

interaction between academics (Salaran, 2010) and improving the culture of research might assist in reducing frustration and boost productivity (Bates and Kaye, 2014).

For one of the academics, however, the REF seemed to simply be considered part of their role and was something that they had been aware of at the beginning of their job. As she explained:

> It is many years that we have the REF. The previous REF, I was aware of the publication counts. I was aware that I need to publish in three and four star journals. So, new REF it did not really make any changes for myself. Yes, it affect my work in the sense that you need to select publication according to the ABS list, but this, is something I was aware since I started my career (Nat, London university).

It may be, then, that where academics have been familiar with the REF since the beginning of their career, it is considered less stressful than for those where such an exercise has been introduced whilst they have been in the profession. It is clear from the academics' accounts that the REF has led to increased stress levels, especially for those in the early stage of their career - like Jonathan who had been in academia for only two years - who still need to build up their CV and enhance these with high quality publications. Research for academics is considered the core of their job, and as we have seen from academics' accounts, they were more concerned about the REF assessment than the TEF. It remains unclear whether or not the TEF will attain its goal in increasing the prestige of teaching (Blackmore, Blackwell and Edmondson, 2016), compared with research, which provides greater prestige and status.

7.2.6   Teaching Excellence Framework

Another form of assessment that has emerged within higher education in recent years, and thus reflecting another important change within universities, is the TEF, as mentioned earlier. This assessment has received considerable attention in the literature, particularly as it is considered an essential aspect of the Higher education bill (Neary, 2016). The objective of the TEF is "to raise the quality and status of teaching in higher education institutions" (Hubble, Foster and Bolton, 2016, p. 9). Excellence in teaching is measured by various metrics such as student satisfaction, employability, retention and a new metric learning gain, which presents the record of the development in knowledge and personal progress of students through their time in the higher education institutions (Neary, 2016). However, these metrics have been strongly criticised for not providing a reliable measure of teaching and learning

quality in higher education (Holyrod and Saul, 2016). Within the current study, several academics mentioned the TEF and expressed their concerns surrounding the effect of the assessment on their teaching and research responsibilities. Issues raised, for instance, included the potential restrictions on their teaching, the focus on student engagement and satisfaction, and the effect it may have on the time they allocate to research activities. As two of the academics explained:

> It is dangerous because it is going to force university to try and force academics to teach in a very narrow number of ways. But TEFs are going to change the rules. It was starting to look more at schools for employability outcomes, student satisfaction and that will draw at universities to impose restrictions upon academics of how they can teach, what they should teach, the way they should do it (Ivan, London university).

> My main concern is actually the pressure to increase the number of students, because often it may not be matched or cannot be matched within a reasonable window of time, with an increase in staff. So, that may generate a bit of worry as each university is competing on the TEF and this means that I may see myself in the situation in which I have more to do and I cannot actually cope with my research (Nat, London university).

The importance of performing effectively in both research and teaching as a result of both the TEF and REF was also discussed. In this sense, it seems that the TEF was perceived as contributing to pressure for academics, although this was not always regarded as *additional* pressure, but rather an *alternative* form of pressure:

> Well, there is pressure in the sense that people, the academics they could, you know, focus just on publication and not to be really engaged with the teaching. And now, the situation, the academic situation has been changed, I could see that in the department. We are doing some teaching just to emphasise how we can improve the teaching, how we can engage the students. So, there is more pressure, because we have these two assessment, but while in the past the pressure was more in publishing, now it is divided. So, I would say that I mean, it is not that the work is more pressurised, it is that there is probably less pressure in publishing, and then a bit more pressure about the student engagement and the teaching. So, we have to be good in both, uh, the two scenarios, which is little but frustrated us (Mariana, London university).

Such issues have been raised in the literature on the TEF, with research indicating that the TEF was perceived as something which may weaken the academics' commitment to teaching excellence or increase the separation of academic labour researchers vs. teachers (Wood and Su, 2017). Some academics, whose primary interests lay in

research, may be particularly affected by student evaluations and disengagement, and further perceive teaching as distracting them from focusing on their research (HERB, 2016). These findings seem to support the idea of an increasing focus on the student as the customer of a service, which has resulted from wider changes in the higher education sector and the shift towards competition and marketisation. Here, attracting and retaining students, providing a high quality service, as well as maintaining a strong reputation and high ranking seem to take priority (Blackmore, Blackwell and Edmondson, 2016). Whilst such changes have been seen across the sector, and universities need to compete within this increasingly marketized environment, it seems that the impact and potential pressure that such changes place on academics within the institutions is being overlooked.

It was clear from the current study, that the academics perceived the changes to their roles from the introduction of the TEF differently, and were affected to varying levels in terms of their perceptions about the impact on their workloads. Nonetheless, there was a common conception that the pressure on academics had increased with the responsibility to provide a strong teaching service alongside an excellent research reputation. This is potentially problematic for both the academics, and the universities, as such changes which lead to an increasing workload and high pressure, may negatively impact on motivation and engagement with the university goals. As previous studies have shown, increasing pressure on academics can reduce job satisfaction (Filiz, 2014) and affect work-life balance and productivity (Lambert, Hogan and Barton, 2002; Chung, *et al.,* 2010).

Finally, for some of the academics, related changes which had emerged alongside developments in teaching and technology, had impacted on workload in different ways. Shifts towards electronic marking and new marking requirements, for instance, had placed additional responsibilities and pressures on academics. One academic, for example, discussed how much time and effort they were spending on using WISEflow (a test for submission of assignments), and how it made marking project is complicated:

> We were supposed to be marking online and that is, it is horrible, absolutely horrible things to do. I do not like it. Most of us do not like it; it is really about spending more and more time sitting in front of a computer. The thing is particularly when you have to spend time to do project we have projects to do and we ignoring that because the lack of

time. For example, this year we forced the students to submit work online but they have to hand in hard copies as usual. Because if you want to mark a project using WISEflow, you need half a dozen computer screens but this is insane whereas when you got hard copies take a paper and mark and you can flip in between things to check things. When it is online you just cannot do that, it is really hard, particularly, when you have class of 200 that is a really serious problem (Clark, London university).

Such a change reflects advances in technology and increasing shifts towards electronic services, monitoring and regulation. It is likely that such changes will affect academics differently according to levels of technological competence and familiarity with advanced software, but this should not overlook the importance of investigating the emotional impact on academics.

In the current study, none of the academics welcomed the TEF or reflected on how such assessment could improve the quality of the teaching, with the majority focusing on the importance of research instead. This supports previous findings from Wood and Su (2017). One possible explanation could be that research activities are given higher prestige in academia, and the REF continues to determine it's importance, even in teaching-lead institutions (Blackmore, Blackwell and Edmondson, 2016). This high interest in research being the core of academic life may be the reason why some academics are not as interested in the TEF and the potentially positive impact that it may bring to teaching quality. The number of publications and conference activities - as considered by the REF - will personally affect academics and count in their CV, attracting a kind of prestige that excellence in teaching does not (Blackmore, Blackwell and Edmondson, 2016). Therefore, the government emphasis on the differences between research and teaching may result in teaching losing out (*Ibid.*). However, it is important to note that with the TEF being such a recent initiative, investigation of its full impact and the examination of actual experience of this change for academics will be important for future research.

7.2.7 Brexit

The uncertainty surrounding Brexit and the outcomes for UK society as a whole has been central to political and academic debate since the referendum in 2016. The higher education sector is no different, and the major concern for universities has been the potential impact on research activities, particularly as the UK is the second largest receiver of research funding from the EU (Courtois, 2018). Universities have

expressed particular concern with regard to funding for humanities and social sciences, with uncertainty surrounding whether the UK government will offer such funding to this sector as a part of the increasing marketization of higher education. Non-UK academics have also demonstrated worry about the life cost (such as salaries, visa, etc.). Such concern has led to fear, as those academics also explained that they were unsure if they would be welcomed to the UK or not, as their residency in the country had been threatened (*Ibid.*). In the current research, academics were no different as they also expressed their concerns following Brexit for their university and the sector as a whole. As one academic stated:

> Obviously it is a question mark. We do not know what will happen. Generally it is a worry, mostly because one can think about the economic landscape to change, and difficulties may propagate and actually affect our sector. Or the reduced number of students, because the university want to increase the students, so it may generate a situation in which they need to actually go through restructuring. So, that is a bit of a worry (Jonathan, London university).

In particular, questions around the impact on international relationships, or specifically relationships between British and European universities were raised, as such relationships are important for both countries. However, no one can anticipate what may happen in the near future in relation to Brexit, and there is strong debate as to what the consequences will be and how universities and academics will respond. Some expect that the UK will be replaced with a strong research partner (Courtois, 2018). Furthermore, as one academic stated:

> I'm a very pro-European and I say for various reasons I would say we were stronger in Europe. So my view is that over the last 20, 25 years there have been 3,000 total organizations that we linked to within Europe and we will have to replace everything, all of them, or negotiate paying…But after we renegotiate all of them it will probably cost an absolute out of fortune. That is my view, so economically it does not make any sense and I think as the companies are starting to pull out, politically we will be weakened, trade will be absolute nightmare. So, that is my view, I think a very stupid idea and hopefully it will collapse but we will see (Ivan, London university).

According to the Social Research Institute (2017), academics have a right to be worried as European academic staff in the UK contributed sixteen per cent of the workforce, compared with only twelve per cent of non-European academic staff. Brexit may therefore increase the understaffed problem that several universities in the

UK suffer from, which may mean increased workload for existing academics that in turn affects their job activities, as academics need time to focus on research and publication activities. Moreover, almost half of the academic papers generated by the UK were written with international partners, and thirteen per cent were from European countries (Horvath and Courtois, 2018). Thus, publication activities for UK academics could be reduced by the impact of Brexit. This was recognized by three of the academics in the current study, who highlighted the potential loss of valuable European staff and the impact of this on funding, the university and the remaining members of staff:

> What might become a big problem is we have quite a lot of non UK staff. You know good staff with good reputations. Now European funding staff is drying up because they were no longer allowed to participate in a number of schemes. A lot of these staff are the sort of people who have, so are not welcome to move to another country. They were career focused and quite happy to move. So, we could have staffing issues, we could have PhD student issues, which causes frustration (Mariana, London university).

> We will have less international and EU students and staff. We will have less funding. I am angry [about this] as education and research are global and the international movement of knowledge and experts is key to the UK and the world maintaining good research and teaching (Clark, London university).

> Well, Brexit you know, is another pressure that we need to face because it affects the recruiting of international staff. Apart from Brexit, we have now you know, for student's new regulation about international students you know. Now with the new government there will be new regulation about not European members that they need to have a minimal salary to work in the UK. So, we have you know lots of external pressure. This is an additional external pressure also to find, staff members. We, you know, we are struggling to recruit people to teach in the UK, and also this will affect in a way the student income. The students there will be a probably less European student coming to the UK. This is not major problem because most of our students are not European, but I would say that overall many, especially younger academics, they would opt to go to other European country. Overall, my work has been affected in this period by the fact that many people they left this department, they got external offer, so we are understaffed. And I would say that Brexit, you know, is not helpful because at this moment we are trying to recruit and it is difficult to recruit a new member (Nat, London university).

Recruiting new academics could also become a problematic issue for universities, as finding staff was already difficult, but with Brexit, it may become even more

challenging. According to a recent survey by Cressey (2017), 42 per cent of professors and lecturers were thinking about leaving the UK HE sector as a consequence of the referendum result, with the rate at 76 per cent of the non-UK EU citizens. None of the participants in the current study expressed an intention to leave directly as a result of Brexit, although the influence of other factors on such a decision were discussed, such as lack of appreciation and rewards, and mistreatment by management. The sample for the current study was considerably smaller, however, than Cressey's study, and it is important to note that such findings may alter following the completion of the Brexit process.

In line with the Social Research Institute (2017) research, then, there was a sense amongst the academics in the current study that Brexit had impacted - and would continue to do so - on UK universities' ability to attract foreign staff or researchers, and subsequently impact on accessing research funding and collaboration. It was also evident, however, that the true impact of Brexit remained unclear, with uncertainty surrounding the negative and potentially positive implications. Such uncertainty for academics is a common, and perhaps unsurprising finding (Cressey, 2017), given that the Brexit process is still underway (at the time of writing).

7.2.8   University Quality standards and Academic accreditation

Academic accreditation has been challenging for many Saudi universities. It involves assessing the standard and criteria for academic accreditation and assessment and accrediting post-secondary institutions and the programmes they provide (PMU, 2018). The aim is to ensure the quality of learning and management of institutions are equivalent to the highest international standard. This high standard of attainment should be broadly well-known within and outside the country (*Ibid*.). The challenges that the accreditation brings to the universities has not been fully comprehended, nor discussed in depth from the point view of the academics (Alghamdi, 2016). Every higher education institution has a similar process to follow in terms of the order of achieving the required accreditation standard. There have been some additional processes, however, for some institution (such as medical colleges) (Al-Mohaimeed, *et al.,* 2012). These differences in applying the academic accreditation may lead to limited understanding of the assessment among university faculties.

The lack of understanding surrounding accreditation, and subsequent frustration, was notable amongst the academics in the current study. The Saudi academics described being unhappy with the process, explaining how it affected them in terms of increasing their workload and their responsibilities. The feelings expressed by the Saudi academics is similar to those of the academics in the London University in relation to the TEF assessment, as both have similar objectives in relation to boosting the quality of education. It was also argued that the universities were more interested in student feedback on teaching and the learning process than focusing on academic training and development. However, when support was provided, it was often just to specific departments. The Saudi academics, as with those in London, suggested that through the accreditation, the universities were creating a customer culture within academia. Further research might explore this idea further within different cultural contexts.

> Honestly, I do not know, they try to improve the education by having academics accreditation from foreign universities, but I do not feel that they add new things or good things in the way we teach, for example they just add more papers work and pressures on us. So, I'm caring about my teaching only and do not care about what other things the university wants from us (Magi, Saudi university).

> Academic staff research and training is not important as student's feedback, the important things for them is teaching quality because now universities is competing with each other and that which made them more focus on it (Mai, Saudi university).

> They want to be best university, and they are trying to do this however, they did not offer us the facilities that support our teaching. They provided it but not to all departments, they are more interested in Science and medical departments. So, what about other departments? They deserve to be treated equally, students need to be treated equally in terms of what we can offer them, how can we create the best class atmosphere for them and a variety of learning activities? So, if we want to think about the accreditation and quality standards, we should consider what we could offer staff and students. If they consider this we will see huge development in the department and the university as a whole (Samah, Saudi university).

Again, there are similarities here between the Saudi university and the system in place in the London university, which reportedly ignores the academics and their needs and prioritises care for the students. Such support should be offered equally for academics and students in all departments, without any discrimination, particularly as universities cannot operate without both academics and students. This lack of support in relation

to academic accreditation has spread an environment of uncertainty around what the scheme or standards actually entail, which may partly explain the negative perception of academic accreditation for some academics. As one academic explained:

> It frustrated us as it adds more work and responsibilities. Honestly, we do not know what the university want. They always change the standards and it is always unified to all departments, which makes understanding it more difficult. You know as well you cannot trust the people who are responsible for the quality standards, as they say something and do something else, which makes you feel it is only on the papers (Dana, Saudi university).

In addition, it was evident that the aims and benefits of the scheme were not apparent to some of the academics, and with added work and responsibility, such an outcome was regarded as frustrating. Also the lack of understanding surrounding the benefit of the scheme raises the issue of mistrust between academics and the people responsible for implementing the scheme. This mistrust may challenge the implementation of the accreditation, and may boost an environment of resistance among academics, which should management be aware of.

