

**HIGHER EDUCATION IN LEBANON: MANAGEMENT CULTURES AND
THEIR IMPACT ON PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES**

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ABSTRACT

The social and economic development of a country and its competitiveness in continuously shifting international markets depends on the skills and competencies of its people achieved through education, particularly higher education. This research study takes a close look at the higher education system in Lebanon. It attempts to identify the principal management cultures in seven institutes of higher education each adopting a different educational system – American, French, Egyptian and Lebanese. McNay's quartet of collegium, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise was used as a main reference, with positioning on the model determined by the two dimensions of policy definition and control over implementation each defined as either 'loose' or 'tight'. The study describes and analyzes the organisational structures of the institutions in an attempt to determine the characteristics of the power and authority relationships of each culture and the modes of decision-making. The research study further investigates the degree of academic freedom and institutional autonomy, the measures of accountability and the mechanisms of internal and external scrutiny adopted by the institutes. The impact of culture and other elements such as history, structure, organisational effectiveness and quality on faculty and staff satisfaction, student satisfaction, student destinations and the responsiveness of the organisation to new demands are also examined.

To achieve this end, firstly faculty and staff members' perceptions of various issues related to the management culture, the power authority relationships, the decision-making processes and the modes of operation of the institutions were surveyed through specifically designed faculty questionnaires. This was supported by data from semi-

structured interviews with faculty members at varying levels of the organisational hierarchy and information from documents provided by the institutions. Secondly, students' perceptions of the management cultures and their satisfaction with the quality of the educational experience they were attaining were surveyed through a student questionnaire.

The findings suggest that the institutes of higher learning, consisting of several private institutes and one public institution, operate within a competitive market environment. While McNay's typology served as a base to begin to categorise the management cultures of these institutes, no neat categorisation emerged from the combination of the various data sources used in the study. On the contrary, elements of all four cultures exist in all universities, with dominance for features of the bureaucratic and the corporate cultures. Factors such as the degree of secularisation of the institutions and the cultural origins of the institutions, whether Lebanese, Arab or Western, seem to impact on institutional culture and are manifested in a distinctive personalised mode of management that emphasises control, power and loyalty, which are deep seated cultural traits of the people of Lebanon and the region. In evaluating the changing environment of higher education, student views on 'quality' are also important. In terms of educational outcomes, students in all institutions expressed satisfaction with the education they were receiving. All students were attaining a solid theoretical education; however students in American patterned universities were exposed to a more liberal form of learning whereby they are actually involved in the creation of knowledge by participating in research and project activity. Moreover, through regular programs and extra curricula activities, they are

provided with opportunities to develop skills and competencies in areas they find personally fulfilling. The implications of the findings for higher education policy in Lebanon are discussed.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AU	University of Alexandria
AUB(Am:F)	American University of Beirut (American: Foreign)
BAU(Eg:F)	Beirut Arab University (Egyptian: Foreign)
BOD	Board of Deans
BOT	Board of Trustees
LAU(Am:F)	Lebanese American University (American: Foreign)
LU	Lebanese University
NDU(Am:N)	Notre Dame University (American: National)
UOB(Am:N)	University of Balamand (American: National)
USJ(Fr:F)	Université Saint Joseph (French: Foreign)

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Human knowledge is doubling every ten years. In the past decade, more scientific knowledge has been created than in all human history. Computer power is doubling every eighteen months... In the wake of this technological upheaval, entire industries and lifestyles are being overturned, only to give rise to entirely new ones (Kako 1997: 4).

With this statement Michio Kako summarised the scientific breakthroughs made in the last two decades of the twentieth century that have transformed societies and made them increasingly knowledge based. In economic terms, comparative advantage based on measurements of labour, capital and natural resources no longer prevail (Iskandar 2000). Knowledge and skill are the only source of comparative advantage nowadays (Thurow 1999). Highly educated charismatic youth are undoubtedly a mobile economic resource. They have both a national and international market. To advance and prosper, Lebanon, a developing country, will have to face up to challenges of scientific development. The assumption of this study is that the restructuring and reforming of Lebanon's educational system, in particular higher education, can achieve this. A second assumption is that a prerequisite is a political climate and leadership that endorses democracy and equity.

The Lebanese higher educational system used to be of the highest standards in the Middle East before the civil war exhausted it (Ghezaoui 2001). It attracted students from the Arab world and other countries of the Middle East. In 1972, prior to the onset of the civil war, foreign students comprised 54.4% of the higher education

cohort (CERD 1973). By 1992, the war had come to an end but its devastating effects were evident on every form of human activity. The percentage of foreign students in higher education fell to 29.5% (CERD 1993). Lebanon's traditional strength, its skilled human capital, was migrating to more prosperous regions of the world. Educational standards were falling, research activity was negligible and financial resources were insufficient. On parallel tracks, Lebanon witnessed the chaotic dispersal of colleges, universities and branches across the country in the absence of legislative and government bodies. The rapid diversification in the institutional structure of higher education has been beset by a growing concern for quality, which is essential for this state-of-the-art services sector to become lucrative. A necessary requirement is the prevalence of a culture of peace paving the way for the attainment of sustainable human development, in which institutes of higher education can play a crucial role (UNESCO 1998).

1.1 The Higher Education System in Lebanon

Three realities shape the Lebanese higher education system, most notably the private sector. These realities are the religious and secular domination of the establishment, the foreign origin of the institutional pattern as well as the challenges of indigenisation of the universities as part of the developing process. The religious and secular denominations of the individual universities and their response to indigenisation vary considerably. The institutional patterns followed by the universities of Lebanon are derivatives of the French, American, and Egyptian referential models of the modern university with appropriate adaptations to particular circumstances.

The openness of the Lebanese higher educational system is reflected in the vast array of local and foreign, religious and secular institutes that exist in Lebanon. The diversity of the historical origins of these institutes is as substantial as the multiplicity of the organisational structures, the modes of institutional governance and management, the ethos of the academic profession, the rhythm of academic life, the language of instruction, the procedures for academic assessment and examination, and myriad other elements.

The Lebanese higher education system consisted of 24 colleges and universities in 1999. Of these institutes of higher education, the Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports classified nine as universities. By 2001 the number of institutes of higher learning increased to 40 and accordingly the number of institutes officially recognised as universities by the Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports increased. The Lebanese University is the only public university; the remaining institutes are private. Approximately 101,440 students are enrolled in the institutes of higher education, with foreign students and females comprising around 15.3% and 50% respectively of the higher education cohort (CERD 2000). Around 50% of students are enrolled in the Lebanese University (CERD 2000). This figure is misleading in terms of the real effect of the University on the educational status of the population. In 1998, less than 8 percent of the students originally enrolled at the Lebanese University graduated as compared to a range of 19 to 26 percent at private universities (CERD 1998). The degree of effective management and efficient quality assurance are among the many factors at the core of this discrepancy and the very high dropout rate.

The higher education establishments offer a variety of programmes with Arabic, French and English being the medium of instruction. The educational programmes offered at most of the universities are geared toward satisfying the local and regional labour market needs. Many new programmes have been introduced, mainly in specialities such as finance, computer software, information technology and hotel management. Most universities are working on upgrading the course programmes offered at both the graduate and undergraduate levels to match demand for new skills. The main fields of study are the humanities and arts, followed by law. In 2000, enrolment in these specialisations accounted for more than half of the total student body of all universities combined.

Distance learning is gaining ground in Lebanon with many newly established tertiary institutions offering academic and professional degrees in fields conducive to a distance learning approach, from the undergraduate to the PhD level. Although the Lebanese government does not recognise degrees attained through distance learning from abroad, four universities opened their offices in Lebanon in 1999 and total enrolment was estimated at 200 students. They operate much like a real university with three hourly class sessions a week and lectures posted on the web ahead of time, yet the style of management in these establishments and the mode of instruction differ significantly from the traditional university. The government has issued a license for the Arab Gulf Programme that allows for establishing the headquarters of the Open Arab University in Beirut. The launch of the operations of the University will provide greater access to higher education, particularly for females, and serve the purpose of life-long learning, an essential requirement of modernity. The management style and

mode of operations of this institute will differ significantly from the traditional university.

The geographical distribution of institutes of higher education is uneven among Lebanese regions, thus affecting accessibility to a certain extent. Most are located in the Greater Beirut area where 70 percent of the higher education student body are enrolled. 'Quality' education is basically concentrated in the Greater Beirut area especially with regard to multiple campus universities whose main campuses are in the Greater Beirut area.

The government funds the Lebanese University, the only public institution in the country. Tuition fees and private donations usually fund private universities. The cost of education varies considerably according to the type of institution. The Anglo-Saxon universities seem to charge the highest fees and tend to attract more students from the Muslim community and the Arab countries, while the French-type universities attract more students from the Christian community. Most universities extend financial support to their students in the form of financial aid, work-study aid, loans, and scholarships thus alleviating the pressures associated with high costs of education.

1.2 The Statement of the Problem

The Lebanese Republic has played a very limited and passive role in shaping, developing and organizing higher education in the country. The majority of institutes of higher education were operating and expanding before the Lebanese Government licensed them. The first attempt to organize higher education in Lebanon was in 1961

with the promulgation of the Higher Education Act by the Ministry of National Education and Fine Arts. The circumstances that necessitated the promulgation of the Act then still prevail today. A balance always has to be struck between the different confessional communities in the country, with each community claiming a legitimate right to establish an institute of higher education that would issue forth from the community, serving the cause of knowledge and the interests of the community, Lebanon and the region (El-Aouit 1997). The result has been the expansion of the institutional network of public and private higher education establishments within such a liberal framework, each with its distinctive pattern of institutional administration and management that can be categorised basically as American, French, or Egyptian (El-Amine 1997).

In a special lecture, “University Transformation for the Twenty-first Century”, given by Burton Clark (1998a) he states that no university can possibly cover the waterfront of rapidly expanding knowledge nor the many demands made on institutes of higher education nowadays. There is undoubtedly a need for diversity and a need to diversify. An effective pathway is through a division of labour among universities with different institutional types of considerably diverse management cultures performing different activities (Clark 1983, Teichler 1988). As a means of categorising management cultures and organisational frameworks of institutions of higher education, Thorpe and Cuthbert (1996) offered the quartet of autonomous professional, professional market, managerial market and market bureaucracy; McNay (1995) offered the quartet collegium, bureaucracy, corporation, and enterprise. More will be said about these models in the Literature Review. Management of universities in the United States is a blend of bureaucratic, collegial

and market cultures within a federation of hierarchical layers (Clark and Neave 1992). In France, the legacy of the traditional powerful chair has inhibited the influence of executive level university management under the centralised university planning and control system (Sanyal 1995). The organisational cultures are thus a blend of the bureaucracy and the corporation. In Egypt, executive and departmental management is limited within the traditional bureaucratic hierarchical government centralised system (Sanyal 1995).

Lewis and Smith (1994) accentuate the relationship between the culture of an organisation and the quality of its outcomes. Administrators in different management cultures pursue different strategies such as internal audit, quality assurance and management by objectives to manipulate purposively the performance of their institutions on a set of outcomes, with emphasis being given to notions such as effectiveness (achieving institutional goals), efficiency (doing more with less) and accountability.

There might be a vast array of management cultures in the Lebanese universities and little is known of the impact of these cultures on the audiences of the universities and on performance outcomes. The study will attempt to identify the management cultures and organisational structures in the Lebanese universities. It will concentrate on the analysis of the impact of the diverse management typologies on a wide set of demonstrable performance outcomes for institutes of higher education in Lebanon in an attempt to identify what sort of management types are effective and efficient. Attention will be given to the plausibility of a possibly large array of management cultures among the different historically grounded institutes of higher education,

particularly in a country as small as Lebanon with no more than four million inhabitants.

According to Article 4 of the above mentioned Higher Education Act, a university should be involved in the teaching of sciences and social sciences and be composed of at least three faculties. This study will include only seven institutes of higher learning that are officially recognized as “universities” by the Lebanese Government, six of which are private universities- The American University of Beirut (AUB(Am:F)), The American Lebanese University (LAU(Am:F)), Université Saint-Joseph (USJ(Fr:F)), The Beirut Arab University (BAU(Eg:F)), The University of Balamand (UOB(Am:N)), Notre Dame University (NDU(Am:N)) and The Lebanese University (LU), *the* only public university. Throughout the study, the universities will be referred to by the above three letter abbreviations, with the descriptors in brackets indicating the type of university (American, French or Egyptian), plus origin of establishing authorities (foreign or national). This is to try to help ease of reading and identification.

1.3 Research Aims

Institutes of higher education are international institutions embedded in national cultures and traditions. They have evolved in nature and form over centuries. The claim is that the world’s universities have common historical roots established in medieval Europe, initially France and Bologna (Cobban 1975). The faculty-dominated university of Paris was victorious in its competition with the student-organized universities of Italy and virtually it remains the universal model of higher education today. Other referential models of the modern university are the German

research model of the late nineteenth century, the English collegiate model and the American model - the most influential academic model today that integrated the concept of service to society with the liberal arts and research tradition. The history of all universities is a strong influence upon any individual university. As pointed out by Lockwood (1997), history has formed socio-cultural attitudes to the university such as academic and research excellence coupled with basic features built into the milieu such as autonomy and academic freedom. These attitudes and milieu have shaped institutional management cultures adopted by universities.

The research aims at identifying the principal organisational features and management cultures in the different historically grounded institutes of higher education in Lebanon before detailing the effect of these management cultures and features in achieving 'desirable' ends (according to different stakeholders) reflected to a large extent in the diverse outcomes and audiences of the universities. The final chapter of the research aims at making recommendations for change and reform in management cultures rendering the university as an organisation effective and dynamic in response to a combination of external and internal forces. Especially when establishing new universities, these recommendations can serve as guidelines for governmental and institutional monitoring and steerage.

The specific research questions of the study are:

1. How does the history of an institution affect current management practices?
2. What is the type of management culture adopted by each of these universities?
3. What are the power authority relationships characteristics of each culture?
4. To what extent is the mission of the university translated into clear tangible objectives?

5. What are the modes of operation that facilitate the realisation of the mission objectives?
6. What measures of accountability must the universities maintain?
7. What degree of autonomy do the universities have to manage their internal affairs?
8. Who is the university accountable to in both the public and private sector of higher education?
9. What mechanisms do the universities adopt for internal and external measures of scrutiny?
10. What are the levels and types of participation by faculty and students in decision making?
11. What support mechanisms are there for management development of all concerned parties in decision making?
12. To what extent do job descriptions of faculty match reality?
13. What amount of academic freedom do faculty and staff have to decide their own job description?
14. How does promotion in universities take place?
15. What characteristics and activities influence promotion and to what extent?
16. How is resource allocation managed?
17. How far do all of the above relate to:
 - a. student satisfaction?
 - b. student destinations?
 - c. faculty and staff satisfaction?
 - d. responsiveness of the organisation to new demands?

1.4 Theoretical Frameworks

The research questions indicate a range of theoretical frameworks to underpin the study. According to Currie and Vidovich (2000:135), 'privatisation encapsulates an ideological shift towards market principles such as competition, commercialisation,

deregulation, efficiency and changing forms of accountability'. Privatisation trends in higher education include the full scope from fully private financed institutions to primarily government funded public universities operating in a quasi-market mode. Associated with this wide gamut of university funding are significantly diverse historical backgrounds and organisational cultures that influence modes of management. The study explores the relationship between organisational culture and modes of operation and administration in institutes of higher education in an attempt to define and determine their 'effectiveness' – the success in achieving a desirable set of selected goals - and their 'efficiency'- the achievement of maximum output to minimum input. This is basically achieved through the application of economic techniques by comparing inputs to a range of outputs and outcomes and subject to the market forces of supply and demand rendering the university accountable to different markets - individual, local and national – functioning at different levels within the market.

The study hopes to contribute to theoretical knowledge in the areas of privatisation, organisational structures of institutes of higher education and organisational culture and effectiveness, particularly since the theory can take on different forms in the Lebanese context. The findings would contribute to providing managers and administrators of universities with knowledge of what types of management cultures and processes make the university as an organisation effective, efficient and dynamic in response to a combination of external and internal forces, particularly as such a variety of organisational types exist concurrently within the Lebanese context. The findings can also serve as guidelines for institutional monitoring and steerage by government bodies.

Methodology

The study includes one public and six private universities in the Lebanese Republic. The only public university in the country is the LU. The six private universities are: AUB (Am:F), LAU(Am:F), BAU(Eg:F), USJ(Fr:F), UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N). The data collection extended for a period of nine months, from the beginning of April to the end of December 2002.

A comparative study of the management cultures of these universities was conducted to look at the influence of their origins - The American pattern, the French pattern and the Egyptian pattern. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used. The research began with the analysis of official documents provided by the universities pertaining to their history, statement of purpose, academic policy statements, and by-laws. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a vice president, a dean, a head of a department and two teaching faculty members, a total of five from each university. The interviews had open-ended questions permitting free expression of feelings and perceptions towards the topic studied and provided insight into the extent to which reality matched the factual documentation.

Concurrently, a questionnaire was administered to 210 third year university students at each of the above-mentioned institutes of higher education to determine overall satisfaction with the institutes of higher education. A second questionnaire was administered to ten faculty members in each university for the same purpose. Special attention was given to the equal representation in the sample of students and the sample of faculty members from all faculties and schools at each university with emphasis on equal gender representation whenever possible. A pilot study was conducted on a group of students and faculty members to test the validity of the

questionnaire prior to its actual administration. Combining the qualitative approach through documentation and interviews and the quantitative approach through surveys permits the advantages of one research technique to offset the weaknesses of others. (More detail on this methodology is given in Chapter 3).

1.6 Position of the Researcher

What makes an academically outstanding university? The answers to this question vary according to the different stakeholders. To students and parents it may be the quality of learning and career opportunities; to industry and corporations, it may be the skill and competence of graduates; to faculty, it could be research productivity and career progression; and to university management it is possibly all of these combined. My interest stemmed from my work as a lecturer at the University of Balamand, a relatively young university striving to establish a niche for itself in the national and regional surrounding communities and in a highly competitive market. Issues of special concern were whether management should follow suit of any of the historically grounded institutes or adopt a distinct management culture of its own. Additionally, I was interested to determine which special characteristics rendered a management culture effective and efficient and what is the impact of these characteristics on a range of performance outcomes. With education being amongst the few viable industries in the country, educational institutions are multiplying at a disturbing rate. This fact urged me to investigate the plausibility of such an extensive number of institutes of higher education in a small country such as Lebanon and the effects it could possibly have on the quality of education when all institutes are competing vigorously for students.

1.7 Conclusion

World wide, much has been done on the theory of organizational culture and effectiveness in higher education, particularly in the last quarter of the twentieth century, which witnessed a dramatic increase in demands on higher education accompanied with a variety of new management trends. During this period, a civil war threatened Lebanon's very existence and institutes of higher education struggled to survive. With peace and the absence of legislation, came the chaotic expansion of institutes of higher education across the country. For a country which is well known for its excellent academic standards and where education constitutes a vital economic resource, it is of utmost importance that this industry is protected and preserved by all concerned parties. I hope the findings of this study will contribute to providing managers and administrators of universities with knowledge of what types of management cultures make the university as an organization effective and I also hope that these findings can serve as guidelines for institutional monitoring and steerage by government bodies.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Higher education systems around the world vary considerably. An understanding of these systems may be impeded by their inherent complexities. It is often misleading to simply classify them as private and public based entirely on ownership and sources of financing although this may be true in rare cases such as Lebanon, the country of focus in this study. With the higher education student body divided evenly between private institutions and the sole public institution, an objective of the research is to explore what distinctive institutional characteristics influence students' choices in the Lebanon. The findings may possibly support a trend currently taking effect in several countries around the globe, the privatisation of existing institutions of higher education, which is a potential alternative to the establishment of new private institutes of higher education. With the private sector expanding at an extraordinary rate during the past decade and the growing concern for quality of higher education, these findings seek to provide insights for changes in higher education policy in Lebanon.

Whether private or public, different historically grounded institutes have certain distinctive characteristics related to modes of management and structures of organisations that consequently affect the quality of performance outcomes. The literature review will investigate a range of organisational features, management styles and typologies (basically Western-derived) adopted by universities and the changes they have undergone due to trends of managerialism and an increased

demand for accountability, efficiency and effectiveness so as to assess their relevance to the Lebanese context.

At the onset of this literature review, emphasis is given to exploration of the origins of all existing universities, which are believed to be in medieval Europe, as all forms of indigenous universities that existed prior to that in Asia, Africa and the Middle East have seemingly disappeared. A closer look at the complex structure of higher education systems in various countries around the globe follows, with a focus on both the public and private sectors. Special attention is given thirdly to the privatisation of higher education, a trend gaining significant momentum during the last quarter of the twentieth century. The literature review then moves on to look at management trends, examining particularly one trend of significance, which is managerialism. This leads to a review of typologies of management, as these will form the basis for the research design. Notions of ‘visions’ of organisations and organisations as ‘cultures’ are then explored. Finally, work on the quality of performance outcomes and the notion of accountability in higher education are discussed. This includes a review of research on evaluation of such outcomes, including student evaluation and satisfaction.

2.1 Origins of Universities

After half a millennium, the university, an institution with its roots in medieval Europe, continues to be a powerful force in the world today. This truly global institution, which is at the centre of social and economic progress, has exhibited remarkable surviving power and adaptability to every passing age (Altbach 1998, Clark 1998b). It is claimed that the influence of the medieval universities, particularly

the faculty-dominated Paris model can be seen on all modern universities (Cobban 1975). The German research-based model, the English collegiate model and the American model, which integrates service to society with the research-based and the collegiate trends, have subsequently influenced the modern university.

The institutional patterns followed by universities of the world today are derivatives of these four Western models with appropriate adaptations and modifications for particular circumstances. In some countries, a colonial master imposed these models. The British exported academic models to India, Africa and Southeast Asia, the French to Lebanon, Vietnam and West Africa, the Americans to Lebanon and the Philippines (Altbach and Selvaratnam 1989). The Spanish colonial experience, which relied heavily on the Roman Catholic Church for educational ideas and practices, shaped higher education in the Philippines and Latin America. Colonial universities were similar in pattern to those in the mother country, but were often lacking in the traditions of autonomy and academic freedom (Gilbert 1972). Non-colonized nations such as Japan (Nagai 1971), China and Thailand (Altbach and Selvaratnam 1989) discarded their own institutes of advanced learning and adopted these Western models freely after careful study. The only exception to the Western model that still survives today is the Al-Azhar University in Egypt, Cairo that focuses mainly on traditional Islamic law and theology. Its science faculties however, are now organized along European lines (Bilgrami and Ashraf 1985). Several Islamic universities were founded in the last quarter of the twentieth century in the Gulf States, the Middle East and Malaysia with the aim of integrating Islamic revealed knowledge and values in all disciplines (International Islamic University Malaysia 2004). Few institutions as the

Islamic University of Madinah in Saudi Arabia which is analogous to the Al-Azhar of Cairo focus all their resources solely on religious affairs and have not expanded their programmes to include secular fields of study (The Saudi Arabian information Resource 2004)

As Geoffrey Lockwood (1985) notes, the fact that institutes of higher education choose for themselves the title “university”, although they differ considerably in terms of mission, structure, and function, suggests at least a desire to capture and share that thousand year old tradition. Throughout history, universities both public and private have grown as institutions that are distinctive with an autonomous place in society (Balderston 1995). This distinctive character, which involves complexity of purpose, limited measurability of quality of outputs, autonomy and academic freedom, has helped to create varying degrees of built-in resistances to management control (Lockwood 1985) and varying institutional capacities for adaptation, thus limiting the influence of current trends or ideologies such as privatisation, managerialism, total quality, and others sweeping higher education systems. Before investigating the privatisation trend and its influence on higher education, I shall examine the higher education systems in numerous countries, composed in broad terms of two sectors, public and private.

2.2 Higher Education Systems: Public and Private

An oversimplified description of higher education systems that can be misleading is the separation of the system into two segments, the private and the public segments. According to Geiger (1988: 700), ‘while public sectors can be regarded, directly or

indirectly, as creatures of the state, the state also to a considerable extent moulds the conditions of existence for privately controlled institutions. The state is thus a powerful factor on both sides of the divide'. Daun (2002) argues that the relationship between public and private education varies in response to (i) the level of financial support; (ii) the method of financial support; and (iii) the degree of independence versus control and regulation. In an era of growing demand for higher education with limited resources and declining state support, national policies towards higher education have varied considerably among nations. Few countries have adopted a solely public higher education system, while others have opted for a mixed economy in public institutions; institutions that remain strictly public together with previously public institutions that have been privatised. Still other nations have opted for a dual system of strictly public institutions together with traditionally private institutions. Overall national higher education policies influence policy postures towards private higher education, which are characterised by Zumeta (1996) as *laissez-faire*, central planning or market-competitive.

From a policy perspective Geiger (1988) identifies three structural patterns of public-private differentiation, namely: (i) mass private and restricted public sectors; (ii) parallel public and private sectors; and (iii) comprehensive public and peripheral private sectors. Lebanon clearly comes in the first category. In terms of demand for private higher education, Geiger identifies three different types with reference to the American experience: (i) more, (ii) different and (iii) better. The first type of demand involves the public sector that does not fulfil completely the social demand for higher education, thus allowing the private sector to make up for any deficiencies in the system. Private institutes classified by Geiger as 'different' and 'better' are heavily

dependent on state financing. The 'different' group of private institutes is supported financially by the state for reasons of cultural preference such as religion, ethnicity, gender and so on. The 'better' group of private institutes are supported for reasons of elitism, cultural and social advantage many of which compete with public institutes in areas of academic and research excellence (Geiger 1986). Levy (1986) identifies five categories of public-private system relationships: (i) statist systems have institutional autonomy and are almost totally funded by the government with a small or non-existing private sector – as in Eastern Europe; (ii) public-sector dominated systems have institutional autonomy and are mainly funded publicly – as in the UK and Australia; (iii) similar mixed public and private financing in both sectors with a convergence in functions but not in governance – as in Belgium and Canada; (iv) coexisting publicly funded public sectors and small yet heterogeneous privately funded private sectors – as in Mexico and Argentina; and (v) a minor publicly funded public sector and a dominant and partially subsidized private sector – Brazil and Japan. Again, Lebanon would seem nearer to the fifth one of these. Undoubtedly, some blurring of the distinctions among the groups has accompanied the privatisation trends sweeping the world for more than a decade (Marginson 1997). Within the Latin American context, Levy (1993) distinguishes three types of demand for private higher education similar but not identical to those developed by Geiger. Kerr (1990) analyses institutions along four dimensions: (I) ownership, which may be public or private; (ii) control, which may be internal or external; (iii) financing through public or private funds; and (iv) mechanisms of public funding. Accordingly, six categories of higher education systems are identifiable exhibiting various combinations of these four dimensions, with the American system displaying the widest range of combinations (Kerr 1990). Marginson (1997) describes the public and private institutions as distinct

yet interrelated. Developments in one sector have implications for prospects of the other.

2.2.1 The Development of the Private Sector Around the Globe

Historical and political cultural values exercised by the state on the institutes of higher education have profoundly influenced the development of the public sector. As Neave (2000: 7) claims, 'the university is held to be the expression of the national community' and hence 'the responsibilities academia assumed were defined at, and answerable to, that same level'. The development of the private higher education segment is the result of a much more diverse range of factors. The private higher education sector in the United States dates back to the colonial period (Trow 1993) and it includes some of the most prestigious private institutes in the world. Although there are 20 percent more private as compared to public institutes of higher education, recently enrolments have dropped to just over 20 percent of the total US student body in private institutes after being around 50 percent at the end of World War II (Leslie and Slaughter 1997). In Japan, the private sector is the largest sector although private institutes are mainly located at the lower stratum of the hierarchal pyramid (Arimoto 1997, Kerr 1990). In countries such as Canada and Sweden, government provision of substantial sums of capital essential for the expansion of the private sector resulted in extended state authority over higher education effectively eclipsing the private institutes (Geiger 1988). Private institutes of higher education in Australia have had little impact on the overall system due to a belief by a considerable proportion of the population that in the interest of common good higher education should be a matter of state concern (Meek and Wood 1997). The conceptualisation of British universities legally as private non-profit-making institutions (Walford 1988, Williams 1997) has

resulted in a very small private sector despite direct government support (Walford 1987). Demand for private higher education in Spain has not grown substantially despite the establishment of six new private institutes since 1991, due to high tuition fees without a remarkable difference in quality of education outcomes (Mora 1997).

With higher education being of paramount importance for social and economic development, the growth and the expansion of the private sector in different parts of the world has been significant. In the mid-eighties the central government of China began to encourage the establishment of educational institutes run by the non-state sector (Mok 1997) as it realized the importance of technical and professional knowledge for China's advancement and modernization, thought to be achieved primarily through diversification. For the communist states in Eastern and Central Europe, private higher education is a new phenomenon and offers an alternative to the educational doctrine of the communist regime, which was applied arbitrarily by the state institutions (Sadlak 1994). The socialist regime in Syria did not legalize the establishment of private colleges until 2001 as part of an effort to strengthen public higher education through cooperative ventures and competition (Del Castillo 2001).

In many developing countries, private colleges and universities are claimed to fulfil a vital educational function. They account for a significant share of total higher education enrolment. Private university colleges are increasing in number in several Arab states, particularly in Iraq, Morocco, Sudan, the United Arab Emirates and Lebanon. Eighty five percent of the private institutes were established in the past two decades (Qasem 1998). Lebanon has the oldest functioning private institutes. Its

higher education system consisted solely of private universities for almost a century. Today there is only one public university with enrolments shared evenly amongst the private and the public sectors. Almost 80 percent of the higher education population in the Philippines attends private universities since there is no space for them in the public institutions (James 1991). Massive demand for higher education in Latin America in the sixties and seventies led to loss of academic selectivity and social exclusivity (Marginson 1997). As suggested by Levy (1986), such failure in the public sector resulted in the expansion of the private sector that was deprived of public funds and depended almost entirely on tuition fees. It appears that gradually, the notion of the privatisation of higher education is being accepted as an inescapable reality in different countries around the globe, each country for its own specific reasons.

2.3 Privatisation

A significant and relatively new factor in the discourse on higher education is the construct of the market that has been around for some time in the United States and is spreading rapidly across most of the world, particularly Europe (Weiler 2000), China (Mok 2000a) and Australia (Meek and Wood 1997, Currie and Vidovich 2000). It has generated serious initiatives in the direction of considering the deregulation and privatisation of higher education (Currie and Vidovich 2000, Mok 2000b). The term privatisation can be defined, first generally, as any process aimed at shifting functions and responsibilities from the government to the private sector (Le Grand and Robinson 1985); and second, more explicitly, as any shift of the production of goods and services from the public to the private (Johnson 1990). The first broader definition of privatisation includes all the reductions in the regulatory and spending activity on the state. The second includes deregulation and spending cuts only when

they result in a shift from public to private production of goods and services. Privatisation means different things in different parts of the world, where both the fundamentals of the economy and the purpose served by privatisation may differ. In developed countries privatisation is treated simply as a question of domestic policy, while in underdeveloped and developing countries privatisation is synonymous with the term denationalisation or the transfer of control and ownership to foreign investment. It may even mean the transfer of wealth and power from one domestic or interest group to another (Starr 1988). The theories justifying privatisation draw their stimulus from various visions of a good society. As Starr (1988: 8) explains:

By far the most influential is the vision grounded in laissez-faire individualism and free market economics that promises greater efficiency, a smaller government, and more individual choice if only we expand the domain of property rights and market forces. A second vision, rooted in a more socially minded conservative tradition, promises a return of power to communities through a greater reliance in social provision on families, churches, and other largely non-profit institutions... Yet a third perspective sees privatisation as a political strategy diverting demands away from the state and thereby reducing government “overload”...indeed, some advocates of privatisation draw on all three.

The chief proponents of the privatisation trend in the field of education are the World Bank and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development-OECD (World Bank 1994, OECD 1995). They have been fundamental in encouraging governments to take major steps towards adopting public policy in higher education based on economic goals. The economic development of a country and its competitiveness in the international market depends on the skill of its people in the knowledge-based economy of the 21st century. To this end, a shift of state responsibility in educational provision to individuals would be essential to create a competitive market for university services which would bring with it the efficiency, effectiveness and quality product benefits that flow from competitive arrangements

leading to continuing increases in economically defined productivity (Karmel 2001). The OECD (1998) indicated in the review of tertiary education that the more individual countries implemented the entrepreneurial, instrumentalist and managerial approaches, the more they would be leading the institutes of higher education in the right direction. In response to these recommendations, some governments have created a new private sector or expanded an existing one occasionally through increased subsidies for private institutes (Marginson 1997). Others have encouraged the establishment of strictly private institutions ‘operating outside the framework of public requirements of accountability and equity’ (Marginson 1993: 52). Most governments, however, influenced by the tidal wave of managerialism have pushed for the corporatization of the public higher education sector (Marceau 1995, Yeatman 1987). In his lecture “University Transformations for the Twenty-first Century” Burton Clark (1998a) asserts that national systems of higher education ought to formally encourage differentiation in types of institutions thus establishing a division of labour in which universities have different responsibilities. Moreover, universities should be capable of responding flexibly and selectively to changes in the external world and within the knowledge domains of the university world, which impels their transformation towards a lasting entrepreneurial posture (Clark 1998b).

2.3.1 Consequences of Privatisation

Privatisation is seen as not without its limitations and it may not necessarily be the best resolve. As Walford (1988) claims ‘The aim is not just reduction in government expenditure, but is also the desire to make individuals recognise the cost of higher education and make some financial commitment to it and for institutions to become more responsive and accountable to student demands’ (p. 60). The adoption of such a

market-oriented input-output approach leads to the introduction of competition between institutions of higher education and to stringent regulations and rigorous review exercises intended to assure quality, efficiency and effectiveness of educational outcomes (Mok 2000b). It would be interesting to explore the relevance of this view to a country such as Lebanon where the higher education arena is dominated by privately funded institutions and with a public sector ailing due to lack of public funds. It may be noted that some university faculty members are eager to use their human capital skills and knowledge in such a competitive market environment (Slaughter and Leslie 1997b). This trend known as 'academic capitalism' is one of the latest developments of higher education in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Singapore. To compensate for reduced government expenditure in state universities and to avoid unreasonably high tuition fees in private universities, higher education institutions have turned to corporations, government and non government foundations and industry for financial support and funding, which has altered academic priorities and has determined what research is to be conducted, focusing on research and development that is somewhat routine in nature with more commercial application rather than basic, curiosity-driven research (Shumar 1997, Soley 1995, Walford 1988). Scholars in institutes around the world and even the United States, where the trend which is known as corporatization of higher education originated, share this concern. Currie and Vidovich (2000) argue accountability to students and their demands has further added to the problem, particularly when operated in a way 'to foster greater instrumentalism in both teaching and research, to the detriment of broader social goals' (p. 148). 'Instrumentalism as applied to teaching means that subjects (philosophy, history, classics), once thought essential in a university, may be dropped in favour of those that are more popular with students

and seen as having greater direct job applicability (commerce, computing, media) (Currie and Vidovich 2000: 148). In this respect, private institutes of higher education are more responsive to students' needs. Students are treated as customers and in an attempt to meet market demand and newly emerging market needs, private institutes adopt programmes that are practically oriented mainly in vocational, technical and commercial spheres particularly at the undergraduate level, which is a relatively low cost product with great private benefit (James 1991).

2.4 Management Trends

With higher education policies changing continuously in response to market forces, management trends are also subject to changes. Sanyal (1995) identified four trends in university management: (i) self-regulation and autonomy adopted by the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and the Netherlands, (ii) self-regulation in transition implemented by Sweden and Norway, (iii) self-regulation in difficulty employed in Central and Eastern Europe and Latin America and (iv) centralized planning and control adopted by Continental Europe, Africa, Asia and the Arab States. As noted by Sanyal (1995) there has been considerable change towards stronger executive forms of management in countries under self-regulation systems, with the most radical changes reported among new universities anxious about their survival. External pressures, the strongest of all being the transition from the 'producer/provider to the customer/user as the determinant of the product- a shift from the supply to the demand side', have brought about these changes (Bull 1994: 83). These changes, as Davies (1994) points out threaten a return to authoritarianism but concurrently offer possibilities for more democratic management styles. This has not been the case where centralized planning and control is implemented basically

because institutions of higher education cannot take the initiative to change without governmental consent. Where there has been change, particularly radical change, in management cultures, there has been growth of a trend defined by many as managerialism.

2.4.1 Managerialism

In the last quarter of the twentieth century institutes of higher education around the world have been bombarded with a multiplicity of demands from a rapidly changing national and international environment. The dramatic increase in demand on universities has outrun their capacity to respond (Clark 1998b). Institutes of higher education are seen to have entered a time of turmoil to which there seems no end. According to Trow (1994), the responses to these pressures on universities have been analysed in terms of the rapid growth of managerialism. For Pollitt (1990: 1), 'managerialism is a set of beliefs and practices, at the core of which burns the seldom-tested assumption that better management will prove an effective solution to a wide range of economic and social ills'. Trow (1994) believes that soft and hard managerialism concepts are being applied to both private and public higher education. Soft managerialism focuses on improving efficiency of the institution by employing effective managerial techniques to achieve quality and productivity without compromising the autonomy of the institution. Hard managerialism focuses on improving institutional efficiency through a system of financial rewards for attaining desired outcomes, and penalties for failing to do so implemented by external controls to ensure the effectiveness of managerial techniques. In both approaches there is an evident transition to a prevailing corporation culture, which Sinclair (1989: 389)

defines as 'rational, output-oriented, plan-based, and management-led view of organisational reform' and which is often referred to by some as the 'McUniversity' (Parker and Jarry 1995, Ritzer 1998). The collegial governing structure is being gradually replaced by new management structures (Deem 1998), with decision making undertaken by appointed parties rather than elected ones (Hodson and Thomas 1999) and which allows for greater concentration of power at the centre of the institution and less consultation (Weil 1994). Clarke and Newman (1997) argue that bureau-professionalism, a combination of bureaucratic administration and professionalism, that dominated the educational sector for much of the post-war period, is being challenged by a new mode of organisational management based on managerial assumptions. In a research study conducted by Conford (2000), he suggests organisational models are more complex than the simple binary divide between the 'traditional university' more commonly known as the 'collegial university' and the 'managerial university' or the 'bureaucratic university'. Michael Shattock (1999) found that the predominantly academically successful universities with stronger traditions of collegial government were able to resist the worst aspects of managerialism and preserve a vigorous academic ethos. For all kinds of contextual reasons some universities embraced managerialism, 'fashioning tightly focused teams of executive managers', while most 'adopted more mixed modes of managerial authority'. To understand the various responses to managerialism, an investigation of the various management typologies would prove beneficial.

2.5 Management Typologies

Max Weber, a German sociologist, made a major contribution to the theory of organisation and management. Morgan (1997: 17) states that in Weber's work we

‘find the first comprehensive definition of a bureaucracy as a form of organisation that emphasized precision, speed, clarity, regularity, reliability, and efficiency achieved through the creation of a fixed division of labour, hierarchical supervision, and detailed rules and regulations’. The classical management theorists and the scientific management theorists were also firm advocates of bureaucratisation as the sole means to manage organisations. The classical management theorists focused on the design of the total bureaucratic organisation, while the scientific management theorists focused on the design of individual jobs in a bureaucratic manner (Morgan 1997).

Realising that the bureaucratic approach had the potential to mechanize every aspect of human life, Weber (1947) identified a more democratic form of organisation, the collegiality model, in which power is vested in a collective group of people who as Waters (1989: 956) explains are ‘theoretically equal in their levels of expertise but who are specialized by area of expertise’. In South Africa, collegiality is viewed to be ‘wholly consistent with the democratic ideals underpinning the post-apartheid education system’ (Bush 2000: 277). Collegiality is a preferred normative model that is promoted in the UK (Wallace 1989, Price 1994), although, as Hellawell and Hancock (2001) found in a case study conducted in fourteen young universities in the UK, collegial processes are often evaded at levels above the head of department in the managerial hierarchy, particularly when trying to solicit change. In the United States, Little (1990) found collegiality to be uncommon. Collegiality is argued to have its limitations. The decision-making process is slow, consensus can occasionally give

way to conflict, and there is the problem of sustaining accountability (Bush 2000, Hellawell and Hancock 2001).

Several new models, particularly the political model as espoused by Baldrige (1971) challenged the dominance of the bureaucratic model. In the Stanford Project on Academic Governance (1978), Baldrige offered a detailed account of the political model in relation to universities. Baldrige noted that political models were found to be more realistic forms of management than either the bureaucratic or collegium approaches (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley 1978). Lockwood (1985: 25) summarised Baldrige's convictions in relation to political models being more pragmatic than the bureaucratic and collegial models in the following statement:

The interaction of the 'bureaucratic' and the 'collegial' elements in the nature of the university as an organisation is a main cause of the complexity of the internal structures and pressures, and helps explain the existence of limited manageability.

Baldrige et al. (1978) identified a variety of characteristics of the political model such as the focus on interests and interest groups, the concept of conflict, the fluidity of participation in decision-making, the diffusion of authority, the prevalence of inactivity and the belief that the outcomes are a function of power.

Typologies have been used extensively to study educational organisations and their management. Simkins (1999) asserts that all such typologies have the potential to be used descriptively or normatively and must encompass, explicitly or implicitly, two key sets of assumptions:

- assumptions about the policy values which either underpin organisational purposes and actions (descriptive) or should inform their operations (normative); and
- assumptions about how power is typically distributed and exercised (descriptive) or about which individuals and/or groups have the legitimate right to determine the purposes of organisational activities and the processes through which these are achieved (normative). (p. 271).