> I do not know really what they outcomes of this, as I feel they just bother us by increasing our responsibilities, without rewarding us. May they think it is beneficial, but I have not seen any improvement, sorry, I'm not anti-change person but I would love to see positive result which I cannot until now (Nora, Saudi university).

> Maybe after a while, five years, for example, we will see the result or even more, I'm not sure. You know, we have discussed this issue a lot and we agree it just add more paper works as we spend much time in just for example, distributing the evaluation survey to students to get their feedback, then we have to analyse the results and compare with the last year and see if there is an improvement or differences to highlight. This task takes long time, and it is the more important one for them. (Mai, Saudi university).

Such dissatisfaction with academic accreditation has been demonstrated in previous research, where academic staff opinions towards the accreditation and quality standard in King Saud university in SA were surveyed (Al-Ghaith, 2015). The study found generally negative perceptions amongst the academics, with claims that the university management needs to pay more attention to research and encourage publication, and to provide training courses in teaching methods. Another study found, however, that applying accreditation schema has improved medical education, and the outcomes of student learning was better, and that this improvement occurred without forcing any

huge change in the curriculum orientation (Al-Mohaimeed, *et al.,* 2012). This contradictory result strongly suggests a need for further investigation of the impact of the academic accreditation on Saudi universities and examines the academics' experience of such a scheme.

7.3 Secondary Triggers

It was clear from the findings that negative emotions have been triggered by various events that occurred during change in both universities, however, there were some events that could be considered as secondary triggers, as they occurred following one of the primary triggers, and included (1) work-life-balance; (2) impact on promotional opportunities; (3) high staff turnover.

7.3.1 Work-Life-Balance

Work-life balance can be considered a secondary trigger, as it relates to the primary trigger of change in work routine/increased workload. Academics in both London and Saudi universities discussed the impact that increased workload had on their time, which negatively affected their family and social lives. Increased workloads and changing roles had meant they were working long hours, including at evenings and weekends, which made it difficult to balance their work and personal lives. This issue was reported by three of the London academics, leading to feelings of sadness and frustration, and by six academics from the Saudi university, who also described feeling saddened as a result. As they explained:

> It is too much you need to do, you cannot relax. I do work more than 10 hours but I need to relax, to get social life with my colleagues, which now we do not have time to do that, sometime I work evening and weekend just to finish the work, which frustrated me (Dave, London university).

> Another reason which is the timetabling thing; not in teaching but even we are overloaded that our social life is suffering in a way. When I say social life - individual social life, so for me I have to come over the weekend to finish a few things, bits and pieces. You know I would like to see sort of, to be totally free in the weekends. And also social life within the staff, within the university I would like to see my colleagues even more. When I joined the university, we used to have a tea room and we'd sit there during tea time - around 10:30 - and we have a chat, you know, for 15 minutes and it was sort of nice relationship. We do not have this anymore (Max, London university).

194

> Management ask us to do many works, such as blackboard and other things that adversely affect my personal life, my responsibilities towards my family. I get very sad in myself, because as a result of the excessive workload, I have to take work home. This affects my relationship even with my husband, which make me very sad (Magi, Saudi university).

> I feel sad as I have many things to do at the same time. The work routine changes now, which puts more pressure on us. I have to do more work, spend more hours to finish the work, which affects the time I spend with my family; they are always complaining and sometimes I need to sacrifice things (Dana, Saudi university).

Achieving a good work-life balance has been found to be a common problem among academics in higher education as result of increase the workload (Fisher, 1994; Moen and Yu, 2000; Batt and Valcour, 2003; Tytherleigh *et al.*, 2005). It has been found that employees' satisfaction of their work can be influenced by the challenges that they face in balancing their professional career and personal and family life (Moen and Yu, 2000; Batt and Valcour, 2003). Such studies are congruent with the current study's findings which showed that academics in the London and Saudi universities struggled to achieve a balance between their work, personal and social lives, due to the increased workload which they explained had to be carried out during their free time, including at evenings and weekends. The research found that such an issue was a trigger for frustration in academics of the London university and sadness in Saudi university academics. Such emotional impacts have not previously been explored, with previous studies focusing on the impact of work-life balance on employee job satisfaction, commitment (Howard, Donofrio and Boles, 2004; Awang, Ahmad and Zin, 2010), and stress (Tyheleigh *et al.,* 2005).

It is worth noting that the emotional responses felt by academics to the same trigger were different between men and women. It is not uncommon for women to encounter conflict when balancing work and family responsibilities, and feelings of sadness here have also been reported in previous research (Al-Halawani 2002). This can also lead to feelings of frustration due to lack of confidence and a growing sense of marginalization and inferiority (Al Ahmadi, 2011), particularly if women are worried about their personal career challenges which makes them struggle with balancing their professional and personal lives (Al Ahmadi, 2011). Omair (2008) points out, too, that even where Arab women get help with domestic duties from a paid servant or relative, they still hold primary responsibility for children and the house, which makes

balancing work and personal life a key issue for them. This could explain why two of the Saudi academics described feeling sad and even cried during the interview when this topic was discussed. It appeared to be a very sensitive topic for them, and the distress expressed here seemed to also cause one of them withdraw from the interview. Whilst only expressed by two of the academics in the study, it does indicate the strong impact it can have here and the need for some consideration of solutions here from university management.

7.3.2 Impact on Promotional Opportunities

The effect on promotional opportunities can be considered a secondary trigger related to two primary triggers; change in work routine/ increased workload and lack of appreciation and rewards. The London university academics mentioned this issue in relation to lack of appreciation and rewards.   Three academics in the London university, for instance, mentioned that their frustration centred around the politics and favouritism in the department, and the need to be appreciated by the department management.   They felt that promotion was based on preference, rather than merit. As one academic reported:

> I called it promotion exercise, which is one of the negative things in this university. The university system for promotions goes through different layers. The first one is the head of department or head of school. The second is the university panel. So, the first layer is the political layer, the head of department promotes some people and not others a result of politics. So, that is one of the negative emotions there, the frustration about the promotion (Max, London university).

Some academics in the London university discussed what they felt were discriminatory and unfair promotion practices that management implemented upon them. It was unclear whether the dissatisfaction here related to unfair practices or lack of opportunities for promotions (as previous research has shown that there are limited opportunities for academics in higher education; see Theron, Barkhuizen and Du Plessis, 2014), or whether it resulted from lack of success from these academics in achieving promotional opportunities, which has been previously shown to impact negatively on employees (Sashkin and Williams, 1990; Lemons and Jones, 2001). For those academics who discussed being unsuccessful in promotional opportunities, however, there was some evidence that management were considered responsible for this, through the practice of unfair favouritism. It has been suggested that unfair policies of promotion in the organisation could lead to high employee turnover

(Pienaar and Bester, 2008), which is supported by the current study's findings, which showed that in the London university, there has been high staff turnover, with the unfair promotion process being cited as one of the reasons for this.

The expression of lack of appreciation and reward was also an issue for academics in the Saudi university, in relation to their research and publication activities. Ten Saudi university academics reported that their frustration and indignation came from the inability to do research and attend conferences due to the increased workload, which affected their opportunities for promotion. In Saudi universities, promotions are directly related to publication activities; academics need to publish four papers, two of which must be solo-authored papers, to be promoted from assistant professor to co-professor. To be promoted from co-professor to professor, they need to publish six papers, four of which need to be solo papers (Alfasial University, 2017). Thus, research is important for career progression for academics in Saudi universities (as with most universities), which can put them under pressure to develop their academic career. As they reported:

> Increased workload affected my research efforts. I'm like in a chaos, which has made me unable to write my research and publish in order to get the promotion. This triggers frustration and indignation (Arwa, Saudi university).

> The change increased the workload to be honest; and management do not care about our personal development, which is frustrating. I'm not getting time for research or attending conferences, because of the workload, and I need to get promotion (Hajer, Saudi university).

Four other academics reflected on their experiences of studying abroad, in order to make a comparison between the time allocated to academics abroad to do research, and those at the Saudi universities. They discussed how in universities abroad, academics were allocated specific time within their weekly schedules for research, which is not the case at the Saudi university, which caused disappointment and anger. Their expectation and perception of academics was to focus on teaching and research, but what they found in reality was very different. As one of the academics expressed:

> There is an increased workload on the academic members working 16 hours per week to teach and extra hours to finish the work. This means we work 40 hours per week to teach and finish the administrative work besides other responsibilities (such as prepare new module, marking

197

exams, academic guidance, office hours, scientific committees and other work assigned to us by the competent authorities at the university). So, there is no time to do research. Academics at universities abroad are required to do eight hours of teaching, and four hours of research, which is evaluated at the end of each semester. Here we do research at the expense of our own time. I teach my own curriculum, but I want to write research on the side. Unfortunately, I do not have time, because teaching and preparing the scientific material takes all my time. I want to do research to get the promotion. The aim of the academic person is to do research. My academic job is to do research and attend conferences, or I should have worked as a teacher in governmental schools instead. So, I'm very frustrated and angry (Mai, Saudi university).

This shows that the idea of being an academic and what their job role should involve has affected responses here. Socially constructed understandings of academic roles and careers proved especially significant as academics' understanding comes through what they have learned from their culture, their colleagues and their experiences of what academic life involves, and thus in the current example, makes the desire to write and publish very strong. This may have contributed to the frustration and indignation encountered by Saudi academics who felt overwhelmed by administrative work, and less able to do research. Being an academic involves the idea of having a highly prestigious job, and being a recognised and well-known researcher, locally and worldwide. This is a commonly constructed understanding of the academic career globally, and previous research has shown that prevalence of knowledge via publishing is the reason that motivates many academics to be academics (Van Dalen and Henkens, 2012; Langer, 2017). This is one of the fundamental activities of academia, thus the quality of academics and universities are measured by the number of academic publications (Van Dalen and Henkens, 2012; Langer, 2017), further affecting promotion, tenure decisions, grants and subsidies (Van Dalen and Henkens, 2012).

Being allocated time to conduct research within the job role indicates a clear distinction between Saudi and UK universities, with the latter more directly encouraging research activities, through the allocation of research time to academics. The Saudi academics explained that such activity is regarded as the responsibility of the academic, and it is understood that they will find the time if they want to develop their career and be promoted. This is an interesting finding, as with the high competition that Saudi universities face, publication is an important activity that arguably should be encouraged, especially as it increases the university's value and

rank. As previous research has shown, the productivity of scientists and universities regarding publications and citations has become more important as the determinants of individual and organizational rewards (Walker, 2010). Making it a personal responsibility increases the pressure on the academics, leading many to face personal challenges in relation to practising their research activities, especially with increased workloads. This may cause particular difficulties for younger academics compared with older and more experienced academics who have had more chance to publish and gain promotion. This is particularly so as increased workload and doing administrative work is a more recent responsibility, and so older academics have been less affected by such an issue.

7.3.3 High Staff Turnover

High staff turnover is a secondary trigger related to the expression of lack of appreciation and rewards, and was mentioned by just the London university academics in this study. Many discussed witnessing a high level of staff turnover among academic staff over the past ten years, particularly losing 'the best people' as they referred to them, which had in turn had a major impact on their departmental culture, which no longer felt like their family at work. Seven of the academics mentioned being affected by the loss of their colleagues in this way. It was explained that many had left because they found it difficult to adjust to new changes at the university, or they did not get the promotions they applied for, or because of the lack of management support and appreciation. The academics who discussed high staff turnover described feeling a sense of bitterness that management did not look after the department's best academics, or they discussed feeling sad, disappointed or frustrated. As some academics reported:

> I did not see people leaving the university so much as much as I see now. Every now and then there is an email on somebody is leaving, probably they are unhappy about the change and the lack of management support and appreciation and that make me feel more frustrated (Hana, London university).

> The academics are not getting reward, and this is the feeling of many younger academic. This is why the university has been revolving door. They do not get them to stay, over my period of ten years, we lost more than a hundred and fifty lecturers, I can name them by heart and many of them goes to bad schools. People start to assess what is in it for me, and that makes me feel unsure about what will happen in the future. So it frustrates us (Dave, London university)

> We have lost in this last year; our department has lost at least six
> people. Six in one year, just leaving because of the lack of reward and
> appreciation. It is always good people that leave. One of our best
> people left this year and that makes you feel frustrated (Clark, London
> university).

Academics in the London university discussed having a strong bond with their group community and how they considered their colleagues to be a family. It was very difficult for some of them to witness large numbers of people leaving the university. Hodges (2016) has previously shown that sadness could be experienced by workers in organisations who witness their colleagues' departure, but the current study found that academics expressed not just sadness, but a range of negative emotions as a result of such loss, mentioning frustration, sadness and anger, with the latter relating to management's ignorance and failure to retain the expertise provided by such people. Some also mentioned emotions of fear about what will happen in the future and who they could potentially lose next.

The large numbers of academics reportedly leaving the university (discussed further in Chapter 8) may suggest that there is little emotional attachment between them and the university, which could affect their commitment to the university. Previous research has shown that employees who feel commitment to their organisations are more likely to have strong identification with its system, objectives and values and are likely to remain in it (Curtis and Wright, 2001). However, the current study had not found this kind of attachment among the academics in the London university. This may be due to the poor relationship between them and management, and the mistreatment by management, which was evidenced in most of the academics' accounts, which could lead to such a lack of attachment to their university.

Twelve academics in the London university also described a high level of turnover intention (staff planning to leave the university) which they attributed to the change process and lack of rewards and appreciation. As some of the academics expressed:

> A lot of staff are planning to leave for various reasons, which has
> frustrated us. A lot of it is related to the change process and lack of
> appreciation. We lose a lot of staff anyway, and that demotivates us to
> continue working in this place. One colleague that I spoke to on
> Friday, he is planning to leave very soon. Not with a job to go to but
> just because he is tired, he is really fed up and tired. He is being told
> that he is not good enough. He is made to feel rejected a lot, which
> make me feel sad. Another colleague, she is a senior member of the

business school but she says, "I'm sorry; I have to look for another job now". She has been a really big part of this business school, really committed and dedicated and she said she has to look for other jobs (Jane, London university).

One of the big changes that causes a bit of sadness and disappointment is we are losing really good people, because of lack of reward. The impact of the change is a lag, so people get unsettled and then it may be six months - mostly a year - and they will start moving. They will be all leaving; we are losing all the experienced people. So, we are getting lots of, sort of entry-level lecturers. They are overly good like a sponge but we are losing people that have got like more than twelve years' experience (Ivan, London university).

The huge loss of expertise from the university is a significant disadvantage to those academics who stay, who may have collaborated or been mentored by these experts, and who may feel a sense of abandonment; they have built a professional relationship with these people, and are then left behind. This can impact on morale, as shown in the current study and in previous research (Curtis and Wright, 2001). This decrease in morale was evidenced in academics' narrative when they mentioned how they feel demotivated and frustrated and uncertain about the future, which had led several of them to consider leaving the university, as will be discussed in the next chapter. This may also relate to the academics observing that the university does not retain the 'best people', or the skills and expertise. As previous research has suggested, organisations which aim to succeed need to sustain and retain their workers as they are an important and precious asset to their organisations (Harting, 2010; Tettey, 2010).

The findings also highlighted the differences between London academics' and Saudi academics' intention to leave the university as a result of the changes, as such an issue was not mentioned by the Saudi academics. Only Monera reported thinking of retiring, as she believed she had wasted her life serving the university. There are a couple of possible explanations for the difference here. One of the reasons that attract people to work in government sector in SA is the job security, which is very high compared with the private sector (Achoui and Mansour, 2007; Jehanzeb, Rasheed and Rasheed, 2013). This may make leaving less of a perceived option. Another reason might be the difficulty of finding a good job for women in SA. Families tend to prefer women working in the teaching profession and government sector because it offers the guarantee of gender segregation in the workplace; following the rules of Islam that men and women should be separated. In the private sector, on the other hand, the workplace is mixed. It may be that if the study was conducted with male

academics instead of only female academics in the Saudi university, the findings could yield different results in terms of intention to leave.