Particularly influential typologies have been the quartets produced by Thorpe and Cuthbert (1996), Bergquist (1992), Birnbaum (1988) and McNay (1995). Working with American institutions of higher education, Bergquist (1992) identified four cultures of the academy: the collegial, the managerial, the negotiating and the developmental culture. According to Bergquist, the image, traditions and character of institutions are shaped by these cultures interacting within them. Each culture has its distinct values, untested assumptions and educational purposes. He notes that most institutions embrace more than one of the above cultural types, but one type is usually dominant.

- Collegial:
 - The culture finds meaning in the disciplines.
 - Faculty research and scholarship are valued.
 - There is an untested assumption that rationality manifested through critique and intellectualism is dominant.
 - The educational purpose of the institution is perceived to be the generation, interpretation and dissemination of knowledge to develop among young women and men who are future leaders of society specific values and qualities.
- Managerial:
 - The culture finds meaning in the organisation, implementation, and evaluation of work aimed towards specific goals and purposes.

- Effective supervisory skills are valued.
- There is an untested assumption that the institution can define and measure its objectives clearly.
- The educational purpose of the institution is perceived to be the inculcation of specific skills and attitudes in students who will become responsible citizens.
- Negotiating:
 - The culture finds meaning in the establishment of equitable and egalitarian policies and procedures for the distribution of resources in the institution.
 - Fair bargaining among management and faculty members are valued.
 - There is an untested assumption about the role of power and the need for external mediation.
 - The educational purpose of the institution is seen to be the dissemination of more liberating social attitudes and structures.
- Developmental:
 - The culture finds meaning in the development of programmes and activities that enhance the personal and professional growth of all the members of the collegial institution.
 - Openness and service to clients are valued.
 - There is an untested assumption that while helping the institution advance and develop individuals will also attain their own personal development.
 - The educational purpose of the institution is perceived as the encouragement of potential for cognitive and behavioural development among all members, both faculty and students, of the institution.

Based on experience in the universities of higher education in the UK, Thorpe and Cuthbert (1996) presented the four cultures of autonomous professional, professional market, managerial market and market bureaucracy as an approach to categorising institutions of higher education. Institutions classified as autonomous professional fit well with Bergquist's collegial culture where faculty members represented through

disciplines exercise considerable influence. The 'elitism' of these institutions limits the influence of external bodies, particularly that of the government. Although managerial market institutions do not have the autonomy or independence of autonomous professional institutions, they look to include research in their mission alongside their traditional mission of teaching. The mission of institutions classified as professional market is similar to that of the managerial market institutions. In these institutions there tends however to be a shift of power from faculty and staff to management in order to further realise their potential in dealing with market forces. Students tend to gain in these institutional types. In institutions categorised as market bureaucracies, which are most exposed to market forces, teaching is the major component of the overall portfolio of activities of these institutions while research activity is minimal. This type of institution is divergent from the autonomous professional institution as noted by Thorpe and Cuthbert.

Birnbaum (1988) outlined yet another typology consisting of four basic organisational cultures for institutes of higher education. These cultures are determined by the degree of tightness and looseness of coupling. Birnbaum labelled the models as collegial, bureaucratic, political and anarchical. He then proposed a fifth model known as the cybernetic model. The cybernetic model is an integration of all these four models developed by extracting the most positive aspects of each model. According to Birnbaum, the cybernetic model does not replace the collegial, bureaucratic, political or anarchical institutional cultures but rather offers a different perspective of the university as an organisation. The cybernetic institution results from the interaction of social norms, hierarchical structures, contending preferences and cognitive limits and biases. This institutional type provides direction through self-

regulation or self correcting mechanisms that monitor organisational functions. This is accomplished through cybernetic controls that are in place for collecting, analysing and disseminating data and for ensuring the existence of forums to allow the various interested constituencies to interact among each other.

McNay (1995) used the dimensions of policy definition and operational control (both defined as loose and tight) to produce the quartet of collegium, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise. He provided a useful diagram using these two dimensions in which he lays out the four organisational cultures of the university (Figure 2.1). For each culture, the characteristics of policy definition procedures and the modes of control over implementation, defined to be loose or tight, were identified.

- The collegium is characterized by loose policy definition and loose control over implementation. It focuses on freedom to pursue university and personal goals unaffected by external control. The main organisational unit is the discipline-based department. The international scholarly community sets standards, and evaluation is by peer review. Decision-making is consensual. The management style is laissez-faire. Students are seen as apprentice academics.
- The bureaucracy is characterized by loose policy definition and tight control over implementation. It represents managerialism in higher education. It allows a degree of autonomy for individuals in the selection of goals and objectives within a context of precise rules for implementation. Goals or policies are typically negotiated by committees and loosely defined, but implementation draws on standard procedures, which are generalised to the

institution as a whole. Standards are related to regulatory bodies. Evaluation is based on the audit of procedures. Decision-making is rule-based. Students are statistics.

- The corporation is controlled with tight policy definition and tight control over implementation. The goals and the means by which they can be met are constrained. There is strong centralised control in the institution promoting articulation between the parts and the whole. The focus is on loyalty to the organisation and senior management. The management style is charismatic. Decision-making is political and tactical. Its standards are related to organisational plans and goals. Evaluation is based on performance indicators. Students are units of resource and customers.
- The enterprise has clearly defined central policy but control over implementation is more loosely exercised. Clear goals are established for the institution but it allows considerable autonomy in the way they are met. Primarily, its mission defines the institution. The management style is one of devolved leadership. The decision-making process is flexible and the small project team is the dominant unit within the institution. Its standards are related to market strength and the evaluation is based on achievement. Students are seen as clients and partners in the search for understanding.

In a survey study of one modern university - a former polytechnic - that McNay conducted, 25 senior staff - deans and heads of service units – were asked to distribute ten points among the four organisational cultures over three periods to reflect the overall balance of culture within the institution. McNay (1995) found that all cultures

co-existed within the university. According to McNay, the dominant pattern of change within the UK would be from the collegium to the bureaucratic to the corporate to the enterprise culture. He also noted that some institutions as Cambridge have gone from the collegium to the enterprise in exploiting their intellectual capital. McNay's typology was adapted by Ramsden (1998) in his empirical study to determine the predominant organisational cultures in universities in Australia. Two groups of heads of departments, the first consisting of ten heads from one university and the second consisting of 21 heads from 15 universities, were requested to distribute 100 points among the four cultures over three periods to represent their universities. The findings indicate a decline in the collegium culture, a steady or a declining bureaucratic culture and an increase in both the corporate and enterprise cultures.

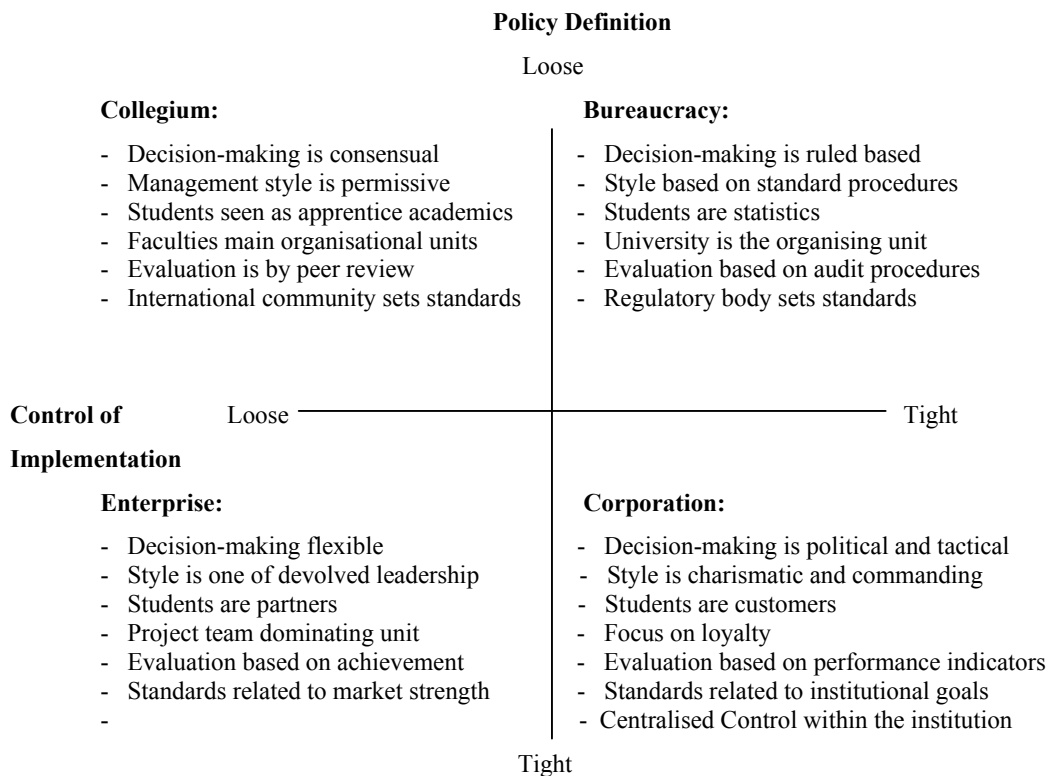


Figure 2.1 Four Models of University Cultures (adapted from McNay 1995)

In his article 'The Virtual University is... the University Made Concrete?' James Conford (2000) not only provided a detailed presentation of McNay's four models of universities as organisations, but also gave a vivid description of the university of the future as McNay envisioned it, which having progressed from the dominant collegial culture through to the bureaucratic, corporate and finally the enterprise culture culminated in:

a 'fragmented' or 'atomised' institution characterised by small, task-focused work units, each having economic and managerial controls over its own destination, interconnected through 'benign computer and communication links' and bonding to larger organisations through 'strong cultural bonds' (Conford 2000: 8).

Conford (2000) however argues that McNay's image of the university of the future that aligns with that of the virtual university based on his studies is too simple.

In spite of more than a decade of managerialist reform, the collegium or 'traditional university' remains an important self-image or paradigm for most university institutions, albeit one that is most often understood to be under threat (and which really may never really have existed).

Nevertheless, the traditions of collegial self-management and the heritage of rule by committee mean that these tendencies are always held in check. (p. 9).

Of interest in this study is determining which of the above cultures prevail in the Lebanese context or whether there is a typology unique to the Lebanese setting despite the foreign origins of some of the universities in question. To achieve this end McNay's typology will be adopted for use in this study. As has been seen above, this model has provided an analytical framework for several research studies in different

countries, and it hence provides a useful comparative base as well as possibilities for translation into a specific research design that is both quantitative and qualitative.

2.6 Different Visions of Organisations

In contrast to typologies, Morgan (1997) looks at organisations in a profoundly original way. He developed eight images or metaphors to help understand the complex and paradoxical character of organisational life and to provide insights on how to manage and design organisations more effectively and efficiently. These images are: (1) organisations as machines, (2) organisations as organisms, (3) organisations as cultures, (4) organisations as brains, (5) organisations as psychic prisms, (6) organisations as systems of governments, (7) organisations as instruments of domination and (8) organisations of flux and transformation. First, he examines images of organisations as machines and depicts how this mode of thought underpins the development of bureaucratic organisations. Second, when comparing an organisation to an organism, Morgan focuses attention on understanding organisational needs and environmental relations. Third, the notion of organisations as cultures has received considerable attention recently from writers on corporate organisations as can be depicted from my review of literature. Fourth, the implications of describing an organisation as a ‘brain’ is best conveyed through the following questions: ‘Is it possible to design learning organisations that have the capacity to be as flexible, resilient, and inventive as the functioning of the brain? Is it possible to distribute capacities for intelligence and control throughout an enterprise so that the system as a whole can self-organise and evolve along with emerging challenges?’ (Morgan 1997: 74). Fifth, the metaphor of an organisation as ‘psychic prisons’ encourages one ‘to understand that while organisations may be constructed realities,

these constructions are often attributed an existence and power of their own that allow them to exercise a measure of control over their creators' (Morgan 1997: 215). Sixth, organisations are viewed as systems of government drawing on various political principles. Seventh, the image of organisations as instruments of domination focuses on the 'potentially exploitative aspects of corporate life', while finally that of an organisation of flux and transformation examines four logics of change shaping social life. Of these images provided by Morgan, perhaps the most intriguing one is that of organisations as culture, which will be further developed below.

To create a more complete understanding of the nature of the university, it may be beneficial to address the organisational structure and processes that shape and are shaped by a combination of institutional features. The organisational structure is composed of three frameworks: the units or academic departments, the committees and the officers (Lockwood, 1985). While the academic department is the basic organisational unit, the individual faculty member is the elementary particle of the institution. Although the department may be composed of sub-groups with special areas of course and research interests, the academic discipline provides a strong yet permeable boundary around the department. The structure of the academic department may be described as such 'protected by professional competence, fragmented but not discrete' (Lockwood 1985: 33). The structure that relates the base unit to the institutional level is normally the committee. In American universities authority is vested in officers who possess executive decision-making power. Decisions made are usually based on recommendations received from committees and boards. In British universities on the other hand, authority is passed down from committee to

committee. Officers may be very influential with almost comparable executive power to their American counterparts, but formal decision-making power resides in committees. Some universities have created planning bodies and research centres outside the basic structure of academic department to respond to the pressures of the external environment and to allow for the enhancement of the flexibility of organisational structure of the university.

Along parallel lines, Birnbaum (1988) perceives the university to be composed of three levels of responsibility and control: the technical level, the managerial level and the institutional level. The technical level includes research, teaching and services performed by faculty members. The institutional level is represented by the board of trustees and the president who are mainly responsible for responding appropriately to the uncertainty of external forces. The managerial level represented by management mediates between these two levels to minimize possible disruptions of faculty members from their core functions of teaching and research by the external environment.

As noted by Lockwood (1985:38), ‘ the organisation is not like the firm, an integrated organisation, where once the governing body or senior management have accepted the validity or priority of a demand, resources and people are allocated to it and are managed through hierarchical controls to ensure that they fulfil it’. Frackmann (1994) asserts that it is the fuzziness of the goals of academic organisations that further contributes to their limited manageability making it particularly difficult for management to steer the organisation of professionals by order, command and the

implementation of well-defined rules, regulations and standards. The conceptual frame for the interpretation of this 'limited manageability' is according to Frackmann (1994) the institutional culture of the organisation.

2.7 Organisations as Culture

The concept of organisational culture provides a relatively innovative approach to the theory of educational management and has received increased attention over the past three decades. Bergquist (1992) defined culture as the common understanding that holds people together and instils in them an individual and collective sense of purpose and continuity. Culture is frequently described in terms of shared meaning – patterns of belief, symbols, rituals and myths that evolve over time and function to bind the organisation together (Pettigrew 1979, Martin 1985). Bush (2000: 278) notes 'culture is the informal dimension of organisations'. It shapes the character of an organisation. Culture is created through communication and social interaction (Zamanou and Glaser 1994). Culture is both a process and a product according to Kuh and Whitt (1988). As a process, culture shapes and is shaped by the ongoing interaction of people while as a product it reflects the interactions among the traditions, history, organisational structures and the behaviour of faculty, staff and students. Culture refers to the distinctive features of an organisation expressed in the form of extensively shared values and beliefs that relate to goals and tasks to be prioritised and pursued by its participants, and the manner in which participants are to perform and to relate to one another within the organisation. (Bull 1994, Morgan 1997). Organisational cultures evolve from the social practices of members of organisations and are, therefore, socially created realities that exist in the minds of all members of the organisation as well as in the formal rules, policies and procedures of organisational structures

(Masland 1991). To better understand organisational culture, two different paradigms have been developed: the functionalist paradigm and the interpretive paradigm. The functionalist paradigm affirms that organisations produce culture and it aims at discovering concrete indicators of culture (Putnam 1982). The interpretive paradigm, on the other hand, argues that organisations are cultures because their existence is based on human interaction (Zamanou and Glaser 1994).

According to Bull (1994) universities traditionally have two co-existing cultures, the ‘academic culture’ and the ‘administrative culture’. As the basic mission of the university is the creation and dissemination of knowledge (Clark 1983), the innovative, articulate, creative academics are instinctively at home in the academic or task culture. Sanyal (1995) points out that to keep up with the rapid expansion of knowledge academics need to be increasingly more involved in their disciplines. The administrative staff, who are often enough academics, run the university in an integrated way by rules, procedures and structures quite like a bureaucracy providing the range of financial, technical and other administrative services (Bull 1994, Downey 2000). Bull claims however, ‘ that the university’s present and future achievements will have more to do with shared ‘values’ - ‘the basic philosophy, spirit and drive of an organisation’ – than with resources or organisational structures’ (1994: 85). Thus there is a need to integrate the two cultures by encouraging and assisting ‘all staff to employ shared values as the framework which informs strategic and policy decisions and day-to-day operations, using rules as the constraining and not the driving force’ (Bull 1994: 86).

Munro (1995: 436-437) argues ‘first, that values, rules or beliefs propel action, and are therefore, as psychological motors of action, in some way prior to action. Second, that values, rules and beliefs instigate action more indirectly through a process of socialisation, whereby actors cognitively internalise routines.’ Establishing shared values is usually seen as a process with the development of a mission statement as a key component of the process. Peeke (1994: 9) claims that the mission ‘process aids the establishment of a clear sense of purpose, that it assists in communication and decision making, that it facilitates marketing and aids evaluation activity, and that it helps in responding to contraction’. Organisational culture is seen to be connected to the effectiveness of the organisation and the central processes such as leadership and governance of the organisation (Schien 1985). The study of the culture of an institution may then be seen to have shifted from being used as a descriptive device to one linked with institutional effectiveness, improvement and success (Kezar and Eckel, 2002).

As the definition of culture varies across organisational researchers so does that of organisational effectiveness, with researchers tending to emphasise their ‘preferred’ set of effectiveness elements. Pounder (1999) for example identified four organisational effectiveness dimensions applicable to higher education in Hong Kong. These dimensions are: (1) productivity–efficiency, (2) information management–communication, (3) cohesion and (4) planning–goal setting. Each dimension reflects a different aspect of an organisation’s behaviour. First, productivity-efficiency has to do with behaviour that reflects the extent to which the organisation is concerned with the quantity or volume of what it produces and the cost of operation. Second, information

management-communication reflects the extent of the organisation's ability to distribute timely and accurate information needed by its members to do their jobs. Third cohesion reflects the extent of concern of the organisation with staff morale, interpersonal relationships, teamwork and sense of belonging. Finally planning-goal setting is related to the ability of an organisation to set goals and objectives and systematically plan for the future. In this study organisational effectiveness is defined as the success of an organisation in achieving a desirable set of selected goals which are usually reflected in the outcomes of higher education. The outcomes of higher education usually include educated and employable students, trained researchers, research publications, scientific and technological advances and consultancy and service for public and private institutions or organisations. 'Another important though intangible outcome is the morale and satisfaction of the people who work in universities, on whom the quality and quantity of research, service and scholarship finally depends' (Ramsden 1998: 38). My study will investigate student satisfaction with the quality of the services they are receiving as an outcome of higher education and therefore a dimension of organisational effectiveness. The influence of culture from the perspective of students as conveyed through the outcomes will be an important aspect of this.

As Denison (1991) argues however, the relationship between culture and organisational effectiveness cannot be underestimated. Denison looks at four major cultural aspects to describe the cultural-effectiveness relationship. These are (1) involvement and consistency that focus on the dynamics of the organisation and (2) mission and adaptability that focus on the relationship between the institution and the

external environment. According to Denison, effectiveness may be perceived as a function of (1) the values and beliefs held by an institution, (2) the policies and practices used by an institution, (3) the translation of values and beliefs into policies and practices in a consistent way and (4) the interaction of the values, belief, policies and practices of an institution with the business environment of the institution. Dennison notes that an integrative model that takes into account the four cultural aspects allows a better understanding of the impact of culture on the effectiveness of an organisation.

2.8 Quality in Higher Education

According to Penington (1988), most university systems were elite systems. They were developed with a commitment to academic independence and accountability. Members of the academic community saw the 'pursuit of truth', implicit in the ideals of scholarship, as a sufficient safeguard for the quality of outcomes in higher education. Emphasis was on exceptional high quality inputs, which resulted in high quality outputs such as pioneering research, scholarly theses, and exceptional graduates (Harvey 1998). Higher education was producer-oriented, directed towards the interest of its scholars rather than those of students, employers or governments as in McNay's academically autonomous or collegium typology.

The notion of quality has evolved from one of a vague concept to articulated procedures. Special attention is now being given to performance and efficiency indicators such as research outputs, quality of teaching and new management reforms (Slaughter and Leslie 1997, Spring 1998) with different stakeholders in higher

education– the public, faculty, students, management- assigning different values to criteria of quality based on their own goals (Donald and Denison 2001). Thus, in many countries evaluation procedures have shifted from the self-monitoring of internal needs to the more formal and external auditing activities.

The rapid expansion and massification of higher education, the increased demand to produce employable graduates to meet the expectations of industry and market needs have further led to increased demands for both internal and external accountability. Harvey (1998: 238) confirms the above in his statement, ‘the organisation, degree of government control, extent of devolved responsibility and funding for higher education systems vary considerably from one country to the next. However, the rapid changes taking place in higher education are tending to lead to a convergence towards a dominant model for quality...one of delegated accountability’. The result has been the adoption of internalised and external systems of quality management or varying combinations of the systems by managers in higher education to assure, as Epper (1999) claims, the achievement of specified benchmarks. Epper defines benchmarking in higher education as a process that ‘involves first examining and understanding an organisation’s internal work procedures, then searching for best practices in other organisations that match those identified, and finally, adapting those practices within one’s own organisation to improve performance’.

Harvey (1995) distinguishes five different views of quality in higher education. They are: (1) the exceptional view which equates quality with excellence and is attainable only by a small elite; (2) the perfection view which associates quality to flawless

outcomes; (3) the fitness for purpose view where quality is linked to fulfilling customer need; (4) the value for money view and (5) the transformational view which connects quality to change from one state or form to another. Most institutes of higher education would draw on many if not all of these views of quality. The exceptional view however tends to be more characteristic of McNay's collegium culture; the value for money view more congruent with conceptions of McNay's corporate culture while the transformational view of quality seems more evidently linked with that of the enterprise culture.

Although there seems to be consensus between stakeholders and those who deliver higher education on the desirable outcomes of higher education, particularly in relation to the standard of teaching and the quality of the outcomes of a university education, whether or not these outcomes are achieved from a student's perspective is an issue of concern in this study. The literature on such perspectives indicates that the quality of a university education is a function of many variables such as the quality of teaching, the quality of university experience, possibilities of employment, career horizons, opportunities for personal growth, and many others. Students understand that the market value of their education is a function of the perceived quality of education (Ortmann and Squire 1998). As quality of education is difficult to evaluate directly, the market value of a degree is a function of the institution's high academic standing and relative merit (Keith 2001). Institutional ratings are positively influenced by a range of factors such as size (number of degrees awarded), institutional characteristics (student aptitude, student admission selectivity and student graduation rates) and faculty scholarship outcomes (research funds, research publications and

consultancy rates) (Keith 2001). As noted by Benjamin and Hersh (2002) however, these ratings depend mainly on input variables such as student aptitude, student-faculty ratios, financial and institutional resources and do not measure the knowledge, skills, and competencies that students develop as a result of their university education. The degree to which an institution develops the abilities of its students and facilitates transformations in their understanding is referred to as 'value added'. It is the 'value added' that reflects the quality of an education attained which is enhanced primarily through effective teaching and learning practices.

Teaching effectiveness has been found to be multidimensional; in other words, there are different components to effective teaching. From the perspective of faculty members, effective teaching entails the development of critical thinking, the enhancement of a deep understanding of principles, the establishment of links between theory and practice and the acquisition of lifelong learning skills (Entwistle 1981, Knapper 1990). According to employers, effective teaching instils in students qualities such as flexibility, creativity, as well as communication, analytical and problem solving skills. From the perspective of students, subject knowledge, organisation, efficiency, self-confidence, clarity of objectives, value of assessment, availability, expectation level for students, class orientation and openness were some identified characteristics of effective teaching in the USA in the 1970s (Feldman 1976). More recently, Sheehan and DuPrey (1999) conducted a study in USA which they found five items to be associated with effective teaching. These items, in descending order of significance as indicated by students' responses to a one to five Likert scale, are: (1) informative lectures, (2) tests, papers and other assignments as

good measures of course material, (3) instructor preparation, (4) interesting lectures and (5) students' perceptions of a challenging class environment. Marsh and Roche identified nine dimensions of effective teaching based on input from both students and faculty members. These dimensions are: learning/value, instructor enthusiasm, group interaction, and individual rapport, and organisation/clarity, breadth of coverage, examinations/grading, assignments/readings, and workload/difficulty (Marsh 1987, Marsh and Roche 1997). As may be depicted from the above listed attributes of effective teaching and as suggested in several studies there appears to be a weaker relationship between research performance and student outcomes than between effectiveness of teaching and student outcomes, particularly from a student's perspective.

While what constitutes effective teaching has not evolved profoundly over the years as indicated by the literature review, any changes in approaches to teaching and learning in higher education have also been rare (Lueddeke 1999). In most universities the lecture approach to teaching still prevails (Lueddeke 1999, Shore, Pinker and Bate 1990) and this approach is supported by arguments of limited resources, prevailing methods of reward and issues related to the culture of the organisation. Within the bureaucratic/political dynamics in which universities operate, characterised by loose association between structure and process, the influence of senior management on methods of teaching is not significant (Becher and Kogan 1992). Department chairs however who have more direct influence in relation to pedagogical approaches adopted by faculty members are inclined to describe ideal faculty as productive and self-sufficient (Boice and Myers 1984). Factors such as autonomy, field of

specialisation, intolerance of differences, generational splits and personal politics have been found to hinder effective discussions among academics about substantive issues including teaching improvement as a result of fragmented communication patterns (Massey, Wilger and Colbeck 1994, Lueddeke 1999). Further, there is a tendency for faculty to shift effort towards research which offers opportunities for personal and institutional advancement away from teaching, one of the main reasons for which faculty were hired (Massey and Wilger 1992, Ortmann and Squire 2000).

Institutions of higher education vary with regard to their 'inputs' such as students, faculty and resources, their 'outputs' that are used to measure institutional success and their 'valued outcomes' that the institutes seek to bring about in their students whether cognitive, personal, social or civic (Shavelson and Huang 2003). Despite the variability among institutions Lewis and Smith (1994) note that a relationship exists between the quality of an institution's outputs and outcomes which they believe is dependent on the energy, commitment, creativity and competence of individuals, and the culture of an organisation shaped by effective management. According to Lonsdale (1998), the quality of institutional outcomes depends on the work of faculty and staff, both 'individually and collectively. 'For performance management to be relevant to the management and development of quality in the 21st century, the spotlight will need to fall on the manner in which organisational units are managed and led, and on the nurturing of teams, rather than the management of individual performance' (Lonsdale 1998: 303). Such an approach, where the notion of continuous improvement achievable only by people with shared commitments, attitudes and actions prevails over thresholds and standards, is known in the world of

business as ‘total quality management’ (Stone 1997). This approach has proven to be extremely successful for businesses and organisations. The introduction of the total quality approach in higher education would depend heavily on the management initiatives within institutions and their success in breaking away from the traditional management culture as well as the quality assessment procedures of the recent past. It would be interesting to explore if relatively young universities are able to escape the trap of tradition in the management of higher education institutes and what degree of flexibility historically grounded institutions have to respond to the demands of the 21st century in the Lebanon, the country in which the research is to be conducted.

2.9 Summary

The review of literature has focused on major trends sweeping higher education today. It has highlighted commentary, theory and research studies in areas of privatisation, managerialism, management cultures in institutions of higher education, organisational structure, organisational effectiveness, accountability and quality of educational outcomes. The themes identified in the literature relate directly to the research questions, which the current research seeks to answer (i.e. the identification of the type of management culture adopted by each university; the determination of the power authority relationships characteristic of each culture; and the investigation of the impact of culture and other elements such as history, structure, organisational effectiveness and quality on faculty and staff satisfaction, student satisfaction, student destination and the responsiveness of the organisation to new demands). A number of different and complex relationships have been identified through this review, for example between history and structure, between structure and culture, between culture

and effectiveness and between culture and quality: these are not discrete elements for study, but all interact. While this review has pinpointed McNay's typology as a useful base to start investigation, it has become clear that many aspects of culture will also need to be surfaced to establish how the various elements interlock in Lebanese higher education institutions. It is also clear that as well as staff members' perceptions of their organisations, the students' views on quality will be important in evaluating the changing environment of higher education.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter will discuss the research design and the tactics and methods of data collection and production. A detailed description of the stages of the research process and their implementation are presented in the subtopics: research queries, research strategies, qualitative and quantitative research, triangulation, methods, sampling procedure, research techniques, questionnaire design, the semi-structured interview, documentary analysis and data analysis. The chapter ends with a brief note on the limitations of the study.

3.1 Research Queries

The higher education system in Lebanon may be described as being liberal with an array of local and foreign, secular and religious, young and long-established institutes of higher education. Associated with this multiplicity of institutes of higher education are extensively diverse historical backgrounds and distinctive organisational features and cultures that influence modes of management. The study will attempt to identify the management styles and organisational structures in seven of the most prominent Lebanese universities. It will concentrate on the analysis of the impact of the diverse management types on a wide set of demonstrable performance outcomes and audiences for institutes of higher education in Lebanon in an attempt to identify what sort of management types render the university effective, efficient and dynamic in response to a combination of internal and external forces and demands for

accountability. The research thus aims at probing for answers to the following research questions:

1. How does the history of an institution affect current management practices?
2. What is the type of management culture adopted by each of these universities?
3. What are the power authority relationships characteristics of each culture?
4. To what extent is the mission of the university translated into clear tangible objectives?
5. What are the modes of operation that facilitate the realisation of the mission objectives?
6. What measures of accountability must the universities maintain?
7. What degree of autonomy do the universities have to manage their internal affairs?
8. Who is the university accountable to in both the public and private sector of higher education?
9. What mechanisms do the universities adopt for internal and external measures of scrutiny?
10. What are the levels and types of participation by faculty and students in decision making?
11. What support mechanisms are there for management development of all concerned parties in decision making?
12. To what extent do job descriptions of faculty match reality?
13. What amount of academic freedom do faculty and staff have to decide their own job description?
14. How does promotion in universities take place?
15. What characteristics and activities influence promotion and to what extent?
16. How is resource allocation managed?
17. How far do all of the above relate to:
 - a. student satisfaction?
 - b. student destination?

- c. faculty and staff satisfaction?
- d. responsiveness of the organisation to new demands?

3.2 Research Strategies

‘By research we mean an enquiry that seeks to make known something about a field of practice or activity which is currently unknown to the researcher’ (Brown and Dowling 1998: 7). It is, simply, one of several different ways of knowing and understanding. As Mertens (1998: 2) asserts, ‘It is different from other ways of knowing, such as insight, divine inspiration, and acceptance of authoritative dictates, in that it is a process of systematic inquiry that is designed to collect, analyse, interpret, and use data to understand, describe, and predict, or control an educational phenomenon or to empower individuals in such contexts’. Thus research is a way of knowing that emphasizes systematic investigation.

The approach taken in an enquiry is commonly referred to as the research strategy. A variety of research strategies exist for the researcher to use. ‘The general principle is that the research strategy or strategies and the methods or techniques employed must be appropriate for the questions you want to answer’ (Robson 1993: 38). These strategies have been classified in different ways. One classification distinguishes between the three traditional research strategies: experiments, survey research and case studies. Gay (1992) argues that experimental research is the only method of research that can truly establish cause-and-effect relationships by measuring the effects of manipulating variables on other variables under consideration through highly structured designs. Survey research on the other hand can provide a description of how one or more variables are distributed among a population or sample (Crowl 1996). Case study research thirdly involves an in depth empirical investigation of a

particular real life phenomenon using an existing limited group or purposively selected subjects and multiple sources of evidence (Black 1999, Robson 1993).

Robson (1993: 41) affirms however that ‘the three research strategies do not provide a logical partitioning covering all possible forms of enquiry’ and that hybrid strategies falling between these three types or a combination of strategies may be adopted in an investigation. According to Crowl (1996), the four major types of educational research are: historical research which attempts to determine the nature of causal relationships among variables at some point in the past; (2) descriptive research in the form of survey research and ethnographic research which attempts to provide a detailed verbal description of how members of a culture perceive the culture; (3) correlation research which examines the relationship between two or more variables for a single group of people, and (4) group comparison research which includes experimental, quasi-experimental and ex post facto research. Krathwohl (1998) identifies several research methods or approaches such as action research intended to result in the solution or improvement of a practical problem, evaluation research designed to determine the effectiveness or worth of a particular treatment and longitudinal research where a combination of techniques is used to gather data over time and determine the patterns of change. There are yet other research strategies practised by educational and psychological researchers: phenomenological research that emphasizes the individual’s perceptions and meaning of a phenomenon or experience (Tesch 1990), grounded theory that is characterized by the emergence of theory grounded in data systematically gathered and analysed (Strauss and Corbin 1994), participative inquiry that involves the participation of some or all people in the research process (Reason 1994) and documentary research which utilises a variety of

documentary materials to study institutions, events and people (Bryman and Burgess 1999).

Based on the above descriptions of research strategies, the one that seemed most appropriate to provide answers to the questions posed by this study was survey research. Descriptive data - characteristics of management styles and quality of performance outcomes- that is quantitative in nature through ranked responses was collected from among the various groups of university students and faculty members. The instruments used in the data collection process were questionnaires, based chiefly on a fixed range of closed questions and semi-structured interviews designed with clearly defined objectives that were achieved through some flexibility in wording and sequencing of questions. Both the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews had open-ended questions permitting free expression of opinion and providing access to the way the respondents apprehend their social world - the universities. Such data is qualitative in nature. A documentary research technique referred to as document or content analysis was also used to analyse official documents provided by the universities pertaining to their history, statement of purpose, academic policy statements and by-laws with the purpose of providing insight into the extent to which reality matches factual documentation. Content analysis was used as a supplementary method in this multi-method study that combined both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

3.3 Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Educational researchers conventionally classify research strategies as either qualitative or quantitative. Qualitative methodologies are used in research that is

designed to provide an in-depth description of a specific programme, practice, or setting. Quantitative methodologies are used in research aimed at discovering causal relationships or in research that uses quantitative data to describe a phenomenon. Qualitative research methodologies utilize methods such as ethnography, grounded theory, documentary analysis, in-depth interviews and participant observation, while quantitative research methodologies include methods such as randomised experiments, quasi-experiments, 'objective tests', multivariate statistical analyses, and sample surveys (Reichardt and Cook 1979, Mertens 1998). Some researchers adhere to the use of only qualitative research methods, others to the use of only quantitative research methods, while many researchers use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research methods to complement each other in the search for 'truth' (Poppenpoel, Myburgh and Linde 2001).

In his definition of qualitative and quantitative research Schurrink (1998: 241) focuses on the characteristics of each type.

...the qualitative paradigm stems from an antipositivistic, interpretative approach, is idiographic, thus holistic in nature, and the main aim is to understand social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life.

The quantitative paradigm is based on positivism, which takes scientific explanation to be nomothetic (i.e. based on universal laws). Its main aims are to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour.

Reichardt and Cook (1979: 9) provide a list of attributes to distinguish between qualitative and quantitative research.

In brief, the quantitative paradigm is said to have a positivistic, hypothetico-deductive, particularistic, objective, outcome-oriented, and natural science worldview. In contrast, the qualitative paradigm is said to subscribe to a phenomenological, inductive, holistic, subjective, process-oriented, and social anthropological worldview.

Qualitative research refers to ‘meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of thing’ (Berg 2001: 3). It addresses concerns with the changing and dynamic nature of reality (Smith 1984). The qualitative design focuses more on a holistic view of what is being studied rather than on charting patterns and trends (Mason 1996). Qualitative research strategies strive to interpret social phenomena from the point of view of the meanings employed by the people being studied, looking to first hand experience to provide meaningful data (Bryman and Burgess 1999, Denzin and Lincoln 1994). Qualitative data are collected within the context of their natural occurrence. Theory tends to be an emergent property of qualitative research (Bryman 1999, Filstead 1979) with researchers emphasising contextual understandings, which Hammersley (1996) refers to as ‘identifying cultural patterns’.

Much of what has been said about qualitative research is in contrast with quantitative research. Quantitative research thus denotes the counts and measures of things (Berg 2001). It addresses the accumulation of facts and causes of behaviour through the use of quantitative data to describe a phenomenon and endeavours to control for bias so that they can be understood in an objective way (Morgan, Gliner and Harmon 1999). Quantitative research strategies attempt to identify and isolate specific variables within the context of the study seeking to establish correlation, relationships and causality. To rule out the possibility that variables other than the ones under study can account for the relationships identified, quantitative data tends to be collected under controlled conditions (Black 1999, Hammersley 1999). In quantitative research, theory is used as a precursor to the data collection process of a study (Bryman 1988). Researchers in the quantitative arena aim at establishing generalisable and replicable findings in the form of scientific laws (Flick 1998, Hammersley 1996).

Many researchers suggest that the quantitative and qualitative research traditions reflect different epistemological positions and hence divergent paradigms (Filstead 1979). Epistemological issues are about what might represent knowledge or evidence of things in the social world as well as the relationship between the knower and the would-be-known. 'A paradigm is a way of looking at the world. It is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action' (Mertens 1998). Quantitative research is largely associated with the positivist paradigm. Positivism employs the mechanistic and static conceptions of both the social and natural worlds (Filstead 1979) and maintains that objectivity is of utmost importance (Guba and Lincoln 1994) in the study of these worlds. Researchers should make every effort to manipulate systematically and observe in a neutral, unbiased manner in an attempt to explain, predict and control phenomena 'via probabilistic and inferential assumptions' (Onwuegbuzie 2002). Qualitative research is most commonly associated with the interpretivist / constructivist paradigm. The interpretive paradigm's approach stresses a shifting, dynamic and changing conception of the social world. It maintains that people active in the research process socially construct reality, which is perceived to be objective and known to all participants in the social interaction (Filstead 1979).

3.4 Triangulation

In recent years, researchers increasingly employ aspects of both approaches within the context of one research study (Cresswell 1994, Flick 1992). Hammersley (1996) identifies three forms of mixed methodological approaches: triangulation, facilitation and complementarity. Triangulation refers to the employment of one method to validate the findings of the other method. Facilitation is when one method is used as

groundwork for the other method. Complementarity refers to different methods used together to investigate a different aspect of a research question.

Much of the research literature recommends that researchers triangulate during research. Kelle (2001) regards triangulation as a metaphor rather than a single integrated concept. He provides three different understandings of the triangulation metaphor: triangulation as the mutual validation of research results obtained on the basis of different methods in order to identify threats for validity; triangulation as a means toward obtaining a larger, more complete picture of the phenomenon under study; and triangulation in its original trigonometrical sense, indicating that a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is necessary in order to gain any picture of the relevant phenomenon at all. Triangulation may take several forms, but is commonly characterized by the use of multiple data sources, multiple data collection technologies, multiple theories, and multiple researchers (Denzin 1978, Long and Johnson 2000). Maxwell (1998: 93) asserts that triangulation ‘reduces the risk of systematic distortions inherent in the use of only one method’. Berg (2001) provides support for the multiple method approach of triangulation in his statement:

Each method thus reveals slightly different facets of the same symbolic reality. Every line is a different line of sight directed toward the same point, observing social and symbolic reality. By combining several lines of sight, researchers obtain a better, more substantial picture of reality; a richer more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements (p. 4).

The important feature of triangulation is evident in the following statement by Smith (1991).

triangulation evokes means of measuring and mapping some area through knowledge of several pieces of information. Because each method has unique informational strengths and weaknesses, researchers should use a combination

of methods, with the intent of counterbalancing the merits and demerits of each method. Multiple methods aid reliability and validity, through providing a corrective for irrelevant components of any measurement procedure (p. 512).

This study employed elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to elicit information relevant to the research questions. The objective was that the use of such a combination of approaches would permit the advantages of certain research techniques to offset the weakness of others thus increasing the validity and reliability of the findings through triangulation as defined by Hammersley and providing a deeper understanding of reality by refining and strengthening conceptual linkages as in Keele's second understanding of the triangulation metaphor.

3.5 Methods

The study aims at identifying the management cultures and organisational structures in the different historically grounded universities in the Lebanon in an attempt to analyse the impact of these cultures on a range of demonstrable performance outcomes and audiences of the universities, particularly students and faculty members. There is a need therefore first to specify on what basis universities were chosen for the study, and second what criteria were used in the selection of the sample of students and faculty members for the survey.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

In 1961 the Lebanese Government issued the first Higher Education Act. According to Article 4 of the Act, a university should be involved in the teaching of sciences and social sciences and be composed of at least 3 faculties. This study included only the institutes of higher learning that are officially recognized as "universities" by the Lebanese Government, six of which are private and the state university. Student

enrolment in these seven institutions constituted approximately 87% of the higher education cohort for the academic year 2000-2001 (CERD 2001). Four of the six private universities -The American University of Beirut (AUB(Am:F)) and The American Lebanese University (LAU(Am:F)) both of foreign origin as well as The University of Balamand (UOB(Am:N)) and Notre Dame University (NDU(Am:N)) founded by national groups - follow the American educational model. Université Saint-Joseph (USJ(Fr:F)) follows the French educational pattern, while The Beirut Arab University (BAU(Eg:F)) is the only university in the country that follows the Egyptian educational pattern. The Lebanese University (LU), the state university located on several sites, follows what may be characterized as the Lebanese educational model.