7.4 Summary

This chapter has shown how negative emotions have been triggered by various events that have occurred during change within both London and Saudi universities. These triggers could also lead to implications which act as additional triggers for negative emotions, and this allowed some distinction to be made between primary and secondary triggers. The range of triggers was similar in the accounts of academics in terms of change events. Academics in the London university, however, tended to be affected more by lack of communication about processes and outcomes, while the Saudi university academics were affected more by changes to work routine, particularly the increased workload in relation to administrative tasks. However, they were similarly affected by various events, such as the lack of consultation by management, change in the work routines and lack of appreciation and rewards.

The differences between academics are likely to be related to organisational structure, cultural differences, religion and personal career challenges. As has been shown, for instance, the lack of consultation by management was more related to the organisational structure for London university academics, however, it was associated with Arabian culture for Saudi academics. Women may have been excluded from participating in decision-making in SA, for example, as it is a male-dominated society in which the authority is allocated to men. Another example is the low intention of Saudi academics to leave compared with London academics, which may be partly explained by the fact that SA follows the rules of Islam in separating women and men in the workplace, making the education sector a more preferable job option for women amongst family and society. Such differences in terms of culture and religion have influenced the organisational setting, thus impacting on their construction of management's behaviour during change time, which in turn has affected their emotional experiences. In addition, there were some specific differences between the universities in terms of changes experienced, leading to some variation in academic emotional response. In the London university, for instance, important changes have included the TEF, REF, and the impact of Brexit on higher education institutions. For the Saudi academics, in contrast, the academic accreditation and quality assurance process was discussed, and the frustration caused by this. The next chapter will

present analysis and discussion of academics' management strategies for negative emotions.

Chapter 8: Academics' strategies for managing negative emotions

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the third research question related to the strategies that academics use to manage their negative emotions during change in London and Saudi universities. The academics described a number of strategies to manage their negative emotions, most of which appear in the literature review in some form. In the findings from the current study, it was notable that each academic in both universities had experienced university change differently, however, there were some similarities and differences in their management strategies. Recurring themes, for instance, seemed to include seeking social support, emotions regulation and planning and finding a solution. There were also differences, with only the Saudi academics mentioning the use of leisure activities or praying to manage their emotions, whereas only the London academics discussed approaches involving focusing on the work, ignoring the emotion and accepting the situation, as well as considering alternative employment.

The social constructionist approach helped to understand emotion management strategies, as culture influences norms, and this in turn could have an impact on how individuals cope in various ways (Taylor *et al.*, 2004; Glazer, 2006), thus individuals (the academics in this study) and are affected by their culture in the ways they express, supress and manage their negative emotions; with different cultures having various expectations and structures for understanding and influencing individuals' behaviours (Matsumoto, Yoo and Chung, 2010). Two key strategies seem to have been adopted by both groups of academics: changing emotions and themselves (personal strategies) or strategies which focus on changing the environment/situation (relating to circumstances) (situational strategies). Personal strategies include seeking social support; emotion regulation/hiding emotions; refocusing on the work; ignoring the emotions and accepting the situation; doing leisure activities and praying. Situational strategies include planning and finding a solution and considering

alternative employment. The ways in which academics manage their negative emotions are summarized in Table 9 and 10, (See page, 237 and 239).

8.2 Personal Strategies

Academics in London and Saudi universities both described using strategies which involved changing their emotions or themselves to be able to deal with their negative emotions. Whilst academics from both groups described personal strategies such as seeking social support, or regulating/hiding their emotions; only academics from the London university discussed also using techniques such as focusing on the work, ignoring the emotion and accepting the situation, whilst only Saudi academics discussed the use of leisure activities and praying.

8.2.1 Seeking Social Support

Supportive interactions are everywhere in people's lives (Steven *et al.,* 2009). At one time or another, everyone faces problems that lead to feelings of upset or distress (*Ibid.*). Therefore, people need to manage these difficult times, and one way that this is often achieved is through seeking advice from close friends or family. Thirteen academics in the London university and ten in the Saudi university described using such a strategy to manage their negative emotions. As two of the participants stated:

> Sharing with my family and friends, it is kind of releasing of the pressure. You find some people who support you and telling you everything will be ok. There is no need to be worry. This kind of support helps me a lot (Bolt, London University).

> I share with my friends; I feel relief when I speak with them and find an outlet. Honestly, the presence of my friends is a good outlet to overcome my negative emotions (Magi, Saudi University).

For these participants, then, talking to friends and family provided an outlet or release of pressure; the sharing of negative feelings seemed to help to reduce the negative impact on themselves. Social support means having a group of family and friends who offer strong social attachments, which allows the exchange of beneficial resources amongst family and friends (Steven *et al.,* 2009). These relationships can increase the possibility of solving the problems that a person faces (*Ibid.*). One academic believed that getting support from family is important as he can learn from

their experiences and gain wisdom and ideas to deal with his own emotions. As Dave expressed:

> I sometimes also talk to important people or family people, people that are very close, to sort of gain some wisdom from them or ideas on how to deal with it. This is some of the strategies I use which is important for me, and help me to see the problem from different angles, reduce my negative emotions and help me to solve the issue (Dave, London university).

Other academics also mentioned seeking social support from close colleagues at the workplace to reduce their negative emotions. This is not unlike experiences within other organisations, where colleagues form friendships and relationships, which provide support to employees (Sias, *et al.,* 2007). This type of support may be particularly beneficial as colleagues in the workplace are going through the same events and therefore have a better understanding of the situation. Many of the academics in the current study believed that colleagues could help them in gaining a clearer picture of exactly what is happening, by providing information and receiving feedback and support.

> I have got two close friends in work who listen to me well. I share with them my emotions, and this somewhat helps me. Talking with them is a sort of discharge of my negative emotions, as they have the same feelings and will understand what I mean better than others (Arwa, Saudi University).
>
> Colleagues help me by discussing over lunchtime and just being open about it. We discuss the pro and cons. Sometimes we laugh about what happened and how we feel about it, and sometimes we get angry. So, having people really understand what is going on in the workplace is very important as they are the people you can seek support from and help you find ways around it (Nat, London university).
>
> My colleagues supported me by giving me information. When you talk to a colleague and they give you information and they reassure you that, by saying, "Okay do not worry because actually the time is available'', "do not worry because the actual criteria are this and this", or they give you feedback and say, "you work well". So mostly it is all to put things into perspective (Jonathan, London university).

It is clear from the academics' accounts that seeking social support is considered to be a successful emotion management strategy. This supports previous research which showed that social support decreases the sadness and disappointment that is triggered by stressful events (Caspi, Bolger and Eckenrode, 1987 cited in Steven *et al.,* 2009).

In addition, in the current study, drawing on support in this way seemed to not only come from families, friends and colleagues, but also from professional support systems, where academics described using a psychiatrist to help them deal with their negative emotions, as mentioned by one academic in the London university and two in the Saudi university.

> I go to a psychiatrist. With the pressures of work and the negative emotions I feel, I could not help it. I felt I need to see the doctor, and to be honest it helped me by understanding my negative emotions and how I can overcome them (Monera, Saudi university).
>
> I go to the psychiatrist when I cannot deal with my negative emotions. Just talking with someone helps me a lot to deal with my negative emotions (Samar, Saudi university).
>
> If I get overwhelmed by my negative emotions, I talk to my psychiatrist; complain to her. It helps me in feeling better and to overcome them (Vicky, London university).

What was surprising in this finding, even with the small number here, is the inclusion of the two Saudi female academics. In contrast to the UK, in Saudi society, there is a general negative association with visiting a psychiatrist, being considered for those who are 'crazy' or have a mental illness. This idea is deeply rooted in Saudi culture, and for many families, it would be considered a scandal if one of their members visited the psychiatrist and other people knew about this (such as a neighbour or close relative) (Albrahim, 2011). In the UK, with the growth of the disability movement, there has been increasing acceptance of mental illness and acknowledgement of the need to provide support to mental health service users. Unlike in Saudi universities, this kind of support is even available within the UK academic institutions, to support individual employees. Therefore, the researcher considered the two Saudi academics to be particularly brave and confident in sharing this. It perhaps reflected their professionalism, understanding of their rights and their way of thinking, and underlined the importance of not associating shame with this.

The findings indicated, then, that the level of 'collegial social support' at London and Saudi universities may be high. This is consistent with previous research, which showed that social relationships with colleagues were considered an important aspect of social and emotional support (Zembylas and Papanastasiou, 2006), particularly in helping to reduce stress (Kinman, Wray and Strange, 2011), and depression

(Boyteyre, Maurel, and Bernaud, 2007). The current research showed that close colleagues were not the only source of emotional support for the academic staff, however, with family and friends being cited as important, as well as the professional support provided by psychiatrists. This use of social support as a strategy has been used by London academics to manage a range of negative emotions such as frustration, anger, confusion, disappointment, anxiety, worry and sadness, whilst Saudi academics reported using it to manage frustration, anger, sadness, confusion and indignation.

Moreover, Saudi academics and the two London academics who were originally from collectivist cultures sought social support from others, which seemingly contradicts the idea that people from collectivist cultures avoid seeking social support to prevent burdening others and losing face (Mesquita, 2001; Taylor *et al.*, 2004; Kim, Sherman and Taylor, 2008) . On the other hand, as Saudi culture is based on Islam, which encourages helping and supporting others, it may be that religion plays an important role here in influencing the use of such a strategy. The two academics who work in the London university and described using this strategy were Muslim too, which provides some support for this claim here.

The findings also showed that female academics sought social support more than males in this study. This finding supports research into the quality of life in psychiatric patients, which showed that women were more likely to seek social support from friends compared with men (Sharir *et al.,* 2007). One possible explanation put forward is that women are more emotional than men, or perhaps more willing to share their emotions with others (Tam and Lim, 2009), which encourages them to seek social support from others. In addition, it is suggested that men may be performing according to specific social expectations, where sharing emotions may be perceived as weakness (*Ibid.*). Thus, seeking social support from others may be less likely (*Ibid*.). It may also have been, however, that the males in the study did not share their experiences of seeking social support from others, for similar reasons as outlined above. Alternatively, the small number of males in the study might simply have not accurately reflected the situation for males. It might be expected, for instance, particularly within the UK context, that acceptance around expressing emotions is more acceptable, for both males and females.

8.2.2 Emotion Regulation: Hiding Emotions

Emotion regulation from a social constructionist point of view is known as:

> The sequence of transactional emotion episodes within a social event or scene, where the unit of analysis is not a lone person but a person in the context of other people who are mutually influencing one another within the bounds of a social episode (Gross and Barrett, 2011, p. 7).

The findings from the current study showed the efforts that academics made to control their negative emotions, as well as having to exhibit false emotions to meet the social norms of the workplace. Both groups of academics, for instance, talked about how they suppressed their negative emotions to show a more professional image. They were conscious that specific emotional displays (positive) are appropriate within the university and others are not (negative); this, in turn, affected their emotional experiences. Controlling their negative emotions was experienced as stressful and emotionally demanding. Ten academics in the London university and eight in the Saudi university agreed that they could not show their negative emotions at work, particularly to the management. As some of them reported:

> I do not think there are people here showing their emotions. People feel stressed. When we come to work we just have to hide it (Jill, London university).

> I hide it well. I try to control my anger and keep it inside me, particularly at work as it is not preferred to show your negative emotions, it is hard. So, if the university offered us some training courses in emotional intelligence, it will be better as there were other academics who do not know how to control their emotions (Feda, Saudi University).

Academics showed that they are regulating their feelings and expressions of negative emotions to fulfil the emotional requirements of their jobs, which is known as emotional labour (Morris and Feldman, 1996). In the workplace, employees are expected to manage their emotions during their interaction with customers, colleagues and managers, and that is what the academics in the current study seemed to have been doing. As they feel that negative emotions are not welcomed at work, it followed that they considered managers to be unsupportive. It was believed that they should act professionally and protect their image, thus making the use of this strategy harder for them.

> For me it is a must, you cannot show all of your feelings within a professional space, unfortunately. Many people in management are

threatened by negative emotions from employees for different reasons. All kinds of things they see as an affront to the authority. So, I believe you should be professional. I wish I could talk (Dave, London university).

You have to hide them unfortunately. You have to present your own professional image. I think that is just being professional. Do not show your negative feelings to others. If you have negative feelings just deal with it on your own. Keeping the image there at the moment (Luna, Saudi university).

Academics believed that at work they should only express positive emotions because expressing negative emotions could affect their work, and that is why they should deal with them carefully. As academia is considered to be like other service providers (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004), staff need to follow the university rules and show favourable emotional expression to be aligned with organisation anticipation (Bellas, 1999; Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). On the other hand, in recent years, especially within the UK context, expression of emotions has become increasingly acceptable for males, with, for example, the notion of the 'metro sexual' male, and generally accepted characteristics of males as 'softer' and more sensitive (Masi de Casanova, Wetzel and Speice, 2016). It may be, then, that it is the academic environment more specifically, which restricts the men from feeling that they can express themselves. One possible explanation for such actions is that by showing positive emotions they will be seen more favourably by the university, which could help them with their career development and productivity. However, only two London academics mentioned that they mask their emotions to get what they want from management. As some of them stated:

I manage by hiding them because I need to play political games with some of the managers in order to get things that I think are needed for my courses. I have to make out that everything is wonderful even if it is not, because otherwise I would be seen in a negative light by my managers and that does not help (Controller, London university).

At work I deal with it by not showing my negative emotions. In front of my line manager, I have to be like I'm appreciating the work I have been given. Because you see the market outside is so competitive and nowadays, it is so hard to find jobs. So, yes I'm controlling my negative emotions, that are why I'm still here (Hana, London university).

Academics encounter daily face-to-face interaction with students, colleagues, the general public and administrators (Bellas, 1999), requiring them to be more aware and

effective at managing their emotions. Most academics in this study showed that managing their negative emotions by hiding and controlling them in the workplace was forced on them by the work role. However, some academics in both London and Saudi universities reported that they hide their negative emotions to protect their students.

> I hide my emotions when I am facing my students. So, if I have some negative emotion about something going in the university, I never reflect that to my students (Max, London university).

> If you do not show emotions, it is very difficult to communicate to them that you are willing to support them, and whether you really feel positive or not, you still need to show that positive vibe (Rana, Saudi university).

These quotations provide further evidence of the emotional intelligence of the academics, which helps them to deal professionally with their negative emotions. By shielding their students from their negative emotional reactions to change, they are able to make the teaching experience a positive one for their students. Other academics in the London and Saudi universities also mentioned the impact of having to exhibit false emotions to other people and described how hiding their negative emotions and not being able to express them made them feel. Some described feeling frustrated, stressed and dishonest with themselves, as they felt that they could not express themselves. Others felt like actors and false to themselves. As some of the academics reported:

> By hiding them I feel false, I feel like an actress, feel like a liar, not true to myself. It makes me feel horrible and feel very sad. I find myself having to be dishonest and lying in order to be able to have a reasonable working life (Constroller, London university).

> When I hid them, I got nervous and stressed, and that is not good as it could affect my health. Having emotional intelligence courses I think will help us to better know how to deal with our emotions, as believe me it is very hard to control (Mai, Saudi University).