To gain access to the institutions letters were mailed to the presidents of each institution. Attached was a letter from Prof. Lynn Davies of the University of Birmingham explaining that I was a registered student in the doctoral programme in the School of Education under her supervision. Immediate approval was obtained from the administration of UOB(Am:N) (I am a faculty member of the institution) and BAU(Eg:F) as the academic year was approaching its end. Approval from the remaining institutions required some follow up but was eventually obtained within a period of two months following the initial contact. The written approvals by presidents of institutions or the concerned bodies facilitated contact with administrators and faculty members thereon. The University of Saint Esprit-Kaslik (USEK(Fr:N)), one of the two universities in the Lebanon that follow the French educational pattern refrained from participating in the study despite negotiations that extended over a period of nine months with various levels of authority in this highly

bureaucratic institution of higher education. Among the institutions not included in the study were those whose official status of 'university' to date is either conditional or remains questionable; those established less than a decade ago; or those that have a total student enrolment of less than 2,000 students.

In the choice of universities, special attention to sampling techniques was not necessary, as the target population consisted of all universities if they met certain specified criteria. The next step was to select a sample of students and faculty members from each university to complete questionnaires carefully designed by the researcher to provide answers for the research enquiries. The sample had to be chosen prudently to enhance the 'validity' and permit the 'generalisability' of the findings (Smith 1975) to the population of students and faculty members of the various universities in Lebanon.

3.6.1 Sampling Strategies

There are numerous sampling strategies. According to Leedy (1993) and Cohen and Manion (1994), these strategies may be divided into two main groups, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is when the researcher knows the probability of the selection of each unit of the population that will be represented in the sample in advance and when statistical inferences about the population can be made based on sample results (Robson 1993). This is not the case in non-probability sampling. It is not possible to specify the probability that an elementary unit will be included in the sample, nor is it possible to make inferences about the population on statistical grounds. As my aim was to typify the population as

accurately as possible for the sample to be representative, probability sampling techniques seemed the most appropriate for the study.

There are several forms of probability sampling. Simple random sampling is the classic form of probability sampling because all other forms such as stratified and cluster sampling are variations of its procedures, as suggested by Smith (1991). A simple random sample is obtained by choosing elementary units in such a way that each unit in the population has an equal chance of being selected. Stratified sampling is a sampling procedure that ensures sampling heterogeneity through the representation in the sample of the various subgroups of the population, referred to as strata. Such a sample is obtained by independently selecting a separate simple random sample from each stratum. Cluster sampling involves selecting clusters from the population on the basis of simple random sampling each of which has sampling units with a range of characteristics. I utilized a multistage sampling design where various sampling methods - stratified sampling, cluster sampling and simple random sampling - were combined to take advantage of the positive aspects of each method. The heterogeneous characteristic of stratified samples yields more precise estimates than both simple random samples and cluster samples for a given sample size, however cluster sampling reduces research costs and time.

For this study, the working population also referred to as the sampling frame in probability sampling were second, third or fourth year university students considered to have sufficient higher education experience permitting them to provide rational responses and valid input while completing especially designed student questionnaires. The strata within this working population were the universities -

AUB(Am:F), BAU(Eg:F), LAU(Am:F), LU, NDU(Am:N), UOB(Am:N) and USJ(Fr:F) - with equal representation of each stratum. Each stratum was then divided into several clusters representing the various faculties and schools within the universities. These clusters were once again divided into clusters representing the different departments within the faculties and schools. Simple random samples of students were drawn from the final clusters formed.

3.6.1.1 Student Sample for Questionnaire

The selection of an appropriate student sample size was of major concern to me; first to ensure representativeness of the population while maintaining a high level of precision and reliability of the sample estimates, second for economic considerations and a desire to curtail costs, and third for time considerations and a desire to complete the data collection process within a fixed time frame of six months. The size of any sample depends on the degree of precision desired, the variability of the data sampled, and the type of sampling employed, namely level of tolerated error accepted. A sample size of 1470 students, 210 students from each university (stratum), was the appropriate sample size needed if simple random sampling was adopted. Such a sample size was more than adequate for stratified sampling methods. The sample size allowed the achievement of a desired 99% precision level, a sample variability of 0.83 and a set tolerable error of 0.057. Table 3.1 gives the decomposition of the sample by university and by department.

Table 3.1 Student Sample Distribution for the Study

Faculty/School/Department	University							
	AUB (Am:F)	BAU (Eg:F)	LAU (Am:F)	LU	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	USJ (Fr:F)	Total
Accounting	*	12	12	8	10	*	*	42
Advertising and Marketing	*	*	*	6	10	8	8	32
Agriculture	9	*	*	8	*	*	*	17
Arabic		3				2	7	12
Archaeology	5	*	*		*	*	*	5
Architecture	9	12	12	8	10		*	51
Audiovisuals	*	*	*		5	7		12
Banking and Finance		*	10	6	10	*		26
Biology	9	12	10	8	8		8	55
Business Administration	9	10				12	10	41
Business Computer		*	4	*	10	4	8	26
Business Management	*	*	10	*	10	*	*	20
Business Marketing	*	*	10	8	10	*	*	28
Chemistry	9	12	1	8	χ	χ	8	38
Civil Engineering	8	12	12	8	10	12	8	70
Communication Engineering	*	5	*	8	10	*		23
Computer Engineering	8		12	*		12	10	43
Computer Science	9	12	12		10	12		55
Dentistry	*	12	*	8	*	*	12	32
Economics	9	*	2			χ	4	15
Education	9	*	10		10	10	1	40
Electrical Engineering	8	8	11	6	10	12	*	55
English	9	12	3		10	10	*	44
Environmental Health	5	*	*	*	*		*	5
Fine Arts	*	*	*	8	*			8
Food Technology	5	*	*		*	*	*	5
French Literature	*	*	*	8	*	3	10	21
Geography	*	1	*	8	*	*		9
Geology	3	*	*	*	*	*	*	3
Graphic Design	9	*	12		9	7		37

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Faculty/School/Department	AUB (Am:F)	BAU (Eg:F)	LAU (Am:F)	LU	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	USJ (Fr:F)	Total
History	3	1	*	2		χ		6
Hospitality Management	*	*	7		10	12	8	37
Industrial Engineering	*	*	10	*	*	*		10
Interior Design		*	8			5	*	13
International Affairs	*	*	5		12	*		17
International Business	*	*		*	10	*	*	10
Law	*	13	*	8	*	*	10	31
Mass Communication	*	*		8		7		15
Mathematics	5	9	*	6	6	*	9	35
Mechanical Engineering	8	12	10	8	10	12	8	68
Medical Lab Technology	9	*	*		5	8	11	33
Medicine	9	12	*	8	*	10	14	53
Music Education	*	*	*	6	*	*	*	6
Nursing	9	*	*		*	10	11	30
Nutrition	5	*	*		*	*		5
Pharmacy	*	13	16	8	*	*	12	49
Physical Education	*	*	*	6	*	10	*	16
Physics	5	11	*	8	*	*	7	31
Political Science	5	*	2	8		2	4	21
Political Science and Public Administration	5	*				*		5
Psychology	5	5			5			15
Public Health	5	*	*		*	10		15
Public Relations				6				6
Social Worker	*	*	*		*	*	1	1
Sociology	5	12		8		*	10	35
Theatre	*	*	*	8	*	*		8
Theology	*	*	*	*	*	5	*	5
Translation						8	1	9
Total	210	210	210	210	210	210	210	1470

* Major not offered at undergraduate level

χ No third or fourth year student enrolments

3.6.1.2 Faculty Sample for Questionnaire

Similar sampling techniques were used in the selection of the sample of faculty members who completed the faculty questionnaire. The working population consisted of faculty members with a minimum of 3 years teaching experience within their institution, which was a total of approximately 6500, 3500 employed by LU. The sample was comprised of 72 faculty members, 9, 10 or 11 from each university representing as closely as possible the various departments. Initially, such a sample size may seem small but in comparison to McNay's survey study that was conducted in one polytechnic on 25 senior staff and the two survey studies of Ramsden that included first, ten heads of departments in one university and second, 21 heads of departments in 15 different universities, the sample size adopted in this study could be viewed as appropriate. Table 3.2 gives the decomposition of the sample by university and by department.

Table 3.2 Faculty Sample Distribution for the Study

Faculty/School/Department	AUB (Am:F)	BAU (Eg:F)	LAU (Am:F)	LU	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	USJ (Fr:F)	Total
Arts	2	2	3	3	4	2	3	19
Engineering	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	12
Architecture	1	1	1		1	1	*	5
Dentistry	*	2	*		*	*	1	3
Business Administration	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	11
Agriculture	1	*	*		*	*	*	1
Science	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	17
Law	*	1	*		*	*	1	2
Theology	*	*	*		*	1		1
Medicine			*		*		1	1
Total	10	10	10	9	11	11	11	72

* Major not available at university

3.6.1.3 Faculty Sample for Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a third sample of five faculty members or staff from each university. This sample consisted of a vice-president or provost, a dean, a departmental chairperson, and two faculty members representing different academic or administrative levels within the hierarchical structure of the universities. These persons were selected at random or in rare cases they were suggested by colleagues or by the administration of the institution. Sampling techniques were not significant here as the semi-structured interviews were conducted for the purpose of triangulation to validate and support the findings of the faculty questionnaires.

3.7 Research Techniques

As outlined earlier, the strategy adopted in the study is survey research. Numerous definitions of survey research have been given. According to Bryman (1989),

Survey research entails the collection of data on a number of units usually at a single juncture in time, with a view to collecting systematically a body of quantifiable data in respect to a number of variables, which are then examined to discern patterns of association. (p. 104).

Robson (1993) and Bryman (1989) stress that survey research provides a numerical or statistical description of how one or more variables are distributed among members of a population based on a careful examination and analysis of statistics obtained from a sample of the population. Kent (2001: 6) suggests that social survey research possesses the additional characteristic that it entails ‘the systematic collection of data based on addressing questions to respondents in a formal manner and making a record of their replies’. The basic techniques used to collect survey data are through questionnaires and interviews. Smith (1991) describes a questionnaire as follows:

The questionnaire is a self-administered interview. It requires particularly clear self-explanatory instructions and question design because there is often no interviewer or proctor present to interpret the questionnaire for the participant. (p. 249).

Cohen and Manion (1989: 307) cite a definition of an interview by Cannel and Kahn as a kind of conversation ‘initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation’. Silverman (1993) states that according to positivists interview data gives access to facts, which give biographical information or statements about beliefs. These facts are to be ‘treated as accounts whose sense derives from their correspondence to a factual reality’ (p.87). He adds that checks and remedies are to be encouraged where the reality is imperfectly represented by an account to get a truer or more complete picture of how things are. I used both methods (searching for meanings and for ‘facts’) to solicit answers for the research questions.

3.8 Questionnaire Design

Both the student and faculty questionnaires consisted of several sections each with a specific theme clearly stated at the onset of the section. The five themes investigated through the students’ survey were: (1) the management culture of the institution, its mission and policies as realised by students, (2) the nature of programmes and various aspects of the teaching-learning process, (3) the quality of academic and non-academic facilities and services, (4) career opportunities and destination upon graduation, and (5) factors influencing the choice of university. The major areas of interest covered through the faculty members’ survey were: (1) the management culture, (2) the decision making process, (3) state policies regarding higher education,

(4) accountability and indicators of performance and (5) promotion. I reviewed the literature on management cultures in institutes of higher learning, the characteristic processes and practices of each culture using as the basic theoretical frame McNay's classification of the four cultures of the academy defined as either loose or tight in relation to two dimensions: policy definition and control over implementation. The literature relevant to the outcomes of higher education for both faculty and students and their relationship to the concept of institutional effectiveness informed the construction of the questionnaires. One aim was to test this methodology and model, and their translation into questions, rather than (particularly for the staff) assuming statistical generalisability with such a small sample from each university. It was important to explore a way to try to match staff views of the organisation against student perceptions of effectiveness, in order to see whether 'culture' can be pinned down in this way.

Fifty-five of the 56 questions in the student questionnaire were closed-ended questions offering five or six alternatives for the respondents to choose the alternative that best reflected their belief or opinion. Examples of some of the questions are given below.

Example 1:

KEY: 1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=not aware of any

8.	The admissions policy adopted by the University is selective ensuring that students have the necessary pre-requisite knowledge and skills for the fields they choose to enroll in.	1	2	3	4	5	6
----	--	---	---	---	---	---	---

40.	The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organization or firm in the international market.	1	2	3	4	5	6
-----	--	---	---	---	---	---	---

Example 2:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree

Your choice of university was influenced by the:

43.	history of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Academic reputation of the university especially in your field of study	1	2	3	4	5

Eighty one of the 83 questions in the faculty questionnaire were also closed-ended questions offering three, four or six alternatives for the respondents to choose the alternative that best reflected their belief or opinion. Two examples where the respondent is to choose the best alternative are listed below.

Example 1:

52a	The University is accountable to Lebanese governmental bodies.	Yes	No	Do not know
52b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

Example 2:

Key: 1=Strongly agree 2=Agree 3=Neutral 4=Disagree 5=Strongly disagree 6=Do not know

How does promotion take place?

80	Promotion in the University takes place after a fixed number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6
----	--	---	---	---	---	---	---

Although the closed format demanded considerable design effort, it was considered appropriate for a variety of reasons such as greater efficiency, minimal ambiguity and lower costs, particularly for the overall sizeable sample selected. A few sections, however, ended with an open-ended question allowing the respondent to express her/his opinion freely and possibly give alternatives other than the ones specified. An example from the faculty questionnaire is:

68. List other significant performance indicators _____

The questionnaire was originally written in English, the language of instruction in all American type universities. Respondents in institutions where the language of instruction is either French or Arabic were given a translated Arabic version of the questionnaire to complete. Respondents in all universities however, were given the choice to complete the questionnaire in the language of their preference.

3.9 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in two stages. The first stage involved a sample of 20 third year students and 2 faculty members from UOB(Am:N). All students and faculty members completed the questionnaire in English. In order to discover potential pitfalls in the translated questionnaire, three out of the twenty students and the two faculty members agreed to fill out the Arabic version of the questionnaire alongside the English version. Table 3.3 gives the distribution of students and faculty members by department.

Table 3.3 **Student and Faculty Pilot Sample (Stage 1)**

Faculty/School/Department	Students		Faculty
	English	Arabic and English	Arabic and English
Business	7	1	1
Mechanical Engineering	7	1	0
Education	3	1	1
Total	17	3	2

The respondents were informed that I was interested in their reactions and were encouraged to note their comments. Upon completion of the questionnaires respondents discussed with me various issues as format, clarity, language, vocabulary, ambiguities and the conceptual difficulty for both the English and Arabic versions. Modifications in the questionnaires were then made based on the findings of the initial pilot study. This process of instrument design was achieved through an approach known as the logical or rational approach (Murphy and Davidshofer 1991).

There are potential problems in employing this approach for ensuring reliability and validity of the developed instrument as noted by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). These problems are due not to the way in which questions or items are constructed but to the inclination of researchers not to evaluate the instruments after designing them. This includes the use of statistical techniques that have been developed to assist in the evaluation of the whole instrument and the individual questions.

The second stage of the pilot study thus involved administering the student and faculty questionnaires to 420 students and 6 faculty members at each of AUB(Am:F),

UOB(Am:N) and LU. The stratification and clusters in the pilot sample were similar to those of the actual sample. Table 3.4 gives the distribution of students and faculty members by faculty or school or department. Two statistical tools were then used to test the reliability and validity of the constructed questionnaires. The first involves the use of Cronbach's coefficient α of reliability used for scales such as rating or the Likert scale that present a set of attitude statements (Oppenheim 1992). Cronbach's α coefficient measures how well a set of items measures a single unidimensional latent construct (Stevens 2002). It is considered a reasonable measure of internal consistency within a single measurement tool and assists in determining which questions should be eliminated from the final instrument. The reliability coefficient for the student questionnaire was found to be $\alpha = 0.9215$ and that of the faculty questionnaire was found to be $\alpha = 0.9157$. The problem of reliability is difficult as it still retains the simplicity of a simple numerical index for its representation. The validity however, is usually more difficult to estimate.

For the student and faculty questionnaires, Campbell and Fiske's (1959) convergent and discriminant validity paradigm was adapted. This paradigm is also known as a panel design (Lanza and Carifio 1992) or the method of triangulation (Borg and Gall 1992). The method focuses on having an independent judge rate whether items that are supposed to reflect some objective specification logically do reflect the objective specification. Replication strengthens the design and thus if two judges rather than one agree that the item reflects the objective specification then their judgements are convergent. This was actually the case where the judgement of three judges converged, thus providing evidence of the item's logical validity (Dagostino and Carifio 1993).

Finally, the pilot study helped to determine the completion time of each questionnaire, which ranged from 10 to 15 minutes and 20 to 25 minutes for the student and faculty questionnaires respectively. The student questionnaire in both English and Arabic may be found in Appendix 1A and 1B respectively. The faculty questionnaire in English may be found in Appendix 2A and that in Arabic may be found in Appendix 2B.

Table 3.4 Student and Faculty Pilot Sample (Stage 2)

Faculty/School/Department	AUB(Am:F)		LU		UOB(Am:N)	
	Students	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students	Faculty
Accounting			5			
Advertising and Marketing			7		6	
Agriculture	5					
Arabic					2	
Archaeology	1					
Architecture	6		6			
Audiovisuals					6	
Biology	6		6	1		
Business	6		6		6	1
Chemistry	6		6			
Civil Engineering	6		6		6	
Computer Engineering	7				6	
Computer Science	6				6	
Dentistry			6			
Economics	6					
Education	7				6	
Electrical Engineering	6		5		6	
English	4				6	
Environmental Health	3					

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Faculty/School/Department	AUB(Am:F)		LU		UOB(Am:N)	
	Students	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students	Faculty
Food technology	4					
French			6		3	
Geography			6			
Geology	2					
Graphic Design	6				6	
History	1		2			
Hotel Management					6	
Information Systems					3	
Interior Architecture					7	
Law			7			
Mass Communication			6		6	
Math	5	1	6			
Mechanical Engineering	7		6		7	
Medical Lab Technology	6				6	
Medicine	6		6		6	
Music			5			
Nursing	7				6	
Nutrition	6					
Physical Education			6		6	
Physics	2		6			
Political Science and Public Admin	4		6		2	
Psychology	5		5			
Public Health	4				6	
Public relations			6			
Social Science			6			
Theatre			6			
Theology					5	
Translation			5		7	
Total	140	1	142	1	138	1

3.10 The Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with five faculty or staff members of each institution each at a different level in the organisational hierarchy. The researcher, a faculty member at one of the American type institutions and therefore rather familiar with the different aspects of the higher education system in the country, visited each of the interviewees in their institutions and carried out the interviews in person. Each interview averaged approximately one hour. The questions in the interview covered various aspects of employment such as academic and administrative responsibilities, productivity, accountability, freedom to pursue institutional and personal goals, and possibilities of development and progress. An example is:

3. What academic positions do you hold at your University?
 - a. Tell me about your academic responsibilities
 - b. Do you have considerable freedom to teach courses of interest to you and in the manner you wish? (If not, the problem is number of courses you must teach, class size, the available facilities, etc.)
 - c. Do you have considerable freedom to conduct research in areas of interest to you? (If not, the problem is time, research funds, workload, etc.)
 - d. Do you feel the administration provides support for your academic and research work? (a summary of responses to parts b and c.)
 - e. How do you evaluate the time you allocate for teaching and research?
 - f. Do you find your academic work interesting and rewarding on a personal level?

The researcher also asked about the management style within the institution, levels of participation in the decision-making process and the need for change. Those interviewed were given a chance to express how they envisioned their institutions should be managed as in the question of multiple parts that follows.

8. How would you describe the management style at your University?
 - a. How much freedom do managers have to manage their internal affairs?
 - b. How do you get along with your superiors?
 - c. Do you like the management style of your superiors?
 - d. Are the communication channels easy and open?

- e. How are decisions made?
- f. How do you evaluate the decision making process?
- g. Were you in the place of your superiors, do you think you would manager matters in a similar fashion?

When necessary probes and prompts were used to attain a clearer, truer picture of reality, particularly as the interview technique was used as a complementary source of information supporting findings obtained from the questionnaires and the analysis of official institutional documents through triangulation. The semi-structured interview may be found in Appendix 3 in English. Appendix 4 provides a list of the semi-structured interviews including dates conducted with faculty and staff members of different ranks in the universities.

3.11 Documentary Analysis

Documentary analysis, one of four research techniques adopted by the researcher in the study, differs from the rest in that it is an indirect research method. Documents are unobtrusive or non-reactive. They enable the researcher to obtain data not reachable by direct observation (Frankel and Wallen 1993) as according to Miller (1997: 77), documents are ‘inextricably linked to the social contexts in which they are produced’. All institutions have official documents that trace their history, academic policies and by-laws, which govern institutional practices. Documentary analysis was used by the researcher in the study with the purpose of providing insight into the extent to which reality as conveyed through the interviews and findings of questionnaires matched factual documentation. As noted by Miller (1997: 81), an intriguing aspect of institutional documents is ‘their relationship to institutional practices and the worlds on which they report’.

3.12 Data Analysis

At this stage of the research process, the information gathered is transformed into data via the process of analysis. Brown and Dowling (1998: 80) defined data as ‘information, which has been read in terms of a theoretical framework or in terms of an analytical structure of some other kind’. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used to analyse the data obtained from the student and faculty questionnaires. Responses to statements of the student questionnaire and most statements of the faculty questionnaire were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree to do not know. Tallies for each response to each of the statements and the mean of each statement were calculated for each university and summarised in tables as shown below. The method in which the mean was obtained varied among the various statements and is explained in each of the respective sections. An example is:

1. Within the University, faculties are the main organizational unit.

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	10	50	10	20	0	10	0	2.44

A summary of the results were then displayed in bar charts as I believed it assisted to readily observe differences among statements between universities.

For statements where the respondent had to choose one alternative out of a set of three as in the example below, frequencies and percentages were calculated.

Performance Indicator?					Mode of Assessment if applicable		
	Student satisfaction	Yes	No	Don't know	Internal	External	Both
	Drop out rates	Yes	No	Don't know	Internal	External	Both

Special interest on my part as a researcher to determine whether there was a relationship between gender and a student's choice of university prompted the use of the Chi-squared test using a significance level of 0.05. Chi-squared tests to look for gender were not performed for the remaining four themes covered by the student questionnaire such as quality of facilities and destination on graduation as 'gender relationship' was not an issue directly linked to the research questions. The investigation of the 'gender relationship' concept was futile in terms of statistical analysis with regards to themes covered in the faculty questionnaire, as female faculty representation is weak in most institutions and is not equally dispersed among departments or in the various levels of the hierarchy.

The semi-structured interviews were used to elicit the perceptions of the interviewees in relation to the research questions and the three theoretical frameworks underpinned in the study. The data obtained from these interviews were treated as giving direct access to 'experience', thus no further analysis of the actual experience and the associated activities in terms of establishing patterns of responses were provided (Holestein and Gubrium 1995). The interview process was standardized in the sense that the same questions were asked of all respondents in almost the same order. The audio recordings of the semi-structured interviews were transcribed very accurately as a first step. These transcriptions were then summarised and categorised by the

researcher according to the research questions. The findings in the interviews served as supporting evidence to the results obtained through the questionnaires and through documentary analysis.

3.13 Limitations

The results and conclusions of the present study are to be interpreted with the following limitations in mind:

1. The use of self-report inventories is a limitation in itself since these tools are subject to malingering or faking (Anastasia 1990). The respondent may be motivated to ‘fake good’ by choosing answers that create a favourable impression or to ‘fake bad’ by choosing answers that create an unfavourable impression.
2. It is possible that several respondents to the faculty questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews perceived certain issues as delicate, possibly affecting their current employment, and thus felt obligated to respond in a manner they believed was ‘acceptable’ despite confirmations of confidentiality.
3. The faculty questionnaire was lengthy causing slight boredom for some respondents who became unenthusiastic as they progressed through the questionnaire. As a result some staff members did not complete the questionnaire with the required seriousness. This would undoubtedly impact negatively on the validity of the obtained results.
4. Although the student questionnaire was of reasonable length, it was apparent that some students did not complete it with sufficient sincerity as they would have assumed management was not concerned with the perceptions and

opinions of students in relation to the various issues covered in the questionnaire as hinted in informal conversations with these students while administering the questionnaire. These students therefore believed that the results of the survey were of negligible significance to management. Threats of validity were of insignificant magnitude in light of the large sample size.

5. The 9, 10 or 11 staff who completed the faculty questionnaire may not have been representative of their institution, and interpretations about an ‘institutional culture’ derived from their responses would have to be treated with caution.

3.14 Summary

In this chapter a description of a variety of research strategies and approaches adopted in the field of education and the social sciences has been provided. Survey research where elements of both quantitative and qualitative approaches were combined through a process referred to as ‘triangulation’ seemed the most appropriate research strategy to provide answers to the questions posed by the study. The sampling procedure adopted in the study and the various research techniques that included the use of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and the analysis of documents were then detailed. A description of the pilot study that was conducted in two stages for the purpose of establishing the reliability and validity of the specifically designed questionnaires then followed. The processes used to analyze the data obtained by the information gathered through the various research techniques and the limitations within which the results are to be interpreted were detailed. A deeper description and understanding of the research findings is presented in the chapters that follow.

CHAPTER FOUR

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURES

Introduction

‘The structure of an organisation can be defined simply as the sum total of the ways in which its labour is divided into distinct tasks and then its coordination is achieved among these tasks.’ (Mintzberg 1983: 2)

Initially, the chapter aims at describing and analysing the organisational structures of the institutes of higher education to facilitate the understanding of the power authority relationships in each of the universities. The decision-making processes as well as the degree of participation of the concerned parties at the various levels in the institutions will be highlighted. This will be achieved through the analysis of documents (constitution, bylaws, statement of purpose) provided by the institutions, the analysis of data collected through the questionnaires administered to faculty members and by referring to the semi-structured interviews conducted with faculty members and administrative officers at various levels in the organisation. Finally, the chapter will focus on the identification of the management styles of the institutions, following McNay’s quartet of collegium, bureaucratic, corporate and enterprise cultures based on the analysis of the data collected through the survey of faculty members’ perceptions of the management styles of their universities combined with information collected through the interviews. McNay’s model has been used in

4.1 Organisational Structures of the Different Institutional Models

Organisational structures are not static structures but rather they are dynamic. They guide the activities of all members of the institution and provide the framework for the formal distribution of authority. While authority may be defined as the legitimate

power of an officer to direct subordinates to take action within the scope of the officer's position, power, on the other, hand is the ability to exert influence in the organisation beyond authority, which is derived from position (Allen 1998). A study of the organisational structures of the institutes of higher learning should assist in providing a deeper understanding of the interplay of authority and power within the institution. It will also shed light on the style of decision-making. Due to the many similarities in the organisational structures that exist among universities in Lebanon following the same institutional pattern, the universities in the study will be classified accordingly. Consequently, I will emphasize any differences and similarities that may exist among universities within the same institutional pattern. The only national institutional pattern is that of the LU. The remaining institutional patterns are derivatives of the American, French and Egyptian models with appropriate modifications and adaptations to the Lebanese context. There is only one university in the study, USJ(Fr:F), that follows the French educational pattern, and BAU(Eg:F) is the only university in the country that is modelled after the Egyptian educational system. The universities that follow the American educational model are AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F), NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N).

4.2 The American Institutional Pattern

Based on the organisational structures of the four universities classified as adopting the American educational system in Lebanon, the hierarchical pyramid in general can be seen to be composed of seven levels. These levels are: the Board of Trustees (BOT), the president, the provost and vice-presidents, the Senate, the Board of Deans (BOD) or the University Council, the Faculty headed by the dean of the faculty and the Department headed by the chairperson. Figure 4.1 gives the organisational charts

of the four American patterned universities in which variations may be readily depicted.

4.2.1 The Board of Trustees

At the summit of each university is the BOT, the body with the highest power of authority. The duties of the board in all four universities are almost the same in that it supervises the academic, administrative and financial affairs of the university to ensure that the goals and purpose of the university are met. The BOT establishes policies for the operation of the BOT and the University and specifies the duties and responsibilities of its officers and those of the University.

AUB(Am:F)	LAU(Am:F)	NDU(Am:N)	UOB(Am:N)
BOT (Board of Trustees)	BOT (Board of Trustees)	BOT (Board of Trustees)	BOT (Board of Trustees)
The President	The President	The President	The President
Provost and Associate Provost for Academic Affairs in addition to 5 Vice-Presidents	Vice-President for Academic Affairs and 3 Vice-Presidents	Provost and Vice-President for Academic Affairs	3 Vice-Presidents
Senate	-----	University Council	Senate
BOD (Board of Deans)	University Executive Council	BOD (Board of Deans)	University Council
The Dean	The Dean	The Dean	The Dean
Department Chairperson	Department Chairperson	Department Chairperson	Department Chairperson

Figure 4.1 Organisational Charts of American Patterned Universities

The composition of the board differs in the four American patterned universities and is influenced to a large extent by the religious heritage of its founders. The only exception is AUB(Am:F), which after conceding its religious orientations, has transformed into a non-secular institution in accordance with the trends of change undergone by the American higher education system, particularly the private system (Altbach 1998). The president of AUB(Am:F) is an ex-officio member with a vote, a characteristic of the BOT unique to AUB(Am:F). At least one member of the BOT must be an alumnus of the University, which reflects the significant role that may be assumed by distinguished graduates of AUB(Am:F) in a body that possesses the power of decision. A quorum of the BOT consists of the majority of members of the board present in person at a meeting. The executive committee of the BOT is charged with exercising the powers of the BOT between its three annual meetings. The committee should not exercise any powers denied to it by the applicable law of the State of New York in accordance with its charter, which is quite an interesting phenomenon (Corporate Bylaws of the American University of Beirut 1979). Despite the founding of AUB(Am:F) in 1866 almost a century and a half ago on Lebanese soil, it is still to date subject to the laws of the State of New York particularly in terms of the management of the institution, thus underscoring the strength of its origins and the reluctance of the foreign establishing authorities to succumb to various indigenous pressures. Among these pressures was the appointment of a Lebanese rather than an American president for the university during the civil war, a situation that was reversed as civil strife approached an end and the travel ban on American citizens to the country was lifted.

At LAU(Am:N) responsibility for the University is vested in the BOT by a higher authority, namely the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York in accordance with its grant of charter. This may explain the unique composition of the BOT that consists of 25 voting members, two thirds of whom are United States citizens with the majority of board members maintaining permanent residence in the United States. The board includes a member of the Presbyterian Church of the United States and a member of the National Evangelical Synod of Syria and Lebanon in accordance with the Presbyterian heritage of its founders (Constitution of the Lebanese American University 2003). The BOT has an executive committee and eight standing committees where each committee attends to a specific area of the BOT's responsibilities. A vice-president of the University serves as the secretary of the relevant board committee and coordinates its activities with the appropriate university councils and staff members. LAU(Am:F) is the only American modelled university where vice-presidents (who are just one level below the president in the organisational hierarchy) meet directly with some members of the BOT and possess the power of vote, while the president of the University is the only administrative officer of the institution who meets with all members of the BOT and yet is denied the power to vote. Such a characteristic exhibits features of a somewhat flatter organisation, which will become more and more evident as we descend through the ranks of the hierarchy. It is probably also an essential managerial attribute to maintain the feasibility and plausibility of the decisions made by a BOT, the majority of whose members are not residents of the Lebanon, the country hosting LAU(Am:F).

The BOT at NDU(Am:N) consists of twenty-one members. The chairperson is Reverend Abbot François Eid, Superior General of the Maronite Order of the Holy

Virgin Mary. The remaining members represent the Order or are secular members of the Lebanese community with a genuine interest in higher education and the national role of NDU(Am:N) (The Constitution of Notre Dame University 2000). No further description of the board, except that it shoulders all academic, administrative and financial responsibilities concerning the University, is detailed in the constitution, the bylaws or any other protocol accessible to faculty and staff members excluding possibly the president of the institution.

At UOB(Am:N), the president of the BOT is His Beatitude the Patriarch of Antioch and the East, the founder of the University. The BOT consists of bishops of the Holy Synod not exceeding four, not less than twenty members from Lebanon and the Arab East and their émigrés and non-voting emeritus members. The composition of the BOT is in accordance with its national and Middle Eastern Arab heritage. The BOT has permanent members, namely those of the establishing authorities, a comprehensible attribute, as stability and consistency are a requirement for this young emerging institution in its endeavour to create a distinctive culture. The president of the University is the only officer or faculty member of the University who takes part in all discussions of the BOT and its committees without voting. A quorum consists of the majority of voting members of the BOT (The Basic Statue of the University of Balamand 2001). The BOT has an executive committee headed by the president of the BOT and four other standing committees (Bylaws of the University of Balamand 1999).

A feature of each of the boards worthy of attention is that no faculty or staff member below the president of the University participates in the discussions of the board meetings except for the vice-presidents at LAU(Am:F), and only at AUB(Am:F) does the president of the University have the right to vote.

4.2.2 The President of the University

Just below the BOT in the organisational hierarchy is the post of the president of the University. The BOT appoints the president of the University. The president attends to the administration of all University affairs and executes the decisions of the board with full responsibility and authority for giving leadership to the operation of the University. The president is directly responsible to the board and is the link between the BOT and the University as a whole. The broad spectrum of authority vested in the person of the president of the University led a vice-president in one of the four universities to describe the management style as ‘presidential’ during his interview. The following excerpts support his claim.

‘The president of the University is the link between the Board and the University, its committees and faculties; he may legally attend the meetings of the committees of the Board of Trustees...His tasks include exerting all the prerogatives entrusted to him by the Board.’ (Bylaws of the University of Balamand 1999: 5)

‘He shall have the authority and the right to direct all operations and activities of the University in conformity with the University objectives, bylaws, and constitution.’ (Notre Dame University Bylaws 2000: 14).

Authority and responsibility however are intertwined and the president is directly accountable to the BOT. This is conveyed in the following extracts pertaining to the duties of the president.

‘...exercise sole responsibility for communication, exercise of control, and accountability between the Board of Trustees and the University.’ (Corporate Bylaws of the American University of Beirut 2000: 7, Notre Dame University Bylaws 2000:14)

‘The president shall be the executive, administrative and academic head of the University with full responsibility and authority for giving leadership to the operation of the University within the framework of the Constitution and the By-Laws and under the guidance and policies of the Board. The president shall be directly responsible to the Board...’ (Bylaws of the Lebanese American University 2003: 9).

An element of interest in the last three extracts from the bylaws of AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and NDU(Am:N) is the explicit use of the terms ‘accountable’ and ‘responsible’, while the notion of accountability and responsibility is implicitly conveyed in the text of the bylaws of UOB(Am:N). A plausible explanation for the implicit use of accountability and responsibility in the text of UOB(Am:N) could be the permanent membership of the establishing authorities in the BOT continuously overseeing the operations of the University, and the breadth of authority it possesses being supplemented by the fact that the president of the University is not only a non-voting member of the BOT, but also does not possess the power to veto decisions of the different University units. This is in contrast to the situation at AUB(Am:F) where the president actually participates in the decisions of the BOT, and to the situation at NDU(Am:N) and LAU(Am:F) where the president upon his discretion may veto decisions of the various units of the University as he deems necessary (Notre Dame University Bylaws 2000, Bylaws of the Lebanese American University 2003).

Another observation worthy of note is the resemblance in text between AUB(Am:F) and NDU(Am:N). NDU(Am:N), a young emerging university striving to establish a distinctive identity for itself in the higher education sector, has developed its basic

statute by adopting sections from the constitution and bylaws of renowned universities following the American educational model in Lebanon, with appropriate modifications in accordance with the mission, spiritual affiliation and objectives of NDU(Am:N). In the initial stages of establishment, the basic statute of LAU(Am:F) was adopted. Careful readings of the basic statute governing NDU(Am:N) since June 2000 indicate similarities to that of AUB(Am:F).

It should be noted that in the text of American patterned universities of national origins the gender of the president is determined. The president, 'he', is a male. The text of American patterned universities with foreign origins avoids this pitfall regarding gender by referring to the person of the president as 'the president' throughout all official documents. Ever since AUB(Am:F) was founded in 1866 however, the president has been a male. As the now known LAU(Am:F) transformed from the Beirut College for Women to Beirut University College in 1973, the presidency was taken on by a male and has been a male ever since. It seems that in most cultures and societies the word president comes with the connotation male, yet in varied formats, some stated explicitly and others implicitly.

In all universities following the American educational model the BOT appoints the provost, the vice-presidents and the deans of the various faculties, defines their functions and the duration of their office upon the recommendation of the president of the university. These powers delegated to the president by the BOT leads to the formation of a team of loyal senior officers- the president, vice-presidents and deans- and consequently to a strong centralised control in the institution, a characteristic of the corporate management culture.

Although the term of office of the president in all four universities differs, its duration depends on performance outcomes, another characteristic of the corporate management culture. The BOT at AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) appoints the president of the University who remains in office as long as the board desires. At LAU(Am:F), on the other hand, the BOT appoints the president for a four-year term subject to review after three years and renewable for additional terms of up to four years per term based on the consent of a majority of voting members of the board. The Superior General and the Administrative Council of the Maronite Order of the Holy Virgin Mary appoints the president at NDU(Am:N) from among its members according to requirements set by the Lebanese Government.

4.2.3 The Provost and Vice-Presidents

Significant differences exist in the roles of vice-presidents at the various universities. At AUB(Am:F), there is a provost and associate provost for academic affairs and five vice-presidents (American University of Beirut Catalogue 2002-2003). The provost is the chief academic officer of the university. The provost performs the tasks directed to him by the BOT, its executive committee and the president. Commenting on his relationship with his superior, namely the president of the University, the provost stated in his interview:

‘We work as a team. The president is a social scientist, who believes in facts and numbers and I have a PhD in Arabic Literature, so I am a sort of romanticist. We always reach a fine balance when making decisions. The president consults with me but the final decision is ultimately his’ (September 10, 2002).

It is interesting to note that the provost at AUB(Am:F) is actually the vice-president for academic affairs and while the role of the president is basically the execution of administrative and financial affairs the provost assists the president in the execution of academic affairs. One could conclude that the top two executive posts at AUB(Am:F) are reserved for Americans as signified by 'we work as a team'. It should be noted however that both the president and the provost are assisted in their tasks by associates who are Lebanese citizens. Several justifications may be given for this trend. The presence of foreigners in such senior posts tends to diffuse the negative influences of deeply rooted cultural traits of the Lebanese and Middle Eastern cultures such as the passion for power, authority and control which ultimately impacts adversely on effective and efficient decision-making and implementation.

Another item worthy of note is that the title provost connotes some sort of seniority to other vice-presidents and while the provost assists the president in academic matters and performs tasks requested of him by the president and the BOT, the president directly supervises and directs the tasks performed by the vice-presidents.

LAU(Am:F) has four vice-presidents who possess the power of vote in the relevant BOT committees. This characteristic is unique only to LAU(Am:F) thus indicating greater authority and power of the vice-presidents achieved through bypassing in this particular instance the liaison role assumed by the president between the BOT and the University. The vice-president of academic affair at LAU(Am:F) as at NDU(Am:N) serves as acting president in the absence of the president indicating some degree of seniority over the remaining vice-presidents and the significance of academic affairs to management not only at LAU(Am:F) but also at NDU(Am:N) and AUB(Am:N). A

vice-president made the following statement in interview when asked about the role of vice-presidents at LAU(Am:F) and how are decisions made.

‘The president is my boss, but he is also the boss of every other aspect of the University. You see you have the financial, the academic, the administrative, the development and the student affairs. He is the boss; he is the umbrella that combines all this. It will be wrong to think of the president as if he is doing all these things, he has vice presidents to do all these things and he coordinates all these together. He makes the decisions based on recommendations given to him by the vice-presidents who in turn make decisions based on recommendations by concerned deans of faculties, chairpersons of departments and faculty members’ (July 24, 2002).

The provost and vice-president for academic affairs at NDU(Am:F) is the chief executive and academic officer after the president. The provost and vice-president for academic affairs is directly accountable to the president. Notable is the double title for the same person, probably to assert that the responsibilities of the post are primarily academic and occasionally it may assume a little more as serving as acting president of NDU(Am:N) in the absence of the president. In this capacity, he or she is responsible only for managing the day to day activities of the University in coordination with the University Council and BOD. In place of vice-presidents, there are directors for finance, administration, public relations and planning and development at NDU(Am:N). A plausible explanation for having non-academic staff in these administrative posts is that these tasks are mainly the responsibility of the establishing authorities represented by the BOT. When asked about his working relationship with the president and his role in the decision-making process, the provost and vice-president for academic affairs stated in interview,

‘I think the president has been a great manager because he believes in delegation of power and in leaving room for the people around him to voice their opinion. He believes it’s proper to share and he doesn’t have this dictatorship spirit. He always consults before taking any decision, as the final decision is undoubtedly his. I like that because I believe the opinion of two

persons are better than one and three better than two and so on' (August 8, 2002).

There are three vice-presidents at UOB(Am:N). The president of the University determines the scope of the academic, administrative or public relations related tasks of each vice-president without specifying a vice-president for a particular task. Thus at UOB(Am:N), there is no implicitly indicated seniority of one vice-president over another and any one may be appointed temporarily as acting president in the absence of the president. As a vice-president at UOB(Am:N) stated in his interview (July 5, 2002), 'I perform specific tasks as the president directs. For the past year I have been setting the guidelines for the establishment of the Faculty of Medicine, the bylaws, the curricula, and so on.' The interview was interrupted by a phone call from the president. On his return from the president's office, he elaborated, 'My main role is to act as consultant to the president.'

It seems in gender terms that the designation vice-president carries the same connotation as president, as 14 of the 15 vice-presidents in all four institutions are males, with the one exception being at LAU(Am:F) where the vice-president for student affairs is a female despite the fact that texts of all universities avoid such a connotation by using the terms 'vice-president' or 'he or she'.

4.2.4 The Senate

Only three of the four universities – AUB(Am:F), NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N) - have a senate. Named 'Senate' at AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) and 'University Council' at NDU(Am:N) it is the academic legislative body of the University. The Senate serves as a representative body of the faculty with respect to curricula,

personnel and issues affecting the academic functions and the interrelation of the various faculties of the University. It is composed of principally full-time faculty members elected by faculty members from the various faculties as stipulated by the bylaws of the Senate and adopted by the BOT at AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N). The president of the University, who is also the president of the Senate, the deans of the various faculties, the provost, the vice-presidents, the registrar and possibly other members as provided for in the bylaws of the senate are ex-officio members.

At NDU(Am:N) on the other hand, there is only one faculty representative. The faculty member is elected for one year by the University General Assembly, which is the highest representative body, composed of university officers, all full-time faculty members and ex-officio administrative officers without an academic rank or a vote. The members of the University Council are academic and non-academic officers from the various University units or divisions. The University Council acts in a legislative capacity in response to the needs of the General Assembly, the BOD, the faculties, and University committees with respect to curricula, programmes, academic policies, rules, regulations and bylaws.

For the first time in the organisational hierarchy of these universities faculty members who are not necessarily officers of their faculties are elected by their colleagues as representatives of their faculties to participate in the decision-making process, a characteristic of the collegial management culture. At AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) representation is extensive including elected faculty members from each faculty facilitating the consideration of varied views and thus endorsing a broader based democracy. At NDU(Am:N) on the other hand, representation is limited to only one

faculty member who is elected by all teaching staff, both full and part-time. The scope of democracy in this case is narrower as a result of limited representation. The decisions of the Senate however are in the form of recommendations through the person of the president to the BOT at both AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N). Decisions of the University Council at NDU(Am:N) fall into two categories: ‘general’ - circulated to all members of the Council and all full-time faculty members, and ‘restricted’ - circulated to all Council members and concerned parties only.

4.2.5 The Board of Deans

Known as the BOD at AUB(Am:F) and NDU(Am:N), the university council at UOB(Am:N) and the university executive council at LAU(Am:F), its composition and function differ from one university to the other. The BOD at both AUB(Am:F) and NDU(Am:N) is the academic executive body of the University responsible for assisting the president and other administrative officers in implementing the academic and non-academic policies and requirements developed by the various units of the University, namely the Senate or University Council, the faculties and other units affecting the operation of the faculties. It occupies a central position in the organisation promoting communication between the parts and the whole thus reflecting features of the corporate culture. It is composed of the officers of the various posts or units of the University, namely the president of the University as chairperson, the provost, the vice-presidents, the deans of the various faculties and the dean of students, if any, and in the case of NDU(Am:N) the deans of the various campuses. The dean of students at AUB(Am:F) has no voting power in matters related to academia as promotions, appointments in ranks above assistant professor, award of tenure, provision of long-term-contract and sabbatical leaves (Corporate Bylaws of

the American University of Beirut 2000) probably signifying a rank of less significance in terms of authority to other deans, which is not the case at NDU(Am:N).

The University Executive Council at LAU(Am:F) is similar to some extent in its composition to the Senate and in its function to both the Senate and the BOD, which may explain the existence of six levels in the organisation chart of LAU(Am:F) as compared to seven levels in the organisational charts of each of AUB(Am:F), UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N). It is composed of the president of the University as the only non-voting member, the vice-presidents, the assistant vice-presidents, the deans of the faculties, the deans of student services, the faculty representatives and the legal counsel as voting members. The majority of the members of the Executive Council are teaching faculty. A democracy similar in its extent to that of AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) is ensured with faculty representatives elected by their colleagues from all the various faculties of LAU(Am:F). The Executive Council occupies a mid-position in the organisation promoting articulation between the various University units and the whole with faculty members actively involved in the decision-making process alongside senior officers of the institution. This is a characteristic unique to LAU(Am:F) as the BOD at AUB(Am:F) and NDU(Am:F), and the University Council at UOB(Am:N) (which is the body situated at the centre of each of the organisations) is composed of senior officers only. The duty of the Council is the establishment of policy statements in the form of recommendations to the BOT and the initiation and development of the total programme of the University through the Executive Council's subsidiary councils, committees and supporting staff personnel (Bylaws of the Lebanese American University 2003).

The University Council at UOB(Am:N) consists of the president of the University who chairs the council, the vice-presidents, the deans of the faculties and the directors of the institutes. In addition to performing tasks comparable to those in the other American patterned universities, the Council studies University contracts within the limits specified in the budgets and presents suggestions as to the acceptance of grants and various forms of gifts (Bylaws of the University of Balamand 1999).

At this level, appointed senior officers and administrators of the different units nominated by the president of the university propose, approve and execute the decisions made within the guidelines set by the ultimate authority at the summit of the organisation, the BOT. The chain of command in the universities is becoming evident as we descend through the organisational hierarchy thus reflecting features of a bureaucracy. It is also evident that the organisation is flatter at LAU(Am:F) as the Executive University Council combines in one body both faculty and senior administrators and operates as the legislative and executive academic body of the University.

4.2.6 The Faculty

The composition of the faculty is similar in all four universities. The faculty is composed of the president of the University, the vice-president of academic affairs and in the case of UOB(Am:N) all vice-presidents of the University, the dean of the faculty, associate and assistant deans of the faculty, if any, and all full-time and part-time teaching and research personnel of the rank of instructor and above. The university librarian, the dean of admissions and the registrar are ex-officio members

of the faculty at AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N). Each faculty is organised into departments, centres, divisions, and programmes. From what has preceded it is noteworthy to point to the fact that the term ‘faculty’ according to the American usage of the word is comprised of both a human and a physical component.

The BOT in all universities appoints the dean upon the advice of the president after consultation with faculty members and the academic legislative bodies and officers of the University. Appointments are not necessarily from within the institution. The responsibilities of the dean do not differ much from one university to another but the manner in which decisions are made and the bodies and officers involved in the decision making process differ considerably.

At UOB(Am:F), the various appointments of faculty and staff members and the faculty budget are submitted after consultation with the concerned departments and the appropriate faculty councils by the dean to the president, who in turn, submits them to the University Council or the BOT in accordance with the bylaws of the University. The dean is the highest authority of the faculty with a vote on issues related directly to his or her faculty and he or she possesses considerable decision-making power. The dean is empowered to decide which decisions of the faculty’s committees shall be executable or regarded as recommendations to the faculty. The dean has the discretionary power to decide which faculty actions are to be referred to the president.

The difference at NDU(Am:N) is first, that the provost and vice-president of academic affairs is the highest voting authority of the faculty and second, that the

chain of command necessitates the appointments to be referred initially to the provost and vice-president of academic affairs before they are submitted to the president for final action, who in turn submits them to the BOD or the University Council or the BOT as stipulated by the University bylaws. Although there is a dean for each faculty, there is one provost and vice-president of academic affairs for all faculties at NDU(Am:N), which is probably a positive characteristic as it augments uniformity of objectives, goals and procedures among the various faculties of the institution and enhances cross-disciplinary cooperation and interaction, features of a bureaucracy.

The role of the vice-president of academic affairs at LAU(Am:F) is similar to that of the provost and vice-president of academic affairs at NDU(Am:N), which is no surprise as NDU(Am:N) in its earliest stages was a part of LAU(Am:F), known then as the Louaize College for Higher Education. The role of the academic school deans is to give leadership to the educational programme of their school both inside and outside of the classroom and to report this activity to the vice-president of academic affairs on a regular basis including the approval of their budgets and course schedules. The president of the University has the right to veto these actions as he deems necessary, which is the case at NDU(Am:N).

4.3 The Egyptian Institutional Pattern

The organisational structure of the Beirut Arab University BAU(Eg:F) in Lebanon is composed of eight levels. These levels in descending order are: the Egyptian Minister of Higher Education, the University Council at Alexandria University (AU), the University Higher Council, the president, the University Council, the secretary

general, the faculty headed by the dean of the faculty and the department headed by the chairperson. Figure 4 gives the organisational chart of BAU(Eg:F).

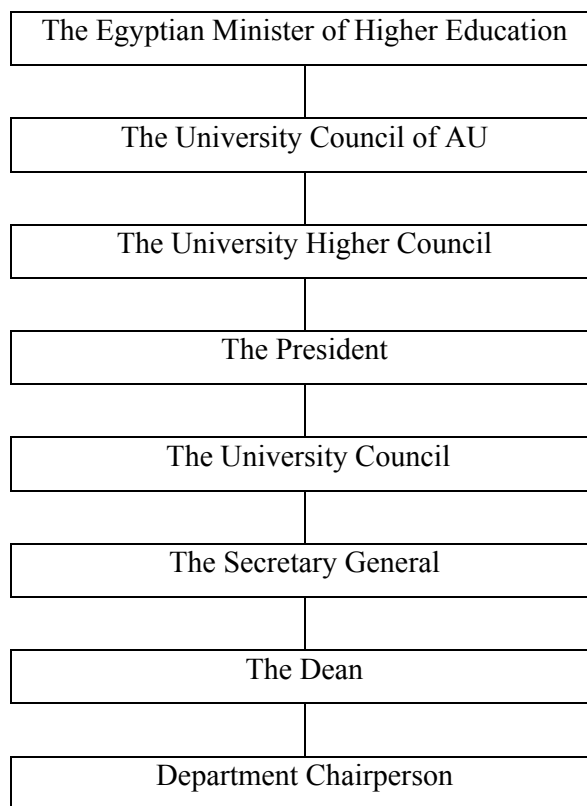


Figure 4.2 Organisational Chart of BAU(Eg:F)

4.3.1 The Egyptian Minister of Higher Education

The new constitution of BAU(Eg:F) was approved by the Egyptian Minister of Higher Education upon the recommendations of the University Council of AU on the 23rd of September, 2001 for a period of five years. Among the responsibilities of the minister is the issuing of decrees declaring the final appointment of the members of the University Higher Council and the president of BAU(Eg:F). No further reference was made in the constitution to the duties of the University Council at AU.

4.3.2 The University Higher Council

The role of the University Higher Council of BAU(Eg:F) is similar to that of the BOT in American patterned universities in that it oversees the academic, administrative and financial affairs of the University to ensure the continuous development of the University and that its goals and objectives are met. The University Higher Council establishes policies for its operations and that of the University. It specifies the duties and responsibilities of its officers and those of the University.

The composition of the University Higher Council is in accordance with its Egyptian and Lebanese Arab Islamic heritage with dominance in representation for Egyptians despite the fact that the founder of BAU(Eg:F) is the Lebanese Moslem Welfare Society. The Council is composed of the president of AU in Egypt as president, four members chosen by the University Council of AU, four members chosen by the Lebanese Moslem Welfare and the president and the secretary general of BAU(Eg:F) who are both Egyptian faculty and staff members of AU respectively.

Final annual appointment of the members of the University Higher Council is based on a decree issued by the Egyptian Minister of Higher Education who presides over the meetings of the Council when he attends. Meetings are held bi-monthly in Alexandria or Beirut. Sessions of the Council are legal only in the presence of two-thirds of its members and decisions are taken by majority vote.

A distinct feature of the University Higher Council is that both the president and the secretary general who are officers at BAU(Eg:F) participate in all meetings of the Council with a vote thus exercising greater power of authority than their counterpart officers in American patterned universities. The decision-making power of the president of BAU(Eg:F) matches that of the president of AUB(Am:F) only, while the decision-making power of the secretary general of BAU(Eg:F) surpasses that of the vice-presidents and provosts in all American patterned universities.

4.3.3 The President of the University

The Minister of Higher Education in Egypt chooses the president of BAU(Eg:F), who is one of three faculty members of AU who has held the rank of professor for at least ten years, for a period of 4 years renewable. The duties and responsibilities of the president of BAU(Eg:F) are similar to those of American modelled universities in that he attends to the administration of all University affairs and executes the decisions of the University Higher Council.

4.3.4 The University Council

The University Council is the fifth level in the organisational hierarchy composed of the president of the University, the vice-president of academic affairs and the vice-president of post-graduate studies and research of AU, representatives of the Lebanese Moslem Welfare Society, the deans of faculties and the general secretary of BAU(Eg:F). The president of BAU(Eg:F) appoints members of the University Council, more specifically, the representatives of the Lebanese Moslem Welfare Society as the University Higher Council appoints the deans and secretary general upon the president's recommendations. Such appointments and nominations by the

president allow him to form a team of loyal senior administrators to support him in his tasks, a feature of the corporate management culture similar to the American modelled universities. The decisions made by the University Council and its committees are mainly in the form of recommendations. When necessary the University Council may delegate some of its responsibilities to the president of the University for a set time period to make decisions as he judges appropriate.

The affiliation with AU is of such a nature that the two vice-presidents of academic affairs and post-graduate studies and research of AU are members of the University Council. BAU(Eg:F) itself has no vice-presidents residing in the Lebanon which makes the president directly responsible for supervising all academic issues with no intermediary link between the deans and him as in American patterned universities. Moreover the president and most deans, if not all, are faculty members of AU implicitly indicating that BAU(Eg:F) is a branch of AU on Lebanese soil with the only difference being that the former is a public Egyptian institution and the latter a private Lebanese institution funded by students' tuition.

4.3.5 The Secretary General

The secretary general, a holder of a tertiary degree, is appointed by the University Higher Council for four years renewable. He attends to all administrative and financial matters of the University within the guidelines set by the University Higher Council. The post of secretary general is a non-academic post.

4.3.6 The Faculty Council

The president appoints the members of the faculty council, which includes the dean of the Faculty who is appointed for one year renewable, the chairpersons of the various departments of the Faculty and the membership of one of the oldest two serving faculty members of each department alternating annually. The president upon the recommendation of the faculty council may make special appointments of at least two faculty members with specific expertise. Minutes of meetings that are held monthly and the decisions taken are to be reported to the president within eight days of the meeting. The role of the faculty council is to look into all matters related to teaching, research, the administration and the budget of the Faculty.

4.3.7 The Department Council

The department council is composed of the head of the department who is chosen from among the three oldest serving professors of the department, all full-time faculty members and two part-time faculty members chosen by the department council based on the recommendation of the department head. Meetings are held at least once a month and minutes are forwarded to the dean of the faculty within five days of meeting.

Many interesting characteristics of the management style at BAU(Eg:F) may be depicted based on the constitution and the by-laws. First a clear chain of command has been established within the organisation with decisions and recommendations made at each level raised to the preceding level of authority signifying a true bureaucracy. Second there is respect for seniority in appointments within each governing body, a feature that can have both positive and negative implications. It

may lead to the creation of homogeneous management teams at each level enhancing effective decision-making and implementation. Extreme homogeneity, particularly with regard to age, may stifle innovation, which is necessary for advancement in the rapidly expanding age of information, knowledge and technology. Third, there is a complete absence of democracy in faculty member representation. At no point do faculty members elect their representatives; rather they are appointed to governing bodies according to age and experience. Fourth, the gender 'male' appears to be synonymous with all upper administrative posts, including the post of dean.

4.4 The French Institutional Pattern

One of the two universities in Lebanon following the French educational pattern is included in the study, namely USJ(Fr:F). The organisational pyramid of USJ(Fr:F) is comprised of eight levels which are in descending order: Le Compagnie de Jésus, the president (recteur), the vice-presidents (vice-recteur), the university council, the restricted council, the general secretary, the faculty headed by the dean and the department headed by the chairperson. Figure 4.19 gives the organisational chart of USJ(Fr:F).

4.4.1 Le Compagnie de Jésus

Very few references are made to this body throughout the statutes of USJ(Fr:F), hence its precise role in relation to the University and its composition are vague to some degree. The authorities of Le Compagnie de Jésus in Lebanon play a role similar to the BOT in the American patterned universities in that they appoint the president of the university. The distinct difference however is that the president is a member of Le Compagnie de Jésus. There is a mention in the statute of one more function of the

authorities of Le Compagnie de Jésus which is similar in part to that of the BOT in American patterned universities. Amendments of the statute of USJ(Fr:F) proposed either by the president of the University or the University Council are not final unless they are communicated to the authorities of Le Compagnie de Jésus who have only one month to adopt or reject the amendments after which they are considered approved. These two roles of Le Compagnie de Jésus suggest that it is the highest authority within the University. It not only plays a supervisory role with respect the University and its operations, it is continuously represented through the person of the president to whom it delegates its authorities.

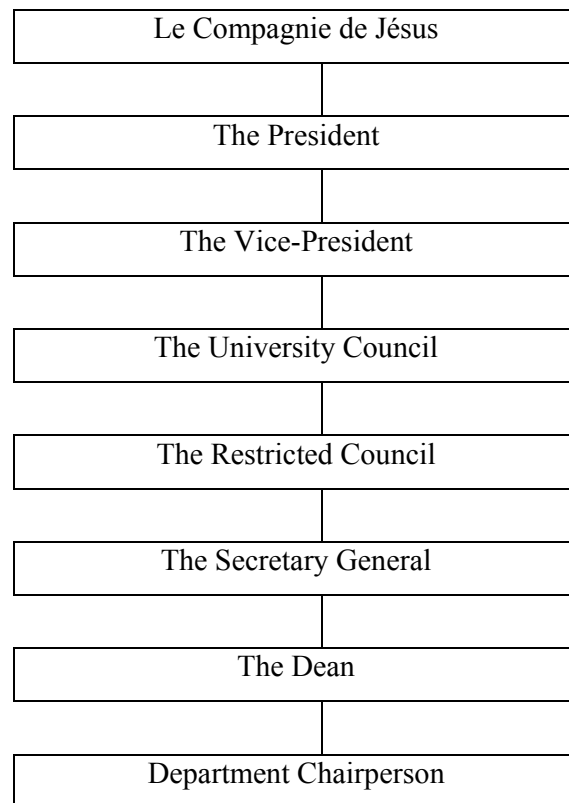


Figure 4.3 Organisational Chart of USJ(Fr:F)

4.4.2 The President

The University Council nominates three candidates for presidency from among the members of Le Compagnie de Jésus, one of whom is appointed president of the University by the authorities of Le Compagnie de Jésus. The term of presidency is five years renewable. The president attends to all university affairs – academic, administrative and financial – with full responsibility and authority of giving leadership to the operations of the university, particularly those of ‘central administration’ as stated in the statute (Université Saint-Joseph de Beyrouth – Statuts de l'Université, 1997).

The term ‘central administration’ leads one to assume that there are at least two types of administrations: one central form of administration that involves the institution as a whole and another that involves the administration of each specialised unit whether it is a faculty, school, centre or so on. This is in accordance with Sanyal’s (1995) description of the management trend typical of Central Europe and North Africa as one of centralised planning and control which is a feature of the corporate managerial trend as identified by McNay.

In the statute of USJ(Fr:F), the term he or she is used in reference to the president. An element worthy of note is that all presidents of USJ(Fr:F) have been males ever since its establishment in 1875 by the Jesuit Brethren. This is not very surprising as all presidents have been Jesuit clergymen. Moreover, all presidents have been Frenchmen, except during the civil war where for the first time a Lebanese Jesuit clergyman was appointed president of USJ(Fr:F).

4.4.3 The Vice-Presidents

The president may appoint several vice-presidents to assist him in managing the various departments of central administration after consulting with the University Council. Currently there are four vice-presidents at USJ(Fr:F), namely the vice-president of administration and human resources, the vice-president of research, the vice-president of Arabic and Islamic studies and the vice-president of development. The president defines the authorities delegated to the vice-presidents, the scope of their authorities and the duration of their mandate which can never exceed the mandate of the president himself. The post of vice-president is thus a temporary one tied to the post of the appointing president enabling the president to form a team of loyal officers assisting and surrounding him, a characteristic of the corporation.

4.4.4 The University Council

The University Council is headed by the president of the University, and consists of the vice-presidents, the deans of faculties, the directors of institutions linked to the University, the directors of teaching institutions linked to faculties but enjoying autonomy in relation to study programmes and diplomas offered, a second representative of a faculty that does not have institutions linked to it, administrators of the dispersed university campuses and the general secretary of the university as members. The basic role of the Council is (1) the nomination of three candidates for the post of president of the institution, (2) the proposal and approval of amendments to the basic statute of the various individual units and the university as a whole, (3) the study and approval of research and study programmes, conventions, protocols, contracts and (4) the financial management of university patrimony and resources in accordance with the charter of the university. The University Council may delegate its

power to the president of the University or to other specific councils except in matters related to roles (1) and (2). Meetings are held at least three times a year. For Council meetings to be considered legal the majority of voting members must be present with absent members entitled to delegate their vote to just one other member of the council. An official report of the decisions made by the council is signed by the president, the general secretary and members of the Restricted Council upon the approval of Council members in a successive meeting of the Council.

The University Council is the legislative body of the institution. Some of the authorities it possesses such as nomination of presidential candidates and delegation of vote are similar to those of the BOT in American modelled universities. Most of its responsibilities however are the same as those of the Senate in American modelled universities and the University Council at BAU(Eg:F). It is also very similar in its composition to the senate. If we consider that deans of faculties and directors of institutes and schools are elected by their colleagues, then faculty are represented in the University Council.

4.4.5 The Restricted Council

The president of the University heads the Restricted Council which is composed of vice-presidents concerned with the agenda of the meeting, four members elected by the University Council from among deans of faculties and directors of institutions and the secretary general. The members of the Restricted Council serve for three years renewable but they lose their membership if they are no longer members of the University Council. The Restricted Council meets at least six times a year upon the request of the president or the request of three of its members. The Restricted Council

assists the president in the direction of the University. Among its functions is the preparation of the agenda of the meetings of the University Council. It should be noted that there is no body in the organisational hierarchy of American and Egyptian modelled universities comparable to the Restricted Council in any manner.

4.4.6 The General Secretary

With the post of general secretary we come to the end of the organisational hierarchy named ‘central administration’ at USJ(Fr:F). The president appoints the secretary general who assists him in managing all University affairs. In particular, he or she is responsible for coordinating the functions of the various departments of central administration. The general secretary serves as the secretary of the University and the Restricted Council. He or she does not possess the power of vote in the University Council; however he is entitled to vote in the Restricted Council.

The post of general secretary is absent from the organisational hierarchy of all American modelled universities but it exists at both the Egyptian modelled university, BAU(Eg:F) and the French patterned university, USJ(Fr:F), with two differences. First, the general secretary at BAU(Eg:F) possesses the power of vote in the University Council where all the various units of the University are represented which is not the case at USJ(Fr:F). Second, the post of the general secretary at USJ(Fr:F) is more involved in functions related to central administration while at the faculty level there is the post of secretary. The latter post does not exist at BAU(Eg:F).

4.4.7 The Faculty

The first level just below central administration is the faculty. Each faculty is considered an autonomous scientific, financial and administrative entity within the

limits set by the University statute. Each faculty is administered by a council and directed by a dean just as the University is administered by a council and directed by a president (Université Saint-Joseph de Beyrouth – Statuts de l'Université, 1997). An assistant dean helps the dean administer the faculty along with the heads of departments, coordinators or directors of studies. The organisation of the faculty, the attribution of its different parts and its modalities of operation are specified by the statute of the faculty. The faculty members elect the dean from among three candidates nominated for the post by the president of the University for a term of four years renewable twice. Only if the president nominates less than three candidates for the post of dean may members of the teaching staff have the right to suggest their candidate. No other details are given regarding the faculty or the department.

4.5 The Lebanese Institutional Pattern

The Lebanese University is the only public institution in the country. The LU has made considerable contributions to education by offering all segments of the Lebanese community particularly the lower-income segment an opportunity of receiving higher education that otherwise may be prohibitive to them in private universities. It has also contributed significantly to gender balance in higher education. The ratio of females to males was 35 to 100 in 1972 and increased progressively to reach 132 to 100 in 1997 (CERD, 1997). Furthermore, public higher education remained accessible to all as the LU with its 14 faculties-each of which is duplicated at least once- branched and became dispersed in 47 sites across the country in less than thirty years (Taha, 2000). The phenomenal expansion rate undoubtedly had its managerial implications.

The organisational hierarchy of the LU is composed of several levels. These levels in descending order are: the Cabinet of Ministers, the Curator Minister, the president of the university, the University Council, the general secretary, The Faculty headed by the dean, the Faculty Council, the director of a branch, the branch council, the department headed by the chairperson and the secretary. Figure 5 gives the organisational chart of LU.

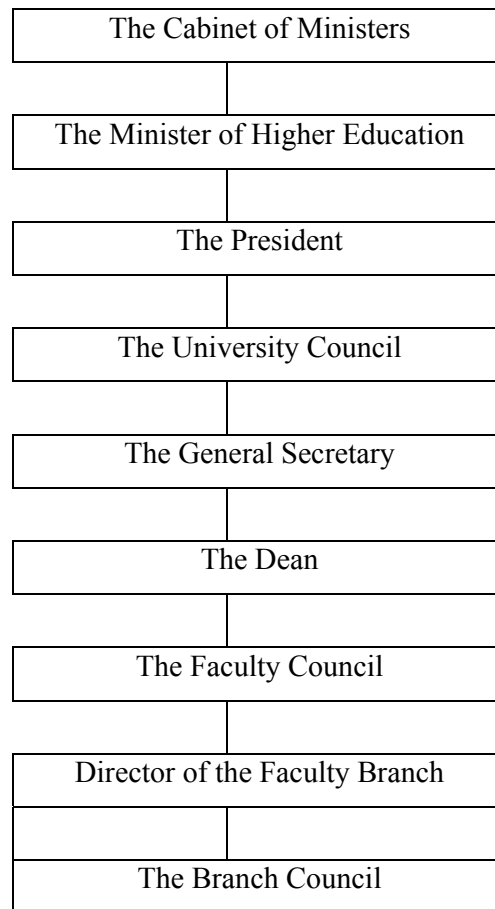


Figure 4.4 Organisational Chart of LU

4.5.1 The Cabinet of Ministers

The cabinet of ministers is at the summit of the organisational hierarchy. As the supreme authority of the LU, it enjoys the power of decision concerning the statutes of the LU, the bylaws for the teaching and administrative corps and the bylaws of each Faculty. It possesses the power of decision regarding the appointment of key academic and administrative personnel (the president of the university, the deans, the general secretary). The cabinet thus oversees the academic, the administrative and the financial affairs of the university. From the description which precedes one can deduce that the role of the cabinet of ministers is to some extent similar to that of the BOT in American patterned Universities, Le Compagnie de Jésus at USJ(Fr:F) and to the University Higher Council at BAU(Eg:F).

4.5.2 The Curator (Regent) Minister (The Minister of National Education)

A major role of the curator minister, currently the Minister of National Education, is the submission of decrees and bills concerning all University affairs – academic, administrative and financial - to the Cabinet of Ministers for approval. The curator minister in collaboration with the Cabinet of Ministers is the major decision-maker in the University. As stated in Law 75/96-Paragraph 3, ‘The Minister of National Education has an overseeing function over the Lebanese University in accordance with the stipulation of the law.’ He acts in a sense as the liaison between the University and the Cabinet of Ministers. Among his numerous duties are: the receipt of an annual report from the president of LU, the call for meeting of the University Council as he deems necessary and the approval of decisions made by University Council concerning the constitution and the bylaws of LU.

4.5.3 The President

The University Council nominates three candidates for presidency from among the full-time tenured faculty members of LU of rank professor, one of whom is appointed president of the University based on a decree issued by the Cabinet of Ministers upon the recommendation of the curator minister. The term of presidency is five years renewable. The president attends to all University affairs – academic, administrative and financial - with full responsibility of giving leadership to the administrative and financial operations of the University by exercising permanent jurisdiction devolved to him by the curator minister, which are similar to those of the minister himself. The role of the president at LU then is analogous to that of the presidents in all universities covered in my study.

There are no vice-presidents at LU but certain faculty members have been appointed to assist the president in the areas of research and development where special expertises are needed. Amendments to the bylaws to incorporate these new posts have not been approved by the cabinet at the time interviews were held (November 29, 2002).

4.5.4 The University Council

The University Council is headed by the president of the University and is composed of the deans of the various faculties, an elected faculty representative of each faculty, two distinguished figures in the world of academia appointed to the University Council based on a decree issued by the cabinet of ministers upon the recommendation of the curator minister, four students who represent the National Student Union of LU and the general secretary. The University Council at LU is

unique in its composition when compared to all universities included in the study. In no other institution in the country are students represented in a governing body at such an advanced level in the organisational hierarchy.

The University Council acts in both a legislative and occasionally an executive capacity assisting the president in the implementation of his various academic, administrative and financial responsibilities and duties. The breadth of its authorities thus surpasses those of all universities included in the study, which mainly assume a legislative role only. The responsibilities of the University Council include: (1) setting the bylaws of the University, (2) the approval of the bylaws of the faculties or the individual units of the University, (3) the nomination of three candidates for the post of president of the institution, (4) the approval of academic programmes and curricula, conventions, protocols, contracts, (5) the nomination of academic and administrative appointments to various University positions, (6) the approval of full-time and part-time appointments recommended by the various units, (7) the study of the annual budget and (8) the financial management of University patrimony and resources in accordance with the provisional laws.

4.5.5 The General Secretary

Central administration includes all levels of the organisational pyramid from the summit to the post of general secretary. The general secretary is appointed based on a decree issued by the cabinet of Ministers. He assists the president in attending to all administrative matters of the University within the provisions of the law. He is a member of the University Council and acts as its secretary. The post of the general

secretary is a non-academic post as is the case at BAU(Eg:F). It is the highest post assumed by administrative cadre.

4.5.6 The Faculty

The faculty is headed by a dean who is appointed for three years renewable and may serve for a third term upon the recommendation of the curator minister based on a decree issued by the Cabinet of Ministers. The University Council nominates three candidates for the post of dean after consultation with the faculty council. If in disagreement with nominations submitted by the faculty council, the University Council may submit its own independent list of qualified nominees. The dean is responsible for the execution of the policies of the faculty, the management of its academic programmes and the supervision of its financial and administrative affairs.

Each faculty at LU is administered by a faculty council as at USJ. As for the composition of the faculty council, it consists of the dean as the head of the council and faculty and student representatives. The term of the council is one year in accordance with the term of elected faculty representatives.

4.6 The Branch

With the onset of the Lebanese war, commuting between the different parts of the country became restricted. The LU branched out into various locations across the country. A director was appointed by the president of LU to each branch for a term of three years renewable upon the recommendation of the dean. The directors of the branches were made responsible for managing the financial and administrative affairs

of the branches. Branch directors thus participated and assisted the dean in the management of the faculty.

As each faculty has a council headed by the dean, each branch has a council headed by a director. The council consists of the director of the branch, heads of departments and elected faculty representatives. Department heads are elected by their colleagues in the same department for a period of one year renewable. It would seem that the organisational structure of the LU particularly after branching is similar to a large extent to that of the French institution USJ(Fr:F) composed of independent entities under 'a central administration', a corporate managerial feature according to McNay's classification of university cultures.

There are a couple of observations worthy of note. First, the dean is in an administrative building with all other offices of central administration distant and isolated from the actual teaching faculty locations. The offices of branch directors situated at the faculty sites are readily accessible to faculty and students and in direct contact with the day to day activities of the faculty. Although the dean declares the decisions to be final, the actual decisions are made by the branch directors in collaboration with the branch council. Thus, the powers exercised by the deans at LU seem in reality to be weaker than those of the deans in all other universities.

Second, faculty representatives who are not officers of LU are members of three councils: the university council, the faculty council and the branch council. The faculty representatives in each of these councils are elected by their colleagues. One may conclude that the management style at LU is to some extent democratic with

faculty members and students participating in the decision-making process at most levels, particularly at the level of the faculty. Realities changed after the civil war. The Lebanese society was torn into factions along various lines – political, religious, and ideological. Despite the end of the period of chaos and the unarming of militia many of these factions still continue to exercise the ‘flexing of muscles’ and influence appointments at LU at different levels. Not only are the appointments of the president, the deans and branch directors subject to strong political influences but more importantly those of the teaching and administrative staff at the expense occasionally of quality. A loophole in the law whereby the cabinet may provide its own list of qualified candidates is also used for political ends further magnifying the problem (Taha, 2000).

4.7 Summary

Following this detailed description of the organisational structures of the universities and their constituent governing bodies in which special emphasis has been given to the power authority relationships characteristics of each educational model, one may infer initially that the predominant managerial cultures in all organisations are the bureaucratic and corporate cultures using McNay’s model of the ‘four cultures of the academy’ as a theoretical framework. Authority and power of decision appear to be concentrated in the top levels of the organisational hierarchies. There is a strong centralised control of administrators at the centre of the organisation promoting communication between the various units of the University under the general guidelines that govern the institution as a whole. Additionally, the chain of command which extends from the summit to the lower levels of the hierarchy and the operating procedures that specify the manner of implementation are explicit.

Faculty member representation in the governing bodies of the universities and their level of involvement in the decision-making processes varied from one university to the other. In three out of four of the American patterned universities namely AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and UOB(Am;N) it may be described as extensive, involving elected representatives from all the various units. A similar situation exists at LU but the representation is not only limited to faculty members but extends to include a few student representatives, reflecting a more democratic environment if democracy is understood to be degree of representation. In the belief that the true meaning of democracy incorporates also the effectiveness and efficiency of the implementation of decisions made by giving representation value, I proceed in the next chapter to pursue this issue. I will continue to explore features pertaining to the management cultures in the institutions using the empirical data collected through surveys and interviews to identify when appropriate the degree of collaboration between the empirical data and this factual data that has preceded.

CHAPTER FIVE

MANAGEMENT CULTURES

Introduction

‘The university will address the imprecise realities of ‘culture’ as well as the solid certainties of structures. It will hand the responsibility for most short – term decision making to accountable individuals... It will link planning at the level of the institution to departmental and individual goals, applying the principles of effective assessment in order to encourage and reward achievement. (Ramsden 1998: 267)

Organisations have distinctive features referred to as culture. Culture shapes the character of an organisation. It is the basic philosophy and spirit of the organisation. It is expressed in the form of extensively shared values and beliefs that relate to the goals that are to be prioritised and pursued by its participants. It is also expressed in the form of operating procedures that relate to the manner in which participants are to perform and to relate to one another within the organisation. In this chapter, I attempt to identify the predominant organisational cultures in the seven universities covered in the study, first by investigating the characteristics of the decision-making structures and processes, second by examining the perceptions of faculty members in relation to academic freedom and autonomy and finally by identifying features of the four organisational cultures outlined by McNay, probed through a specifically designed faculty questionnaire for the purpose and through the revealing data collected through semi-structured interviews.

5.1 The Governing Bodies and the Mode of Decision-Making

In this section I report on the investigation of a number of issues related to the decision-making processes in the institutions. First, I assessed the degree of awareness

that faculty and staff members had of the governing bodies of their institutions and how they saw the status of decisions – recommendations or final or whether they did not know – made by these bodies. Second, I was interested in determining the degree of involvement of faculty members in the decision-making process. Third, I examined the perceptions faculty members had of the mode of decision-making and the effectiveness of implementation.

To obtain information on the first query faculty members were requested to respond to a series of statements listed below. The findings for each university are summarised in Tables 5.1- 5.7 (See Appendix 5A).

Statements:

- 1a- The University has a BOT.
- 1b- Decisions made by the board are: Recommendations (), Final (), Do not know ().

- 2a- The University has a University Council.
- 2b- Decisions made by the council are: Recommendations (), Final (), Do not know ().

- 3a- The University has a Senate.
- 3b- Decisions made by the senate are: Recommendations (), Final (), Do not know ().

- 4a- The faculties at the University have a council.
- 4b- Decisions made by the council are: Recommendations (), Final (), Do not know ().

Fifty five percent of the whole sample was able to identify correctly whether or not the institution had a BOT. For the University Council the percentage was 79%. For the Faculty Council the percentage was 74%. The percentage dropped to 27% for correct knowledge of whether there was a Senate or not. The remaining responses

were either incorrect or were ‘don’t knows’/no response. It was interesting that 8 out of 10 of those people who incorrectly thought there was a BOT came from one university, BAU(Eg:F), and all ten respondents from this university were either incorrect about the Senate or did not know. It could be that various governing bodies are named or referred to differently in different institutions, yet it still seems disturbing that there is such a level of uncertainty or inaccuracy about their existence, particularly in some Universities. Those faculty members who correctly identified the bodies as existing were able to classify correctly the status of the decisions made (for example as ‘final’ for BOT). Those with wrong or doubtful responses tended, understandably, to put ‘do not know’ or did not respond with regard to the status of decisions made.

A plausible explanation for the findings is that these faculty members are simply passive recipients of the decisions made and thus are not particularly interested in the dynamics of the decision-making processes that govern the institution or that they are not actively involved in institutional activities in general. This may be partially due to a belief that the opportunity is not open to them at the upper administrative levels particularly if one considers the strong forces of the various political and interest groups that interplay in key-position appointments and major decisions made.

The above assumptions of lack of involvement by staff and faculty members are further reinforced by the following detailed account by a faculty member at LU in interview in relation to the University Council and the decisions made by the Council (which actually is a governing body of LU as indicated correctly by 8/9 of the respondents).

‘In principle, decisions are taken by the University Council. The council includes the appointed deans and an elected faculty member representative of each of the 13 faculties of LU. In reality, however, decisions are being made by the Minister of Higher Education or the Cabinet of Ministers. The true role of the council has been annulled as a result. Its members hold titles only. They have negligible authority. They are ‘inspired’ to make the appropriate decisions. The most appropriate decisions made by the council however are futile as they do not take into consideration the best interest of the various communities of LU – faculty members and students - but rather they serve the interests of the dominant religious and political factions in the country, particularly when it comes to appointments. Rarely is the right person appointed in the right position and often his or her authorities are limited’ (November 27, 2002).

It would be fanciful to hypothesise that the degree of faculty member awareness of the governing bodies of the institution and the status of the decisions made by these bodies is to some degree related to the involvement of faculty members in the decision-making process at the various levels within the institution. This led to the investigation of the second query. Faculty members were requested to classify decision-making in their universities as participatory, non-participatory or a combination of both, at three levels: (1) the department, (2) the faculty and (3) the institution. Responses are recorded as raw scores in Table 5.8 – 5.14 (See Appendix 5B).

In all of the private institutes of higher learning, more than half (44/63) of the respondents described the decision-making process at the departmental level as participatory, indicating they felt actively involved in the process. No more than one faculty member in each institution suggested it was non-participatory, except at UOB(Am:N) (3/11). At the level of the faculty, the decision-making process was described mainly as participatory (25/63) or a combination of participatory and non-participatory (30/63). Rarely was it described as non-participatory (5/63). The number of faculty members that viewed the process as participatory at the institutional level

was low, which for American patterned universities was only 5 out of 42. Most faculty members described the decision-making process at the institutional level as non-participatory (20/63) or a combination of both the participatory and non-participatory (23/63) modes, while only 14 people viewed the process as participatory.

Through his explanation of the degree of his involvement in the decision-making process, a faculty member at USJ(Fr:F) offers us a deeper understanding of the above findings identifying more democratic decision-making procedures at the departmental level and more bureaucratic and corporate procedures at the institutional level. The interview quotation further indicates that the faculty member is aware of the status of decisions made by the governing bodies at USJ(Fr:F), supporting previous findings.

‘We don’t take decisions in our department. We simply make recommendations. All of our decisions are recommendations. They are discussed further in the faculty council before they become final. As for major decisions such as changing of courses and so on, then they go to the University Council for final approval. This is where the real decisions are made. It is not the faculty or the department that make real decisions’ (November 25, 2002).

The following description by a senior officer at LAU(Am:F) about the level of participation of faculty and staff members in decision-making at the level of the faculty is illuminative.

‘We call it participatory management, everybody is involved, and when we say everybody is involved, not everyone is present. Involvement requires commitment and additional work above that of teaching and doing research. Everyone is involved in a certain capacity for example our faculty members are all involved in what we call councils’ (July 24, 2002).

LU stands out from the other universities in relation to the decision-making procedures. No more than three people ever thought decision-making was

participatory, whether at the institutional, faculty or department levels. In its decision-making procedures it appears to show elements of the collegial, the bureaucratic and the corporate cultures. This conclusion is supported by the elaborate description by a senior officer at LU about the composition of the faculty council, its role and the breadth of its authorities in interview.

‘Decisions related to this branch are made by the faculty council of this branch. All chairpersons of the academic departments and the elected faculty representatives of each department as well as the director who heads the weekly council meetings discuss all matters raised to the council. Administrative matters are finalised by the faculty council of the branch, while non-administrative matters are sent to the central administration; to the dean (the dean of all the various branches of the faculty in question). In routine matters, the dean takes the decisions. Issues related to all branches of the faculty such as changes in programmes, adding or omitting electives courses in some majors or matters related to the curriculum which must be the same in all branches are dealt with in the University Council...All faculty members have representatives in the councils at two levels, the level of the faculty and that of the university and hence their point of view is always heard’ (December 11, 2002).

It seems apparent that upon ascending the organisational pyramid the active role of faculty members in the decision-making process gradually declines and becomes less participatory. The fact that in each institution the decisions made were seen as more in the form of recommendations to be approved by bodies of higher authority rather than being final, could possibly reinforce the mixed perception faculty and staff members had in relation to the decision-making process being participatory, non-participatory or a combination of both particularly at levels above that of the faculty.

The third and final issue of interest in relation to the decision-making process was the mode in which decisions were seen to be made and the effectiveness of implementation from the point of view of faculty members. Responses to four statements related to my query were ranked on a six point scale ranging from strongly

agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree to do not know. Tables 5.15 – 5.21 give the tallies of responses for each statement while Table 5.22 gives the means for each of the four statements for each university (See Appendix 5C). Figure 5.1 below is a graphical representation of Table 5.22.