Such findings support previous research which indicates that hiding negative emotions or feigning positive emotions can result in lowered perceptions of self-legitimacy or genuineness (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Simpson and Stroh, 2004), which in turn generated depressed moods and stress (Erickson and Wharton, 1997; Gross and John, 2003). It has been argued that suppression of genuine emotions can

result in emotional discord, which can lead to conflict between behaviour and self-concept (Harmon-Jones and Mills, 1999), which appeared to be the case in the accounts of the academics above.

Research indicates that expression of genuinely felt positive emotions is beneficial to individuals (Hülsheger and Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, and Wax, 2012), and this was supported in the current research where academics who reported expressing inauthentic positive emotions described feeling unsatisfied with themselves, and subsequently emotionally exhausted. As one academic explained:

> I do not enjoy my job anymore, I do not enjoy work anymore. I do not enjoy coming to work anymore. Wearing masks all day and showing that you are happy and you are not is not good at all. I feel stressed, tired, bored and have no energy do this anymore. It is affecting my health, now I have taking more time off from the work. I do not care as before, really.   Why I care if they do not care (Jane, London university).

Lack of honesty with oneself could therefore seemingly affect the health and the wellbeing of individual. Schaubroeck and Jones (2000) previously found that the requirement to act positively at work was linked to somatic symptoms and that may relate to the discrepancy between true feelings and its expression (Mesmer-Magnus DeChurch, and Wax 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller *et al*., 2013). In addition, research has shown that performing emotional labour can have a harmful influence on job satisfaction, health cost and lead to job burnout (Hülsheger and Schewe, 2011; Diefendorff, and Rupp, 2013; Grandey and Gabriel, 2015). In addition, people who hide their negative emotions have been shown to exhibit lower self-esteem, to be dissatisfied with their lives, and show more propensity to be depressed (Gross and John, 2003).

In the current study, dissatisfaction was expressed by several academics through the desire to leave their job; particularly amongst the London academics (see 206 and 234 for more details). Academics generally tend to be dissatisfied with their work and more with their senior managers; this was evident amongst Australian academics as they ranked the second lowest job satisfaction scores among eighteen different countries in a changing academics profession survey. However, the Australian academics were more satisfied than UK academics (Coates *et al.,* 2009). Another study found that academics in Australia and UK had a negative attitude towards their

university management (Coates *et al.,* 2010), and this continued to impact on the UK academics in this study, and even with Saudi academics. This suggests that it could be a global issue with university management, and the way they treat academics has led to such negative attitude. One possible explanation could be that academics linked their satisfaction of their work to the way the change in the higher education impacted on the quality of education; with universities becoming more marketized and focused on managerialism than the education system itself. Therefore, this negative attitude towards management may lead to long-term negative consequences for academics in particular and the university in general.

In contrast to the previous literature on hiding negative emotions, in the current study, it was also indicated by four academics (three in the Saudi university and one in the London university) that they felt empowered and happy by their ability to control and hide their negative emotions. Controlling their negative emotions gave them the confidence to feel that they could address their problems; they felt responsible, positive and powerful, suggesting that hiding emotions could be beneficial in certain situations for dealing with negative emotions. As they stated:

> When I manage my negative emotions I feel empowered. I feel like I can basically solve the problem. So, the negative emotion is only a minor thing (Jonathan, London university).

> I feel happy when I control my negative emotions. I feel more confident that nothing can affect me (Feda, Saudi university).

> I feel like a responsible person when I control my negative emotions. Work has different situations that could trigger my negative emotions, but I try to hide, and when I do I feel positive and powerful (Maraia, Saudi university).

One possible explanation could be that in Saudi culture, people are expected to act closely in accordance with emotional rules shaped by social norms and religion (Bell and Shoaib, 2014), as the religion of Islam encourages people to control their negative emotions in order to not harm others, and places strong emphasis on the expression of positive emotion (Watts, 1996). This has been noted amongst the Saudi academics in the current study. Another explanation could be, however, that those academics may desire to protect their professional image in front of others, as they may be worried about how other people in work perceive them and that may impact on their self-confidence. This has been highlighted in previous research which showed that people

sometimes display fake emotions to transfer a certain image or to avert an unpleasant response from other people, or to protect their self-esteem (De Greeff *et al.,* 2009). Sloan (2007) found that suppressing negative emotions and showing positive ones is beneficial in presenting people as more friendly and increases their popularity, which is sometimes desirable in the workplace in order to prevent feeling isolated and lonely.

Making exceptional efforts to meet social, occupational and organizational expectations was noted by several academics in both universities. Ten London academics explained that they felt they were able to control emotions including anxiety, worry, anger, frustration, sadness, unhappiness and disappointment, whilst eight Saudi academics indicated that they felt able to control their confusion, indignation, sadness, disappointment, fear, frustration and anger. Thus, there were some suggestions that academics felt able to regulate a range of negative emotions and to perform emotional intelligence skills professionally. Looking at the differences between the cultures, it seemed that approximately half of both groups of academics were aware of the need to regulate their emotions in their work environment. However, for those academics who were not using such a strategy, it may be possible that they were using other strategies more powerful at controlling their expression of negative emotions. Another explanation could be that they were unaware of such norms and expectations around workplace emotions, which may demonstrate a lack of skills in controlling their emotions. For example, some Saudi academics stated that they felt they would benefit from the university providing them with emotional intelligence training to learn how to manage their emotions in the work environment, which may indicate that they felt they were lacking in such abilities. It may be that such a response was not received from the UK academics as there is more general provision, mentoring and psychiatric support available within the UK universities than in the Saudi contexts.

For those academics who described feeling able to control their emotions, there was more awareness of social roles in terms of emotional expression rules, and they were therefore able to manage their emotions to follow such rules, supporting previous research (Thoits, 1996; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). There was an awareness of unwritten guidelines that directed academics' emotional expressions in certain situations, and as a result, they knew they had to prevent particular emotions from surfacing, by suppressing them or displaying more socially appropriate emotions.

Again, such insights were in line with the findings in previous research (Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006) which found that employees were required to follow their work display rules and only show acceptable emotions. There was also some indication that the academics in the current research felt that surface and deep acting techniques were important when dealing with change events in the university, in particular, when dealing with line managers and students, which supports previous research that found employees regularly fake their emotions, as they feel compelled to show positive emotions to maintain social order (Bolton, 2009).

Previous research shows that females are more likely than males to manage their emotions at work and home, engaging more in hiding authentic emotions (Wharton and Erickson, 1993; Kruml and Geddes, 1998) and thus being more likely to experience a high level of stress than men (*Ibid*.). In the current research, whilst it was difficult to make reliable comparisons between gender based on the sample, it was interesting to note that women used emotion regulation strategies more than men (three men to fourteen women). In addition, emotional dissonance was demonstrated more amongst the females in the current study than in the males, which seemed to occur when they hid their authentic emotions. It was unclear from the findings whether the males experienced emotional dissonance, and as shown in Dave's comments earlier, it may be that males would express their emotions more if they felt they could, although it may also suggest that males did not experience this inconsistency of emotions. Timmers, Fischer and Manstead (1998) suggested that women and men may regulate their emotions differently, due to differing motivations. For example, females may regulate their emotions in a particular way due to fear of affecting their career development, while males may be more stimulated to demonstrate control and show powerful emotions such as pride or anger (*Ibid*.).

8.2.3   Re-focusing

One finding from the current research which does not appear to have been previously documented in existing research is that some academics use re-focusing on their work as a strategy for managing their emotions, with men using such a technique more than women (three to one) and all being from the London University. Those academics who use this strategy described it as a way to manage worry anxiety, confusion, anger, frustration and sadness emotions. They felt that immersing themselves in their work was helpful for overcoming and controlling emotions. It was evident that these academics were not necessarily trying to solve the problem, but rather were avoiding thinking about it by engaging with their work, or distracting themselves, often believing there was nothing that could be done to solve it. So rather than changing the situation, they tried to change their emotions and themselves to be able to overcome these emotions:

> Be focused and do my work. Not get distracted based on these emotions or any other. I keep focusing on the work, write papers, and deliver my work and that is enough for me to manage my negative emotions (Jill, London university).

It appears, then, that by immersing themselves in their work to achieve the desired outcomes they have control over (such as good teaching, writing a good paper, completing projects) was the best option for those academics who are looking for their intrinsic rewards. It could also be argued that such a strategy could be considered a personal solution to the problem, through developing themselves by focusing on publications and their curriculum vitae, although this is not necessarily finding a solution to the situation. In some ways, this is congruent with research by Mesquita, (2001) and Chun, Moos and Cronkite (2006), who found that in individualistic cultures, people tend to overcome their emotions and stressful situations by finding a solution to the problem, not avoiding it, and in this case, the solution appears to be personal development.

8.2.4 Ignore the Emotions and Accept the Situation

Eight of the academics in the London university reported ignoring their emotions and accepting the situation as an approach to managing their negative emotions. It is interesting to note that none of Saudi academics described using this strategy, and there was an even number of males and females using this strategy. Those academics try to ignore their emotions and managers' decisions and 'distance' themselves,

without displaying any attempt to change these decisions. These academics felt that they had nothing they could do with regard to the change in the university. This arguably made them 'deny' their emotions and 'resign' from the way they truly feel, thus accepting the situation, which supports previous research (Schantz and Bruk-Lee, 2016). Academics seemed to be disconnected from the work they provide and the students' continuous knowledge, and they became estranged from their own emotions.

> I understand that I should let it go because there is nothing I can do about it. There is nothing I can do to change the situation or affect the decisions taken by top management. So I just have to live with that (Nat, London university).

> If you think about it, it just winds you up more so you just ignore it. If you cannot do anything about something, you have to stop worrying about it (Clark, London university).

These results so far suggest that some academic staff feel that they are dealing reasonably well with the organizational change, by reaching the point of being able to ignore their emotions, as they believed there was nothing that could be done to change the situation. Their strategy varied from attempts to ignore the emotion or the situation, to stop caring about anything related to the job, to 'shelve' everything, and engage more in personal lives. This could be a result of employees feeling that they do not have control over things that happen at work, or past experience where their actions or opinions have been ignored. Thus, accepting the situation is a form of survival, which allows them to continue working in the sector. In contrast, other staff members who cannot accept and adapt, may stay and become less committed to the organization (due to bitterness), or they may leave the organization all together. This is not to suggest that all staff members should accept the situation/changes, rather it might be the more preferable strategy to adopt for their positive physical and mental health. Looking at cultural characteristics, this finding contrasts with previous research which shows that people from individualistic cultures are more likely to change the situation and environment they are in rather than accept it (Mesquita, 2001; Chun, Moos and Cronkite, 2006), which was not evidenced in the current research for the London academics who used this strategy.

At the same time, it could be suggested that such a strategy is likely to have long-term consequences for the individual and that it may instead reflect a short-term strategy

for those academics who discussed this. It was unclear, for instance, whether this might have been part of a future plan for the academics, where they intended to eventually leave the institution, and so in the short-term, they chose to accept the situation. It may also have been, however, that with university policies and strategies constantly changing over the years, the academics have accepted these constant shifts and adopted such a strategy to deal with this.

8.2.5 Doing Leisure Activities

Previous research has shown that leisure activities offer people opportunities to enhance and sustain their physical, cognitive, emotional and social well-being (Castelli, 2010); that walking and working out at a gym help some women to feel good (Iwasaki, MacKay and Mactavish, 2005; Iqbal and Kokash, 2011); and that travel and getting away from it all can reduce stress (Iso-Ahola, 1983 as cited by Iwasaki, MacKay and Mactavish, 2005), which has been notable and supported by the finding of the current study. Thirteen academics in the Saudi university reported doing different leisure activities to help them to manage their negative emotions. The specific strategies mentioned are also considered effective/recommended stress management techniques, as they help academics to take their minds off their negative emotions, and promote positive emotional states through leisure activities such as reading, writing, exercise, and travel. It is a positive finding that so many academics found the time to prioritise leisure activities for their health, wellbeing and enjoyment, despite suffering such heavy work schedules.

8.2.5.1 Reading

Reading has been found to have a major impact on lowering the level of stress amongst some groups, such as university students (Rizzolo, *et al*., 2009), which is consistent with the findings of this study in relation to employees, as some Saudi academics described reading as a way to deal with their negative emotions. When they felt indignation, sadness or frustration, they described reading to learn about how to deal with them. They also described generally reading for pleasure to deal with negative emotions, to develop themselves and feel better. As some academics expressed:

> When I feel indignation, I resort to reading books and learning more about how to deal with my negative emotions. I read basically in different developmental areas. So, I know how to deal with my

emotions and I can set my goals and develop myself to achieve these goals (Noor, Saudi university).

Reading is my favourite hobby, and when I have negative emotions because of what is happening at work, I grab a book and read, and I try to educate myself by reading about how to deal with negative emotions and difficult situations at my workplace (Hana, Saudi university).

Reading is considering to be a way of distracting and engaging the self in other enjoyable activities, as a way of avoiding thinking of the stressful situation (Allen and Leary, 2010). It is also considered to be a passive coping strategy as the people deal with the situation without directly facing it (*Ibid.*). The finding of this study is supported by Benson (2000), who found that teachers who successfully manage their stress reported reading motivational material as a way to reduce their stress. This suggests that reading is a beneficial management strategy as it helps academics in this study to overcome their negative emotions as well.

8.2.5.2 Writing

Writing is another strategy that Saudi academics used to manage their negative emotions. Expressive writing has been found to influence mood positively (Smyth, Hockemeyer and Tolloch, 2008), to enhance physical outcomes and to reduce anxiety and stress (Frisina, Borod, Lepore, 2004). It helps clear thought and improves feelings, which has been considered beneficial within emotional therapy, where students who write dairies about emotional events have been found to rarely visited their physician (Pennebaker, 1997). It may be that these benefits are experienced by some of the academics in the current study, as several Saudi academics described using writing as way to manage their negative emotions. For example, one academic described writing everything down and then tearing up the paper; others discussed writing their plans and goals, or documenting thoughts in diaries or social media. As some academics reported:

I deal by writing. I write and then tear it up. I know it sounds strange, but it helps me. I write with beautiful handwriting to feel good and have support. So, I think my first outlet to deal with my negative emotions is writing (Magi, Saudi university).

Writing is one of the ways which I use to deal with my negative emotions. I have a blog which I write and express and share my negative emotional experience with others, and also I write on social media as well (Samar, Saudi university).

> I have a diary. So, I write what happens in my day. That helps me to express my negative emotions in writing, thinking again of what happened, how I responded, and learning from my mistakes, and my experience, to know how to deal with them in the future (Nora, Saudi university).

It was interesting to see that one of the Saudi academics used blogs and social media as a way to vent her emotions and share them with others. This might also be considered another form of support, through potentially seeking responses or advice in how to deal with such situations. This seemed to contrast with research which suggests that bloggers were more anxious, depressed and stressed than non-bloggers (Baker and Moor, 2008). It is difficult to draw strong conclusions from such a small sample here, however, and thus further research would be beneficial here for investigating the impact of blogging and social media (such as Twitter) on reducing stress and negative emotions amongst employees in general, and university academics specifically.

8.2.5.3 Exercise

Research has shown that doing exercise in daily lives can be a positive experience which can assist in dealing with emotional problems (Salmon, 2001), and can enhance mood and reduce anxiety (Gaurin, Rejeski and Norris, 1996). In the findings of the current study, several Saudi academics were aware of the benefit of exercising and doing sporting activities as a way of dealing with their negative emotions, which supported previous studies. As they stated:

> I deal by doing some activities such as swimming and walking, which helps me to relax and overcome my negative emotions. I consider it as a kind of relaxation (Lulu, Saudi university).

> I go to the gym, as I used to do that when I was studying abroad to reduce my stress. It helped me a lot so, I make it now a part of my everyday life (Mai, Saudi university).