Statements:

1. Decision-making is consensual (by agreement) within the University.
2. Decision-making is rule-based (follows a fixed set of rules).
3. Decisions are made by appointed rather than elected committees or working parties.
4. The number of levels of authority in the University is satisfactory (not too many) to enable decision-making to be effective.

Faculty responses to the statement '*Decision-making is consensual (by agreement) within the University*', a characteristic of the collegial culture, tended to be varied among the three categories of agree (23/72), neutral (25/72) and disagree (24/72). Just over half (37/72) of the respondents identified bureaucratic decision-making procedures within their institutions by indicating the decision-making process as rule based while 25/72 of the respondents took a neutral stance. The slight majority of faculty members (40/72) suggested that decisions were made mainly by appointed rather than elected committees, a characteristic of the corporate culture. The slightly bigger majority of members (45/72) viewed the number of levels of authority as satisfactory rendering the decision-making process effective. This still leaves a number of dissatisfied people, although we do not know from the questionnaire whether more or fewer levels are wanted. One suspects fewer.

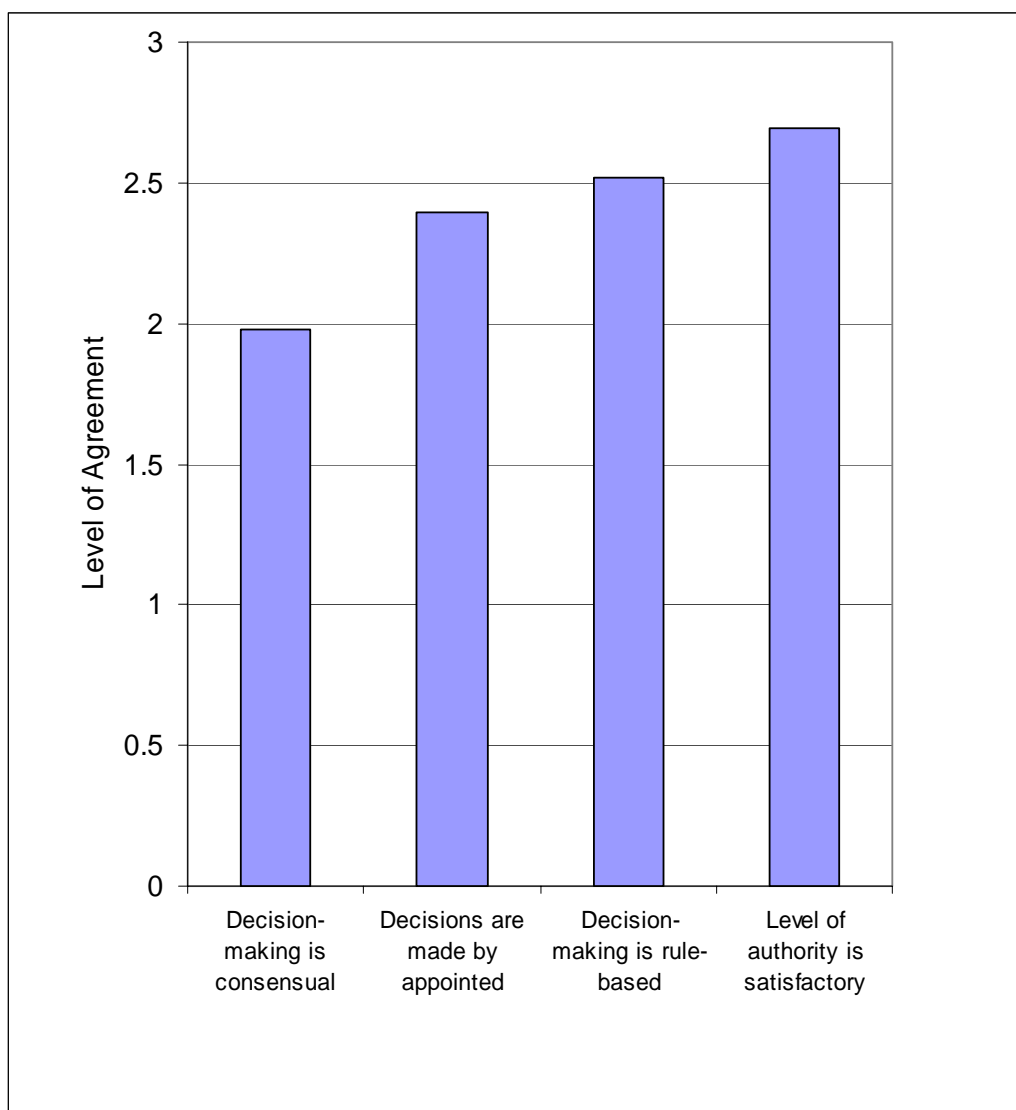


Figure 5.1 Mean of Statements Related to Perceived Mode of Decision-Making in the Universities (n=72)

A senior faculty member at BAU(Eg:F) explained how she thought decisions were made at the level of the department, expressing a dislike for the consensual style of decision-making and a preference for voting.

‘Usually we meet and discuss matters of concern in the department. We try to reach decisions by voting. So the procedure is democratic. I personally prefer

voting to consensus, particularly if the issues debated may cause tension among faculty' (October 12, 2002).

The above interview quotation and the one that follows by a senior officer at LU further confirm the findings that the collegial and bureaucratic procedures are dominant at the departmental level. The quotation also sheds some light on why responses were varied in relation to decision-making being consensual or rule based as it seems that modes of decision-making differed among managers within the same institution who change rules and regulations adapting them to prevailing circumstances.

'In theory decisions are made by vote of the majority of council members of the branch. In reality, this is not how things take place. We discuss matters but at the end decisions are made by agreement. At least this is the way they are taken in this faculty branch. In other faculties it may be quite different' (December 11, 2002).

A faculty member at USJ(Fr:F) explains why the decision-making process may seem lengthy in some cases.

'Decisions are not taken by vote but by consensus. In some focal areas they are influenced by position. Human relationships play such an important role which makes them unjust. The process could be better if it were made more formal. There is a Latin proverb which says excess justice becomes injustice. This is not good. Too many rules and regulations are bad but at least there should be a minimum set of rules and regulations that must be applied at all times' (November 25, 2002).

The above quotation discloses a decision-making process that is highly political and strongly influenced by personal disposition, revealing elements of the corporate culture. It stands out in contrast to the decision-making process at BAU(Eg:F) based on voting, a rule based procedure of a bureaucracy, to avoid conflict and probably long delays in decision-making. It also is distinct from the decision-making procedure followed at LU where they have evaded voting procedures for apparent consensual agreement indicating probably minimal conflict and ample collegiality but only at the

departmental and branch level. Commenting on the effectiveness of the decision-making process at the institutional level at LU, a faculty member noted in interview,

‘One day a decision is made and all faculty members are informed. Soon after the decision is changed and we may never know why the change occurred...Decision related to changes in the programmes or curriculum are tiresome and extremely time consuming. These decisions are made centrally by the University Council’ (December 5, 2002).

Another faculty member added, ‘Decision-makers spend hours in meetings achieving almost nothing’ (November 27, 2002). It would appear that the decision-making process at the institutional level is probably influenced by external pressures for changes to occur without any justification thus rendering it highly political. This is also the situation at USJ(Fr:F) reinforcing the implementation of corporate managerial techniques at the top levels of organisational hierarchies.

Is it the type of involvement that is important or the manner in which decisions are made? Does it really matter whether decision-making is rule based or consensual or whether decisions are made by appointed rather than elected working parties or committees as indicated in the findings of the questionnaire? The following remark by a senior faculty member may shed light on the decision-making process in general.

‘When in committees and meetings, expectations are made clear at the onset and so one feels coerced to make the decisions according to those expectations. It is as though nobody wants to fall out of line’ (AUB, August 14, 2002).

Overall the interview data reveals that what might seem to look to be a democratic process where everyone expresses his or her point of view openly is actually power coerced. With expectations and desired ends spelled out clearly from the beginning, faculty and staff members must undoubtedly feel obliged to comply. These are

predominantly identified features of the bureaucratic and to a larger extent the corporate cultures.

5.2 Academic Freedom and Autonomy of Faculty Members

The faculty is the first body of the University that consists of all full-time and part-time teaching and research personnel of the rank of instructor and above. Even if not all faculty members are expected to play an active role in the decision-making process within their faculties, they are however essentially required to teach and to conduct research in accordance with their job descriptions. For this reason I was interested in surveying their perceptions on a range of issues related to their job description, in particular, the degree of academic freedom and autonomy that faculty and staff members enjoy to carry out their various responsibilities and duties. To that end, respondents' responses to nine statements were ranked on a six-point scale ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree to do not know. Tallies of responses for each statement appear in Tables 5.23, 5.24, 5.25, 5.26, 5.27, 5.28 and 5.29 while Table 5.30 gives the mean for each statement for each university (See Appendix 5D). Figure 5.2 below provides a graphical display for the data in Table 5.30.

Statements:

1. Within the University, faculties are the main organizational unit.
2. The management style adopted by the University allows a high degree of freedom for faculties (discipline-based departments) in the selection of their goals.
3. The management style adopted by the University allows a degree of freedom for individuals to work towards the University goals they think most important.

4. The management style adopted by the University allows considerable freedom for faculty to teach courses of interest to them.
5. The management style adopted by the University allows faculty considerable freedom to conduct research in areas of interest to them.
6. The management style adopted by the University encourages research with more commercial application as opposed to pure, curiosity driven research.
7. The management style adopted by the University favours offering courses having greater direct job applicability (commerce, computing, media) as opposed to university courses as history, philosophy, classics.
8. Job descriptions of faculty members considerably match reality.
9. Faculty members enjoy considerable freedom to decide their own job description.

While the number of respondents in the three different categories that have emerged from the questionnaire data provides some sense of strength of the responses, these are supported with interview quotes which reveal the perceptions of faculty members and administrators in greater depth. As the interview data I have collected is illuminative, intriguing and captures realities inaccessible through questionnaires, I intend to provide extensive interview quotes by respondents. As I progress, I will point out some of the differences and similarities in academic freedom and autonomy among the institutions and see whether or how they link the institutions to the four university cultures based on McNay's model. I will then end with an overall view of faculty members' perceptions of their academic freedom. When reporting the degree of agreement to statements across the whole sample, for readability, figures are given as a combination of 'agree' and 'strongly agree' out of 72 (e.g. 48/72 in agreement).

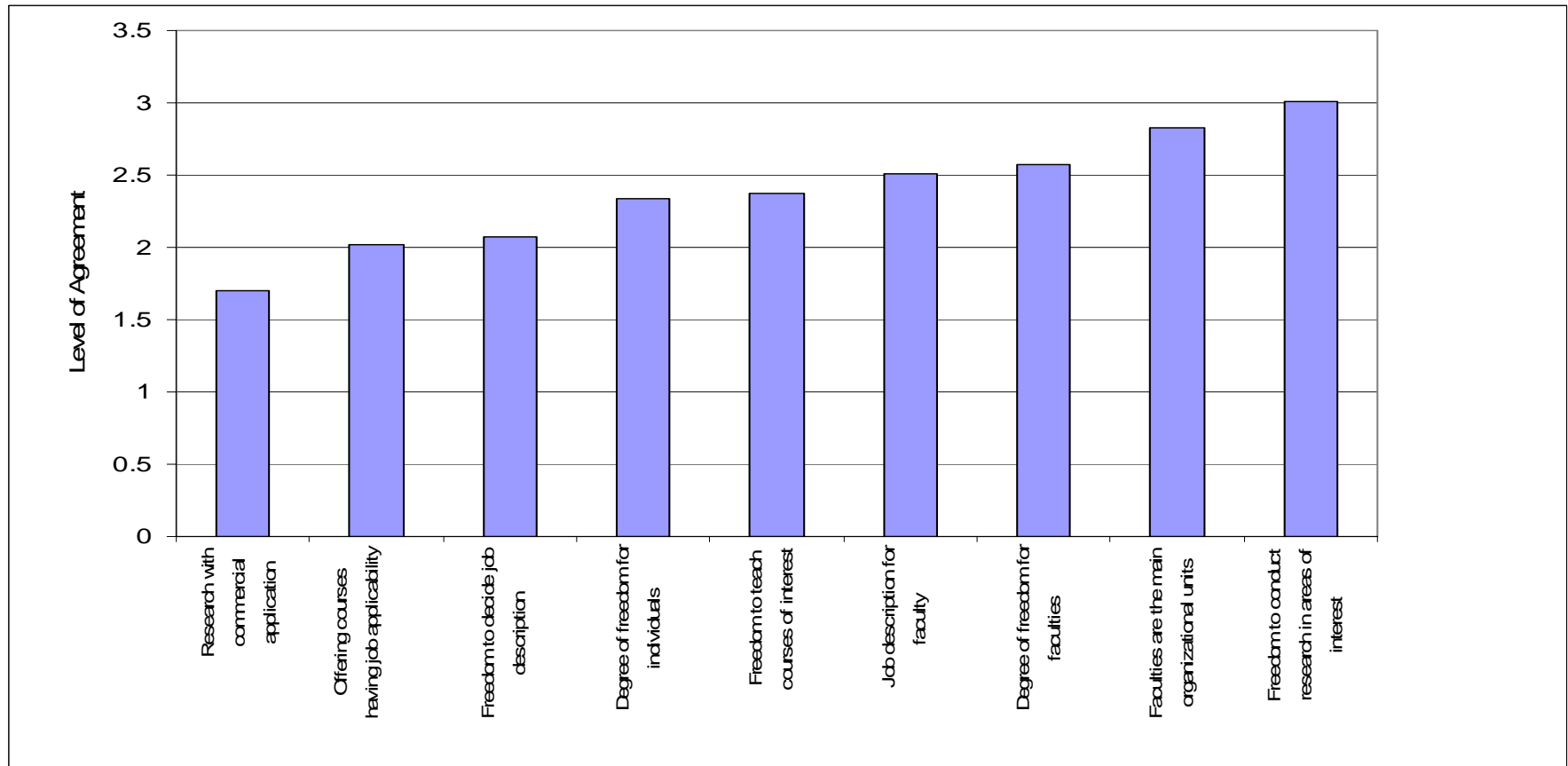


Figure 5.2 Means of Statements Related to the Freedom and Autonomy of Faculty Members in the Universities (n= 72)

The traditional university 'appears to be a highly heterogeneous and poorly articulated institutional ensemble' (Conford 2000: 10). The academic culture of the traditional university has been characterised as collegial. Collegiality is usually associated with the idea of disciplines as frames of reference and individual academic freedom. The findings in the survey may reflect this image of the university, as the slight majority of faculty members indicated that they perceived the faculty to be the main organising unit within the university (48/72) where faculties and departments are seen by a similar slight majority to enjoy a degree of freedom in the selection of their goals (42/72) and where faculty members enjoyed a degree of freedom to work towards the University goals they thought most important (42/72). The above finding is elucidated by the quotes that follow by two faculty members from BAU(Eg:F) in which they explain the flexibility they possess to prioritize tasks and goals of personal interest.

'Most of the time I have lots of flexibility to prioritize the tasks that are within my responsibilities. Some times I am able to change some of the courses I am offering. I may even change the content of some courses according to market demands' (October 11, 2002).

'I prefer to teach than to do research in my limited time. My major role is teaching and not conducting research as I work in a university and not in a research centre. Too much is demanded of us and we cannot manage to do any research during working days so we leave it to the weekends and holidays' (October 3, 2002).

A senior faculty member at USJ(Fr:F) explains in interview that freedoms are not without limits. Rules and regulations tend to guide freedoms, the identified cultural attributes of a bureaucracy.

'There is relative freedom for a person to work towards certain goals or objectives, of course, under the general direction of the university although it may differ from one faculty to another' (October 28, 2002).

A senior faculty member at AUB(Am:F) explains why he believes freedoms are limited, but this time in relation to the reward system.

‘No, faculty do not have the freedom to pursue goals of interest to them because the system of rewards is tied to certain priorities established by University authorities. Faculty members cannot determine priorities as they run the risk of not being able to continue in the University’ (August 14, 2002).

A senior faculty member at LU who is a civil servant and enjoys job security however, seems to have ample freedom to prioritize the tasks he chooses to undertake, where teaching seems to be the least important.

‘I have become chairman of the department because of my active involvement in research. I believe one day I will be branch manager but not a dean as I am not affiliated with any influential political party. I am a consultant to the department of finance. I am also a consultant in two agencies. I am writing a book now that is being fully funded by UNESCO’ (December 13, 2002).

Some academic freedom does seem to be abundant in all institutions, particularly in relation to the freedom enjoyed by faculty members to teach courses of interest to them (42/72) and more so to conduct research they find personally interesting (59/72). This is clearly supported in the interview quotations by faculty members from different institutions.

A faculty member at AUB(Am:F) described the freedom she enjoyed in relation to teaching,

‘I’ve been told that I will be supported in doing what I thought was the right thing to do in my courses. So far I have been given complete freedom to do what I want’ (August 28, 2002).

A senior officer at AUB(Am:F) from a different faculty echoed similar ideas related to the teaching aspect of academic freedoms.

‘We treasure academic freedom. I, as dean, usually do not interfere in how faculty teach or what they teach, unless there are problems raised by the students concerning the method of teaching or the material being taught’ (September 12, 2002).

At a later time in the interview when the same faculty member at AUB(Am:F) was asked if she had freedom to conduct research of interest to her she elaborated,

‘Yes and no. This is really the biggest problem for me. I have been involved in a kind of research in the States for almost ten years before I came here. I have already a research agenda and track record. I am still interested in the same kind of research but it’s not the kind of thing that’s done by most other people here particularly in my department. That in a way concerns me. I going to be able to have the facilities or the support or the time I need to do it. Everybody says that they would like to see more of this here. OK, that’s all fine but I think the system still isn’t ready like. We have to fight for funding’ (August 28, 2002).

In interview with a faculty member at LAU(Am:F) the following dialogue occurred that emphasizes further the important collegial feature of academic freedom.

- Q: Do you have considerable freedom to teach courses in the manner you wish and to teach courses that are of interest to you?
- R: Yes, when I came here they told me what kind of courses I’ll be teaching and they were concerned to know whether I would accept or I liked those courses. I can also suggest courses of interest to me.
- Q: Do you have considerable freedom to conduct research in areas of interest to you?
- R: Yes, there are no limitations regardless what the research topic maybe.
- Q: Are there any limitations with respect to time or funding?
- R: In terms of time our teaching load is heavy, but if one wants to do research she or he will always find the time and you can always apply for a reduction in your teaching load. As for funding, I don’t think so. I mean they give it to you, but you have to apply. There are certain constraints and limitations. Until now, everything I have applied for I have received. But by everything, I mean everything that makes sense (July 5, 2002).

A colleague at UOB(Am:N) gave a detailed description of his academic responsibilities for the year 2002-2003 which suggest flexibility to prioritize tasks and freedom to concentrate on areas of academic interest.

‘Usually my teaching load as a full-time faculty member of UOB is four courses, or 12 credits. It has been reduced as I am in the process of preparing with my colleague, if it flies, an opera...Producing an opera requires a lot of work and preparation. You have to in this particular case go to the Congress Library in Washington DC and you have to acquire a copy of the original text...There is lots of research involved in the process. As for the courses I am teaching, there is quite a bit of research involved in the Shakespeare course, but not so much in the essay writing one...I can teach the courses in the manner I feel appropriate (September 11, 2002).

It should be noted that the opera did actually fly. Administration was extremely supportive as the teaching load of the faculty member had been reduced to two courses.

In the next interview quotation by a colleague and senior faculty member at UOB(Am:F) it is further apparent that faculty members have some degree of freedom in the choice of their teaching and research priorities. The interview quotation also portrays two important notions. The first notion is related to power; the second notion is related to accountability.

‘We put forth the course offering and as you know every faculty member including myself has his or her area of expertises or area of interest and so accordingly the courses are assigned. Some names are assigned automatically to a course. As for me, all courses related to my area of speciality I can assign to myself... In my case as a chairman, research is upon availability of time. If in a semester I have just a little more free time than I would be able to do something, but during the year I usually don’t have time to do any research. This is for me and I believe that other faculty members in other faculties would answer in the same manner as they have a still heavier teaching load than I do... The University is preparing detailed job descriptions for the various posts now, but I have my experience I have gained from the United States. I know what a chairman has to do. This is what I use for now until an official description of what a chairman has to do and what are his responsibilities are out.’ (July 16, 2002).

First there is the notion of power and control in the sense of optimising control through varied uses of power even in the simplest matters such as the assignment of courses. This corporate managerial feature is being manifested at the departmental

level where collegiality is presumed to prevail according to numerous studies in educational management theory. Second there is some degree of freedom in the choice of priorities for all faculty members, particularly with no clear job description for teaching and administrative faculty and as a result accountability is almost impossible. These interesting features will be touched upon in the final chapter of the study.

The notion of power and control also comes through in this quotation by a senior faculty member at USJ(Fr:F) but control is manifested in the form of respect for authority, an identified feature both of the corporate culture and of the culture in which the peoples of the Middle East in the institutions are embedded.

‘There is sort of a gentleman agreement between the dean and instructor. Always a midway solution is reached but there's respect for authority. The faculty council holds bi-annual meetings in order to take decisions concerning the curriculum which includes issues related to course offering and course distribution’ (October 28, 2002).

A senior officer at USJ(Fr:F) spoke in interview of his personal teaching and research involvements. The quotation emphasizes the need for some flexibility on the part of faculty with regards to their teaching and research interests.

‘Basically I hold a PhD in modern Arabic literature so I teach Arabic Literature. I also have a degree in translation so I teach translation too...The research that I am currently involved in is not related to my field of interest at all. This published research which I am sure you have read as it is related to your PhD research topic took me a long time to write. It contains information not available to the Lebanese government on how the licensing of universities took place in Lebanon. This topic is the talk of the hour in the country. This research took me about one year. It is not related to my teaching. It is more related to my concerns as the University's secretary. Currently despite my heavy administrative duties I still manage to conduct four research studies a year. This is actually on the account of my sleep and health but I love doing research in Arabic Literature’ (November 14, 2002).

From the above one may detect two approaches to research. The first is pure, curiosity driven research that stems from a passion for a topic, an identified collegial feature. As a faculty member at AUB(Am:F) indicated, 'If you do not have research in your system you just do not do it; it needs creativity; it is a hobby and there is time' (September 18, 2002). The second is related directly to society and attempts to provide answers or explanations to specific problems or has commercial applications. Based on faculty members' perceptions as conveyed through the findings of the survey however, the management of institutions of higher education in Lebanon do not necessarily implement the instrumentalist approach in teaching or in research, although international agencies as the OECD have been urging governments to take major steps in leading the institutes of higher education in this direction which reinforces the ethos of the corporation. In relation to statement (6): *'The management style adopted by the University encourages research with more commercial application as opposed to pure, curiosity driven research'* survey responses were varied among the three categories of agree (18/72), uncertain (23/72) and disagree (30/72). Responses were dispersed in a somewhat similar manner among the three categories of agree (24/72), neutral (28/72) and disagree (20/72) in relation to statement (7): *'The management style adopted by the University favours offering courses having greater direct job applicability (commerce, computing, media) as opposed to university courses as history, philosophy, classics'*.

A senior officer and a senior faculty member at BAU(Eg:F), shed light on the type of research that the University is ready to support which appears to be in line with the instrumentalist approach.

'For management at BAU(Eg:F) to support and partially fund research, the research topic should be attractive and have real practical value. There may be

some difficulties, like the need for new devices or materials that are unavailable but all these difficulties may be overcome if the research has true practical value' (Senior officer, October 12, 2002).

'Faculty are encouraged to conduct research in areas of interest to them. However, if one wants to conduct research in areas of interest to him or her then he or she must manage the funding unless the University has specifically requested that the research be conducted. Our major problem is to reach a suitable balance whereby not only the working research groups or the University understand the true value of research but also governments. Governmental financial support for research is needed for all universities in the Arab world not only BAU(Eg:F)' (Senior faculty member, October 12, 2002).

While describing their academic responsibilities, two faculty members at USJ(Fr:F) stressed the importance of linking theory to practice not only in research but also teaching. The notion of what constitutes research however is particularly interesting in the second interview quotation.

'My duty includes providing students with theoretical knowledge. I teach them how to think, how to present and how to analyse legal cases. I teach them the basic skills they need for work in the future' (November 12, 2002).

'The time I spend doing research definitely surpasses the time I spend teaching. Everything is research. Every time you read something, even a newspaper you are researching. I read four newspapers daily – Annahar, Al-Diyar, Al-Hyatt, and Al-Safir. I always read and cut out interesting parts and include them in my courses. It is in part research and in part I use the cuttings in the preparation of my courses' (November 25, 2002).

A faculty member of BAU(Eg:F), who is an advocate of instrumentalism, suggests changes in approaches to teaching and research that he deems necessary in higher education.

'The theoretical educational system and the logical justification for emphasis on theory must be changed completely. The university professor thinks so highly of himself. He is arrogant and has a strange personality. It is important for the university professor to feel that he is a part of society and that he shares its problems. He should conduct research that addresses the problems of society. His teaching should include the changes in his field. The internet has created changes and there are different legal aspects involved. These should be included in the curriculum. Also the people in government should be more open to the universities and benefit from the expertises it has. This is not happening' (October 3, 2002).

Whether curiosity driven or of practical value with commercial applications or linked to societal needs, there seem to be obstacles that hinder research productivity among faculty members in the institutions. The following interview quotations outline some of these obstacles which include heavy teaching loads, extensive administrative responsibilities, scarce funds and limited facilities and resources. Moreover, the link between research productivity and a well-defined reward system is obscure, and incentives in the form of promotion in academic status, employment stability and salary increments are almost missing.

‘Research is a matter of prestige and it is useful. It is hard to make a balance between the two particularly, if you teach 12 credits per semester and serve on university committees and resources are limited in terms of libraries, equipment, facilities...Administration encourage research but basically we are a teaching institution. Research in engineering is costly. I am not expecting in term of funds to get what they get in a research university in the United States’ (Faculty member, NDU(Am:N), July 31, 2002).

‘Unfortunately promotion is by no means influenced by research productivity. All teaching staff must hold a PhD or must be working towards that end unless they are part-timers. Research productivity is encouraged, but it has no bearing on promotion unless one is probably interested in an administrative form of promotion, I suppose. You see we do not have ranks as assistant professor, associate professor, and so on’ (Senior faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), October 28, 2002).

‘Conducting research is not a requirement. Faculty are encouraged to conduct research but it is not part of our job description. It is not a requirement. If you are interested in doing research, management will help in terms of reducing teaching load and providing funds. Research is not a condition for promotion. Being accepted as a full-time faculty member, usually as a result of excellent teaching competencies and dedication to one’s work is a promotion in itself’ (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 12, 2002).

‘Supposedly one is expected to conduct research. One must conduct a certain number of research studies to be promoted to a higher rank. Supervising doctoral researches also help in promotion. However, conducting research is not a requirement to remain teaching at LU. It does not affect salary

increments. There is no reduction in course load if one wants to conduct research' (Senior officer, LU, December 11, 2002).

The above interview citations suggest that faculty members in most institutions had mixed perceptions in relation to the degree of freedom they enjoyed to decide their own job description. The interview citations were in accordance with the survey findings where a third (24/72) of the whole sample described the freedom they had to decide their own job descriptions as limited, a fourth (18/72) described it as considerable and 22/72 were uncertain as to whether to describe it as limited or considerable. The interview quotations that follow further support these findings. They also emphasise the role management plays in steering their institutions in the desired direction and shaping job descriptions of faculty members which were found by three fifths (44/72) of those surveyed in the study to considerably matched reality.

Two faculty members from AUB(Am:F) provided me with the following description about their many duties, which reflect rigidity in type of duties expected but much flexibility in the manner in which they are to be carried out.

'My responsibilities include teaching, conducting research and serving the community, either at the demand of the University or upon the approval of University. The time allocated to teaching cannot be changed as teaching duties are not flexible. The rest of the time I devote to research' (September 18, 2002).

'I have this enormous teaching load and I am finding it difficult to balance the three, my teaching, research and community service, which I actually enjoy immensely. As an assistant professor I am supposed to teach three courses. Every time it gets brought up in faculty meetings it always seems some how the faculty member's fault. Those were the actual words of the president at a meeting and it was a little bit confusing. A faculty member basically has never been given any choice what so ever or it has never been conveyed to me that the faculty members have any choice as to how much we are to teach. But then that came out and we are encouraged to be more creative about teaching to allow more time for research and service' (August 28, 2002).

The three duties of faculty are teaching, research and community service. Although the teaching load is fixed and may be 'enormous' from the point of view of faculty members, they are required to be creative and to adopt innovative teaching approaches that will lead to a reduction in 'effective' time spent in teaching and related activities but not the actual teaching load. It is the duty of faculty members to determine the means to achieve the desired end. Management is simply requesting from faculty their best performance most 'effectively' and 'efficiently' given a fixed set of constraints. Faculty members are able thus to hold onto the collegial qualities they so highly value as individuality and excellence and to exhibit extreme levels of competitiveness. Management is really only requiring commitment and loyalty from faculty members, often cited characteristics of a corporation.

When asked about their job descriptions faculty members in the three American patterned universities in which research is not obligatory, (LAU(Am:F) ,NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N)), people gave detailed interview reports. The management of each of the institutions supported and encouraged research activity in a variety of ways. Most provided immediate incentives such as reduction in teaching loads and necessary funding and facilities. Others provided long term incentives as academic and administrative promotions within relaxed time frames. NDU(Am:N) adopted a unique approach in which faculty members were hired for the sole purpose of conducting research to stimulate the environment in the desired direction. It is not only the desired outcomes that management is concerned with but also the processes and procedures to achieve the outcomes.

'We know we have to teach a fixed number of courses each semester (4 courses or 12 credits) and so we do it...Doing research is not an obligatory thing in terms of university regulations. I fortunately am managing to do research and I have noticed in my ten years in this University that everyone who has the intention to do research will be able to get the facilities, the funding from the University or funding in the form of grants from the

European Community or the USA in addition to a reduction in course load' (Faculty member, LAU(Am:F), July 9, 2002).

'Teaching is of utmost importance because there are students depending on you and you have to accommodate their needs. It is becoming very important for every faculty member to conduct research. Some faculty members are responding. Others who have never done any research are not finding it easy at all. But with the new recruitment policies in place it will take some time before everybody gets involved. Actually for the past two years some new professors were hired to be part time or full-time researchers. Faculty members involved in research have been exempted from some of their normal teaching loads (Faculty member, NDU(Am:N), August 23, 2002).

'When you have to teach 12 credits per semester there is no time for research. Maybe because I have this administrative role and instructor role so it sort of takes up most of the time. I read journals, academic journals from time to time but I do not actually carry out research, it is limited. Administration encourages research but I do not believe it is a requirement, although it does have some influence on promotion as I believe (Faculty member, UOB(Am:N), July 12, 2002).

In the universities not patterned after the American model, teaching is the main component of any faculty member's job description. Involvement in research activity is seen as optional whereby one provides his or her own funding or it is to be conducted upon the demand of the institution. A senior faculty member at BAU(Eg:F) elucidates.

'Teaching loads vary with rank ranging from 8, 10 to 12 hours per week for professors, associate professors, and assistant professors respectively. Research productivity is optional...Unless the University has specifically requested that the research be conducted, faculty must manage funding to conduct research of interest to them' (October 12, 2002).

In a detailed account of his academic responsibilities a faculty member at LU noted,

'I am required to teach eight hours a week. Currently, I teach 7 hours a week and the eighth hour is spent on supervising graduate DEA students. I give one major course and one elective course, but let me explain. One can specialize either in linguistics or in literature. My area of specialisation is French Literature. I must give one course in my area of specialisation which I usually choose. The other course may be a linguistics course or a drama course in French not directly related to my specialisation. Note once I teach a course no

one can teach that course unless I decide I do not want to give the course anymore. In the LU they don't hire professors for their major but for their degree. I must also set exams for my courses and correct the exams. Research is optional and one must provide his own funding' (November 27, 2002).

The teaching load of faculty members at LU is lighter than that of faculty members in American patterned universities and depending on rank it is lighter or equivalent to the load of faculty members at BAU(Eg:F). It is however similar to the loads of faculty members at USJ(Fr:F). There are many other similarities between LU and USJ(Fr:F). A peculiar similarity is that of ownership privileges one acquires to the courses he or she teach.

'There is a need for a PhD holder in commercial law. I agreed to fill the post. No one can ever teach my courses or fill my post unless I die' (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 12, 2002).

Overall, one may conclude from the preceding interview quotations and findings derived from the questionnaires that a feature of significance in all universities is freedom which seems to be in abundance, a treasured collegial trait. As the types of freedoms differ from institution to institution then so do the rewards reaped from exercising the freedoms. Excellence in teaching is an integral part of any faculty member's job description. Freedom is exercised in the choice of teaching approaches and methodologies. Research is also an essential component of job descriptions. Faculty members are free to conduct research in areas they find personally interesting or within their field of speciality. Without it continuity of employment at AUB(Am:F) is impossible. Job progression which is based on the fulfilment of a fixed set of criteria within a fixed time frame thus becomes a function of freedom of choice.

Although research is encouraged at all other universities, continuity of employment is a function of teaching competencies. Management does not turn a blind eye to faculty

research productivity and faculty involvement in community service. Faculty eventually reap the rewards on both the personal and the institutional level. Rewards however tend to be linked to personal preferences and the interplay of human relationships, a characteristic of the Lebanese and Middle Eastern cultures. As a faculty member at LU notes,

‘I was once a chairperson of a department. I do not want that post anymore. The post is reserved for those who are politically backed. It is no longer a post for good teachers. I cannot be a director of a branch or a dean as I am not a member of one of the important religious sects in Lebanon. My wife could have been because she belongs to one of the large religious sects but having married me, she no longer qualifies for the post’ (November 27, 2002).

Thus, excellence in teaching coupled with research productivity facilitates job progression. The process is accelerated through good relationships with senior staff and officers. I will return to discuss this issue further in the final chapter of the study.

The survey findings indicate some disparity among faculty members’ responses in relation to management encouraging instrumentalism in both teaching and research. This is confirmed in the interview citations. There is awareness, however on the part of management of an obscured client/customer market pressure that needs to be accommodated. This is reflected in the quotations that follow.

‘As you know market demand for civil engineers is diminishing constantly. More and more students majoring in civil engineering are working for a minor in environmental engineering as environmental issues are gaining momentum, particularly in industrial areas...In an environmental management course, students’ projects tackled problems of water and air pollution in the North of Lebanon offering a range of cost effective solutions to industry in the area (Senior officer, UOB(Am:N), July 23, 2002).

‘I like to see our faculty involved in serving on government committees and on non-government organizations as consultancy advisors because I feel this enriches their professional capabilities and opens their eyes to the problems that exist in their communities. It will also enrich their teaching as they can

bring actual problems to class for discussion' (Senior officer, AUB(Am:F), September 12, 2002).

5.3 Management Cultures

To identify the management cultures in the different historically grounded institutes of higher education in Lebanon, McNay's model based on the degree of 'tightness' and 'looseness' on two dimensions, policy definition and control over implementation, was employed. McNay had chosen these dimensions because the 'classical collegial academy' (which was seen to be the dominant organisational culture of universities prior to the massification of higher education) was characterised by loose definition of policy for the organisation as a whole and loose control over implementation of policy. Massification and competition had appeared to tighten up control of one or both dimensions. The importance of these two dimensions lies in the fact that they appear, in general, to shape organisational processes. A model that employed various combinations of these two dimensions had seemed appropriate for the study.

Using these two dimensions as guidelines, McNay further identified a range of features of each management culture, relying on the literature by educational management theorists such as Clark, Handy, Freire, Gilliland and others. His model therefore appeared to be comprehensive, although untested in a society and in a higher education culture such as Lebanon. Four cultures were thus defined, which are elaborated on in the literature review, but summarised again here:

- **Collegial:** characterised by loose policy definition and loose control over implementation,

- **Bureaucracy:** defined by loose policy definition but tight control over implementation,
- **Corporation:** distinct for its tight policy definition and tight control over activity, and
- **Enterprise:** identified by tight policy definition but loose control over implementation.

It should be noted that not all characteristics of each culture were able to be surveyed in my study (for example I did not look at the ‘environmental fit’ and ‘timeframe’ feature of each culture). Conversely, certain characteristics recognised to be collegial, bureaucratic or corporate by other organisational management theorists such as Waters, Shattock and Weil were in the study. Among these features is the ‘collegial’ trait that the university is a self-governing community of scholars and the ‘bureaucratic’ trait that the university is top-down managed. Each item or statement was ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree to do not know. Counts and the means for all items of the questionnaire related to various aspects of the management culture of the institutions were calculated and summarised in tables 5.31-5.38 (See Appendix 5C). Figure 5.3 gives a graphical display of the means of the 20 statements.

Statements:

1. University goals (such as to achieve equality, excellence, etc.) are loosely defined.
2. There is loose control over the implementation of institutional goals.
3. The University has set standards at which participants are to perform academically.

4. The University has standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which participants are to relate to one another within the institution.
5. The University has standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which activities are to be performed within the institution.
6. Holding on to traditional management practices hinders change in the university.
7. The University has developed support mechanisms for management development of all concerned parties in decision-making.
8. Committees negotiate University goals to be pursued by the institution.
9. The management style adopted by the University allows participation of individuals in determining University goals.
10. Within the University, a small project team (or teams) is the dominant organizational unit.
11. As an institution, the University is a self-governing community of scholars.
12. There is a strong centralized control of administrators in the institution.
13. The University is a top-down managed institution.
14. The management style is one of delegated (passed on or entrusted) leadership.
15. The management style is liberal (laissez-faire or non-judgemental).
16. The management style adopted by the University focuses on loyalty to the organization.
17. The management style adopted by the University focuses on loyalty to senior management.
18. The management style adopted by the University views students as customers who are entitled to receive satisfaction with the product (education) they are purchasing.
19. The management style adopted by the University views students as a statistic.
20. The management style adopted by the University views students as apprentice (trainee) academics.

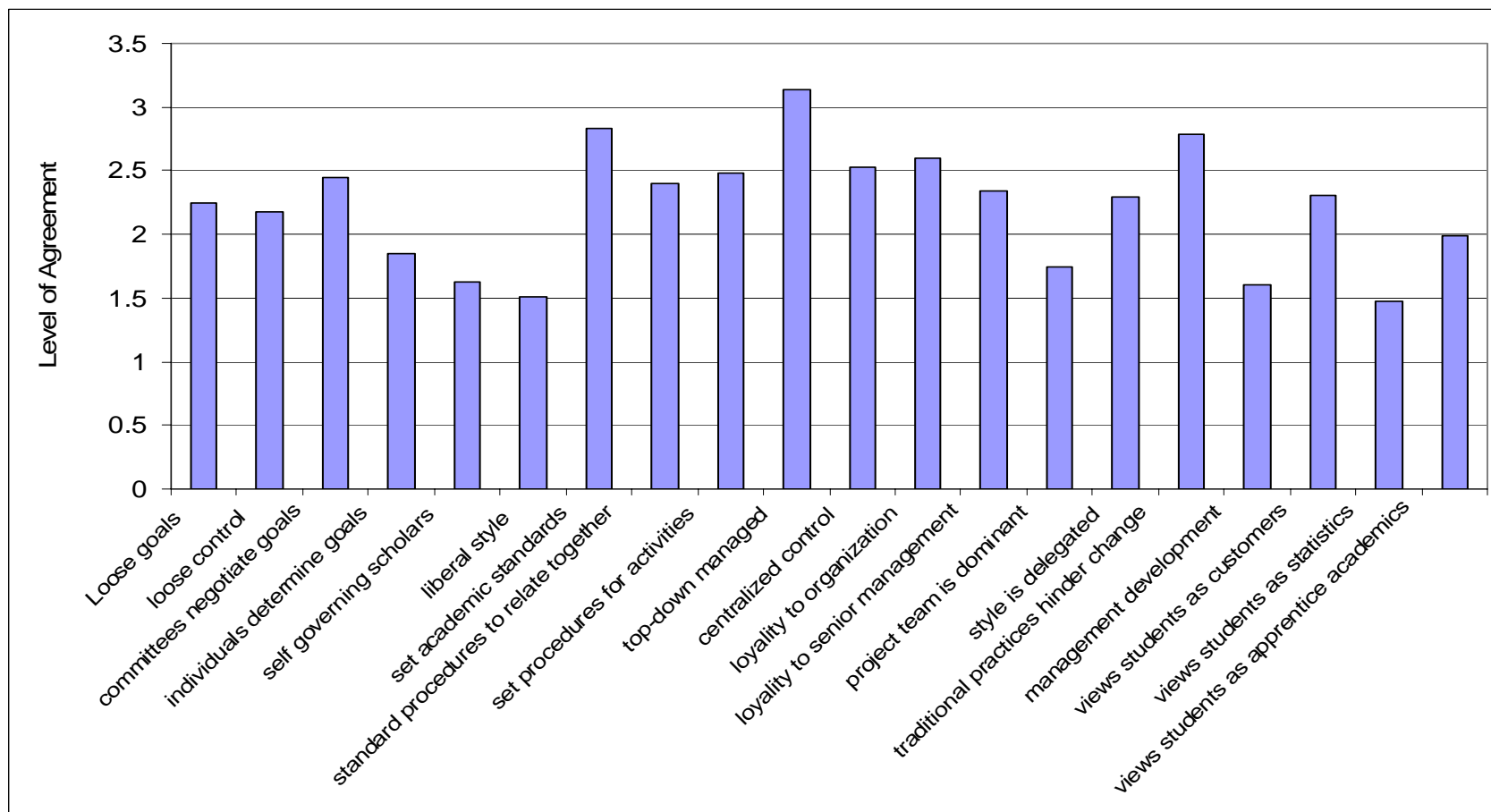


Figure 5.3 Mean of Statements Related to the Management Culture of the Universities (n=72)

For ease of discussion in this chapter, categories are collapsed into ‘agree’ and ‘disagree’ in order to examine tendencies, and interview data is used to illustrate or contest the questionnaire data. Only 6 out of 72 of the faculty members surveyed were uncertain as to whether to describe policy definition as loose or tight. The remaining 66 respondents were divided between agreeing policy definition in their institution was loose (32/72) and disagreeing that it was (34/72). There did not seem to be any particular patterns across universities emerging, apart from BAU(Eg:F) where 8 out of 10 respondents indicated that policy definition was tight and LU as discussed below. As for control over implementation, the response indicating it was tight slightly prevailed (32/72) but with 25 agreeing it was loose and 16/72 being neutral, indicating that it was neither loose nor tight. Compared to other institutions however, more respondents at NDU(Am:N) (8 out of 11) indicated that control over implementation was tight. The findings suggest that all four cultures may co-exist in the universities of Lebanon, or that respondents have very different interpretations and experiences of policy and its implementation in their institutions.