Such awareness may have emerged as a result of the more recent changes to Saudi culture, where education and health ministries now encourage women to be aware of their health and to see how exercise can be used to enhance their health and wellbeing (Human Rights Watch [HRW], 2016). Due to this change, women have now been allowed to open women-only gyms, which were not previously permitted (*Ibid*). This has perhaps encouraged and motivated women to take more care of their wellbeing,

through exercise, as they now have places where they can practise sport activities freely.

8.2.5.4 Travel

Another leisure activity described as a way of dealing with or overcoming the negative emotions felt by the Saudi academics was travelling. They mentioned that they use travel as a strategy to refresh their mind, relax and forget about their negative emotions. Some of the academics stated:

> Another way to manage my negative emotions is by travelling. If I get a chance and I have a short holiday, I travel and it helps me to refresh my mind and overcome my negative emotions. Last year I have been overloaded by a lot of work which make me depressed as I want to write a paper but I could not because the lack of time. I decide to travel in the upcoming weekend to sea side and it was really helpful. I returned to the work with better mood and even I have started write the paper I want to publish (Mai, Saudi university).

> I love travel. I enjoy myself when I travel. It helps me to forget everything and have positive energy. So, when I have negative emotions and get overwhelmed by them, I just travel and enjoy myself and not think about anything related to work (Dana, Saudi university).

When individuals experience stress, the body responds with a kind of 'fight or flight' reaction (Richards, 2012). Therefore, practicing relaxation methods can enhance relaxation here, in which breathing is slowed and pulse rate and blood pressure are reduced. Previous research has shown that relaxation is beneficial in increasing energy, fighting illness, increasing problem-solving ability, and enhancing productivity and motivation (Segal 2012). Forms of relaxation vary for individuals, but generally include activities carried out at a calm place, where it is possible to release stress (Richards, 2012). These might include, for instance, massage therapy, yoga, or walking. In the current study, academics described doing leisure activities, such as travel, reading, writing and exercising, as a way of relaxing.

It is interesting to note that only the Saudi academics described doing leisure activities including reading, writing, exercise and travel to manage their anger, confusion, frustration, sadness, indignation, and anxiety. In contrast, the London academics did not mention such a strategy. This may be because the lifestyle of the London academics already includes these activities as part of their daily lives, compared with Saudi academics. In SA, few people engage in such activities, but with the current

changes to the culture, more people are educated and aware of how to deal with different issues in their lives. They are more aware of their health and try to adopt new lifestyles that can reduce their stress and keep them positive. Travel is one of these options, as due to the shortage of basic entertainment and leisure facilities available in Saudi culture, people are more motivated to travel abroad to relax and enjoy different activities (AlDosari, 2016). For example, they can travel long distances simply to watch a movie or attend a concert (*Ibid.*).

Saudi academics reported that using this strategy helped them to reduce their negative emotions, for example, reading can help to educate them in how to manage their emotions, and by using other activities they can take their minds off their concerns and promote positive emotional states which reduce negative feelings. It was clear that Saudi academics are using more positive emotion management strategies as they found time to prioritise leisure activities for their health, wellbeing, and enjoyment, despite suffering such heavy work schedules. It may be, however, as mentioned earlier, that the London academics already use exercise within their daily lives, but may not have explicitly discussed them as ways of managing their emotions within the interviews. The findings seemed to support the notion, however, that people in collectivist cultures tend to change themselves rather than the environment and rely on emotions focused strategies (Chun, Moos and Cronkite, 2006).

8.2.6 Praying

Praying and asking God for support was mentioned by only four academics, all from SA, as helping them to deal with their negative emotions. They believed that praying makes them feel more relieved and better, as God will help and support them to overcome their difficulties. Religious activities play an important role in helping people to understand the meaning behind stressful events, undesired results and pain (Aflakseir and Mahdiyar, 2016). Such findings support previous research which showed that praying was used as a way of reducing stress amongst some teachers (Benson, 2000). Furthermore, Tull (2010) suggests that mindfulness can be beneficial for reducing anxiety and depression, and perhaps praying plays a similar role here, through allowing the academics to engage and meditate through talking to God and asking for support. As some of the academics expressed:

> I pray and ask my God to support me. This is my way to deal with negative emotions; I fell peaceful and calm when I do that (Magi, Saudi University).

> When I have these negative emotions, I begin to satisfy myself, pray and ask Allah (God). I get satisfied that it is predestined, and it may be a test from Allah to write me something better (Rana, Saudi University).

Coming from a highly religious culture, such as SA, it was expected that more Saudi academics would use praying as a strategy to manage their emotions. This may relate to the recent changes that have been taking place in SA, as discussed above, which may have impacted on the ways in which individuals display their religious commitment (Tekke *et al.,* 2015). As each religion is interpreted and performed in a cultural framework (Tarakeshwar, Stanton, and Pargament, 2003), such changes may therefore have affected religious practice here. The few Saudi academics who described using this strategy believed that praying provides relief, as they felt that God will help and support them to overcome their difficulties. They described using this strategy to manage their feelings of indignation, frustration, anxiety, sadness, anger and confusion. Previous research has shown that women often use prayer and spirituality as a means of mitigating stress (Iwasaki, MacKay and Mactavish, 2005; Aflakseir and Mahdiyar, 2016), especially women in more collectivist, religious cultures (Chai *et al.*, 2012) , showing similarities with the findings of this study.

In terms of leisure activities, then, there seems to be a range of strategies used by academics here, that perhaps reflect general strategies used by employees in a range of different organisations. It may be, however, that activities such as reading and writing are more common for the academic population, as these may be considered second nature to employees within the academic environment. Travel may also be regarded in this way, where this is more of an expectation for academics through conferences, self-publication and networking, for instance. It was notable, however, that travel was mentioned more often by the Saudi academic as a way of managing or recovering from emotions. It is possible that with the UK academics being more likely to travel as part of their work (something which was less frequent for the Saudi academics due to limited time for publication, research and conferences in comparison to UK academics), the Saudi academics would mention this more as a strategy in this way.

8.3 Situational Strategies

Academics in London and Saudi universities also described using strategies which involved changing the situation they were in to help them to manage their negative emotions. Whilst academics from both groups of academics described the 'planning and finding a solution' strategy, other situational strategies for dealing with negative emotions, such as consideration of alternative employment, were discussed by only the London academics.

8.3.1 Planning and Finding a Solution

Several Saudi and London academics described using this strategy as they expected that management would not present a solution. They came to regard negative emotions a 'normal' part of the job, and felt that this would be the same if they moved to any other job. Thus, it seems that these academics have reduced their expectations that an individual has a right to be happy and satisfied at work. For these academics, dissatisfaction has become the norm; they have become used to the negative emotions. As they do not rely on management, or their department/unit, they are looking to themselves to independently find a solution. They used reflection to identify the sources of their frustration and the problem, then identified methods to resolve and proactively deal with them. This could be a way of cognitively appraising the situation that leads to their negative emotions, and seeing how this can affect their achieving their goals and making a plan. Some mentioned they should act as professional workers and resolve their emotions without expecting anyone to help them. As some of them expressed:

> It is just assessing the situation, and then assessing the method. Of course, I have to assess myself. In the event that it came from me, I have to correct it. If it comes from another party, I have to talk to the other party. I try to see what is the situation is, I try to resolve it but to take myself out and keep myself busy in the work, but I really face it (Hopeful, London university).

> My strategy to deal with negative emotions is, I think I just have to sit down and find my own solutions. You are meant to be a professional so you have to resolve that. You reflect and you try to make plans. There is nothing much you can really do (Erik, London university).

> I dealt with sadness emotions by thinking of them and how they affected my home and my personality. So, I think and try to understand my emotions, the reason for this feeling and plan to not get affected by them and how to manage them (Hana, Saudi university).

Planning and focusing on a solution is considered to be a positive approach to managing negative emotions. Saudi academics explained that they tried to overcome their negative emotions by reflecting, understanding and making plans to manage their confusion, sadness, frustration, indignation, anxiety, anger, and fear, while London academics discussed using this approach to manage frustration, worry, anxiety, anger, confusion, sadness and disappointment.

For the Saudi academics, such a finding seems to contrast with previous research which indicates that in collectivist cultures individuals use more emotion-focused strategies, than problem-focused strategies, which relies on changing themselves rather than the environment there are in (Chun, Moos and Cronkite, 2006). This might explain, however, why only a few Saudi academics described using this strategy. In individualistic cultures, there is a tendency to rely more on problem-focused strategies to manage emotions (Chun, Moos and Cronkite, 2006) as individuals aim to change the environment and the conditions they are in to meet their personal needs (Lam and Zane, 2004; Kuo, 2011). This was not strongly supported in the current research as whilst some London university academics addressed the environment as a way of dealing with their emotions, the numbers here were relatively small, and they were more likely to mention more personal strategies. Nonetheless, the interviews showed that several academics were aware of the benefit of using this type of strategy for managing negative emotions and reducing their stress, which has been previously noted in research by Montero-Marin *et al.* (2014), who found that university employees who use planning as a management strategy have lower levels of burnout.

It is interesting to note that women used this strategy more than men (seven to four respectively). This finding contrasts with previous studies that found females to be more likely to use strategies that changed their emotional reaction to stressful events, while males are more likely to use problem-focused or instrumental methods to control their stressful experience (Ptacek *et al.,* 1994; Matud, 2004). It is difficult to clarify these findings with the current study's results, however, due to the uneven balance of males and females in the latter. Nonetheless, it could be argued that with women increasingly engaging in higher, more powerful positions in the workplace, they are required to adjust the ways that they express their emotions and manage

them. On the other hand, research has also indicated that both males and females used emotions-focused coping more than problem-focused coping (Brougham *et al*., 2009). It may be, then, that expression of emotions is becoming increasingly acceptable in contemporary society, with increasing awareness around mental health issues and the needs of the worker, however, the organisations involved in the current study did not seem to reflect such modern values and ideals, instead representing more traditional expectations around emotions.

8.3.2 Considering Alternative Employment

Another situational strategy mentioned by the academics – although only by the London academics – was looking for another job and better opportunity. This action was regarded by these academics as a strategy for managing their negative emotions, as they felt that the current workplace was not making them happy anymore, which they found very difficult, and so this had led to plans to leave:

> I do not feel as happy at this organization as before, so I started looking for another job to have better opportunities (Bolt, London university).

> Honestly I'm here but I am looking for other places. If I will have the chance to have something better, I will leave because it is not easy for me, and it is not the best place to live and work (Jill, London university).

> I keep my eye and mind fixed on dealing with the things that I need to deal with, that's how I cope now, then I look around for another job and leave (Clark, London university).

> If I was mobile with my career and I could work anywhere, I think I would definitely be trying to leave (Jane, London university).

These academics believed that the management strategy and mistreatment is a big contributor to the unhealthy work environment that triggered their negative emotions. Therefore, leaving the place that triggered those emotions seems to them to be an appropriate strategy for managing their sadness, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, and confusion. Five of the female academics, compared to two males in the London university, explained that they were looking for another job. This finding contrasts with previous research that found women working in a private hospital were more likely to be committed to the organisation and have lower intention to leave than men (Sökmen and Ekmekçioğlu, 2016). However, due to the small number of female

academics that participated from the London university, the researcher cannot generalize such findings. Perhaps it does highlight, however, that further research which examines university academics' intention to find alternative employment may provide important insights here.

In addition, previous research has indicated that employees may consider leaving their place of employment when they are not able to reduce their stress due to increased workload (Kinman, Jones and Kinman, 2006; Darabi, Macaskill and Reidy, 2017). Thus, such an approach is about escaping from the situation by thinking of leaving (and may not result in actually leaving), and as such, is a personal strategy. However, people from individualistic culture reportedly rarely use such approaches as they tend to be more motivated to control the environment and try to approach the problem and solve it (Chun, Moos and Cronkite, 2006), which does not appear to be supported by the current study's findings.

Moreover, there are important cultural differences worth noting here. In the UK, academics are more mobile to move from one university to another, compared with Saudi academics (and particularly women), which may explain why considering leaving employment emerged as an issue for the London and not Saudi academics. In SA, transportation can present a challenge for women, as they need to hire a chauffeur or close relative to drive them to work (Bike, 2004). Even now, with the removal of the ban on women driving (Chulov, 2017; Chulov and al-Faour 2017), not all families allow their daughters or wives to drive. As SA is considered a religious country, there is little degree of freedom for women when it comes to travel (Hamdan, 2005), as Islam dictates that women should not travel without a male member of the family. Such travel limitations can hinder their ability to change their work, which may influence their decision to stay and work for the same university, or to work until they retire, rather than choose to leave their job, which is very rare. Therefore, Saudi female academics might encounter less freedom compared with the London university academics, due to restrictive religious expectations.

It is also worth noting that in SA, there are large distances between universities in one city, which may also make it difficult for female academics to move from one university to another, as changing the university could increase the burden on women. In SA, families prefer women to secure a job close to her house and her children's

schools. Working a long distance from home, or in another city is therefore not a favourable option for a lot of families, which might also impact on female workers' opportunities to change their work circumstances. Thus, for such reasons the majority of the Saudi academics do not consider changing to another university as a strategy to overcome their negative emotions.

8.4 Summary

This chapter has shown that London and Saudi academics use a range of different techniques to manage their negative emotions. Strategies involved those focusing on changing the emotions and the individual (personal strategies), and those focusing on changing the situations (situational strategies). Academics in both universities were more reliant on personal strategies than situational strategies for dealing with their negative emotions. Furthermore, seeking social support was the most common strategy used by academics from both groups, particularly for women, followed by emotion regulation, and planning and finding a solution. There were also notable differences, however, with only Saudi academics discussing the use of strategies involving leisure activities and praying, and only the London academics referring to distraction techniques, or ignoring the emotions and accepting the situation. As shown, such differences are arguably affected by cultural and religious factors.