A university that stood out from among the rest however is LU, where all respondents (9/9) described both the definition of policy and control over implementation as loose, leading tentatively to the classification of its management culture as collegial. The findings of loose policy definition and control are conveyed in faculty member’s interview quotes.

‘Some of the goals of the institution are written; others are not. These goals in general need reconsideration. The goals of the Faculty of Sciences and the Faculty of Literature are the same. Both faculties aim to produce qualified teachers. These goals were set at the time of establishment and obviously need updating’ (November 27, 2002).

As LU, the only public institution, not only in the study but also in the country, seemed to be unique in relation to the two dimensions of policy definition and control over implementation; I extracted perceptions of faculty members in relation to these two dimensions in the private institutions. The findings further suggested that all four cultures tend to co-exist in these universities, however initially at least, they may be classified possibly more as corporate with 54% (34/63) of the respondents indicating policy definition as tight in comparison to 37% (23/63) describing it as loose and 51% (32/63) indicating that control over implementation was tight as opposed to 25% (16/63) indicating it was loose. But neat categories do not emerge from this questionnaire at least.

The interview quotations of faculty members are as varied as the findings in the survey. The three quotations that follow reveal tight policy definition and tight control over implementation. Each quotation tends to highlight a goal of the institution that appears to be of significance to the interviewee, such as secularization, excellence in teaching and improved academic levels to enhance competitiveness. The last two quotations even suggest how the institution has set about ensuring the achievement of the set goals signalling tight control.

‘The policy statement can be found in the catalogue p23. ‘In accordance with the policies of its founders and with its equal opportunity policy, the University admits students regardless of race, colour, religion, gender, disability or national origin.’ The statement policy is clear and is being applied strictly. For the first time in 1998, AUB(Am:F) was declared a secular institution and it is firm in its belief (Faculty member, AUB(Am:F), September 18, 2002).

‘The BOT sets the major goals and they are disseminated to the faculties through the University Council. There are some fundamental goals that are part of the mission of the University. These are long term goals and so they are fixed in a sense. They are absolute and they are expected of everybody. An

example is excellence in teaching. This is evaluated every semester' (Senior officer, UOB(Am:N), July 23, 2002).

'The objectives are set by the Egyptian laws that organize universities. The law is Egyptian as BAU(Eg:F) is a branch of AU completely controlled by AU. The law covers all academic aspects related to the University. All traditions in the Egyptian university are extended to BAU(Eg:F). There are serious attempts to make changes and improve things for it is a private university and not a governmental one. Moreover, there is much competition from local universities based on the performance of our graduates and not on student number for as you know our tuition fees are very reasonable. We strive to attract more Lebanese students and not just students from the neighbouring Arab countries. We are trying to improve academic levels through hiring qualified people in the human science faculties as well as the practical science faculties' (Senior faculty member, BAU(Eg:F), October 12, 2002).

The goals highlighted or hinted at in the next two quotations extend beyond the institution itself to include broad themes such as 'national unity' and 'national advancement', themes that are initially difficult to define and hence would imply loose policy definition. Policy related to educational issues however appears to be tightly defined as indicated in the second quotation.

'The goals are not stated specifically but they are hinted at in the speeches of the president. It takes a little talent for one to deduce the mission from these speeches. The mission of the University is to achieve national advancement and unity' (Senior faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), October 28, 2002).

'The University objectives are clear on the educational level but that is not enough. All educational institutions failed in achieving their stated objectives and hence the civil war and its disastrous effects' (Senior officer, USJ(Fr:F) November 14, 2002).

The senior officer here is asserting that the role of universities is not simply educational in the strict academic sense of the word, restricted to the dissemination of knowledge and information, but it goes far beyond that. Universities have a significant educational-cultural role to play in instilling in people fundamental values such as responsible freedom, the role of reasoning in uncovering truths and settling disputes, openness to others and acceptance of differences whether they are

differences in religion, gender, or national origin, and conversely the rejection of isolation, fundamentalism and fanaticism which tend to disrupt national unity and hinder progress. The administrator would be alluding to the fact that the leaders of the nation are graduates of these Universities.

Not all policy related to educational issues are tightly defined or tightly controlled, as indicated by a senior officer and a faculty member at LAU(Am:F).

‘Of course we don’t stick to the letter as if the goals were law. They are guidelines or the mission of the University. Actually our school has its own mission which is in agreement with the mission of the University, basically promotion of good teaching, of good scholarly activities including research and serving the students and the school and the University’ (Senior officer, July 25, 2002).

Well, it’s expected that when one performs, he or she should perform well, but I don’t think the University is very harsh in terms of following up’ (Faculty member, July 9, 2002).

In organisations characterised by tight policy definition, the formulation and negotiation of goals are confined to senior administrators at the institutional level, as in the corporate culture, or to sub-units and project teams as in the enterprise culture. Individuals do not participate in the setting of University goals and policy in these cultures. Although no item in the questionnaire covered this aspect of policy formulation and the parties or groups involved in the process, the corporate organisational feature was portrayed by a faculty member at LAU(Am:F) in interview.

‘Goals are set by upper administration. Faculty do not have direct input into the formulation of goals unless probably he or she insisted on voicing his or her opinion’ (July 5, 2002).

Focusing on organisational cultures distinctive for loose policy definition (as in a bureaucracy where committees participate in negotiating institutional goals and in the collegium where individuals are actively involved in goal and policy formulation),

survey findings indicated the prevalence of the bureaucratic feature in most institutions. A slight majority of respondents (60%) expressed agreement about the role assumed by committees in negotiating University goals to be pursued by the institution. A fifth of the respondents however, were either uncertain (20%) or disagreed (20%) that committees negotiated University goals. Elaborate interview quotations by faculty members in the institutions confirm these findings and show a changing or complex process.

‘The mission is clearly defined and has been set a long time ago. I think it relates back to when the University was founded and continued unchanged as such to date. Nowadays, we are looking at the mission of the University and redefining it... We are now going through a process of self-study with the help of a specialised consultancy agency. Fourteen faculty committees of 200 faculty members in all have been assigned to study various aspects related to the University. One committee is studying the mission of the University, another institutional improvement, another external programmes, etc. (Senior faculty member, AUB(Am:F), August 14, 2002).

‘The goals are clearly defined. The president meets with committees composed of appointed individuals whom he or the deans choose and the committee sets the goals. These are then approved by the BOT. There are the general goals of the University originally set by the BOT. So you see the process is sort of cyclic’ (Senior officer, UOB(Am:N), July 16, 2002).

‘Of course the opinions of faculty members are taken into consideration. The goals are discussed in many types of councils before it reaches the University Higher Council. There are the department councils which are of extreme importance and have the right to make recommendations for modifications. Then there are the faculty councils and finally the University Higher Council’ (Senior faculty member, BAU(Eg:F), October 12, 2002).

Survey findings also suggested that 80% of the whole sample were divided between agree and disagree in relation to the collegial trait about individuals participating in the setting of University goals. The varied responses of the survey are also reflected in the interview quotations. The first quotation stresses the importance of involving faculty members in the process of formulating and negotiating goals. The second

citation suggests that both committees and individuals participate in the setting and discussion of goals.

‘Teaching faculty participate in defining the goals of the institution and in planning for the future as they are responsible for ensuring that there is a future’ (Senior officer, USJ(Fr:F), November 14, 2002).

‘The major goal starts by being discussed and defined by the establishing religious authority. The broad goal is influenced by the Papal message to the world which is the message of peace, understanding and opening up to other religions and which encourages dialogue among civilizations. But then from there, you move to the next lower level, to the non-religious officers in the University and they also play a certain role in defining or refining the goals of the University. You then move to still other lower levels in the institution as the University Council, and the BOD. Everybody has a role proportional to his importance in defining, refining or implementing the policy that leads to the achievement of these goals. Even faculty members were requested in a recent meeting of the university assembly to submit their remarks about everything related to the University including the goals. So, as you see the goals are clearly defined and all participate in setting them’ (Senior officer, NDU(Am:N), August 23, 2002).

‘Collegialty is gradually fading away’ (Senior faculty member, AUB(Am:F), August 14, 2002). With this statement a senior faculty member described the organisational cultural shifts in institutes of higher education in Lebanon. This statement is further confirmed by the survey findings where 52% (37/72) of the respondents described the management culture in their universities as non-liberal, 21% (15/72) described it as liberal and 28% (20/72) were uncertain as to whether to describe it as liberal or non-liberal. In relation to the statement ‘*the University as an institution is a self-governing community of scholars*’ 42% (30/72) of the whole sample surveyed expressed disagreement with the statement, 29% (21/72) were in agreement with statement and a similar proportion expressed no view.

A senior officer at NDU(Am:N) explains in interview why he believes one can only find weak traces of the collegial culture in universities in Lebanon and the Middle East.

‘It is desirable to adopt the collegial type of management but in principle I doubt it is feasible because of the strong desire for power and control in the Lebanese and Middle Eastern individual, especially *men*. This desire for control and power is sometimes beyond proportion. Perhaps a small amount is appropriate and good for self-esteem. The tendency is towards authoritarianism in management. It is a feature not strange to any institution in Lebanon and individuals in power usually use a non-collegial approach. Although they preach the collegial approach but they don’t live it on a daily basis’ (August 23, 2002).

A senior officer at NDU(Am:N) elaborates further and explains why collegiality is not an admirable quality of senior officers, particularly the president of the University.

‘Collegiality is an admirable trait and it is very important to listen to people and to consult with them but at the end the president should not be a colleague or he should not have this collegiality trait about him. He should be a decision maker. He should listen to Dr X, Dr. Y...but at the end it is his decision. He is the president and knows what's better for the University’ (August 8, 2002).

A senior faculty member gives an account in interview of her experience at USJ(Fr:F), which confirms the finding of weak collegiality. She believes that probably being a female and being appointed in a managerial position created an initial feeling of resentment among faculty members and colleagues.

‘When I first came to USJ(Fr:F) I faced daily problems. The dean and I were both new to the institution. Faculty members had difficulties accepting us. Being a lady did not make my job easier. As I tried to find solutions to problems that arose I was accused of abuse of power. Tensions subsided upon involving faculty members in the decision making process and upon requesting an increase in their salaries without increasing working hours. Most faculty members are more productive and more cooperative now. Of course, there are always a few who simply refuse to cooperate’ (October 28, 2002).

One would presume that empowering faculty members by involving them in the decision-making process usually enhances productivity, quality of performance

outcomes and commitment to the institution. Empowering faculty members by involving them in the decision-making process usually enhances productivity, quality of performance outcomes and commitment to the institution. To what extent increases in salaries should be granted without linking them to performance and productivity, I believe is questionable. Another faculty member described, in interview, the working environment in relation to various categories of people in the University.

‘Cold. I would describe my relationships with my colleagues as cold. They are very distant. I would even say relationships are uneasy. Relations with the staff are different because we are dealing with another category of people. They’re warmer; they’re more commutative with the people; they’re not professors, simply staff. As for administrative faculty as the president, the deans and so on, they’re very polite; they’re helpful whenever they’re needed. Sometimes there are some cases in which you cannot feel free in their presence’ (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002).

The above description supports the survey findings of weak collegiality. Communication, cooperation and interaction at least among equals if not all members of the organisation would be essential ingredients for self-governing communities of scholars within liberal settings. As he further explained ‘Whenever there are cliques or lobby groups one feels that the democratic processes within the organisation no longer exist. Everything becomes politicised’ (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002). It becomes evident that decisions are influenced by spheres of power in constant yet silent clash amongst each other.

These same views are shared by a faculty member at BAU(Eg:F), who while commenting on the collegiality at BAU(Eg:F) and comparing it to an American patterned university in which the interviewed faculty member was once a full-time employee, noted,

‘It is a family environment. We are dealing with each other on the basis of common respect, mutual respect. We hardly interfere with each other. We hardly see each other. Nobody seems to be back-biting with anybody. The overall environment is comforting. In the other institution competition was so fierce that in some instances it became aggressive. Often a simple ‘good morning’ did not exist between colleagues... (joking) Besides I do not have any competitors here and that is why I am happy’ (October 11, 2002).

While the questions about loose or tight control and implementation did not reveal definite categorisations of institutions as bureaucracies, other parts of the questionnaire suggested such a bureaucratic culture. The responses reveal strong agreement (85% or 61/72) with the statement related to ‘*set standards at which participants are to perform academically*’, moderate agreement (61% or 44/72) related to ‘*standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which activities are to be performed within the institution*’ and moderate agreement (68% or 49/72) in relation to ‘*standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which participants are to relate to one another*’.

The interview quotations that follow by two senior officers in two American patterned universities confirm these findings about the employment of standard operating procedures. The interview quotations portray some standard procedures that tend to be thoroughly articulated and others that are not so articulated, particularly the procedures about how participants are to relate to one another within the University.

‘Yes, definitely we have standards of performance. Now we’re trying to establish criteria for each activity and methods of assessment. Special attention is being given to academic standards and quality of services... I would not think the University dictates to us how we should communicate. I think it’s very free but normally there are acceptable procedures, I mean there’s no policy which says for example a dean can only write to a dean rather than a chairman of a department and visa versa, but this is acceptable procedure (Senior officer, AUB(Am:F), September 12, 2002).

‘We assume that faculty have to work with each other. There is no way anybody can legislate this. All should work with each other professionally. They have to be at least on good working relations with each other...All management is hierarchical and it does not take a genius to understand how things work in an institution. One of my jobs is to tell people, you know you have missed the loop. If the faculty member comes to me directly, I will direct them to speak with their chairperson first...All understand that they should give their best, simply their best (Senior officer, LAU(Am:F), July 24, 2002).

Varied concerns with regards to the degree of structure and standard procedures felt acceptable for efficient management were echoed in interview by senior officers and faculty members.

‘We have an open door policy and if you ask me personally if it is good I'd say no. The chain of command in the organizational hierarchy should be clear. Students and some colleagues like using short cuts by going directly to the higher authorities although they know there are procedures’ (Senior faculty member, UOB(Am:N), July 16, 2002).

‘As a young University we are privileged with being flexible. We are not really tied down completely in a bureaucracy of rules. Of course to be healthy, there must be a minimum set of basic rules that should be written down and stated clearly. The basic environment is not one set by rules; it is set by the human touch and human relationships. We have succeeded in that’ (Senior officer, UOB(Am:N), July 23, 2002).

‘I once told the president that sometimes we feel that the University was founded just yesterday. There are so many loop holes and gaps in the internal procedures. I know AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) have internal regulations that are very elaborate and if applied too tightly or strictly they maybe considered inhuman. Here, at USJ(Fr:F) on the other hand, the internal procedures are sometimes very loose affording everybody the chance to circulate around them. There is a need for more regulations, more rules and more criteria. Things should be set out more clearly. I am always accused of wanting to formalize things. The management style is based on informal or semi-formal human relations. There are special cases to every rule’ (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002).

Not only did a senior officer at NDU(Am:N) comment on the degree of structure and standard procedures adopted by the University, he also emphasised the importance of complying with the standard operating procedures set by the University in his interview.

‘There are set rules and regulations that all have to follow. Now, if there is a certain section in the rules and the regulations or the bylaws that we don’t like or we’re not happy with, there’s a process that must be followed. We submit a proposal to the proper authorities. If approved, amendments are made. We are always reassessing our work. If one is not pleased with things, that doesn’t mean that he or she have the right to violate the rules. On the contrary, we consider a second option. We simply try to amend it... The management style is not bureaucratic. That’s for sure. We have an open door policy but it’s becoming more and more professional guided with rules and regulations’ (August 8, 2002).

Faculty members expressed strong agreement (82% or 59/72) with yet another feature of the bureaucratic culture, namely that of the institution being top-down managed. In all the interview quotations that follow by senior officers and faculty members, one may detect that a top-down managed bureaucratic institution is perceived by many respondents to be an institution governed by rules and regulations. Additionally, some of the following quotations highlight other features of a bureaucracy which McNay has detailed in his model.

In his description of a bureaucracy McNay (1995) noted, ‘committees become arenas for policy development or commentary and iteration with the executive’ (p. 106) which is portrayed in interview by a senior faculty member at AUB(Am:F).

‘At the surface it looks like a democratic collegiate institution where committees of faculties and departments make the decisions, but eventually there are people who make the decisions. The committees are just a system for recommendations and the administration has the right to disagree with such committees and the decisions made by them and this is true at all levels. The management style is more an authoritarian type, interested in maintaining control through rules and regulations, which are applied from top to bottom...There must be more actual faculty participation in the making of decisions’ (August 14, 2002).

That ‘the rigidity can be compounded by the time involved in the cycle of decision-making’ (p. 107) is yet another attribute of the bureaucratic culture according to

McNay's (1995) list of features of organisational cultures, and this is illustrated in the next interview quotation.

'I believe that at the moment the great delay in the decision-making process is a handicap as matters go from one committee to another and not many faculty are actually involved in the process, particularly at the higher levels of management. Some of the fortunate faculty members appointed to committees have actually refrained from attending committee meetings, as they do not feel their input is of real value, mainly because decisions are not made at these levels. They are mainly made at the level of the University Executive Council and above. I believe faculty should be definitely encouraged to join effectively in decision-making. The process should become more democratic' (Faculty member, LAU(Am:F), July 9, 2002).

As stated by McNay (1995: 107), a bureaucracy is believed to be characterised by the 'use of statistical bases to arguments and decisions'. A faculty member and a senior officer noted however that the employment of computers for statistical purposes had reduced considerably the time needed to process information on which decisions and actions are based, giving the impression of a less bureaucratic organisation.

'It has the appearance of rationality,...but can become contaminated by political manipulation' (p. 107) is a third feature of a bureaucracy according to McNay (1995), and conveyed in the quotation that follows.

'Central administration is definitely bureaucratic, but so is the whole system. There is no need for so much bureaucracy that delays the decision-making process. If all members were working towards promoting the best image of the institution instead of seeking personal advancement there would be no need for so much bureaucracy. It is not the system that is bad. There is a need for rules and regulations, but there is also a need for people with new experiences, for people with a vision' (Senior officer, LAU(Am:F), July 25, 2002).

‘It may be a good model for maintenance in stability, but not for rapid change.’ (McNay 1995: 107). This attribute of a bureaucracy is hinted by a faculty member in interview.

‘The decision-making process must be quicker to allow people to get on with their work. The organization is too bureaucratic from the top of the hierarchy to the bottom. It is a growing institution, changing rapidly and faculty involvement in making decisions is important for growth’ (Faculty member, LAU(Am:F), July 5, 2002).

An organisational feature that stands out in all previous quotations is a decision-making process that is, in a sense, effectively confined to senior officers in the centre of the organisation. Whether this promotes articulation between the whole and the part, the identified feature of a corporation, is less clear. Delays and lack of transparency seem to hinder effective articulation.

Responses of faculty members in the survey confirm this finding with just over two thirds (50/72) of the respondents expressing agreement with the statement ‘*there is a strong centralized control of administrators in the institution*’ and a fifth (16/72) expressing disagreement. A senior faculty member, a senior officer and a faculty member all convey their perceptions of the management cultures of their institutions which reflect emphasis on strong centralised control.

‘The management style is a little bit too macro. It is like everything else in the Middle East. The head of the pyramid is the person that counts the most followed by top administrators. The head of pyramid gives you the decision that *he* (the head of the pyramid is almost always a male) has made and you have to follow? I would go for more open American management styles by giving people at the lower level more authority and letting them run the show. I believe a dean and all administrators at the upper levels should go out and try to seek funds and scholarships instead of getting tied in the macro management (Senior faculty member, LAU(Am:F), July 29, 2002).

‘Previously each faculty was an independent entity in itself. Now, there is central decision-making to ensure compatibility among the various faculties. Although we have central decision making I still have a little margin to make certain decisions related to the faculty. I am so strict in my work and take my job seriously because I know that there is strict supervision over me. There is no abuse of power or position on my part’ (Senior officer, USJ(Fr:F), October 22, 2002).

‘Managers such as the dean or chairpersons do not have sufficient freedom to manager their internal affairs as they deem appropriate. There are always interferences. The only freedom any faculty member has is that of teaching’ (Faculty member , USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002).

Two other possible features of the corporate organisational culture were surveyed through the questionnaire. Three times as many faculty members (45) indicated that the management style adopted by the University focused on loyalty to the institution as those who disagreed (16). Moreover, about two fifths (30/72) of the respondents perceived the management style adopted by the University to focus on loyalty to senior management as opposed to a quarter (19/72) who did not perceive of it as such. Although the survey data provides some sense of strength of the responses, the interview quotes that follow reveal the perceptions of faculty members and administrators in greater depth while also reflecting the variation in responses obtained.

McNay (1995) states, ‘in the corporation, the executive asserts authority... indeed, my key word here is power’ (p.107). His description of a corporation as a set of power bases is vividly portrayed through the following quotes in interview.

‘The University is sort of made up of territories. Each manager tries to protect his or her territory. They enjoy the power it gives them as their subordinates must follow their directions. They sometimes consult with their subordinates to make them feel important. It is a sort of a power game...I like it when they say we are one big happy family (smiles)’ (Faculty member, UOB(Am:N), July 12, 2002).

‘Loyalty’ is more about personalised relationships rather than generalised loyalty to the institution.

‘If one sticks to the rules and does not step on anyone’s toes, job security exists. If you want to get ahead however, excellence in teaching and quality of research output are essential but not always necessary. The process is accelerated if relations with superiors and senior management are good’ (Faculty member, NDU(Am:N), August 6, 2002).

The above quotes suggest indeed that ‘this culture is probably dominant, particularly in the treatment of people’ (McNay 1995: 107). Occasionally, however assertion of authority may give rise to ‘a consequent reaction of resentment’ (McNay 1995: 107). The quote that follows provides a unique perception of the management culture of NDU(Am:N). One can also detect disappointment and bitterness in the tone of the conversation based probably on a bad personal experience with management.

‘The management culture is Middle Eastern. Look at Egypt, Syria, Saudi Arabia. It is clannish, family-like, one of absolute power, maybe if not absolute power very near absolute power. Sometimes it is vengeful...Decisions are based on the whims of the decision-maker. There is little objectivity in many decisions taken. The most important thing however is never to violate rules once they are set and that they be applied to all with no discrimination’ (Senior faculty member, NDU(Am:N), August 6, 2002).

As suggested in the quote, there is need for rules and regulations but more precisely there is a need to implement rules accurately and ‘with no discrimination’ to avoid feelings of animosity among staff and faculty (Handy 1993), as that will undoubtedly lead as a result to poor productivity. The implication is that those in decision-making positions should be given authority but they must also be held accountable for their decisions and actions, and must be fair and impartial in their dealings with others.

Further, the quote from a senior executive in interview conceals sentiments of apprehension in relation to the power exercised by his superior within the institution.

‘The management style is 100% presidential, which means that the decision-maker in the University is the president. The president usually consults with the Council, while according to the text the Council is not a consulting body; it takes decisions’ (Senior officer, June 12, 2002).

One faculty member views loyalty to the institution and senior management not as a result of the assertion of authority or power but rather as a consequence of trust as indicated in interview,

‘It is only human to choose people you trust, not because he or she are loyal to the institution or senior management but because the administrator knows who has the experience and knowledge to get the job done’ (Faculty member, AUB(Am:F), September 18, 2002).

Again, this is a personalised form of management, understandable, but possibly leading itself to alienation by those not ‘chosen’. A senior officer in interview gave a detailed account of a centralized form of management he thought to be appropriate for the university. In doing so he touched upon two issues, namely authority and accountability. These issues tend to be very delicate and difficult to manage in the cultural context of the Middle East, however they are two important features that will be returned to in the final chapter of the study.

‘I would keep decision making centralized. For example, if I appoint a department chief who I trust is capable of doing a good job, I specify his or her responsibilities and make him or her accountable for his or her performance. It is unfair to burden someone with numerous responsibilities and simply withdraw from him or her authority or the power to make decisions by giving this authority to those in higher administrative ranks’ (Dean, BAU(Eg:F), October 12, 2002).

Yet aspects of the enterprise culture tend to be weak as the findings in the survey suggest. Similarly, interview data are poor in reference to features of the enterprise culture and do not enrich survey findings. Survey responses to two characteristics of the enterprise culture were varied. Disagreement or uncertainty (45/72 or 62%) prevailed in relation to the statement, ‘*Within the University, a small project team (or*

teams) is the dominant organisational unit, with 38% agreeing. Just over a third of the respondents (26/72) described the management style as one of delegated leadership. An exact similar proportion disagreed with such a description of the management style while just less than a third of the respondents (27/72) were uncertain.

LU was the only institution in which all but one respondent (8/9) were in agreement that the management style adopted by the institution was one of delegated leadership. This is clearly stipulated by Law 75/76.

Law 75/76-Paragraph 3:

‘The Lebanese University enjoys a moral personality, it enjoys full scientific (academic), administrative and financial independence. The Minister of National Education has an overseeing function over it, all this in accordance with the stipulation of the law.’

Law 75/76-Paragraph 12:

‘The president of the University undertakes the administration of the general affairs of the University and has permanent authorization from the Minister of National Education to exercise the administration and financial authority that the minister enjoys concerning the scientific, administrative and financial affairs of the University under the provision of the law.’

The cabinet of ministers via the curator minister delegates its authorities to the president of the University who must ensure the proper functioning of the institution.

‘In the enterprise culture, my choice of keyword would be client. That carries with it connotations not only of the market, where customers would be more appropriate, but of professionalism where knowledge and skill of experts, and the needs and wishes of those seeking their services, come together’ (McNay 1995:107). The fact that the universities in Lebanon have not had to deal gravely with many of the new core functions of higher education establishments, such as technology transfer, flexible learning, ‘the corporate classroom’ and continued professional development that have

arrived in the second half of the twenty-first century (Ramsden 1998) due to a civil war that extended for over two decades, explains the extremely light traces of the enterprise style organization, if any, except for the devolved leadership characteristic depicted in the survey. The vision of students as 'clients' would provide more clues.

In a corporation students are perceived as customers that must be satisfied with the product they are purchasing, in a bureaucracy they are perceived as statistics, while in the collegial organisation they are viewed as apprentice academics. The corporate perception of students as customers prevailed as indicated by the survey (46/72 or 64%), particularly at both AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) where all faculty members in each institution (10/10) shared this market perception of students as customers. This customer perception of students is clearly conveyed by a dean and a vice-president who confidently assert in interview.

‘A university in my opinion is made of two components, faculty and students. We have good faculty and a good student body and we’re continuously meeting the needs of these two bodies. Faculty members and administration should look at him or herself as serving these two units’ (Dean, AUB(Am:F), September 12, 2002).

‘Students are very satisfied, we can tell from their evaluation of the courses. We have an open door policy and students can make themselves heard. We are here to serve them’ (Vice-president, LAU(Am:F), July 24, 2002).

The perception of students as statistics as in a bureaucracy did not prevail. On the contrary, no more than 20% (15/72) of the whole sample expressed agreement with the bureaucratic organisational perception of students as statistics, 18% (13/72) expressed uncertainty or neutrality while 61% (44/72) were in disagreement. The collegial view of students as apprentice academics was agreed upon by a slight majority of respondents (34/72 or 47%), a quarter (18/72) disagreed, while almost a similar proportion (20/72 or 27%) neither agreed or disagreed. The collegial view of

students as apprentice academic particularly prevailed at USJ(Fr:F) as indicated by 9/11 of its faculty members. The findings are further supported by the following quotation by a faculty member.

‘Yes, of course, I feel very happy when my students come back to me after they have graduated and tell me that they have found what they learned in my courses very beneficial in both their personal and professional lives. This is really rewarding to me. I feel accountable to my students not as if they’re my clients - I don’t deal with them with the client mentally as most of the newly established universities in Lebanon do - but as people towards whom I have a duty or an obligation to first set a good example, then to offer them knowledge and finally to provide them with methodologies and problem solving strategies’ (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002).

When asked about the importance of student satisfaction with the education they are receiving, he elaborated further. He also shed light on a tendency of administration not to always support the producer/provider side over the customer/user side of the supply and demand equation as the determinant of the product.

‘I’m against this concept of student satisfaction. I don’t like to deal with student as clients. It is my duty to help students reach a certain target in life even though the means to reaching that target is not very satisfying. Sometimes one does not like the taste of medicine but one must endure it to recover. Sometimes students are not happy with the course or the way things are done, but it is the most effective way of learning. Some teachers do things the way they believe appropriate regardless of student satisfaction – requesting extremely high standards. There are few cases where management has responded to students’ complaints and the contracts of teachers have been terminated (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 25, 2002).

Through the interview quotations, one may sense a desire for change in management practices rather than holding onto traditional ones. The survey findings indicate that half (32/72) of the faculty members surveyed in the questionnaire are in agreement with the statement ‘*Holding on to traditional management practices hinders change in the University*’, while just less than a fifth (15/72) disagree. One way to achieve change is to have the University develop support mechanisms for management

development of all concerned parties in decision-making. Two thirds of the faculty members surveyed were uncertain if such a system existed, while a tenth (8/72) believed it did. In reality, in most institutions these support systems did not exist and possibly are not seen as necessary: a vice-president claimed in interview,

‘Faculty members are very intelligent people. They have varied experiences and can use their experiences to manage well’ (Vice-president, LAU(Am:F), July 24, 2002).

A department chair suggests an alternative ‘bottom-up’ option to achieve change in the organisational culture of the institution, which is revealed in the following quotation.

‘Change always comes from below. Senior administrators are responsible to take the decisions that will bring about change but it is the teaching staff usually that suggest the need for change. Those in senior management set the standard operating procedures and ensure correct implementation of the procedures that will lead to the desired change. Seldom do they propose change’ (Chairperson, USJ(Fr:F), November 12, 2002).

One faculty member, reluctant at first to answer the question about changes in management practices he felt necessary at BAU(Eg:F) for advancement, finally made a few suggestions. His suggestions were echoed by almost all those I interviewed in all universities.

‘I would give some delegation to faculty members to help in the process. As you see, eventually they are part of the system and they are users of the system. It helps in most cases to come and consult with people within the system. It is really hectic and sometimes the consequences could be disastrous if we are taking decisions without consulting with other people, particularly if the decisions are politically based. You know how politics plays an important role in this country. Note I would not delegate too much authority to faculty. I would take their opinion. It does not mean I would take it into account unless it appeals to me and I find the majority agree with it. Eventually my managerial duties and the results of those duties and the decisions I take will reflect on the whole institution not only on the faculty. Faculty cannot be part of the decision-making process without being held responsible for the decisions they make. So if something goes wrong one can say this is what you wanted’ (Faculty member, BAU(Eg:F), October 11, 2002).

Again we see the emphasis on politics ‘in this country’, but also particular versions of ‘delegation’ and of accountability, which will be returned to in the final chapter.

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I reported on a number of issues related to the decision-making processes in the institutions. Although most faculty members were able to identify the governing bodies in their institutions and the status of decisions made, the level of uncertainty or inaccuracy in relation to non-existing governing bodies in some universities and accordingly the status of decisions made was disturbing. With decisions made by appointed rather than elected committees and with the diminishing participatory role assumed by faculty members in the decision-making process upon ascending the organisational hierarchy, particularly at the institutional level as the findings of the survey indicate, the above phenomena are to some degree possibly understandable.

My attention then turned to the academic freedom and autonomy enjoyed by faculty members. According to Ramsden (1998), collegiality’s first cousins in the academic culture are autonomy and academic freedom. Academic autonomy is ‘that power that should reside within the community of scholars who profess their disciplines’ (Ramsden 1998: 25). First, this feature renders the faculty as the main organisational unit which was the finding for all universities whether collegial or not. Second, autonomy implies that faculties enjoy considerable freedom in the selection of their goals which was surprisingly seen to be true for all institutions other than the LU, the only collegial institution not yet influenced by the tide of managerial change. Third, it suggests that faculty members have considerable freedom to decide their own job

description, a finding interestingly restricted to all institutions not patterned after the American model. With the three major duties of academic staff being teaching, research and community service in American modelled institutions and with each one of these duties affecting status within the institution, job descriptions seem fixed and intense. In the universities not following the American model, teaching is the only basic requirement and any additional activity is considered credit for the faculty member. A final implication of academic autonomy is that the mastery of the disciplines of the faculty can only be achieved by a few dedicated students viewed as apprentice academics. This view of students was pertained in all institutions, but more at USJ(Fr:F). In most universities other than LU students are viewed as customers who must be satisfied with the product they are purchasing, which is a corporate view of students, criticized by many who reject the shift towards a student-focused view of the university's goals. Students were noticeably seen as statistics at LU, an institute of mass education and rarely as such in the young emerging institutions.

‘Academic freedom in its strongest form implies the absolute personal right to pursue truth wherever it may lead, uninfluenced by ‘management’’ (Ramsden 1998: 25). It is believed to be more powerful in the traditional research-oriented universities where individuals have the liberty to pursue learning and teaching. In all institutions included in the study, faculty members enjoyed considerable freedom to teach courses and to conduct research in areas of interest to them. Management of the institutions seemed to encourage research that was curiosity driven as opposed to research that had mere commercial application, thus emphasising the influence of tradition where scholarship implies loyalty to one's discipline. In relation to this particular aspect of research, management at BAU(Eg:F) remained faithful to the corporate clan.

Moreover, managements of all universities are recognised as to some extent as corporate, favouring the offering of courses with greater job applicability.

Finally I attempted to categorise the management cultures of the universities in the study. McNay's two dimensional model of policy definition and control over implementation, both identified as either loose or tight, was adopted for the purpose. The findings suggest that all four cultures tend to exist in these universities with dominance for both the bureaucratic and possibly more markedly the corporate cultures. LU stood out as significantly different from the other institutions as respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they perceived both definition of policy and control over implementation to be loose. Perceptions of faculty members regarding some distinct features of the four different cultures as identified by McNay and other management theorists were then surveyed. Although the findings coupled with the interview quotations further reinforce the prevalence of the bureaucratic and corporate cultures, the chaos and messiness was not reduced considerably enough to reveal definite categorisations of institutions. Nonetheless, many important factors that may have an impact on the management culture of the institutions have emerged. Undoubtedly, the history of the institutions and the Lebanese and Middle Eastern cultures (characterised by control, assertion of authority and power, the implementation of weak measures of accountability, the lack of transparency, the interplay of political influences and the preference of a personalised form of management) in which the institutions are embedded, influence the management culture of the institutions. I shall discuss these issues in detail in the final chapter of my study.

CHAPTER SIX

ACCOUNTABILITY AND AUTONOMY

Introduction

At a time when universities around the world were dealing with issues of mass higher education and growing pressures to perform and excel, coupled with the challenges of new forms of learning, new technologies for learning, new competences and skills required of graduates and competition for resources, existing universities in Lebanon were striving to survive a terrible war that extended for nearly two decades. Most universities made very little or no progress through the troubled waters. Valuable resources needed for the upgrading and development of academic programmes and facilities were being spent on the reconstruction and maintenance of damaged buildings. The universities were gradually being depleted of qualified human resources fleeing the country in search of safer havens and a more comfortable existence. In order to continue operating as cost effectively as possible, most universities initiated new professional programmes in response to local and regional market demands. Unfortunately, quality was constantly being compromised. This is reflected in the words of a senior officer at USJ(Fr:F), during interview (November 14, 2002).

The Medical School came under mortar fire numerous times, the premises suffered massive destruction and we were forced to halt most of our academic activities for short periods of time or to occupy alternative premises...but that was all temporary. We now look to the future after surviving the past and the present.

As the period of chaos and uncertainty approached an end, competition between institutions intensified dramatically, with existing institutions trying to reassert their historical heritage and to create a new dynamic and vibrant existence. The problem

was magnified by the multitude of new providers of higher education, a few of which in no more than a decade or two had carved a niche in the sector. The only university still seen as in a slumber is the state university (LU). It awaits changes that can only be brought about by effective academic leadership, the adoption of aggressive management strategies and the reinstatement of LU's lost or diminished autonomy (El-Amin 1997, Tabbarah 2000).

At the heart of the shift in management practices and the associated idea of the corporate university is the concept of accountability to the various stakeholders – academic staff, students, parents, management, private and public authorities - in higher education. The increased demand for internal and external accountability wrought by the accelerating progress towards stakeholder power has led to an emphasis on productivity and quality of performance outcomes. Conceptions of productivity and quality however vary in relation to where one stands, with different stakeholders in higher education assigning different values to criteria of quality, based on their own goals. Stakeholders in higher education, particularly management of universities and governments, expect faculty to maximise their productivity through the efficient use of resources without compromising quality. Faculty on the other hand believe that reducing resources can only yield inferior quality outcomes. In other words, they believe that outputs are directly proportional to inputs (Massy and Wilger 1995).

Of special interest to me was initially to determine from the point of view of the faculty the role assumed by the Lebanese government in shaping higher education in the private and public sector, thus highlighting the degree of autonomy enjoyed by the

institutes to manage their internal affairs both academically and financially. Next, I was eager to find out from the perspective of the faculty who were the stakeholders they believed their universities were accountable to as well as the degree of accountability to these stakeholders. As accountability to stakeholders necessitates the assessment of productivity reflected through excellence in teaching, research and related activities (Spring 1998), faculty members who participated in the survey were required to identify performance indicators adopted by their institutions and the various modes of assessment that may be internal, external or a combination of both (Epper 1999). Finally faculty were required to identify a series of factors that influenced promotion and the manner in which promotion took place at the universities. This chapter reports on all these findings.

6.1 Government Control

The Lebanese Government has played a very limited role in shaping, developing and organizing higher education in the country. The majority if not all institutes of higher education were operating and expanding before the Lebanese Government licensed them. The first attempt to organize higher education in Lebanon was in 1961 with the promulgation of the Higher Education Act by the Ministry of National Education and Fine Arts. A second attempt to organise higher education came 35 years later in 1996 after the number of institutes providing tertiary education, quadrupled in less than a decade and serious concerns for the quality of outcomes of higher education arose. This led me to survey through the specifically designed ‘Faculty Questionnaire’ the perceptions of 72 staff members from the various institutions included in the study on the role assumed by the government in shaping higher education. On average, 10 staff members from each of the 7 institutions responded to a series of 10 statements listed

below. Agreement with statement 5: *‘The government sets desired outcomes and processes for Universities to meet’* implies strong government control, while agreement with statement 7: *‘The government leaves both outcomes and processes to the University’* and statement 8: *‘The University has a considerable degree of autonomy to manage its internal affairs’* imply institutional autonomy. As one may note, statements 5 and 7 are in total contrast. Another pair of statements in total contrast is statements 9 and 10. Responses to the statements were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree to do not know. Counts for each response and means of each of the statements were calculated and summarised in Tables 6.1 – 6.8 in Appendix 6A. The data are represented in Figure 6.1.

Statements:

1. The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of admission requirements to the various programmes of study.
2. The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of course requirements of the various programmes of study.
3. The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of quality of essential facilities.
4. The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of faculty-student ratios.
5. The government sets desired outcomes and processes for Universities to meet.
6. The government only sets desired outcomes for Universities to meet but not the processes.
7. The government leaves both outcomes and processes to the University.
8. The University has a considerable degree of autonomy to manage its internal affairs.