Table 9: The strategies that Academics in London University Used to Manage their Negative Emotions

Negative Emotions Experienced	Mechanisms of emotions management (strategies used) Personal strategies	Associated meanings	Alias,	Quotation
Confusion, anger, frustration, sadness, boredom, disappointment, anxiety, worry,	**Seeking social support**	Seeking intimate people to talk, social gatherings with colleagues; sharing stories; relief.	Vicky; Betty; Nat; Jonathan; Hopeful; Bolt; Max; Jane; Consroller; Dave; Mariana; Jill, Kiven	"We share negative emotions with our colleagues, but not with all colleagues. Only with closet colleagues (friends). We do support each other"
Confusion, anger, frustration, sadness and disappointment, worry, boredom, anxiety	**Emotion regulation / Controlling Emotions**	Emotion work; Surface acting, control; suppressing emotions; acting professionally; Emotional Intelligence.	Jill; Erik; Hana; Nat; Vicky; Betty; Jane; Consroller; Max; Dave	"You should act like a professional and do not show your negative emotions. You can express positive emotions like sort of smiling is okay, to indicate you know that the situation is pleasant, but I do not think anything else"
Confusion, anger, disappointment, frustration, worry, anxiety, sadness,	**Ignore the emotions and accept the situation**	Ignoring felt emotions, stop caring about anything related to the job, shelf everything, engage in personal stuff	Betty; Nat; Jill; Max; Erik; Paul; Clark; Jane	"I understand that is should let it go because there is nothing I can do about it. There is nothing I can do to change the situation or affect the decision taking by top management. So, I just have to live with that"

Fear, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, sadness, confusion,	**Focusing on the work**	Immersing self in the work, not get distracted, close off all the negative stuff, deliver the work	Mark; Paul; Clark; Jane	"Be focused and do my work. Not get distracted with based on these emotions or any other I keep focusing on the work, do my work and deliver my work and that is enough, for me to deal with my negative emotions"
	Situational strategies			
Sadness, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, confusion,	**Considering alternative employment**	Looking for another job and better opportunity, planning to leave, difficulty dealing with negative emotions, unhealthy work environment.	Bolt; Jill; Hana; Controller; Clark; Jane; Mariana	"Honestly, I am thinking about leaving"
Confusion, anger, frustration, sadness and disappointment, anxiety, worry	**Planning and find a solution**	Reflect and accept feelings, understand negative emotions and try to find a solution	Dave; Hopeful; Erik; Jonathan; Betty	"In terms of dealing with my negative emotions I identify the problem, identify the source, and identify what I can resolve, if I cannot resolve with them I need to deal with myself because you cannot stop it. So, I reflect, talk to my self and make a plan it is how I deal with emotions"

Table 10: The strategies that Academics in Saudi University Used to Manage their Negative Emotions

Negative Emotions Experienced	Mechanisms of emotions management (strategies used) / Personal strategies / Doing leisure activities	Associated meanings	Alias,	Quotation
Anger, Confusion, Frustration, Sadness,, indignation, anxiety, ,	Reading	Promote positive emotional states, develop themselves and feel better, educate the self, reading, writing, travel, doing exercise, calm, relax, relief.	Dana, Hana, Luna, Lulu, Mai, Noor, Samar	"I read about how to deal with my negative emotions, I try to educate myself and keep myself busy with reading, which is a really good strategy"
Confusion, Anger, Sadness, Frustration, indignation,	Writing		Samar, Magi, Mai, Nora, Rana	"Writing is one of the ways which I use to deal with my negative emotions. I have a blog which I write and express and share my negative emotional experience with others, and also I write on social media as well"
Frustration, anxiety, sadness, indignation,	Exercise		Dana, Feda, Lulu, Mai, Wafa	"Doing exercise, walk and running three times a week and that helps me to overcome my negative emotions and has reduced my work stress"

Confusion, indignation, Frustration	**Travel**		Dana, Feda, Mai, Shima	"I used short holiday we have and travel that help me to cope with my negative emotions, energies me and makes me more calm and relax"
Anger, Confusion, Frustration, Sadness, indignation	**Seeking social support**	Seeking intimate people to talk, social gatherings with colleagues; family, visiting psychologist, sharing stories; relief.	Arwa, Hana, Monera, Magi, Maria, Rana, Samar, , Lulu, Nadia, , Dana	"I share with my friends; I feel relief when I speak with them and find an outlet. Honestly, the presence of my friends is a good outlet to overcome my negative emotions"
Confusion, indignation, Sadness, Fear, Frustration, Anger	**Emotion regulation/ Controlling emotions**	Emotion work; Surface acting, control; suppressing emotions; staying calm even, acting professionally; Emotional Intelligence	Feda, Luna, Maria, Mai, Rana , Nadia, Dana, Magi	"I am a cautious person. So, I do not express my negative emotions at work as it not welcomed, and also I feel that no one will understand them. So, I prefer to control them"
Indignation, Frustration, anxiety,, sadness, Anger, Confusion	**Praying**	Asking God for support, relief ,	Lulu, Magi, Maria, Rana	"I'm of the people who pray as a way to relieve my negative emotions"

	Situational strategies			
Frustration, Confusion, indignation, Sadness, Fear, anxious, Anger	**Planning and find solution**	Engage in favourable activities, be optimistic, have positive attitude, understand emotions	Rana, Wafa, Hana, Hala, Luna, Mai, Nadia,	"I deal with my negative emotions by trying to have a positive view and trying to find out how to deal with these emotions in a positive way, to achieve the things that make me feel at ease. I started to understand my negative emotions. I say to myself positive words and phrases; it is a beautiful day and I will do my work to feel better"

Chapter 9: Conclusion, Contribution, Limitations and Further Research

9.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the overall conclusion of the study and summarizes the contribution of the research to existing knowledge. It reflects on the original research aim and research questions, offers practical recommendations to university management teams and change agents, and identifies areas of future research. The research aimed to understand how negative emotions occur as a result of organisational change, specifically in relation to higher education, and how university settings, particularly in the UK and SA, have influenced the experience and management of emotions of university academics in both cultures. Understanding negative emotions is significant as these can have a harmful impact on employees' satisfaction, leading to low emotional engagement, decreased productivity and increased intention to leave (Andries, 2011).

The research was underpinned by a social constructionist approach which shows emotions as socially constructed phenomena that are shaped and influenced by cultural and social norms (Fineman, 2000; Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). Drawing on the perspectives of academics working within higher education institutions has been essential in understanding the emotions, triggers and the ways in which individuals manage these emotions. It also provides a more developed understanding of how academics involved in the change process feel, perceive and understand the events of change, how they construct the meaning of such events, and how they manage their negative emotions. Such insights are important in a sector such as higher education, where little attention has been paid to the emotional effect of higher education change on academics working within the higher education sector (Becker *et al.*, 2004; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), particularly when emotional responses to change are often viewed as a burden that leaders and managers must endure and sometimes ignore (Hodges, 2016).

9.2 Research Findings

The overall aim of this thesis was **to investigate cultural differences in relation to the emotional impact of changes within higher educational institutions on academics in SA and the UK,** focusing on three key research questions: (1) what negative emotions, if any, are experienced by academics during changes within higher education in London and Saudi universities? (2) what events during changes within higher education have triggered negative emotions among academics at London and Saudi universities? (3) how do university academics in London and Saudi universities manage their negative emotions?

Research question (1): The findings that relate to this question showed that academics in London and Saudi universities have experienced a variety of different negative emotions during changes within universities. Some of the emotions expressed by academics in both universities were similar, but there were also notable differences. Academics in the London university reported feeling confusion, worry, anxiety, anger, frustration, sadness, unhappiness and disappointment, whilst Saudi academics discussed feeling confusion, frustration, anger, indignation, sadness and disappointment. However, anger-related emotions were the dominant negative emotions expressed by Saudi academics, while fear-related emotions were the dominant negative emotions for London academics. This perhaps highlights the wide range of negative emotions that can be felt within the academic profession, especially during change.

The research showed that academics' understanding of their emotions may be dependent on the learned social, cultural and working contexts which they experience. It was evident, for instance, that whilst some similar emotions were expressed by both groups in relation to the same triggers (such as frustration resulting from management's lack of appreciation, or confusion due to lack of communication); different emotions were also expressed in relation to the same event. There were also emotions that were only highlighted by one group, such as indignation, and also the ways in which these were discussed or communicated also differed (for example, in relation to uncertainty about the future). Whilst the majority of academics interviewed shared a range of negative emotions with the researcher in relation to changes within higher education, it should also be noted that two out of the forty

academics associated change with more positive emotions, such as hope, and regarded the change process as a whole more positively.

The duration of the negative emotions reportedly varied, lasting from a couple of days to a longer period, and many of the academics suggested that negative emotions could be experienced for a longer duration than might be desirable. This could result from negative situations failing to improve, or the outcomes of changes not being favourable, or the continued dissatisfaction with mistreatment from management. The findings suggested that prolonged experience of negative emotions could impact on well-being and productivity, suggesting longer-term impacts on the individuals, institutions and wider society.

The use of pictures was important in helping the accounts of academics to unfold, in terms of understanding and interpreting the change events and representation of various emotional responses to these. For instance, London academics and Saudi academics sometimes chose similar pictures, however, the emotions related to these pictures were different. A given example was in Figure 2, where academics from both groups chose Picture 1 (see Chapter 6,, 140), but for Saudi academics this represented fear more commonly, whereas for the London academics, it represented confusion. Such differences between the groups of academics emphasises how emotions are socially constructed phenomena and that the meanings and emotions that unfold during change events, are shaped by social and cultural norms (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001).

In some other cases, however, academics in the same university selected different pictures to represent similar emotions, for example, academics from the London university selected Pictures 1, 2 and 4 in Figure 1 to represent frustration, while Saudi academics chose Pictures 1, 2 and 3 (See Chapter 6, page 140) to represent the emotion of indignation. This seems to indicate that not only does culture – in relation to country or society – play an important role, but also the culture of the academics and the organisation. This variation also indicates the possibility of other influences on the interpretation and construction of the meaning of the events. It was shown, for example, that academics in both countries expressed differences in their evaluation of events, and in the emotions they associated with the pictures, thus indicating variations in relation to other social and personal factors (such as age, gender,

personality, religion, life history or social circumstances). The findings therefore indicate that not only does culture shape the emotional responses of academics, but the impact of other factors in influencing emotions cannot be overlooked.

Research question (2): In relation to this question, the findings showed that there were various events for London and Saudi academics that triggered negative emotions. Whilst some triggers had a more direct impact, others were related to these initial triggers, allowing some distinction to be made between what could be considered as primary and secondary triggers. The triggers for the negative emotions were similar within the two universities in terms of their relation to changes (for instance, increased workload and change of work routine), and also, for some of the academics (in both groups), the broad range of trigger events could lead to overall feelings of mistrust and unfairness, which were considered a breach of psychological contract. Differences existed, however, in terms of the level of impact of the triggers, and the emotions experienced. For example, Saudi university academics tended to be affected more by changes to work routine, particularly the increased workload in relation to administrative tasks, while academics in the London university were affected more by lack of communication about change processes and outcomes.

There were also some events that evoked negative emotions in London academics, such as high staff turnover, which were mentioned by only one academic in the Saudi university, but she was planning to retire. Such findings seemed to indicate important cultural differences between academics here. Within Saudi culture, for instance, which follows the rules of Islam, it may be that leaving the university is less of an option for the majority of the Saudi academics, excluding the one previously mentioned (Monera). As the education sector is separated for men and women, it is a particularly favoured employment option for women, and the families of women especially perceive it in this way. This may make leaving the job less desirable, as there may be pressures from family members to remain, as well as limited other options being available. Furthermore, as educational roles are public sector positions, within Saudi culture, such government jobs are more secure than those in the private sector. Another finding that highlighted the differences between university cultures, was the lack of academics' involvement in decision-making. For the London university, this was attributed to changes to the organisational structure of the university, whereas in the Saudi university, it was perceived to relate to the culture of

Saudi Arabia and especially to patriarchal gender relations, where women hold more passive roles at work and in the family, with authority predominantly allocated to men, even in the workplace.

The findings also highlighted the importance of considering the impact of organisation or university culture on emotions and trigger events. Even though both groups of academics perceived management behaviour as disrespect, for instance, two London academics reported feeling frustration as a result, whereas two Saudi academics expressed sadness in relation to this. Whilst this might have initially indicated cultural differences, on further investigation, it was evident that the two London academics were originally from more collectivist cultures, and so the expectation may have been for similar emotions to have been expressed in relation to such a trigger. Thus, organisational culture may also have had an impact here.

The changes experienced within higher education in both countries was also different. In the UK, changes to the REF, and the introduction of the TEF assessment, have reinforced the marketisation of higher education and increased or altered the pressures placed on academics. In addition, changes to university fees and concerns around Brexit have affected both students and university staff. These changes appeared to have led to confusion and frustration amongst academics, particularly as some of these changes are still in the initial process. Thus, the consequences of such changes cannot be predicted, and this uncertainty in itself has been the trigger of negative emotions. Within Saudi higher education, universities have been required to implement academic accreditation and quality assurance as part of educational development and improvement. Nonetheless, the academic staff appeared concerned or unhappy with process of implementing these changes. Part of the dissatisfaction felt by the academics seemed to relate to the perception that the changes being made were not the best way to develop and be the best university. Despite the different types of change experienced within the two universities, the process of change and the ways in which it was being implemented had affected the academics' productivity and wellbeing in both universities. The main trigger of negative emotions related to the reported mistreatment or lack of communication from university management. In the long-term, this may impact on the success of the change process.

The findings here have been important for understanding change processes within higher education and for providing insights to facilitate more effective implementation of change. It was shown, for instance, that negative emotional experience, such as anger and frustration, related more to management behaviour during periods of change and consultation (or lack of) with the academics involved, than to the changes in themselves. The academics' understanding of management behaviour during change, for instance, and how this was perceived as mistrust, was notable in Clark, Noor and Maria's accounts. The academics' accounts suggest that trust is important for them - which often involves a belief that those on whom we depend will meet our expectations (Proctor and Doukakis, 2003) - and this was not evidenced amongst both groups of academics in the current study. The academics did not find what they expected from their employer, which led to disappointment, frustration and in some cases, anger with their actions. Their expectation was that management should treat them as professional employees and inform them about change, and share information with them, as indicated in previous research (Proctor and Doukakis, 2003). Based on this perception, academics develop their own versions of understanding and reality, which is constructed through the many experiences they go through (Schwandt, 1994; 1998), and through their interactions with their managers and colleagues (Shamir and Lapidot, 2003). This could explain their understanding of meanings of trust relating to their manager or the organisation, as trust is not an individual configuration or an element of interpersonal relationships, but a socially-constructed notion that emerges from experiences at the wider organisational level (Shamir and Lapidot, 2003).

The findings indicated, then, that the negative impacts of change related mainly to how the information has been transferred and how management has treated the academics. Thus, if change within higher education is more clearly and respectfully communicated to academic staff, with greater involvement and consultation, the process of change can be more successful and better received by the academics, whilst also reducing the negative impact that such changes can bring. Such findings are of great importance for informing policy makers and practitioners within higher education, and must be considered during the implementation of change, not least because academic staff are central to the reputation, running and success of higher education institutions.

It is also worth noting here the importance of the social constructionist approach to this research, as it helped to examine different understandings of emotions related to triggers, reflecting an awareness that people who are affected by change can understand change in various ways and express different emotions for the same changes (Helms-Mills, 2003; Helms Mills, Thurlow and Mills, 2010). These differences in the events and the emotions felt could be explained by cultural differences, religion, and organisational structure, and in how academics understand and construct their meaning of the events based on their experience and interaction with people and the environment they are in. The similarities of the trigger events could be explained by the university culture, and the fact that both universities have undergone similar changes, related to what has been happening within higher education globally. Such changes have resulted from a worldwide shift within higher education to imitate elite university education and management systems.

Research question (3): The findings relating to this question indicated how academics in both universities manage their emotions. It was shown that academics construct their own ways of understanding emotions and managing them. The narrative of the academics underlined the struggles encountered during change, and both groups of academics appeared to be aware that negative emotional experiences had played a major role in their professional practices. They reported different management strategies which might be related to their understanding, experiences and knowledge of their situations and the emotions they felt, which were also shaped by their culture and religion. The findings showed that some academics in both universities were similar in managing their negative emotions, by changing the emotions and themselves (more personal strategies) or changing the situation they were in (situational strategies). Some academics reported using more than one strategy, and whilst there were similarities in the strategies used by both groups of academics, there were also notable differences.

One of the ways in which the academics described managing their emotions, in order to also meet the rules and regulations of their organisations, was to change the emotions they felt, and themselves, in order to regulate their emotions as a part of their job. They controlled their emotions according to the organisational and professional display rules, as the academics wanted to show they were professional

and to portray an ideal image of the academic occupation. Some academics also discussed the importance of retaining a positive educational experience for their students by concealing their emotions from them, in order to protect the students from any negative effects here. This demonstrates the ability of academics to exercise emotional intelligence by preventing specific negative emotions from surfacing; through repressing or altering them, and displaying what might be considered more appropriate emotions. For example, the academics described feeling frustrated and angered by managements' actions on several occasions, but despite this, they masked the negative emotions and presented more positive emotions.

Other academics sought social support as a way of relieving their emotions and getting support from family and friends, although such a strategy was more common amongst female academics when compared to males. This may be because women value the importance of social support more than males, but is perhaps more likely to reflect social expectations of different genders. Only Saudi academics mentioned using praying, which was explained through the importance of seeking help from God in Muslim culture, however, it was surprising that only a small number of academics (four) reported managing their emotions through praying. It may be that culture influences how people understand and practise their religion and to what degree. In SA, for instance, there have been significant changes, relating to a greater responsiveness to the global world and different cultures. In addition, the increase in people traveling abroad has meant greater interaction with people from different cultures and religions, which may have affected how they perceive their own religion and religious practices.

Doing leisure activities to overcome negative emotions was another management technique mentioned only by the Saudi academics, while only London academics discussed focusing on the work, ignoring emotions and accepting the situation. In terms of changing the situation, rather than themselves (as a strategy), both groups of academics discussed reflecting on the problem, making a plan and finding a solution to their negative emotions. This strategy was used more frequently by females, which may relate to the challenges faced in the workplace, and the desire to prove themselves in front of males co-workers and managers. Thus, they attempt to deal with their negative emotions in a way that might be considered more professional. However, only London academics considered alternative employment as a way of

escaping from the situation that had led to their negative emotions. This may again have related to cultural differences, where the London university academics potentially have more freedom and flexibility to move between jobs and to travel, when compared with the female Saudi academics. For the latter, travelling is restricted by their religion (Islam), which does not (until recently) allow women to travel without hiring a private chauffeur or close relative to drive them to work. Such a restriction may limit the ability to leave or change jobs.

There were, then, some differences between the two groups of academics which indicated the influence of cultural norms. The findings also showed, however, that several academics used strategies that contradicted the common strategies expected within their cultures. For example, when Saudi academics sought social support as a way to manage their emotions, this contradicted collectivist cultural norms, as people from this type of culture do not tend to share their negative emotions with others, in order to prevent placing a burden on them. Such differences have been found in London academics' accounts as well, as there was some indication that several academics relied on personal strategies more than situational strategies, which again contradicts typical individualistic cultures, as people from this culture more commonly try to change the situation, rather than the emotions or themselves. Therefore, it seems that even though the culture may have a strong influence on academics' management strategies, there are other factors which could affect the selection of these strategies.

In addition, the findings reveal that university academics could be facing a serious problem related to their well-being and health, which leads them to find ways to manage their negative emotions. As the majority of academics in both groups used personal strategies rather than situational strategies, it might suggest that academics believe that the situation is something that they cannot change, especially with lack of support from management, as indicated in the findings. Therefore, by making personal changes, they can continue handling tasks and responsibilities in their work. By using these strategies, university academics also seek to protect themselves from difficult and stressful situations at work during times of change, whilst following the acceptable display of emotions required by the university. It appeared that some of the emotion management strategies used by academics were well-practised as they had been through many changes and were familiar with which strategies were most

beneficial in managing their negative emotions; such as re-focusing, doing leisure activities and planning and finding a solution. At other times, strategies used were more immediate responses to specific situations, and involved praying and seeking social support.

9.3 Contribution of the Study

This study made several contributions to the literature. First, in recognising the importance of the social constructionist approach to understanding the role of culture in emotions, and the ways in which they are shaped by social and cultural norms (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001; Taylor *et al.*, 2004; Glazer, 2006), the current research has underlined the impact of culture here. As the findings have shown, individuals are affected by their culture in the ways in which they interpret change events, and how they express, conceal and manage their negative emotions; with different cultures having different expectations and structures for understanding and influencing academics' behaviours. It was also found, however, that there were other factors such as rules related to organisational structure and religion, that may play an important role in how academics experience, express and manage their negative emotions, as it was clear that even though there were differences among academics in different cultures, there were also differences between academics in the same cultures.

Secondly, the current study expanded knowledge on the negative emotional aspects of change. It provides in-depth understandings of the emotional impact of change, offering a knowledge base of different negative emotions, the ways in which academic settings and changes within higher education may trigger these, and the various strategies used to manage emotions. Whilst academics may be perceived as a homogenous group, this study has shown how different the emotions, responses and management techniques can be amongst academics in relation to change events, both between and within cultures. The social constructionist approach helped to examine emotional responses to change in such detail, through exploring academics' understanding and construction of the meaning of the events that have occurred in their university during times of change. The understanding of such differences leads to the development of theoretical understandings of organisational change and how employees can be emotionally affected. Therefore, rather than simply reporting that academics feel negatively about change, the current study provides detail into these

negative emotions and related events, which allows for a better understanding of 'why' academics felt these negative emotions towards change, and how their culture, organisational structure, and religion influences their experience and management of such emotions. It is hoped that providing such detailed understandings of change events and emotional responses will help management to implement change more effectively in order to avoid such negative emotional impacts in future.

Thirdly, several attempts have been made to conceptualize emotional differences across cultures, however the socio-cultural aspects of emotions have largely been ignored (Mesquita, Frijda and Scherer, 1997; Mesquita, 2001; Mesquita and Walker, 2003). Understanding the social context of emotional expression in organisations is important, as it influences the emotions expressed (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Fineman, 2000). The current study therefore extends the relatively limited cross-cultural literature on emotions, by examining emotions within higher education in the socio-cultural contexts of SA and the UK. Knowledge of cultures such as SA is particularly limited, and thus, the research provides important insights here, especially in relation to religion and gender. Exploring Saudi and London academics' negative emotions offered helpful insights into the ways in which cultural factors influence how workplace emotions are displayed or suppressed/controlled and shared. Taking a social constructionist approach to the study, there was evidence of the significant role that cultural norms and the university culture can play, highlighting the processes whereby individuals understand and construct the meaning of the situations they confront, as well as what they have learned and experienced through interactions and relationships with others, including management, colleagues and students, and within the sociocultural context of the UK and SA.

Fourth, in addition to important insights in terms of findings, the study makes significant contributions to social research in relation to methodology. The use of photographs combined with semi-structured interviews in qualitative studies in organisational change and emotions studies is not common, and few organisational researchers have used visual methods (Buchanan, 2001; Harper, 2002; Warren, 2005; Ray and Smith, 2011; Vince and Warren, 2012). This study therefore demonstrates how valuable the use of this type of method can be for providing insights into such issues, underlining how the use of photographs can help to show how academics

construct multiple realities of work situations, which is influenced by social and cultural factors in a particular work setting and period of time (for instance, university change within this study).

In addition, using photographs facilitated the discussion with academics, encouraging interest and engagement with the topic, which allowed deep conversation and reflection on the pictures, assisting the stories to unfold. These stories helped the researcher to better understand the experiences and perspectives of academics, as they reported and shared a wide range of emotions and events. The picture selection showed how academics reflect on the meaning and experience of their working and personal lives, which helped in highlighting the most significant and common emotions and events for them. It also underlined cultural differences and how culture influences selection and response to the pictures. The use of photographs indicated other potential factors which influence academics' construction of the meaning of events. These differences were notable in the accounts of academics from the same culture, particularly when using different pictures to represent various emotional responses to the same events. Thus, using pictures assisted in generating knowledge in relation to the experiences of each academic, and highlighted the unique experience and explanation of the events that triggered their emotions, reflecting also their construction of reality and the different responses to situations confronted, which were influenced by their social and organisational cultures.

9.4 Practical Implications

The findings of the study revealed important implications for universities, leaders and policy makers.

9.4.1 Practical implications for higher education management

It may be assumed from the research findings that universities as workplaces, during processes of change, are spaces where negative emotions can be triggered, even during day to day activities. Academics in this study reported experiencing a range of negative emotions in relation to different triggers. It was evident that such emotions had been difficult for several academics to overcome, or had been long-lasting, particularly with the absence of management support. It is therefore important that if the change process is to be successful in the longer term, higher education institutions need to examine and understand the emotional consequences of such change, and

anticipate and address any potentially negative impact on work practices and well-being. One option would be to offer consultation teams within institutions to facilitate the success and transparency of change within the institution as a whole. Providing such services would enhance the implementation of the change process and assist in tackling any obstacles that might be faced during the change process, as consultation teams can provide both support for academics through answering questions and concerns, whilst also communicating problems and issues to management.

Higher education institutions have undergone significant changes in recent years, largely as a result of government shifts in policy and wider educational change. Such changes have led to universities becoming more focused on commercialisation strategies. It is therefore important that management teams within higher education institutions learn from one another, through the sharing of good practice, and from other sectors about the most suitable strategies for addressing employees' needs during times of change. Such awareness might also assist in developing better agendas for change, providing a channel of communication between policy makers and academics. Such communication and consultation processes are essential for the effective implementation of change within the higher education system. As we have seen in the current study, the REF and the introduction of the TEF have caused some concerns for academics within the London university, and the uncertainty surrounding Brexit has further exacerbated these for many academics. There is an opportunity to engage academics much more closely during this period of transition, to ensure that those who play a key role in the sector are acknowledged and valued, and the higher education system continues to run smoothly and productively.

9.4.2 Practical implications for university leaders

The findings showed that both groups of academics appeared to be most affected by the lack of communication from those above, and their own lack of involvement in decision making, which resulted in confusion and frustration about the change process, as well as lack of trust, which has been perceived as breaching of the psychological contract. From a practical viewpoint, it is important that organisations are aware of the range of negative emotions and the effects that can therefore emerge from managements' lack of communication and other related management

246

behaviours. In addition to the effect on the academics, this can negatively impact on the success of change itself, and productivity in the workplace. Leaders need to activate information-sharing systems, consultation processes, and opportunities for employees to participate in decision-making in order to raise their concerns and ideas. Supporting academics in this way may facilitate more positive responses from academics and increase commitment to change. Furthermore, affective communication can build trust and address fear and uncertainty, developing positive attitudes and a sense of fairness amongst academics.

The academics used a range of different strategies to deal with their negative emotions, but there was some reliance on personal strategies. Due to the sometimes limited success of these, it was evident that greater support from university leaders would be beneficial. Thus, shifting the focus of responsibility from the individual, to university leaders providing a more supportive work culture - whereby the well-being of their employees is considered (Fiksenbaum, 2014) - would be more conducive to a productive and professional work environment. Leaders should provide academics with the opportunity to express their feelings towards change, in order to better understand and respond to these negative emotions, which could then lead to a reduction in negative emotions, whilst also potentially preventing resistance and building trust.

The Saudi academics highlighted the potential value of emotional intelligence training courses, to help staff to learn how to regulate and manage their emotions at work. Emotional intelligence skills are considered key to understanding affective responses to change (Druskat and Wolff, 2001; Jordan and Troth, 2002). Training people in emotional intelligence will offer emotional abilities on an organisational level (Huy, 1999). Therefore, leaders could encourage and offer emotional intelligence training courses to their academics, thus providing academics with the skills to be able to identify, recognise and manage emotions to benefit not just themselves, but those they interact with, and the organisation as a whole.

Another important finding from the current study was the concern surrounding increasing administrative tasks, which greatly impacted on academics' time (as particularly noted by Saudi academics), with such tasks being viewed as less important than some of their other roles and responsibilities. The main concern here

was the effect that such loss of time had on their research and publication activities, which subsequently affected their career progression. Whilst increased workload was mentioned by the UK academics, the impact of administrative tasks was not the same. The difference here lay in UK academics being allocated specific days or hours within their roles to produce publications, whereas Saudi academics are expected to produce such work in their own time. Thus, additional administrative responsibilities only increased the time pressures already on many of the Saudi academics. It is important that the Saudi university - and other higher education institutions with similar practices - addresses these concerns in order to reduce work-related stress. It may be helpful here, for instance, to adopt a similar approach to that of the UK, where time is made available within the contract for designated tasks such as publication, or administrative duties. Failure to acknowledge and address such an issue is likely to have a negative effect on academics' morale and eventually their wellbeing and productivity; thus again also having wider implications for the university as a whole.

In terms of the UK academics, it was evident that London university management would benefit from possessing a greater understanding of the value of academics' retention and commitment and how it could be achieved. They should investigate why many of the academics expressed the intention to leave and in addition to addressing the factors discussed above, should aim to introduce policies and activities which further enhance academics' loyalty and commitment to the university. Highly committed academics tend to have a greater desire to maintain their relationship with the organisation, encouraging belief and acceptance in the goals and values of the university, particularly during change. In addition to improved consultation practices, another possibility here is to encourage a greater role for human resources staff during university change. Providing such staff with development and training would give them credibility and the capabilities they need to support employees during change. As human resources staff acknowledge and understand the legalisations and policy of the change processes, this would help them to offer an adequate response and support employees' questions regarding the change (Hodges, 2016). More effective communication and support practices here may assist in making academics feel valued, and may help them to better understand the change process, which may subsequently improve retention rates.

9.4.3 Practical implications for policy makers

Many of the changes which affect higher education institutions result from the actions of policy makers and practitioners. It is therefore essential that the perspectives of those directly affected by policy recommendations and practices, and the subsequent changes within educational institutions, are not only considered but are directly sought. The experience and knowledge of academics may provide important insights for valuable change and the avoidance of errors. The importance of improving channels of communication here, is therefore underlined. Consultation meetings, policy maker visits to universities, or the seeking and sharing of information through other means are all options that can be embraced at the early stages of policy implementation. Understanding different points of view in relation to the change process is also important for having a better agenda for change. For example, the issue of Brexit has affected many academics in different ways, however, one of the main concerns expressed was the potential impact of the loss of EU funding on research activities and collaboration. The provision of resources and information here for academics seeking funding could therefore be one area that policy makers are addressing, to ensure research and publication activities are not negatively affected.

Another issue highlighted is the reduction in staff, due to Brexit issue which not only affects the academics in terms of loss of colleagues, but also through the intensification of workload as work responsibilities subsequently increase. It is important that policy makers address this directly, by demonstrating willingness to understand the impact of change on the academics themselves. This may occur through meetings and consultation with academics. Discussing such as issue is important in order to identify ways to solve these problems. It is essential, however, that the academics who participate in the meetings are fairly selected, in order to not limit the opportunity for fair academic representation. Thus, when academics are involved in meetings and committees relating to change and policy, it is important that the academics themselves select the members, rather than management, in order to avoid managers selecting those who will agree with their perspective.

From a societal perspective, where the negative emotions experienced by academics intensify and have a considerable effect on health and well-being, there are likely to be wider social consequences of poor implementation of change. For instance, academics might be unwilling to take part in the world of work and develop a

negative point of view with regards to the university, organisation and social system. Reduction in self-esteem, confidence and effectiveness could trigger further negative emotions, leading to sick leave or withdrawal from work altogether. This may also impact negatively on society, for example, increased welfare, medical care for employees who are not covered by insurance and a rise in unemployment expenses (Ren and Caudle, 2016).

9.5 Limitations of the Study and Further Research

This section discusses the potential limitations of the current study and raises questions for possible future research:

- The sample for the study was drawn from academics who were willing to take a part in the research, which affected the level of diversity that could be achieved, particularly in relation to gender. Of the academics who participated from the Saudi university, for instance, all were women, and in the London university, whilst there were more females than males, male academics were part of the sample. This unequal balance with regards to gender diversity within and between each group hindered the level of detailed interpretation and generalization of the data gathered.

- Due to the difficulty accessing males in SA (see page 124 for more details), as mentioned, the interviews were only conducted with female academics, which has implications for the generalisation of the findings. As males and females differ to a great extent emotionally, this prevented the generation of potentially important insights. Having Saudi males' perspective on university change and the emotional experiences of this could have enhanced the findings of the study, and allowed for comparison of gender differences in the two countries. This is therefore a potential consideration for future research.

- The lack of literature on Middle Eastern countries related to emotional expression and how it contrasts with other Western countries affected the ability to compare the findings of the current study with previous literature, limiting the study to focusing on comparison of individualistic and collectivistic cultural differences instead. Most of the latter literature, however, drew on data from Asian countries (such as Japan and China) and the USA. This indicates a need for further research exploring the cultural

differences in emotional expression in Middle Eastern countries, and in SA in particular.