9. The government manages resource allocation within the university.

10. Senior administrators manage resource allocation within the University.

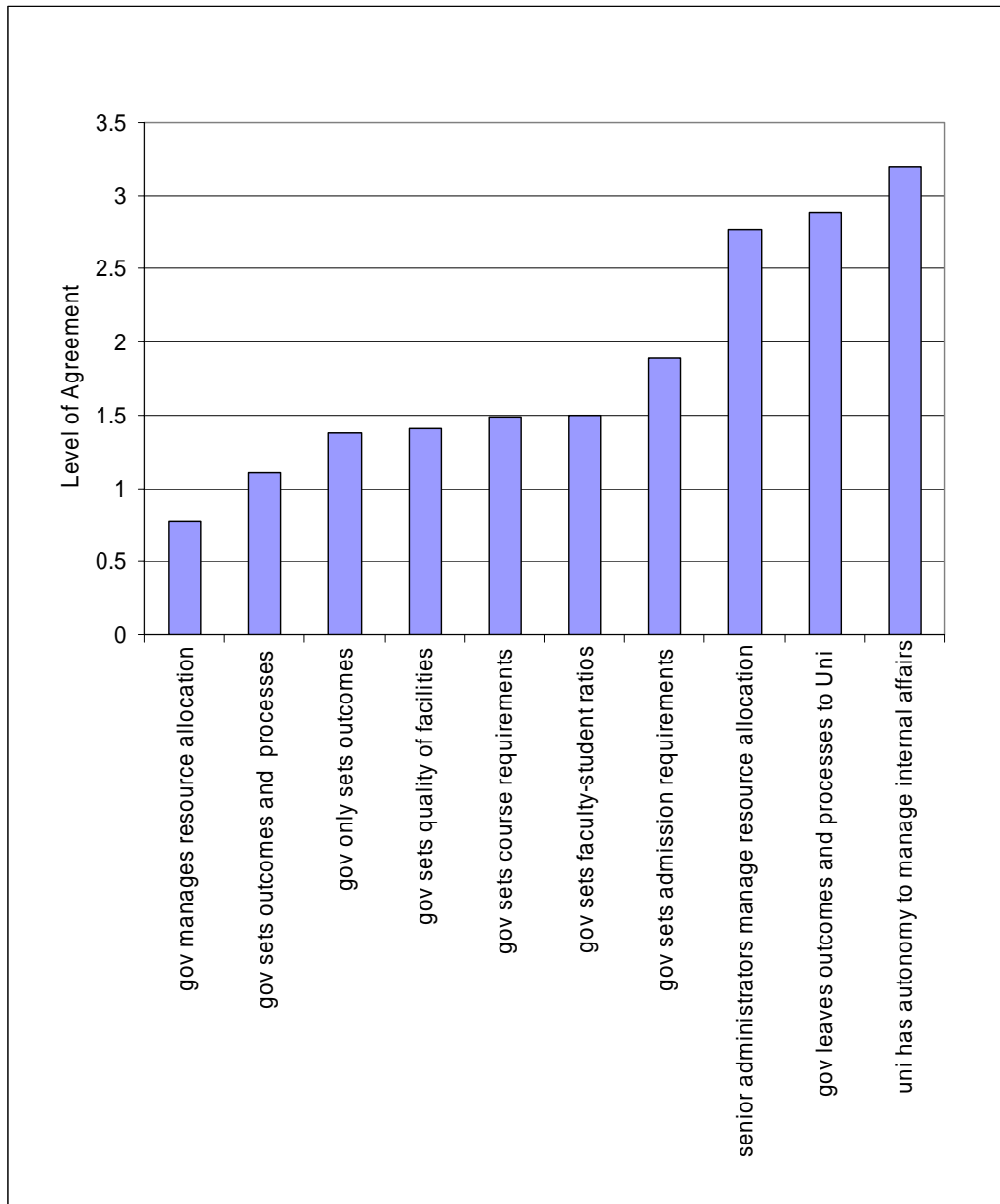


Figure 6.1 Mean Scores for the Role of the Lebanese Government in Shaping HE in Lebanon

The findings indicate that staff members in all the six private institutions firmly believe (60/63) that the institutions have a considerable degree of autonomy to manage their internal affairs. This may explain a second finding where two thirds (40/63) of the faculty members surveyed did not see the government setting the desired outcomes nor determining the processes that are to be met by the Universities, particularly in the historically grounded institutions as AUB(Am:F) (8/10) and USJ(Fr:F) (9/11). In the State University, LU, however, staff and faculty were divided in their responses in relation to the statement, *'The University has a considerable degree of autonomy to manage its internal affairs'* (statement 8). Responses of academic staff were also split in relation to the government setting the desired outcomes and determining the processes to be met by the University.

Private institutes are funded from a range of private sources and depend in part on tuition fees of students for resources. They do not receive financial support or subsidies from the government as reflected in the 'disagree' response rate (52/63) to statement 9: *'The government manages resource allocation within the university'*. This is not the case at LU, where tuition fees are negligible and the resources for public higher education are provided by the government as indicated by 6/9 of the respondents. The allocation of resources by the government to LU however, has been gradually declining over the years due to the difficult economic situation in the country despite the vast expansion in student numbers. This has led to a dramatic deterioration in quality of physical facilities in terms of buildings - sufficient for only a third of the student body (Al Amin, 1999) - laboratories, libraries, offices and outdoor and indoor recreational facilities and consequently has had adverse effects on the quality of education and research. This may account for one third (3/9) of the staff

disagreeing with the notion of government providing resources. In both private institutions and the public institution, however, senior administrators are more often seen to be mainly responsible for managing resource allocation within their institutions, according to responses of academic staff (49/72).

It is not surprising then given the standards of quality at LU which are surpassed by far by all private institutions that large numbers of faculty members from all universities expressed some level of disagreement with the two statements '*The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of quality of essential facilities*' (statement 4) (36/72) and '*The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of faculty-student ratios*' (statement 5) (43/72). Only faculty members at UOB(Am:N) surprisingly expressed any agreement (10/11) with statement 4.

Faculty responses were varied but disagreement prevailed in relation to the statements about the government setting detailed guidelines to be adopted by the universities in terms of admission requirements (30/72) and in terms of course requirements to the various programmes of study (38/72). This particular discrepancy among responses could be attributed to the fact that most institutions have their own set of requirements for admission to the various programmes of study in addition to that of the government which actually requires that all students admitted to the universities should have a Lebanese Baccalaureate or an equivalent degree prior to their acceptance to an institute of higher learning. Moreover, the government has set certain specifications for each of the various fields of study that must be met by the institutions for the official recognition of their degrees. In interview, a senior faculty member at LAU(Am:F) and a senior officer at BAU(Eg:F) explain the role of the

government and the Ministry of Education in relation to the recognition of degrees issued by their faculties. These two interview quotations shed light on the source of variation in responses obtained.

‘To my knowledge we are not accountable to any official Lebanese bodies. Basically we only have to follow the Lebanese regulations to attain recognition for our degrees. As stipulated by the law, students must successfully complete five years of academic work in the field to gain recognition for their degrees and to practice their profession’ (July 29, 2002).

‘Of course, there’s control from the Lebanese government, but it is self-regulatory control. That is the Lebanese government or the Ministry of Education does not control methods of teaching or content of programmes or courses and it does not interfere in decision-making in any manner. It has colloquium exams that graduates sit for after graduation, at least in professional schools. One cannot practice in Lebanon without passing the colloquium exams. These exams are good indicators of the quality of education provided by an institution (October 12, 2002).

The following comment by a senior officer at AUB(Am:F) gives an elaborate description of the role of the government in relation to most of the above mentioned issues and stresses a reciprocal advisory role assumed by institutions.

‘The government I guess plays a direct role in that we register our degree programmes with the government. I suppose they could reject or give comments about the way we prepare our students in the various programmes but that has never happened. We participate in two committees in the Ministry of Education. The first is the equivalence committee where we and other institutions sit in and give advice to the government as to whether we should accept a certain degree or not or how should we evaluate a certain programme. Then there is a second committee that actually looks at recommendations for the acknowledgement and the establishment of new institutions. Other than that the government has been very helpful. They don’t interfere with our programmes; they don’t tell us what to teach and what not to teach; they don’t set or impose any rules; they don’t decide what we need. They leave that all to us’ (September 10, 2002).

One may conclude that the Lebanese government in collaboration with the administrative officials of most institutions ‘steer’ higher education in the desired direction. The active participation of the institutions in committees that look into the evaluation of degrees and programmes and the acknowledgement of new institutions,

even though they may assume an advisory role only, renders the institutions to some degree accountable for the outcomes of higher education. This feature allows the government to steer higher education at a distance, thus granting institutions considerable freedom to manage their internal affairs, particularly the private institutions, and explains the light accountability to Lebanese government bodies as expressed by most respondents in the survey and in interview, which I will discuss in the section that follows.

6.2 Accountability

There appears then to be substantial internal autonomy both academically and financially, as the government does not set the desired processes or the desired outcomes to be met by the universities. The government does however implement varied measures of quality assurance to the different programmes offered by the universities. The government is thus one of the many stakeholders the universities are accountable to. This led me to find out from the perspective of the faculty who were the stakeholders whom they believed their universities were accountable to as well as the degree of accountability to these stakeholders. To achieve this end, faculty members were required to respond to a series of questions in the survey or in interview whereby they had to identify which of the following stakeholders they believed their universities were accountable to – ‘Lebanese governmental bodies’, ‘Lebanese non-governmental bodies’, ‘religious bodies’, ‘foreign bodies’, ‘students’ and ‘parents of students’ - and whenever applicable to indicate the extent of accountability that may be classified as ‘extreme’, ‘moderate’, ‘light’ or simply ‘do not know’. Tables 6.9-6.15 summarise the responses of faculty (See Appendix 6B).

The findings indicate that no more than a third (20/63) of faculty members in the private institutes surveyed believed their institutions were accountable to Lebanese government bodies. The extent of accountability to such government bodies was described as ranging from moderate to light by respondents in these institutes. As for the State University, LU, two thirds (6/9) of the staff surveyed believed the institution was accountable to Lebanese government bodies and were inclined to describe the level of accountability as extreme. Only 19 out of 72 faculty members surveyed identified a Lebanese non-government body to be a stakeholder, with no faculty member at either AUB(Am:F) and BAU(Eg:F) indicating the existence of such a stakeholder in relation to their institution. That 54 out 72 faculty members chose the ‘do not know’/ no response as to the extent of accountability to Lebanese non-governmental bodies then seems understandable.

Institutes established by religious authorities - USJ(Fr:F), UOB(Am:N) NDU(Am:N), LAU(Am:F) and BAU(Eg:F), were found by a slight majority (32/53) of their faculty members to be accountable to religious bodies. As for the secular institutions, LU and AUB(Am:F), 14 out of 19 faculty members indicated that their institutions were not accountable to religious bodies (it is interesting that five thought they were). Worthy of note is that despite the fact that BAU(Eg:F) was founded by a Lebanese Islamic authority only one member of staff thought the institution was accountable to a religious body while 8 out of 10 staff members either expressed uncertainty or rejected the idea of accountability to a religious authority. Probably the following interview quotation with a faculty member at BAU(Eg:F) could offer an explanation for this finding.

‘Academically BAU(Eg:F) is totally accountable to AU in Egypt. It is academically accountable to the Lebanese Ministry of Education, but

comparatively this accountability is very weak. As BAU(Eg:F) is situated in Lebanon and although the majority of its students are non-Lebanese it should really be accountable to Lebanese authorities serving the people of Lebanon primarily. Loyalty to the Lebanese State and the people and communities of Lebanon should be a major concern of management at BAU(Eg:F). It may be accountable to a religious institution, but that accountability should not go beyond morality and respect. The search for truth and knowledge should transcend religion and nationalities (October 3, 2002).

The preceding quotation tends to suggest that the Egyptian management exercises total control over the institution academically and strict control in relation to policy definition and implementation, as found earlier, and consequently accountability to the founding Lebanese Islamic authority and even to official Lebanese authorities is negligible. Another interesting finding is that faculty members have indicated through their responses in the survey weak accountability to foreign bodies. A plausible explanation as suggested through the interview quotation is Lebanese seems ‘foreign’ at BAU(Eg:F) with a staff and faculty body that is almost totally Egyptian.

Accountability to foreign bodies was detectable from faculty responses at AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) (13/20). The BOT at AUB(Am:F) and in particular the executive committee of the board as stated in the Corporate Bylaws (American University of Beirut 1979) should not exercise any powers denied to it by the applicable law of the State of New York in accordance with its charter, which confirms accountability to a foreign body described by 7 out of 10 respondents predominantly as ‘extreme’ or ‘moderate’. At LAU(Am:F) responsibility for the university is vested in the BOT by a higher authority, namely the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York in accordance with its grant of charter. Additionally, two thirds of the BOT’S members had to be residents of the US. The extent of accountability to foreign bodies at LAU(Am:F) was considered by respondents more moderate to light than extreme, as at AUB(Am:F). Accountability

to foreign bodies was still generally seen as lighter at the other four universities - USJ(Fr:F) UOB(Am:N), NDU(Am:N) and LU as only three out of 42 respondents thought it extreme. The numerous cooperation and collaboration pacts these universities have with foreign organisations and countries may have influenced faculty members' responses.

Most faculty members expressed accountability more to students (47/72) than to parents (33/72). At BAU(Eg:F), 9 out of 10 of the respondents expressed accountability to students while at NDU(Am:N) only 3 out of 11 of the respondents considered their institution accountable to students and parents alike. These findings further support the results of the previous chapter where management in almost all institutions viewed students as customers who needed to be satisfied with the product they were purchasing. The only exception is NDU(Am:N) where accountability to both students and parents was found to be weak which contradicts the corporate style of management found to be dominant at this university. A senior officer at UOB(Am:N) explains the nature of accountability to students and parents in interview. His views are shared by almost all those interviewed in the various universities, especially American modelled universities where students receive course syllabi outlining the content of courses and the evaluation criteria.

‘I am accountable to students in that I must provide the programme they have subscribed for. I must make sure the programme is continuously upgraded and that it is administered in the best possible way through the use of the latest technologies. I must make sure that professors follow and cover what is set out clearly in the course syllabus. The course syllabus is a form of contract between the professor and the student. I am not accountable to parents by law. It is more of an ethical or moral form of accountability in the sense that students studying in this institution should receive quality education’ (July 23, 2002).

The interview findings suggest that most faculty members internalised accountability. They felt accountable to themselves primarily. Their dedication to their disciplines and their intrinsic interest in their work was a safeguard for quality and productivity, particularly in an environment of academic autonomy and freedom. Moreover, faculty members, chairpersons, deans and vice-presidents felt accountable to their superiors or those directly above them within the organisational hierarchy. This view is shared by faculty members in all universities. A typical example by a faculty member at USJ(Fr:F) is:

‘In my teaching, I’m accountable to nobody other than my students and myself. This is the best element in my job, the feeling of freedom. As long as I perform my teaching duties well no one interferes in my work. Administratively I am accountable to the head of the department and the dean...They are in turn accountable to their superiors’ (November 25, 2002).

A senior officer at AUB(Am:F) elaborates further explaining what he understands by accountability, and how he holds his faculty members accountable.

‘Well accountability is of course very necessary in every university, in every company and in every operation. In academia, we are held accountable to our superiors on the basis of what one has promised to perform versus what one has actually performed. For example, I meet with my faculty at the beginning of every academic year, and I ask them to present me with what they intend to do during that year. Then we meet again at the end of the year to find out what they have done from among the things they promised to do. We have workload sheets that faculty members fill out telling us how much time they put into their research projects, and on teaching their courses. This is not only important but it’s essential for coming up with a reasonable evaluation at the end of the year... If I know what to do then I’m in a better position to do it. That’s really the basis of accountability. You cannot be held accountable for something you are not expected to do or for something you have no control over’ (September 12, 2002).

It seems that accountability for him is the realisation of a fixed set of clearly stated predetermined tangible objectives. Successful realisation of the objectives results in favourable evaluation by those one is held accountable to, usually one’s superiors or

those reaping the benefits of accomplishment of the objectives, including one self. Accountability is often accompanied by the establishment of levels of attainment or performance involving both quantity and quality, two issues of major concern to the various stakeholders in higher education.

6.3 Performance

This leads to the question of performance. For many years quality of teaching and research in institutes of higher education was taken for granted. Universities were seen as centres of excellence catering for the elite. Higher education was producer oriented, directed towards the interests of its faculty members. As a shift in trends came about due to the multitude of demands on universities, higher education became more consumer oriented, directed towards satisfying the interests of its stakeholders with different stakeholders assigning different values to the various outcomes (Donald and Denison 2001). Of the stakeholders of special interest to me was the management of the universities themselves, that not only have a significant role in determining what performance indicators should be implemented to assess quality of outcomes, but also look to assess the outcomes using internal, external or a combination of internal and external modes of assessment.

Faculty members were requested to indicate in the survey, which of the ten performance indicators (listed in tables 6.16 - 6.22 in Appendix 6C) were applicable in their respective institutions and if applicable, to suggest whether the indicator was assessed internally, externally or both internally and externally. Table 6.23 (see Appendix 6C) gives the means of the applicable performance indicators in all universities from which one can detect the most significant indicators. This data is

then represented graphically in Figure 6.2. The means were calculated by assigning a value of one to an affirmative response and a value of zero otherwise (no, not know and no answer).

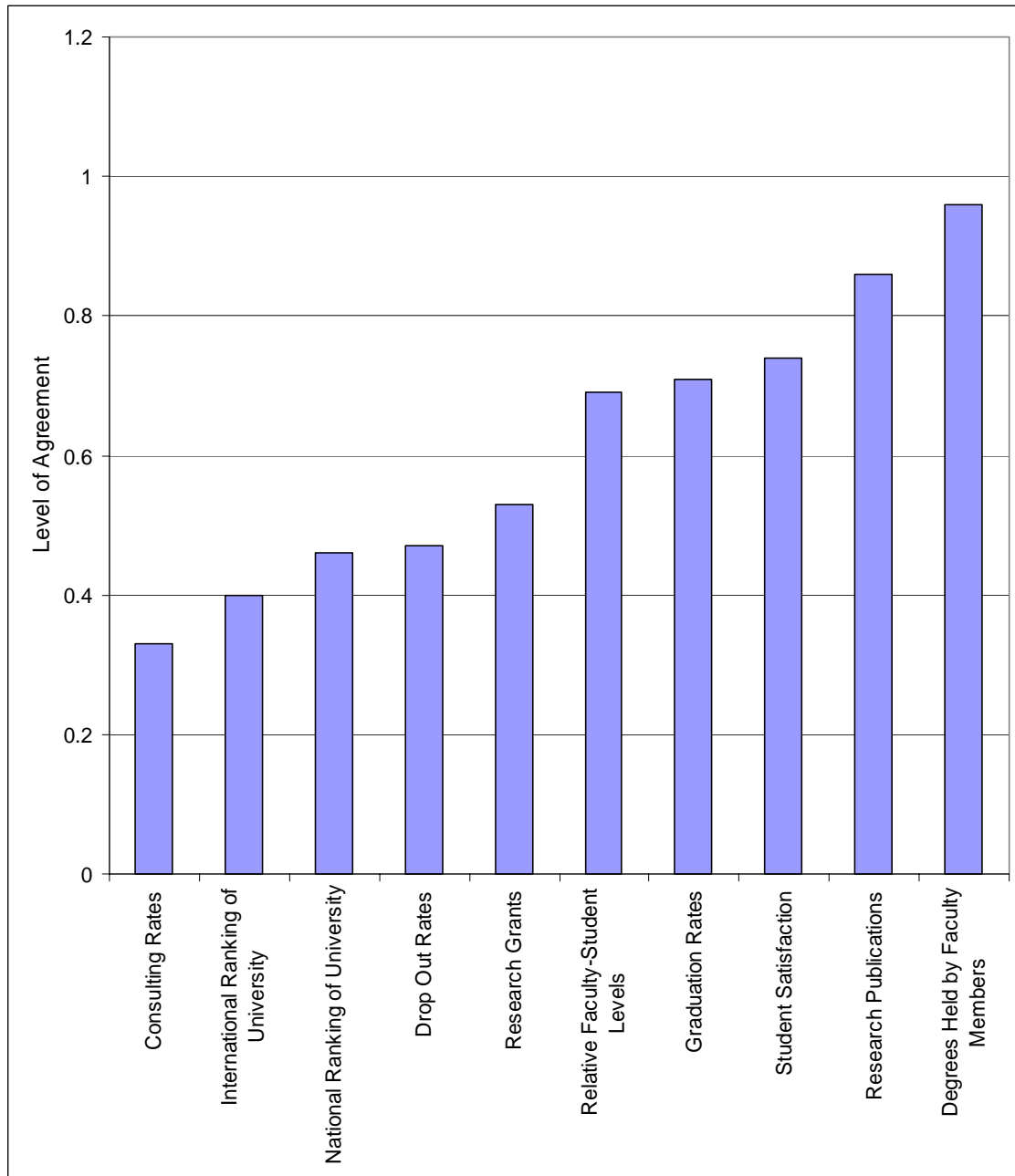


Figure 6.2 Mean Scores of Performance Indicators

The most common performance indicators seen to be used by management at the various universities to assure quality of outcomes were in descending order (1) degrees held by faculty (2) research publications (3) student satisfaction (4) graduation rates and (5) relative faculty student levels. The degree held by a faculty member, assessed both internally and externally, was the most commonly adopted performance indicator by management (66/72) and served as an initial entry requirement for employment in the institutions, as suggested by a senior officer at LU in interview.

‘The professor that has graduated from a reputable university and has extensive experience with a good track record of publications is preferred to other less experienced professors’ (December 11, 2002).

Research publications of faculty members, also usually assessed both internally and externally, were considered an extremely important performance indicator by all respondents (60/72) surveyed, particularly at BAU(Eg:F) and most American patterned universities where the response rate was 100%.

Student satisfaction is an important performance indicator adopted by all universities except LU, the only institute of mass higher education where students are viewed as statistics, as found previously. As conveyed through the interviews with faculty members, one may observe that only American patterned universities have designed or adopted formal assessment tools for students’ evaluation of the teaching learning process. A typical example is:

‘We have questionnaires we give to students at the end of each course whereby they answer a fixed set of questions related to the course and the instructor. There is also a section where they are free to say whatever they wish such as they do not like the attitude of the professor or the way she or he explains. The comments are taken seriously particularly if all students express

dissatisfaction not just a handful' (LAU(Am:F), Faculty member, July 9, 2002).

Students' satisfaction with the various aspects of university life including teaching is usually expressed in an informal manner in all universities.

'This institution does not have a tradition of taking student satisfaction into account, but things are changing now. Undergraduate students sat with the dean this year to discuss all the various issues related to teaching and some pressing demands they have such as a student lounge or entertainment facilities. The dean promised to fulfil their wishes as soon as possible' (USJ(Fr:F), Senior faculty member, October 28, 2002).

Some performance indicators such as relative student/faculty ratios, graduation rates and the national and international standing of the university were only touched upon by 4 out of 35 staff members in interview indicating that they were not readily perceived by respondents as indicators of considerable significance that should be or were actually assessed by management. This is probably because these indicators are somehow administrative indicators not directly related to the basic functions of the academic staff but to the status of the institution. These indicators however received some attention by staff when suggested in the survey. Graduation rates (48/72) and relative student/faculty ratios (47/72) were two such performance indicators agreed by more than half the respondents across the institutions. The indicators were chiefly assessed internally and occasionally externally. Two other such performance indicators usually assessed externally more than internally are the national (31/72) and international (27/72) ranking of universities: according to faculty perceptions, they are then not often seen as very important indicators. As a staff member at BAU(Eg:F) noted in his interview,

'I love the idea of performance indicators. A very important indicator is the number of students who succeed each year. This indicator is given special attention by management as the number or percentage of students succeeding reflects the importance of the University and its rank between other

universities. There ought to be standards for all production processes in higher education such as research and teaching' (October 3, 2002).

The performance indicator of least significance is that of consulting rates (22/72).

This is reflected in the interview quote that follows.

'There are two major types of research. The first is pure research for the purpose of knowledge. It has no special social or financial benefit. The second is research that yields a special social benefit or has some practical application. It is the best type of research in my opinion and should be supported by the government for the general benefit of the country. This is not happening, at least to my knowledge. The government, society and industry are not making use of the expertises in academia in any way. Society and academia seem two different worlds totally isolated from one another' (BAU(Eg:F), Senior Faculty member, October 12, 2002).

Some performance indicators were not covered in the survey but were frequently referred to in the interviews. Many of the academic staff in American patterned universities suggested in interview that community service was a performance indicator they thought was important but was not assessed appropriately, if assessed at all.

'Community service is an important component of any faculty member's job description but there is no formal tool to assess it. We are encouraged to do community service but I feel management gives it little weight, if any at all, when evaluating our performance' (AUB(Am:F), Senior faculty member, August 14, 2002).

Another performance indicator believed to be of considerable importance by 19 out of 35 faculty members in the various institutions is the destination of their graduates and employers' satisfaction.

'Where are our graduates going? We really should keep track of our alumni? It is important to know what type of jobs or organizations our graduates are able to get into after graduation. We need to know if they have the required skills to compete with other graduates in the market place. We need to know if employers are satisfied with their performance. The end product makes the difference between universities. These statistics are essential and help us to upgrade our programmes' (NDU(Am:N), Senior officer, August 23, 2002).

Performance indicators are used to measure the effectiveness and productivity of higher education. A senior officer at AUB(Am:F) explains what productivity in academia actually involves in interview.

‘Productivity is really the outcome of a faculty member’s work. It is something that you measure based on how many papers they have published during the year; based on their teaching; and based on how much impact they have on their students. Workload is the number of hours they have put in. As you can see workloads and productivity are not the same but of course they’re related. I personally don’t give any importance whatsoever to whether a faculty member spends 60 or 50 or 40 hours a week working as long as I see some productivity. I’m not one who thinks that every person should be in his office at 8:00 a.m. until 6:00 p.m. I have some people that like to work at night and they sometimes do work in their labs at night as it’s quiet and I have the 8 a.m. – 5 p.m. people who interestingly may not be productive or their productivity is low’ (September 12, 2002).

One may detect from the above quotation that the senior officer has adopted the conception of productivity as accepted in the world of business and commerce, which differs from that accepted in the academic world (Massy and Wilger 1995). In the world of business productivity is defined as the ratio of outputs to inputs, while in the world of academia outputs are directly related to inputs (Ramsden 1998). The senior officer in question seems to prefer that his staff members and colleagues pay more attention to identifying the specific inputs that are associated with high productivity in both teaching and research while allowing them considerable freedom to perform their various duties and tasks in the manner in which they desire.

6.4 Influences on Promotion

Although different stakeholders assign different values to the various outcomes of higher education, there is a general acceptance among all that the end products, mainly student learning and faculty research activity, should be of high quality and sufficient quantity. Management’s major concern is then the constant improvement of

productivity and the encouragement of faculty members' intrinsic commitment to their work and disciplines by providing opportunities and rewards. Promotion in rank or status is one of the most momentous opportunities or rewards that can be offered to faculty members. This is basically what led me to try to identify which of the following eleven items listed below were actually seen to influence promotion within the different universities. Responses were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree to do not know. Tallies for each response to each of the statements and the mean of each statement were calculated. A summary of the results for each university appears in Tables 6.24 – 6.31 (See Appendix 6D). Summary data are displayed in Figure 6.3.

Statement: Promotion in the University is influenced by:

1. Quality of teaching.
2. Research productivity.
3. National Publications.
4. International publications.
5. Number of research grants.
6. Degree of involvement with students.
7. Community service activities.
8. Consultancy projects awarded.
9. Number of years of service.
10. Loyalty to the institution.
11. Political influence of the promoted.

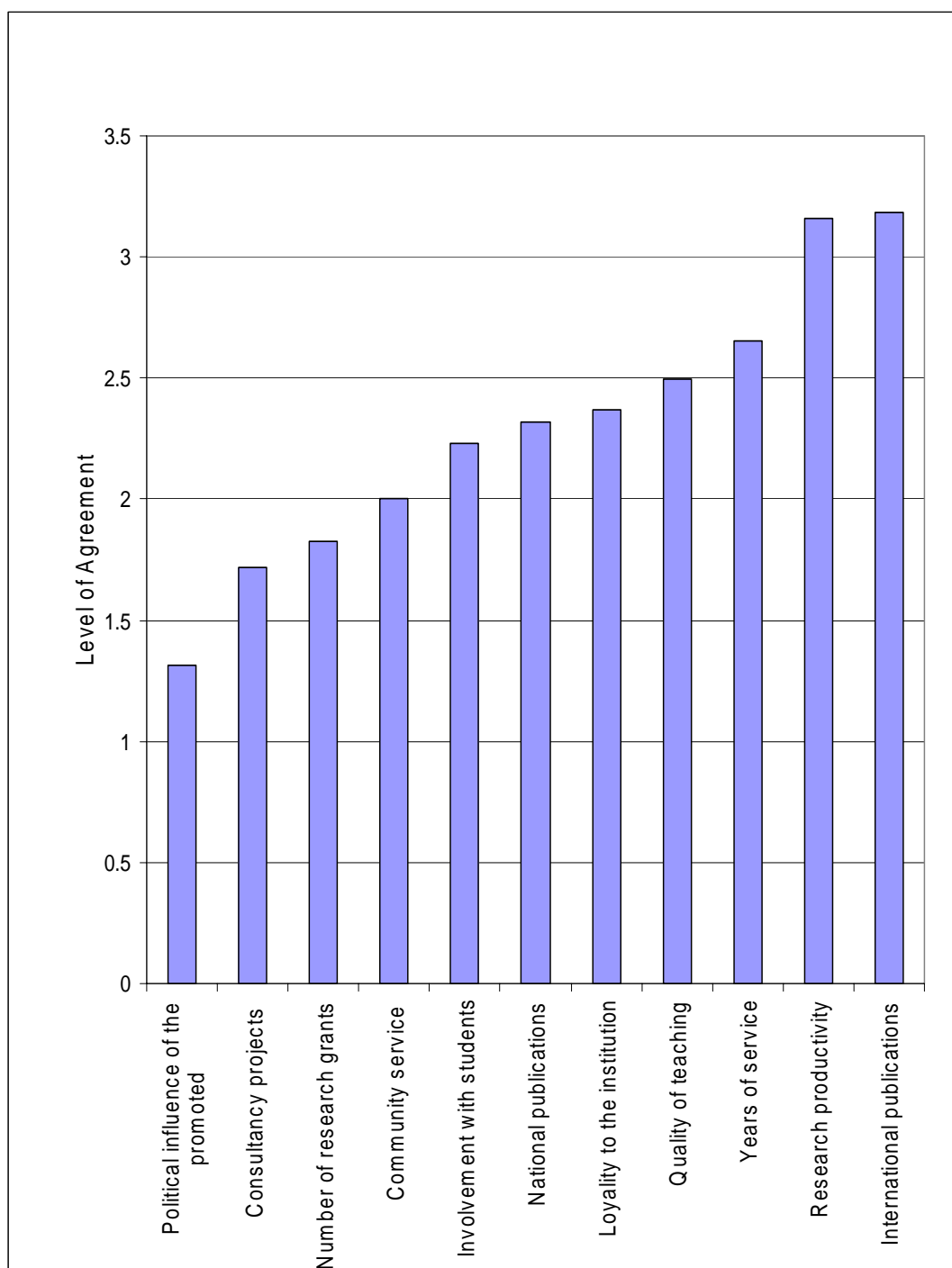


Figure 6.3 Mean Scores of Factors Perceived as Influencing Promotion

The most important element seen to be influencing promotion in all institutions of higher learning is the research productivity of faculty members, particularly in terms of refereed international publications (60/72), significantly more so than national

publications (40/72). The discrepancy in importance between international and national journals was found to be more pronounced in the responses of the academic staff at AUB(Am:F). Another element related to research activity of some significance is the number of research grants awarded to faculty, found particularly influential at most American patterned institutions (23/42). In most institutions other than LU (0/9), quality of teaching was among the top five high-ranking promotion factors (43/63) while degree of involvement with students and community service occupied a central position among the set of factors. From the preceding description one can readily detect that the two major roles of the academic staff in all institutions are the dissemination and production of knowledge with special emphasis on quality. A third minor component of any faculty member's job description, particularly in American modelled universities, is community service.

Two elements, namely number of years of service (50/72) and loyalty to the institution (38/72) held a bearing almost equivalent to quality of teaching on promotion in most institutions except at the American style AUB(Am:F) (1 and 2 out of 10 respectively) where they were found to be insignificant. One senior officer at USJ(Fr:F) explained why the number of years of service plays a role in promotion.

'I usually suggest who should be promoted after consultation with the department head. Surely when someone is promoted it means that he or she deserves to be promoted. It does not mean that there is nobody else that deserves to be promoted, rather that he or she must wait their turn. There is no army without soldiers. We need to keep the pyramid of age' (October 22, 2002).

The importance of loyalty to the institution and its impact on promotion and mobility within the organisational hierarchy further corroborate the classifications made in the previous chapter regarding cultures of management. Cultures classified as corporate or a blend of bureaucratic and corporate necessitates loyalty to the institution to

facilitate progression. In the collegial institutions on the other hand, focus is primarily on loyalty to one's discipline which necessitates quality and quantity research productivity and all related research activities including the award of research grants.

The issue that was seen to have the least impact on promotion in five of the seven universities was the political influence of the promoted. However, it is interesting that in the State University, LU, 7 out of 9 staff thought it important, and in NDU(Am:N), 8 out of 11 chose no to respond to this statement. Private universities have fortunately been able to distance themselves from political interferences more so than the State University which is seen to belong to the public that is composed of many factions with conflicting interests and each faction supposing priority over the other in terms of entitlements and legitimate rights.

6.5 Institutional Modes of Promotion

The indicators used by management in the universities to assess performance are similar or related to the activities that influence promotion. Having determined the factors that impact significantly on promotion, the last issue of interest to me was to determine how promotion actually took place in the respective institutions. Respondents were asked to answer a final set of statements related to this issue listed below. A summary of the results for each university appears in Tables 6.32 – 6.39 (See Appendix 6E). The data are displayed in Figures 6.4.

Statements:

1. Promotion in the university takes place after a fixed number of years.
2. Promotion in the university takes place upon the fulfilment of a fixed and transparent set of requirements.

3. Promotion in the university takes place on a case - by – case basis and can happen simply upon the request of the faculty member concerned.
4. Promotion in the university takes place on a case - by – case basis and can happen simply upon the request of the faculty member's superiors.

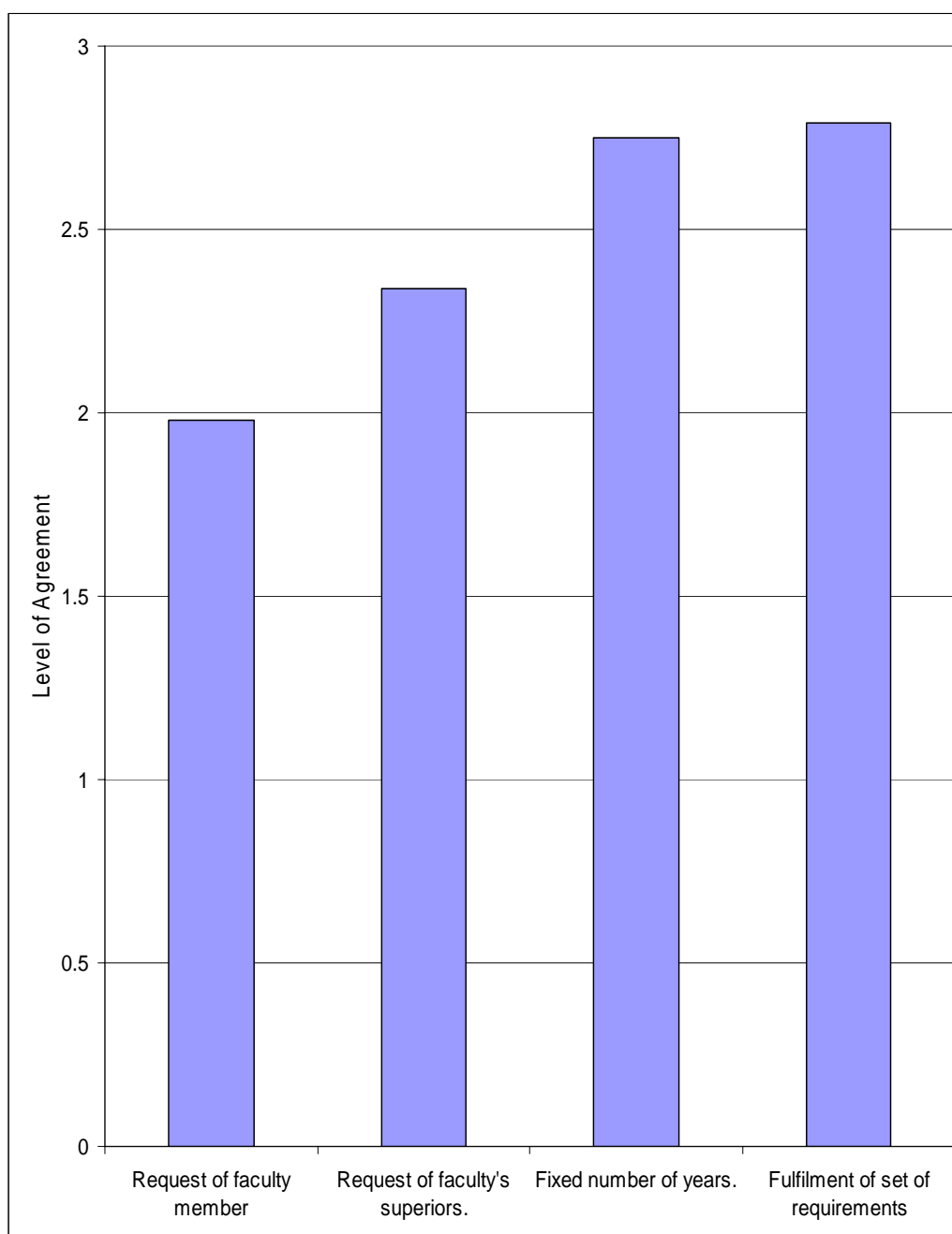


Figure 6.4 **Mean Scores of the Modes of Promotion**

It should be noted that the conjunction ‘and’ in both statements 3 and 4 were not seen by respondents as ‘either/or’ but rather that promotion of a staff member can take place upon that staff member’s request (statement 3) or upon the request of the staff member’s superiors (statement 4).

Two thirds of all faculty members surveyed perceived promotion as taking place after mainly a fixed number of years and upon the fulfilment of a fixed and transparent set of requirements. Fewer staff saw it as taking place upon the request of the concerned faculty member (31/72) or upon the request of the faculty member’s superiors (38/72), which implies a lack of consensus about whether there is interference of various forms in managerial decisions. At BAU(Eg:F) for example, 8 out of 10 staff saw promotion as less likely as less likely to take place upon the request of a faculty member. In contrast, 8 out of 11 faculty members at NDU(Am:N) indicated that promotion took place upon such a request while at UOB(Am:N) 9 out of 11 faculty members suggested it took place upon the request of ones’ superiors. These two procedures reinforce the corporate managerial quality of loyalty to the institution and to superior administrators which is further emphasised in a senior officer’s remarks at UOB(Am:F).

‘Technically the four indicators that influence promotion are: good teaching, good research, good service to the community and good participation in the University life. We still have not determined how to weigh each one of these indicators and it differs from one person to the other and from faculty to faculty allowing for considerable subjectivity in decisions related to promotion’ (July 5, 2002).

6.6 Conclusion

In this chapter I found that although faculty members in both private and public institutions believed that the government did not determine the desired processes and outcomes to be met by the universities, and that those in private institutions felt management enjoyed considerable autonomy to manage their internal affairs, both academically and financially, those in the public institution felt their internal autonomy was infringed on by the government, particularly financially, as the government is responsible for resource allocation. This is not surprising, but lends support to the notion that institutional culture will be closely linked to control of that institution. Next, I investigated faculty perceptions of the stakeholders to whom the universities were accountable as well as the degree of accountability to these stakeholders. I found that the establishing authorities of each institution and the students were considered to be the major stakeholders from the perspective of faculty members. Particularly interesting was accountability to religious bodies where I found that the degree of accountability that ranged from extreme to moderate to light reflected the role of these religious authorities in the definition of policy and control over implementation. This is interesting as perceived level of accountability is seen to be proportional to degree of control. It is not surprising however as it further supports the notion of the impact of control on the culture of the institution. Then faculty members were required to identify the performance indicators adopted by their institutions and the various modes of assessment that may be internal, external or a combination of both. The most significant performance indicators used by management at the various universities were degrees held by faculty, research publications and student satisfaction. These are easily identifiable features that reflect an emphasis on maximizing productivity and achieving high quality through the

importance attached to outputs. To parallel this, faculty were required to identify a series of factors that influenced promotion. Of these indicators, research productivity and research publications with priority to international publications over national ones and quality of teaching were found to be of considerable significance. Finally however, faculty were required to describe the manner in which promotion actually took place at the universities. The only feature common to all universities according to faculty members was that promotion did take place upon the fulfilment of a fixed and transparent set of requirements. However, for each of the four statements describing the promotion procedure, responses of staff members in all institutions differed indicating that possibly their experiences were varied. More in-depth research would be needed to discover the reality of promotions and how that linked to institutional cultures or histories.

CHAPTER SEVEN

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Introduction

In this chapter, I intend to study the impact of the array of management cultures in the various historically grounded institutions on a range of performance outcomes. More specifically, I will look into the different modes of operation adopted by these institutions to facilitate the realisation of clear tangible mission objectives reflected in a set of demonstrable outcomes, such as student teaching and learning experiences, student destinations, student satisfaction and the responsiveness of the organisation to new demands. To achieve this end, data collected through a survey of students' expectations regarding the university education they were experiencing are analyzed and reference is occasionally made to the semi-structured interviews conducted with academic staff at various levels in the organisation.

7.1. Factors Influencing Students' Choice of Institution

It is interesting to look first into the factors that influenced students' choice of university, as probably the factors are indicators of what students actually expect from their university education. Through a specifically designed 'Student Questionnaire' 1470 students or average 210 students from each of the seven institutions were requested to identify to what extent each of the 14 items listed in Tables 7.1 – 7.8 in Appendix 7A influenced their choice of institution. Responses to each factor were ranked on a scale of 1 to 5 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Frequencies for each response to each of the items were calculated. Figure 7.1 summarises the data obtained.