- The two academic groups studied in the current research also differed with respect to their field of study. Most of the London university academics were from business and engineering departments, whereas the Saudi academics were mostly from the social science department. This may have impacted on the experiences of the academics and the emotions triggered. Comparison of academics' emotions from a range of disciplines and specializations might therefore yield further insights into the experience and management of emotions.

- Moreover, all academics were from public universities. Responses to wider social changes, particularly in terms of the financial implications of change might therefore differ from those in private institutions. Thus, the current findings might be more specifically applied to academics within public sector institutions. Therefore, further research might consider the different emotional experiences of academics working in both public and private universities in order to assess their perspectives and emotional experience of change.

- The study was conducted across just two universities, which again affects the generalisation of findings from the study. Further research exploring emotions during change in several universities across a range of countries would be useful in illuminating the area and highlighting other emotions, triggers and emotion management strategies related to change events.

- Whilst different methods were considered for the current study, such as observations and focus groups, a range of obstacles prevented the use of such methods (difficulties accessing work environments, and unwillingness of participants to take part in focus groups). Therefore, future research might consider the use of such methods, which may offer additional insights into academics' emotions, perceptions, opinions and behaviour towards university changes.

- This study used photographs generated by the researcher, which could have been affected by researcher background and culture, and potentially lead to either missing an important feature of the university or overemphasising a feature that is not meaningful to university academics. Therefore, the use of participant-generated photographs in future research may be beneficial for a

more developed understanding of the academics' experiences of change from their points of view.

- It seems worthwhile for future research to elaborate on the use of photo-elicitation in other universities, colleges and schools, as the changes that have been occurring in higher education are not limited to that sector, and so investigating change across a range of institutions could yield important findings. Studying such institutions by using photo-elicitation will help in gaining insights into individual's real experiences of work in general, and in change in particular.

Despite the limitations, the study has provided valuable findings and contributed significantly to the body of research regarding negative emotions and change management in the higher education sector.

9.6 Summary

This study aimed to expand knowledge in the field of emotions and change management, offering a more developed understanding of how change in organisations, specifically in higher education, can impact on academics emotionally. The social constructionist approach helped to enhance understandings of socio-cultural differences and similarities of negative emotions, its triggers and management strategies, and to draw on experiences within the UK and SA. Organisational change is an emotive event that evokes a variety of different emotions. Those emotions and the ways in which they are managed, shape experiences and the anticipation of future change. Studying emotions in organisations is therefore important, as organisational culture, structure and religion influences how emotions are experienced and expressed and emotions can affect the level of engagement of employees, their support for change and the outcomes of change. It is hoped that the research findings will provide important insights and recommendations for higher education leaders, academic directors, human resource managers, and policy makers, leading to improvements in the productivity and commitment of their academics, and the development of strategies to manage negative emotions during and following periods of change.

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Appendix 1

The interview questions (in English and Arabic)

Personal Details

    1. Gender?

    2. Age range: 25-30; 31-35+

    3. Years of service?

    4. Occupational level?

    5. Position title?

To explore events which trigger negative emotions during universities among academics at universities in Saudi Arabia and the UK

1. How do you feel about the programs that your university is implementing?
2. Have any recent changes affected you directly? In what way? What were you the most affected by? Why do you think these events affected you the most?
3. How do you feel about the changes you experienced personally? What kind of emotions have they evoked in you? How would you describe them (the emotions you feel regarding the changes)?
4. Do you know any other colleagues who might feel the same? Do you know any colleagues who might feel different?

To explore the various negative emotions experience triggered by academics at universities in Saudi Arabia and the UK during universities restructuring

1. Can you list the negative feelings or emotions that you experienced during these change events?
2. In what order would you list them? Can you number them, please?
3. How intense were your emotions? On a scale from 1 to 10 how would you measure the intensity?
4. Have you felt similar emotions before when you encountered similar events?
5. What other events have ever triggered similar emotions?

To determine the academics experience and response to these negative emotions

1. How do you deal with unpleasant emotions? How do you manage them? Do you recognize them? Do you reflect upon them?
2. Have you ever tried to hide your negative feelings at work? How does that make you feel?

3. Have you been able to control them ? How?

4. Did any of your colleagues help you to overcome this? How?

5. Are there any specific expectations of how emotions could be expressed at work?

6. Do you feel comfortable expressing negative emotions at work?

7. Have you expressed any negative emotions before at work? What happened? Can you describe situations when you raised your concerns or openly spoke about your negative experiences?

8. Does it help you when you openly voice your negative emotions?

9. How do you feel about expressing negative emotions at work? Is it acceptable? Useful? Inappropriate?

10. Did your negative emotions at that time of change affect your view of the work?

11. Do you think university management could help academics to deal better with their negative emotions? How?

الأحداث التي تثير المشاعر السلبية خلال التغيير وإعادة الهيكلة في الجامعات البريطانية والسعودية

1. ماذا تشعر حيال التغييرات وإعادة الهيكلة التي تنفذها الجامعة في الآونة الأخيرة؟

2. هل التغييرات الحالية كان لها تأثير مباشر عليك؟ كيف؟ ما هو الشيء الذي أثر عليك كثيرا؟ لماذا تعتقد هذه
   الحادثة \المناسبة أثرت عليك كثيرا؟

3. ماذا تشعر شخصيا حيال التغييرات التي في الجامعه ؟ مانوع المشاعر التي أثارتها بداخلك؟ كيف تصف هذه
   المشاعر التي شعرت بها حيال التغييرات في أنظمة الجامعة؟

4. هل تعتقد أن زملاءك في العمل يشعرون بنفس الشعور ؟ هل تعرف احدا من زملائك شعر شعورا مختلفا؟

انواع المشاعر السلبية المختلفة التي يشعر بها الأكاديميون في الجامعات السعودية من خلال التغييرات في الأنظمة وإعادة الهيكلة

1. هل تستطيع إعطائي قائمة بالمشاعر السلبية التي شعرت بها خلال التغييرات في الأنظمة أو إعادة الهيكلة؟ ٣ مشاعر سلبيه علي الأقل.

   1. هل تستطيع ترتيبهم حسب ماهو الشعور الأول الذي شعرت به ثم الثاني والثالث؟ ولماذا؟

   2. هل شعرت بمثل هذا الشعور من قبل عند حدوث أي تغيير سابق ا في الجامعة؟ اعطني مثال؟

   3. هل هناك اوقات اخرى او حوادث في العمل استثارت نفس هذه المشاعر ؟ اعطني مثال؟

استجابة وردود أفعال الأكاديميين لهذه المشاعر السلبية

1. كيف تصرفت عندما شعرت بهذه المشاعر السلبية؟ هل تحكمت بها؟ هل فكرت مليا بهم هل ميزتهم؟

2. هل حاولت إخفاء هذه المشاعر في العمل؟ ماذا شعرت عندما اخفيتهم؟

3. هل كان لديك القدرة للتحكم بهم؟ كيف؟ ماذا شعرت عند استطعت التحكم بهم؟ ماذا شعرت عندما لم تستطع

التحكم بهم؟

4. هل هناك احد من زملائك ساعدك علي التغلب علي هذه المشاعر؟ كيف؟
5. هل هناك أي توقعات كيف يجب علي الأكاديميون أن يعبروا عن مشاعرهم في العمل؟
6. هل تشعر بالارتياح عندما تعبر عن مشاعرك في العمل؟
7. هل عبرت عن مشاعرك السلبية سابقا في العمل؟ ماذا حصل؟ هل من الممكن وصف حادثة حصلت وعبرت
عن قلقك أو تجربتك السلبية؟
8. هل ساعدك التحدث أو التعبير عن مشاعرك السلبية؟
9. ماذا تشعر حيال التحدث أو التعبير عن المشاعر السلبية في العمل؟ هل هو مقبول؟ مفيد؟ مناسب؟
10. هل تعتقد أن إدارة الجامعة تستطيع مساعدة الأكاديميين للتعامل بطريقة أفضل مع مشاعرهم السلبية؟ كيف؟

الاستراتيجيات التي يستخدمها الأكاديميون للحصول علي نتائج مرضية من خلال تجربتهم للمشاعر السلبية خلال العمل

1. ماهي الاستراتيجيات التي استخدمتها للتعامل مع مشاعرك السلبية في العمل؟
2. هل تعتقد أن هذه الاستراتيجية التي استخدمتها للتعامل مع مشاعرك السلبية كانت نافعة؟ كيف؟
3. هل تستخدم استراتيجيات مختلفة للتعامل مع المشاعر السلبية؟ كيف قررت استخدام هذه الاستراتيجية؟ هل من الممكن تقديم أمثلة؟

sThe additional interview question

English and Arabic

1. In the previous interview, you mentioned feeling many negative emotions as a result of change, such as confusion and frustration. Can you remember how long these negative emotions tended to last? Were they long-lasting, or did you feel you overcame them relatively quickly?

2. In the last interview, you mentioned confusion and frustration. Has the way you feel about this changed at all? If so, could you please tell me how or in what ways?

3. During our interview we discussed many changes that had impacted on your working life. I am interested to find out what aspect you found the most challenging as a consequence of the changes?

4. Could you please tell me about any aspects of your job that are currently causing particular concern for you? Are these a result of any specific developments or changes within your university?

5. I would like to learn more about the changing landscape of academics' working lives as a result of specific assessment and monitoring systems. Could you please tell me how you have been affected, if at all, by the introduction of student assessment and evaluation forms, or any specific monitoring systems of the quality of higher education that introduced by your department?

6. Similarly, have you been affected by the introduction of the Research Excellence Framework or the Teaching Excellence Framework? If so, in what ways and what has the emotional impact of these changes been?

7. What effect do you think the introduction of student fees has had on universities in general, and more specifically on your university?

8. Has the introduction of the student fees impacted on your department in any way, and in turn, how has this affected you personally or your work?

9. What impact, if any, do you think Brexit will have on higher education in general?

10. Do you think there will be any specific changes within your university as a result of Brexit, and consequently on your working life?

11. Could you please tell me a little about how the changes around Brexit make you feel?

12. How do you feel the changes in general have affected your wellbeing, if at all? To what extent? Could you give me any examples?

13. How do you feel the changes in general have affected your productivity, if at all? To what extent? Could you give me any examples?

14. Do you feel that your work life was more enjoyable before the introduction of the changes we discussed? If so, how? Could you please give me some examples?

15. What has the overall impact of change been on how you feel about your work within higher education? Do you still see your future as being within academia?

16. Despite the impact of the changes within higher education on academics, do you think these changes have been necessary and inevitable, or do you think they could have been avoided? Do you think there might have been better alternatives?

١. هل يمكن أن تخبريني عن أي جانب من جوانب وظيفتك التي تسبب حاليا قلقا خاصا لك؟ اذا كانت الاجابة نعم هل هذه نتيجة لأي تطورات أو تغييرات محددة داخل جامعتك؟

٢. في السنوات الأخيرة ،كان هناك تغييرات سريعة في نظام التعليم العالي في المملكة العربية السعودية. كان هناك تغيير في الهيكل المالي والتكنولوجي والتنظيمي ونظام التعليم العالي الذي أثر بدوره على نظام الجامعات؟ هل يمكن أن تخبرني كيف تأثرت جامعتك بهذه التغييرات؟

٣. هل أثرت هذه التغييرات على قسمك بأي شكل من الأشكال ، وهل هذا بدوره أثر على عملك أو حياتك الشخصية؟

٤. من أجل أن تكون الجامعات السعودية رائدة ، كان هناك ضغط عال من قبل وزارة التعليم العالي على الجامعات مما أدى إلى إدخال بعض التغييرات. لذلك ، أود أن أعرف المزيد عن التغييرات في الحياة العملية للأكاديميين كنتيجة مثلا لنظام الاعتماد الأكاديمي والتقييم/ آلية ضمان الجودة وإنتاجية البحث. هل يمكن أن تخبرني كيف تأثرت جامعتك ، بهذه التغييرات الجديدة؟ وكيف أثرت هذه التغييرات على عملك؟ مع ذكر مثال ان امكن ؟

٥. من وجهة نظرك ما رأيك في هذه التغييرات؟ ما هو شعورك العاطفي لهذه التغييرات؟(مثلا، متفائل، غاضب، قلق، محبط، سعيد، .....) ، ،لماذا؟ هل يمكنك تذكر كم من الوقت استمرت هذه المشاعر السلبية؟ هل دامت طويلا ، أم هل شعرت بأنك تغلبت عليهم بسرعة؟ وهل الي الان تشعر بهذه المشاعر أم أنها تغيرت بمرور الوقت؟

٦. هل هذه التغييرات أثرت عليك شخصيا (حياتك الشخصية) ؟ لماذا؟ هل تستطيعي أن تعطيني مثالا؟

٧. هل تشعر أن التغييرات بشكل عام قد أثرت على صحتك؟ إلى أي مدى؟ هل يمكن أن تعطيني مثالا؟

٨. كيف تشعر أن التغييرات بشكل عام قد أثرت على إنتاجيتك ؟ إلى أي مدى؟ هل يمكن أن تعطيني مثالا؟

9. هل تشعر أن هذه التغييرات جعلت من الصعب الموازنة بين حياتك الشخصية والعمل؟ كيف؟ هل يمكن أن تعطيني مثالا؟

10. ما هو التأثير الإجمالي للتغييرات على شعورك تجاه عملك في الجامعة؟ هل ما زلت ترى مستقبلك المهني في الأوساط الأكاديمية؟

11. هل تشعر أن حياتك المهنية كانت أكثر متعة قبل إدخال التغييرات التي ناقشناها؟ إذا كان الأمر كذلك ، كيف؟ هل يمكن أن تعطيني بعض الأمثلة؟

12. ناقشنا خلال المقابلة العديد من التغييرات التي أثرت على حياتك العملية؟ أنا مهتم بمعرفة الجانب الذي وجدته الأكثر تحديًا كنتيجة للتغيرات؟

Appendix 2

Participation Information Sheet and Consent Form

Brunel Business School

Research Ethics

Participant Information Sheet

Title of Research: Negative emotions in Change: An exploratory study of academics' negative emotional experiences during universities' change in Saudi Arabia and the UK

Researcher: Student **Amal Qassim** on **Management Studies Research (HRM)** Business School – College of Business, Arts and Social Sciences, Brunel University London

Contact Email: Amal.Qassim@brunel.ac.uk

Purpose of the research: investigate cultural differences in relation to the emotional impact of changes within higher educational institutions on academics in Saudi Arabia and the UK

What is involved in participating: Research participants will be asked to engage in a conversation about their experiences feeling various negative emotions at work. The interviews will be conducted at a place and time convenient to the research participant. Following completion of the interview, there will be a short debriefing session, and there might be follow-up conversation in case participations think of something they would like to share with the researcher. I will ask you to complete the following: (i) a background information form and (ii) an interview.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you can choose to decline to answer any questions or even to withdraw at any point from the project. Anything you say will be attributed to you only with your permission; if not, the information will be reported in such a way as to make direct association with you impossible.

Confidentiality also means that the background information form and interviews will be coded and stored in such a way as to make it impossible to identify any individuals directly (i.e., they will be organized by number rather than by name).

Thank you.

Sincerely

Amal Qassim

Brunel Business School

Research Ethics

Participant Consent Form

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project. The project has to be completed in part fulfilment of my degree programme and so your assistance is much appreciated.

Consent:

I have read the Participation Information Sheet and hereby indicate my agreement to participate in the study and for the data to be used as specified.

Name of participant or informed third party:

Signature:

Date:

Appendix 3

Photos