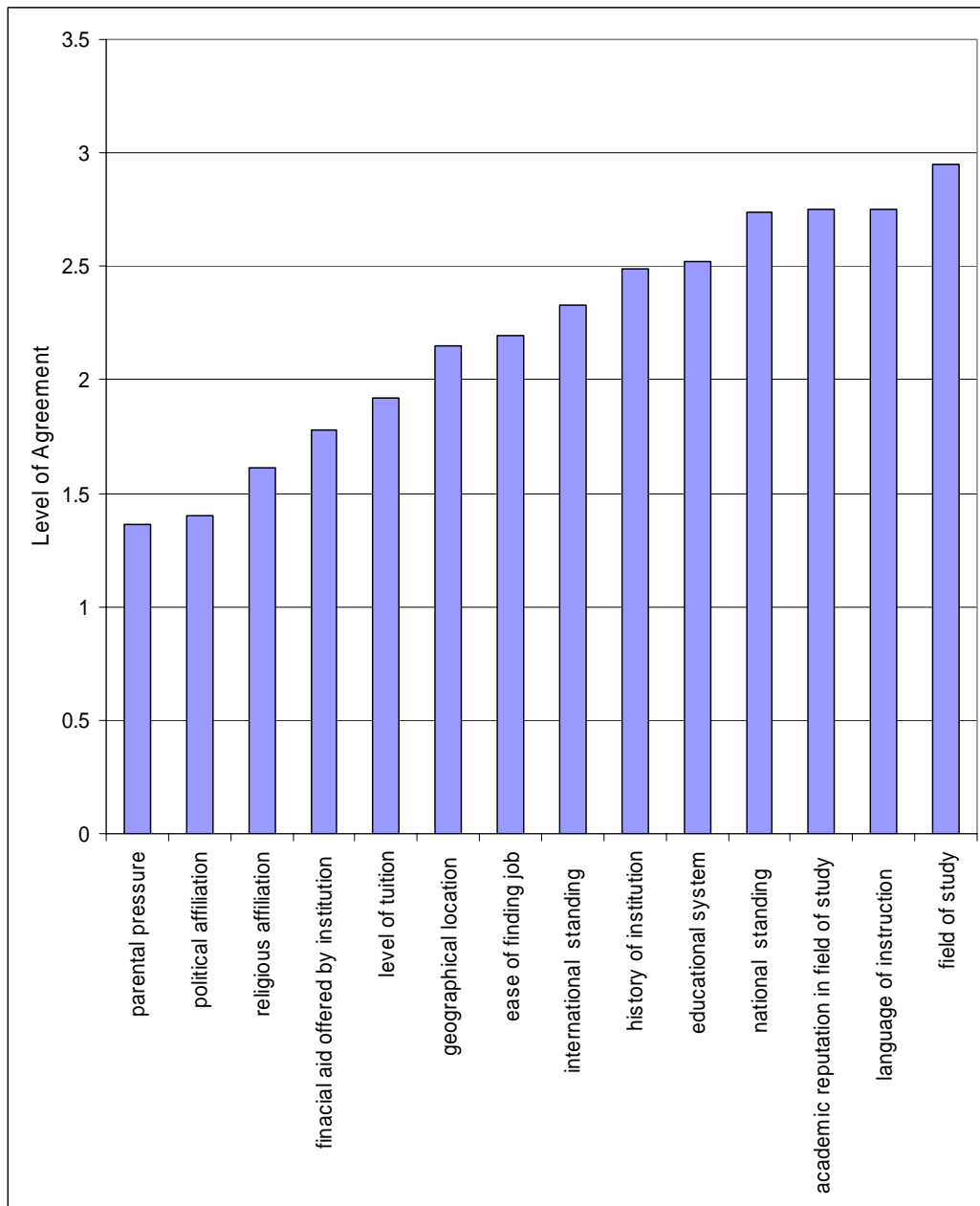


Figure 7.1 Mean Scores of Factors Influencing Choice of Institution (n=1470)

It would seem from the survey results that the status of a university – its history, its national and international standing and the political and religious affiliations of the establishing authorities – plays a significant role in influencing students' choice of

institutes of higher learning. Except for the State University, the degree of agreement in students' responses in the various universities with the item '*history of the institution*' actually reflects the age of the institution. Students at the historically grounded institutions AUB(Am:F) (81%) and USJ(Fr:F) (74%) and to a lesser extent at BAU(Eg:F) (66%) strongly confirmed the significant role an institution's history played in their choice of institution. On the other hand, students' responses in the young emerging universities and LU in relation to the impact of history in their choice of university were dispersed among the three categories of agree, disagree and uncertainty.

'*The national standing*' of the institution similarly seemed by the some two thirds (68%) of students in all institutions to be decisive in their choice of institution in all universities. '*The international standing*' however, was seen to assume a decisive role only in the institutions founded originally by western establishers - primarily at AUB(Am:F) (77%) and then USJ(Fr:F) (69%) and LAU(Am:F) (61%). Responses to the items the '*religious affiliation*' or the '*political affiliation*' of the institution were varied, with half expressing disagreement that they are important. The variation in the responses is a reflection of the Lebanese society and its complex and unique texture.

The characteristics of the educational systems of the various educational models - American, Egyptian, French and Lebanese – as they played out in each institution also had an impact on students. The educational system in American modelled institutions, based on the successful completion of a fixed set of courses or credits differs from that in the French, Egyptian and Lebanese patterned institutions, which is based on the successful completion of set annual requirements. The American educational system

allows some degree of freedom for students in selecting the pace of their studies and in selecting certain elective courses of interest to them, which may explain why more than two thirds of respondents in the four universities following the American model suggested that the educational system adopted by the institution affected their choice of institution. This ratio dropped to almost a half at both USJ(Fr:F) and BAU(Eg:F) and to a third at LU. The French modelled institution, USJ(Fr:F), has just recently transferred to a modular system very similar to the credit system of American patterned institutions in accordance with changes that took place in Europe to allow greater flexibility and mobility for its students.

Not only the educational system of the institutions of higher learning but also the medium of instruction had a bearing on students' choice of university, as suggested by more than two thirds of respondents. The medium of instruction is English in BAU(Eg:F) and in all American patterned institutions with the exception of UOB(Am:N) which offers certain programmes in English and others in French; the medium of instruction is French at USJ(Fr:F) and mainly French at LU although a few programmes are now offered in both French and English. Arabic, the native language of the country is used only in specialised fields as in the Arabic Language and its Literature and Law wherever applicable. It is important to note here that the educational system in Lebanon is bilingual at the elementary level and becomes trilingual at the complimentary and secondary level. Many students continue their tertiary studies in universities that adopt the language of instruction similar to that of their schooling years from grades K–12.

Two important items were the '*field of study*' and the '*academic reputation of the institution in their field of study*'. Overall, some two thirds of students indicated that the '*field of study*' they embarked on influenced their choice of university. About four fifths of students in the historically grounded institutions AUB(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F) indicated that the academic reputation of the institution in their field of study was important, while a slight majority of students in the remaining institutions agreed that this factor was significant.

One would assume that in the knowledge based society of the 21st century the pursuit of a solid tertiary level education is a key element to securing promising career opportunities. The ease of finding a job upon graduation would thus seem to be a decisive element in students' choice of an institution for higher learning. The findings of the survey, however, do not support this assumption totally. Two thirds of the students surveyed in the institutions established by foreign authorities – AUB(Am:F), USJ(Fr:F) and LAU(Am:F) – noted that their choice of institution was based on their future prospects of finding a job. In the emerging universities, UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N), responses were also varied with an equal proportion of around 40% expressing both agreement and uncertainty about their choice of institution being affected by the ease of finding a job upon graduation. In the institutions where tuition fees are negligible, as at LU or relatively low, as at BAU(Eg:F), the findings were reversed. Approximately two fifths of the respondents at BAU(Eg:F) (40.5%) and a slight majority (55%) of respondents at LU suggested that the ease of finding a job did not have a bearing on their choice of university.

It would then seem logical to assume that the ‘level of tuition fees’ plays a significant role in students’ choice of university, particularly in private institutions, and the findings bore this out. However, it seems that students tend to perceive the cost of education to be directly related to the quality of education. The lower the tuition fees the less decisive is the choice item ‘level of tuition fees’. At LU the fees are negligible which explains why 80% of the respondents indicated that the level of tuition did not influence their choice of institution. At BAU(Eg:F) two thirds of the respondents suggested that the level of tuition fees was not a significant factor in their choice of university. As the level of tuition charged by institutions climbs gradually it assumes a more decisive role in choice of institution as detected from the findings at each of USJ(Fr:F), UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N) where responses were varied. At the more expensive learning institutions, AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F), 60% of the respondents indicated that the level of tuition indeed affected their choice of university. It would not seem that high fees are a deterrent, quite the contrary. This is interesting for the current debate in UK over university fees.

Responses of the students in all universities were varied in relation to the item ‘*the level of financial aid offered by the institution*’ but it tended to be proportionate to the level of tuition. As expected then, this item was found to be of negligible significance at LU, particularly as tuition fees are nominal. In all universities, ‘*parental pressure*’ was found to have a weak influence on choice of institution, as indicated by at most a third of the respondents in all universities. For the ‘*geographical location of the institution*’ responses were very mixed, which is perhaps not surprising (see gender description below).

7.2 Gender and Choice of Institution

The extent to which the gender of the respondent had a bearing on the factors that influence choice of university, if any at all, seemed an interesting issue to explore separately. For this purpose, I performed several Chi-Square tests to find relations between the gender of a respondent and each choice item for all universities combined. Each choice item consisted of three categories, namely agree (included responses of both strongly agree and agree), neutral and disagree (included responses of both strongly disagree and disagree). For each Chi-Square test a level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$ was set.

The findings indicate that there is a relationship between gender and the choice statements '*the international standing of the institution*', '*the political affiliation of the institution*' and '*the geographical location of the institution*' for all universities combined. No relationship was found between gender and the remaining 11 choice items. Males' choice of institution tended to be influenced more by the international standing of the institution and its political affiliation while females' choice of institution tended to be influenced more by the geographical location of the institution.

These findings reflect the interaction between Lebanon's economic structure and its conservative culture, in which traditional gender roles are strongly enforced. The results highlight the need to obtain a degree recognised internationally to facilitate the mobility of educated youth in their search for career opportunities specifically as Lebanon is a developing country of limited horizons and resources. This is a prime concern of males as they are considered to be the backbone of society 'more likely to

have wage employment and control of wealth, while women are largely economically dependent upon male family members' (Fahmi and Moghadam 2003, p.2). Females are primarily responsible for the upbringing of off-spring and the well-being of all family members. Economically, their role is secondary to males. Aspirations for challenging careers that will distract them from their prime duties are not encouraged by society. It would seem then that with the emphasis in the Lebanese society by and large on traditional gender roles that politics which is considered to be a masculine domain would constitute an attraction for males more so than females in their choice of institution. The conservativeness of the Lebanese culture further means that females more than males study in institutions of close proximity to their families and hence the '*geographic location of the institution*' represents a significant institutional choice consideration. Overall, the culture and traditions of the people of the society in which the institutions are embedded tend to be an important underlying choice consideration.

7.3 Educational Experiences

After investigating what has a bearing on students' choice of institution, it is interesting to determine if their educational experience was as they actually expected. Students' views related to five major areas were surveyed: (1) the culture of the university, (2) the realisation of the mission of the university, (3) the various aspects of the teaching/learning process, (4) the quality and standards of academic and non-academic facilities and (5) the opportunities upon graduation. Responses to statements in these areas were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree and not aware of any. Frequencies for each response to each item on the questionnaire were calculated.

7.3.1 Students' Perceptions of the Management Culture of the Institution

The first issue of interest to me was students' perceptions of the management culture adopted by their universities, reflected in the modes of operation specifically relevant and apparent to students. (The frequencies of students' responses to 8 statements listed below are summarised Tables 7.9 - 7.16 in Appendix 7B). Figure 7.2 summarises the data obtained.

Statements:

1. The admission policy adopted by the University is selective ensuring that students have the necessary pre-requisite knowledge and skills for the fields they choose to enrol in.
2. The regulations set by the University (such as admission requirements, graduation requirements, etc.) are clear and well defined.
3. The regulations set by the University are strictly followed.
4. The number of levels of authority in the University is satisfactory (not too many) to enable decision-making to be effective.
5. Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various academic functions of the University.
6. Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various non-academic functions of the University.
7. The University has important relations and affiliations with the neighbouring Arab States.
8. The University has important relations and affiliations with the Western World – The United States, Europe, Australia, Canada, etc.

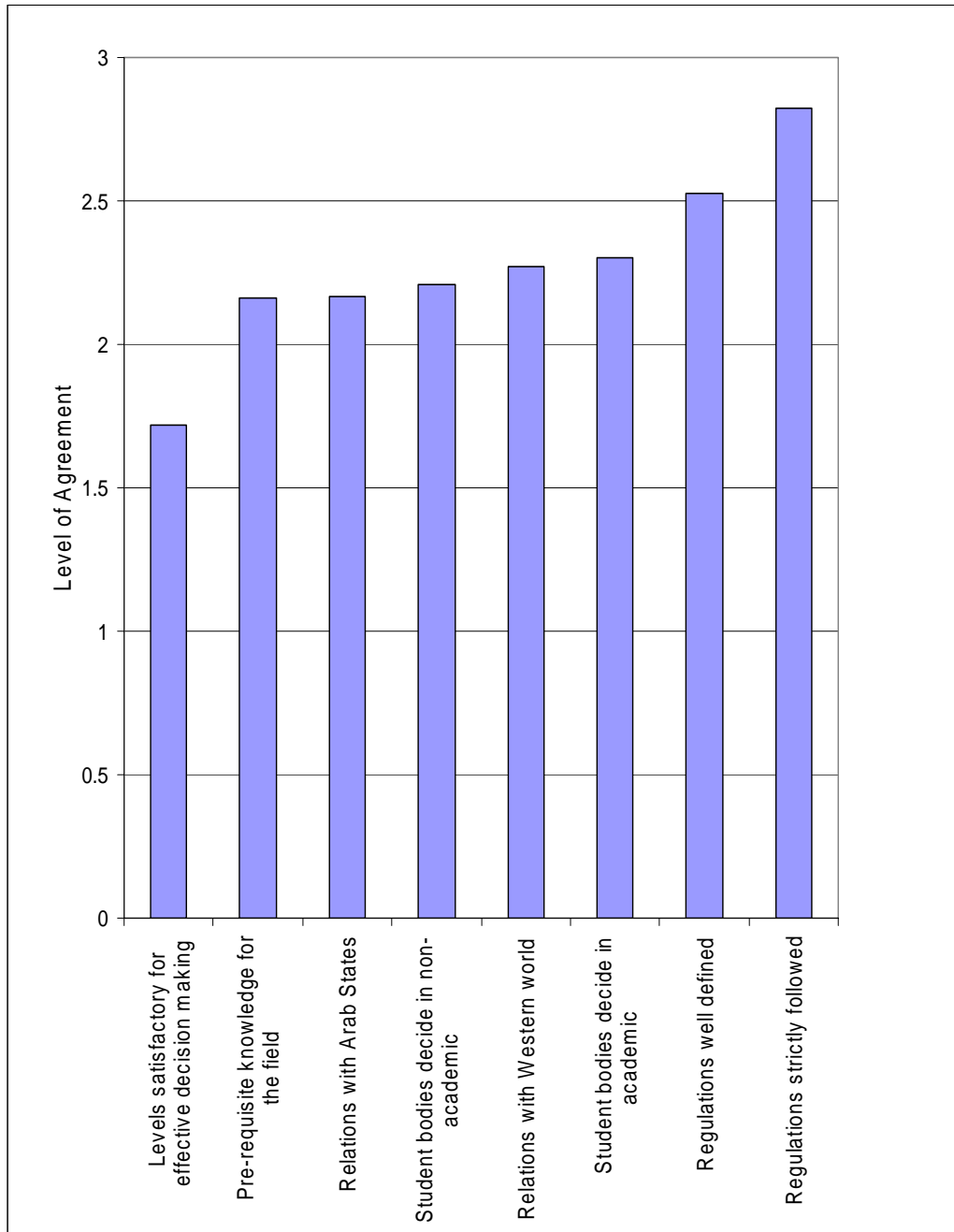


Figure 7.2 Means of Statements Related to Students' Perceptions of the Management Cultures of the Institutions (n=1470)

A prerequisite to academic success is the possession of the basic skills needed for a specific field of study. Student aptitude is also an important input variable used in the rating of institutions, as noted by Benjamin and Hersh (2002). The majority (61%) of

students surveyed indicated that the admission policy adopted by their University was selective ensuring that students possessed the necessary competencies and skills for their field of study. Almost two thirds of the students in each institution indicated that the regulations set by the University were clearly defined. Although responses were varied, a slight majority (55%) of respondents in all universities other than LU agreed with statement 3: *'The regulations set by the University are strictly followed'*. At LU, however disagreement prevailed (57%), for reasons that are not clear. Regarding statement 4: *'The number of levels of authority in the University is satisfactory (not too many) to enable decision making to be effective'* responses were mixed with uncertainty (neutral and not aware of any) constituting at least a third of the responses in each university. In the American modelled institutions and the French patterned institution only a minority (16%) thought that decision making was ineffective due to the levels of authority in the institution while in the Egyptian (28%) and Lebanese (37%) modelled institutions a slightly higher proportion of students thought so. These results support to some degree the findings in Chapter Five in relation to the characteristics of the management cultures of the various institutions of higher learning. Institutions with origins that stemmed from the Arab culture were found to be more bureaucratic and the decision making process less efficient in contrast to institutes headed by foreigners as at AUB(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F).

'It is important to demonstrate that firm national systems for pupil voice are neither part of some Stalinist state nor only associated with transitional economies; they are part of a mature democracy that ensures rights and responsibilities for all its citizens and subjects of whatever age' (Davies 2000, p.2). To what extent the universities in Lebanon have recognised that it is important to involve students in the decision-

making process and to give them some ownership of the educational process is reflected in their responses to two statements: *‘Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various academic functions of the University’*(statement 5) and *‘Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various non-academic functions of the University’*(statement 6). Responses to statement 5 were mixed with some two fifths (42%) of the respondents in most institutions not perceiving a participative role of students in decision-making in relation to academic functions, particularly the respondents of LU (51%) and BAU(Eg:F) (63%). ‘Student voice’ was more readily heard in relation to non-academic functions, although still located by a minority (41%) in three American patterned institutions – AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) – even if rising to just over a half (55%) of students at both NDU(Am:N) and USJ(Fr:F). BAU(Eg:F) (43%) and LU students expressed more distinct disagreement. It may be concluded then that the extent to which students perceive they have a voice in these two universities is in accordance with the cultural backgrounds of the institutions characterized by control and respect for authority, particularly at BAU(Eg:F). As for LU and according to the bylaws, students at LU are active participants in the decision-making process at the various levels of the organisational hierarchy. But as noted by Davies (2000, p.7), ‘Giving pupils a voice is counterproductive if such voices are ignored or incorporated into structures where ...the impact is not felt’, which seems to be the case as suggested by these findings, particularly in relation to academic issues.

Finally, students’ perceptions about the relationships and affiliations established by their universities with the neighbouring Arab States and with the Western World were

the last culture-related issues surveyed in the questionnaire. Although responses were mixed, the majority of students at AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and BAU(Eg:F) acknowledged that their institutions had established good relationships with the Arab States and a third were uncertain or unaware. The proportion of students acknowledging that their universities have good relationships with the Arab States dropped to a third at UOB(Am:F), NDU(Am:N) and USJ(Fr:F) with more than half of the respondents expressing uncertainty. A first reasonable explanation for this difference in response rates may be the fact that the older universities have the advantage of the element of time over which ties and relationships develop. Second, the Arab States provide job markets for the graduates of these universities. Graduates of universities that use English as the medium of instruction have greater opportunities in the Arab States, as the vast majority of these States have adopted the English language in addition to their native Arabic language as a formal language of communication. Management at USJ(Fr:F) are aware of the importance of competence in the English language and have added compulsory English courses to most of their programmes as indicated in interview by the dean of engineering (October 22, 2002) , the secretary general (November 14, 2002) and a chairwoman (October 28, 2002).

In relation to statement (8): *'The University has important relations and affiliations with the Western World – The United States, Europe, Australia, Canada, etc'* the majority of students (58%) expressed agreement and no more than 15% were in disagreement in all American patterned universities and the French university, USJ(Fr:F). At BAU(Eg:F) the findings were somewhat reversed with only 10% agreeing with statement (8) and the remaining responses divided between uncertain

and disagree. It seems natural for universities with western roots and western establishing authorities to preserve existing ties and develop new relations with the Western World. As for the universities with national origins as NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N), such international ties enhance student mobility by providing both academic and non-academic career opportunities. Internationalism promotes the transfer of knowledge, information and skills and also allows for the continuous upgrading of programmes, as 'internationality' has become the essence of success for institutions and a key requirement both for its staff members who no longer enjoy the luxury of job security in such a competitive market and for its graduates for a range of reasons. As for BAU(Eg:F) however, it seems that the administration, in accordance with its mission statement has directed its attention more to serving the needs of the Arab communities and thus has strengthened relationships with these states without emphasising the importance of international relationships, as suggested by the students surveyed.

With regards to the State University LU, only about 15% of the students agreed that the University had important ties and affiliations with the Western World and the Arab States while the remaining respondents were either uncertain or simply disagreed. Initially, the State University was established for the purpose of educating citizens to serve as teachers or civil servants in the Republic of Lebanon. As confirmed by the findings, the main mission of the institution seems to be unchanged and the impact of the ties with the Arab States and the Western World are at least not directly felt by students.

7.3.2 Student Recognition of the Mission of the Institution

The mission of a university, which helps to establish a clear sense of purpose and provides a framework of shared values and beliefs to be employed by all staff members, assists in communication, decision making and the execution of daily operations (Peeke 1994, Bull 1994). My next area of concern was to determine to what extent the mission statement in each institution was translated into tangible objectives and recognised by students. For this purpose, the frequency and the mean of students' responses to 5 statements listed below are summarised in Tables 7. 17 - 7.23 in Appendix 7C. Figure 7.3 provides a graphical representation of the data obtained.

Statements:

1. The University seeks excellence in teaching and learning.
2. Admission to the University is open to all regardless of religion, race, sex and political beliefs.
3. The University has developed programmes geared towards satisfying Lebanese market demands in various sectors.
4. The University has developed programmes geared towards satisfying market demands for the Arab States in various sectors.
5. The University has programmes whereby it provides basic services to Lebanese communities in various regions of the country.

Slightly over half of the students at LU and two thirds in all other universities expressed agreement with statement (1): *'The University seeks excellence in teaching and learning'*. An impressive 80% of the students surveyed in all universities expressed firm agreement with the non-discriminatory statement (2): *'Admission to the University is open to all regardless of religion, race, sex and political beliefs'*.

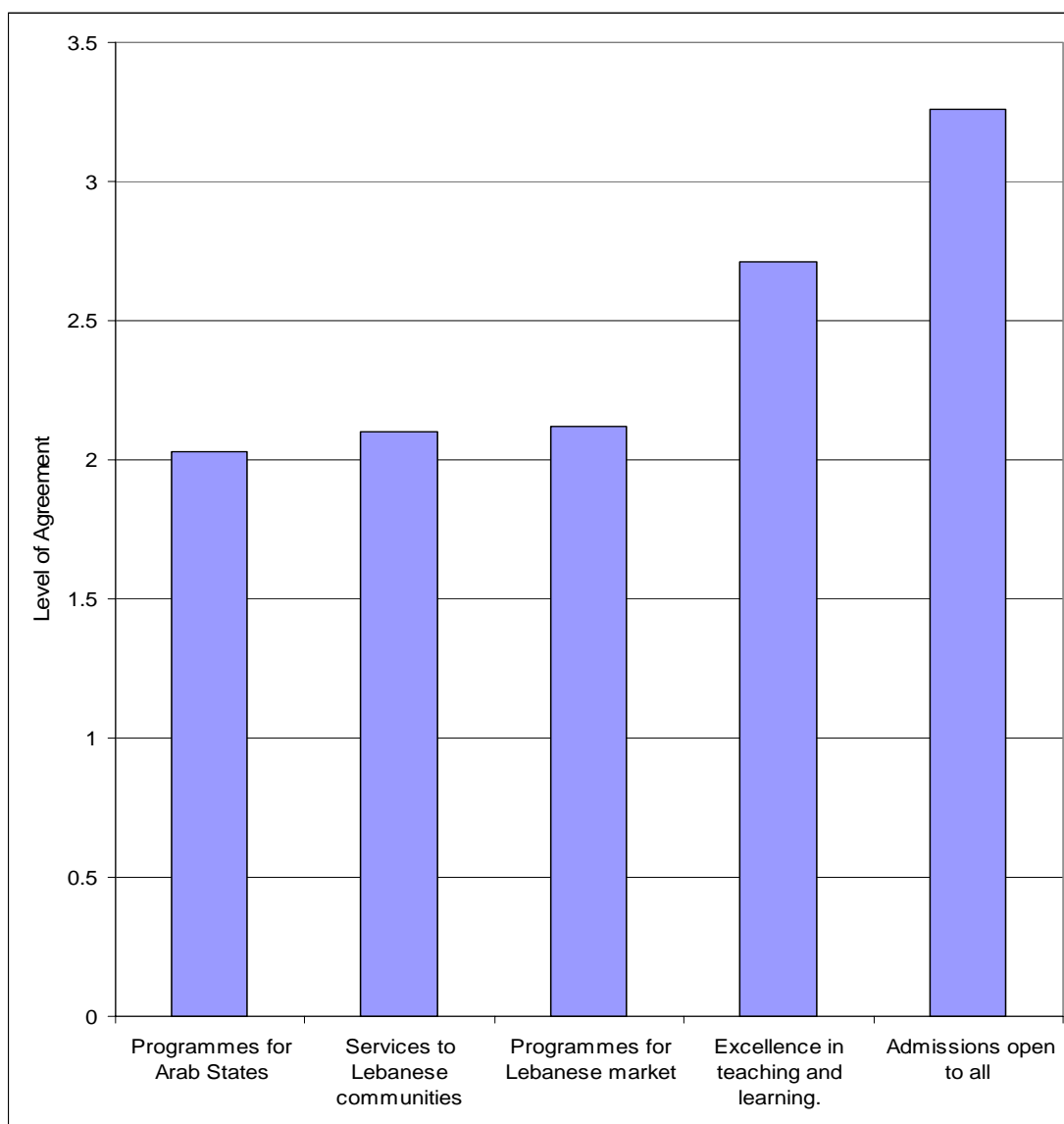


Figure 7.3 Means of Statements Related to Student Recognition of the Mission of Institutions (n=1470)

Students' views were surveyed regarding the relation between the University and the national and regional communities. Their responses were varied about the extent to which the University had developed programmes geared to satisfying Lebanese market demands. Half of the students surveyed at LAU(Am:F), UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N) and slightly less at USJ(Fr:F) believed that their institutions were taking

this important fact into consideration while launching and developing new programmes. This finding is by no means surprising as the young emerging universities such as NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N) and the recently recognised university LAU(Am:F) that cannot depend on their history must develop innovative and marketable programmes in high demand to attract students. At BAU(Eg:F) and AUB(Am:F) students were divided on this issue. With a substantial student body composed of non-Lebanese citizens, particularly prior to the onset of the civil war in 1975 (the non-Lebanese citizens constituted 89.2% and 46.2% of the student bodies at BAU(Eg:F) and AUB(Am:F) respectively during the academic year 1972-1973 (CERD 1973)), it would seem that the development of programmes to satisfy the demands of the Lebanese markets only would not be one of management's foremost priorities. Astounding however was the finding at LU where near two thirds of the respondents disagreed with the statement about the University developing programmes to satisfy the demands of the Lebanese market. A plausible explanation may be that a phenomenal number of students are enrolled in certain programmes as history, philosophy and law where the market seems to be saturated and thus students foresee a bleak future ahead of them.

In all American modelled universities a minority disagreed with statement (4): *'The University has developed programmes geared towards satisfying market demands for the Arab States in various sectors'* with the remaining divided between agree and uncertainty. These findings were reversed at USJ(Fr:F) with no more than a fifth of the students indicating that the University had developed programmes to satisfy the market demands of the Arab States. An explanation for such a finding could be, as indicated above, that English is the language adopted for commercial use in the Arab

States of the Middle East which enhances the possibilities of job opportunities for graduates of American modelled institutions rather than for French modelled and French language universities. This was borne out by the responses of these universities, where students were by no means sure that the University had developed programmes to satisfy the market demands of the neighbouring Arab States.

With regards to the provision of the basic services to the Lebanese community, in all American patterned institutions and the French modelled institution, USJ(Fr:F), responses were varied, but only a fifth thinking their universities did provide such services. Yet community service is a basic component of any faculty members' job description in American modelled universities and therefore this should obviously facilitate the integration of the culture of service within the various curricula and programmes. At BAU(Eg:F) responses varied among the three categories of agree, disagree and uncertain, while at LU some two thirds of the students surveyed considered that the State institution did not provide services to the community. I suppose that the State institution can afford to distance itself from the community, as it is itself sought out by the various factions of the community (being a public institution) and is the only institution with negligible tuition fees providing wide access.

7.33. Students' Perceptions of the Teaching/Learning Process

A major area of concern surveyed through the questionnaires was students' perceptions of the various aspects of the teaching and learning process and the degree of their satisfaction with the education they were receiving. To achieve this end, the frequency of students' responses to a series of statements related to the teaching

learning process and the mean of each statement listed below are summarised in Tables 7.25 – 7.31 in Appendix 7D. The data is displayed graphically in Figure 7.4.

Statements:

1. Professors provide students with detailed syllabi regarding course content and course requirements at the beginning of each course.
2. Students are clearly informed at the beginning of each course of the evaluation procedure to be followed.
3. Professors may in general be considered competent.
4. Professors mainly use the traditional lecturing approach (teacher talks and student listen) in their teaching.
5. Professors use a variety of teaching learning approaches in a course such as the traditional lecturing approach, the inter-active discussion approach (teacher-student or student-student discussions), etc.
6. Professors use modern technologies in their teaching.
7. Courses are designed in a manner that allows all issues (social, political, religious, etc.) to be discussed openly and freely.
8. Courses are designed to encourage student participation in projects and research activity.
9. The curriculum is designed in a manner that ensures students get practical experience related to their education.
10. Students have a wide range of elective courses to choose from.
11. Professors set specific office hours to allow individual students or small groups of students to obtain additional instruction or assistance in their course outside regular class sessions.
12. Academically excellent students (teaching assistants) provide instruction for students with weaknesses in certain areas under the supervision of faculty advisors.
13. As a student you progressed through your field of study towards graduation with few problems as failing or withdrawing from courses or as in changing your major.

14. Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the instructor.
15. Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the administration.

To begin with, students' views regarding the design, the scope and the breadth of the content of courses and curricula were surveyed. Three quarters of the students in each of the private institutes of higher learning confirmed statement (1): *'Professors provide students with detailed syllabi regarding course content and course requirements at the beginning of each course'* and statement (2): *'Students are clearly informed at the beginning of each course of the evaluation procedure to be followed'* indicating that in general the objectives to be achieved and the evaluation criteria were well defined at the onset of each course. At the State University, LU however, the proportion of students agreeing with these statements dropped to a half, with a third expressing disagreement.

Half of the students surveyed in the young emerging American modelled universities as LAU(Am:F), NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N) indicated that the courses were designed in a manner that allowed for the free and open discussion of all political, religious, and social issues, while no more than a fifth suggested the contrary. In the historically grounded institutions, AUB(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F), responses were dispersed among the three choice categories of agree, disagree and uncertain. At BAU(Eg:F) on the other hand no more than 30 percent of the students surveyed agreed that courses were designed to allow for free and open dialogue of all issues while 50 percent were in disagreement. As for LU, the agree response rate decreased to 15% while the disagreement response rate increased to 65%. Many practical

reasons may be given for these findings such as the adoption of the lecture approach in teaching and large class sizes that do not facilitate discussions of any form. It is worthy to note however based on these findings that institutions following western educational models such as the American model and to a lesser degree the French model more readily permit the free and open discussion of most political, social or religious issues. For universities that are deeply rooted in the Arab culture and that have not adopted a western educational model there is a tendency to avoid free expression of opinion and open discussions of issues which are looked upon as sensitive.

Students surveyed in American modelled institutions more frequently (68%) indicated that the courses were designed to encourage student participation in projects and research activity, in contrast with just less than half of the students (47%) at USJ(Fr:F) and BAU(Eg:F) and a third at LU who expressed agreement. These findings are in accordance with those of chapter 4 where it seems that the active involvement of staff members in research - considered a basic component of staff members' job descriptions in most American modelled institutions and essential for promotion and progression in rank – facilitates its incorporation in course design and in turn student involvement in such research activities and projects. For students to develop the ability to think critically and independently Scott (1988) argues that they need to be taught by active not passive spectators in their discipline.

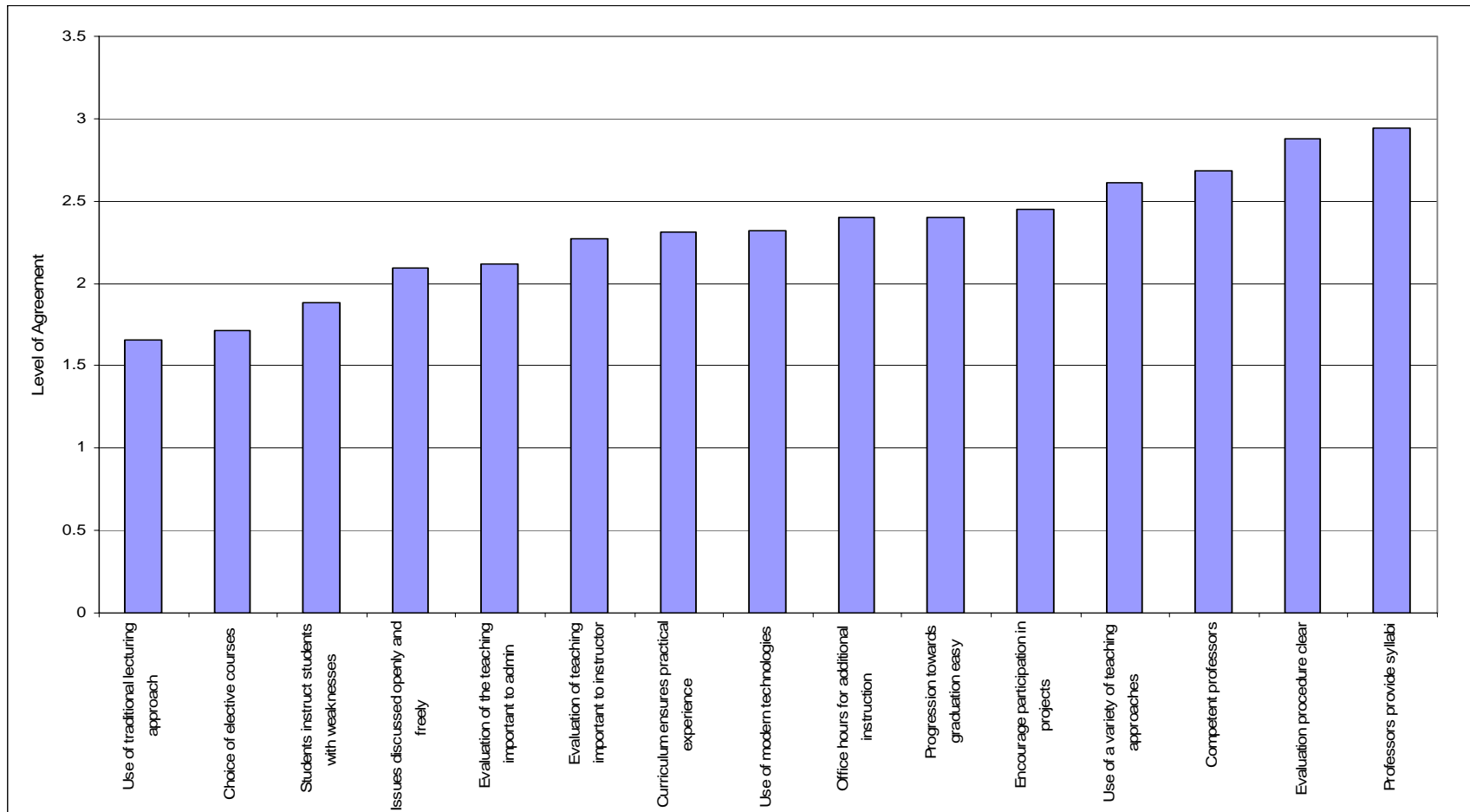


Figure 7.4 Means of Statements Related to Students' Perceptions of the Teaching/Learning Process (n=1470)

In the remaining universities, although the research activity of academic staff was highly appreciated, excellence in teaching seemed to be the sole basic component of faculty members' job descriptions and to some degree a sufficient requirement for progression, as indicated through the semi-structured interviews. Ultimately such weak involvement on the part of academic staff members in research projects will reflect to some extent on the design of courses and the skills acquired by students, as claimed by Volkwein and Carbone(1994). In a study they conducted at a public research institution, students were found to exhibit greater academic integration and intellectual growth in departments that rated high on both research and teaching.

Half of respondents in all private universities indicated that the curriculum was designed in a manner that ensured that students get the appropriate practical experience related to their field of study, in contrast to LU. A feature that clearly distinguishes among the different educational models, the American, the French, the Egyptian and the Lebanese is the freedom to choose from a wide range of elective courses. American patterned universities tend to support course work choice and flexibility essential for maintaining a liberal arts education as suggested by the students' responses to statement (10): *'Students have a wide range of electives to choose from'*. A slight majority (52%) of the students surveyed in American patterned universities were in agreement with this statement. Two thirds of the students surveyed at BAU(Eg:F) and USJ(Fr:F) and even a higher proportion (four fifths) at LU suggested that on the contrary they did not have a range of elective courses to choose from.

According to Rowntree (1987) to discover the truth about an educational system one must look into the student qualities and achievements that are actively valued and rewarded by the system. From the preceding, one may conclude that students in American patterned universities receive a more varied educational experience combining both theory and practice while stimulating inquisitiveness and creativity through the involvement in research activity and projects and allowing some freedom for students to choose courses of special interest to them. In both the French and Egyptian patterned universities, on the other hand, students acquire a solid theoretical education with practical experience in their field of study. Participation in projects and research activity is moderate compared to American patterned universities and the choice of elective courses of special interest to students is lacking to some extent. As suggested by the results of the survey, students at LU perceived that they can acquire a solid theoretical education with scant opportunities to participate in research activity and projects. Further, students' chances of acquiring practical experience in their field of specialty during their course of study are perceived as limited, as are choices of electives. It seems that the teaching learning experiences of students in American patterned universities are relatively more diverse than those of the students in both the French and Egyptian patterned universities and undoubtedly surpass in their diversity the teaching learning experiences of the students enrolled at LU. Universities adopting the American educational system tend to be more adequately achieving the purposes of higher education which are (1) specific vocational preparation, (2) preparation for general employment, (3) preparation for knowledge creation and (4) general educational experience, as outlined by Atkins et al. (1993) in their assessment of student learning in higher education. One must note however that the debate concerning the purposes of higher education has oscillated since the days of

Hippocrates between vocationalism, which stresses the importance of skills and their transferability and truth-seeking which stresses the importance of knowledge and understanding (Brown, Bull and Pendlebury 1997). Accompanying the different views of the purposes of education are varied values assigned to student learning and achievements.

Students' perceptions of the competence of professors, of their teaching styles and of the additional instructional assistance they were provided with, when necessary, were surveyed next. Almost two thirds of the students in the American modelled institutions, the Egyptian patterned BAU(Eg:F) and the State University, LU indicated that they considered their professors to be, in general, rather competent. This proportion increased to four fifths in the French modelled institution, while the proportion of students that viewed their professors as incompetent did not exceed a tenth of all those surveyed. Regarding the teaching/learning approach adopted by professors in their lectures, the majority of students in all institutions suggested that their professors used a variety of teaching approaches such as the traditional lecturing approach, the inter-active discussion approach and others rather than depending mainly on the traditional lecturing approach (teacher talks and student listens).

More than half (60%) of the students surveyed in the American and French modelled institutions agreed that professors '*use modern technologies in their teaching*', while at BAU(Eg:F) student responses were equally divided between agreement and disagreement (38%) and at LU, only a tenth of the students thought they did. This undoubtedly reflects the deterioration in the infrastructure and the condition of facilities at the State University, LU, highlighted in previous chapters and justifies the

pressing calls for reform in order not to restrict quality education to a handful of fortunate and prosperous citizens. Gallant (2000: 73) claims that an important element of technological innovation and adoption is the 'operational support infrastructure'. Zicow (2000) however adds that technology is only a tool and its incorporation in teaching should be for pedagogical purposes driven by issues related to teaching and learning effectiveness (Finley and Hartman 2004, Gallant 2000).

As suggested by two thirds of students at the American and Egyptian modelled universities '*Professors set specific office hours to allow individual students or small groups of students to obtain additional instruction or assistance in their course outside regular class sessions*'. This is not the case at the French modelled USJ(Fr:F) and the Lebanese patterned LU where less than a fifth of the students agreed with the above statement. This feature of the educational system that limits the teaching/learning process to the classroom sets the professor on a pedestal, distancing him or her from the students and thus limiting possibilities for student-staff interaction and the exchange of information and ideas that could prove essential for effective learning. In a study conducted by Terenzini and Pascarella (1980), they found that while not all types of informal student-faculty contact were of equal importance, those that involved the discussion of intellectual matters had more impact on academic achievement. Faculty members thus do play a significant role in the academic achievement skill development of students, a role that as noted by Terenzini and et al. (1984) need not be confined to the classroom.

Student responses were mixed in relation to the statement (12): '*Academically excellent students (teaching assistants) provide instruction for students with*

weaknesses in certain areas under the supervision of faculty advisors' at AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F), UOB(Am:N) and BAU(Eg:F). At NDU(Am:N) however, 60% of the students surveyed confirmed that the University provided teaching assistants for students with special needs, implying that these universities do cater for students with varying intellectual abilities. An equivalent proportion indicated quite the opposite at LU as well as 45% at USJ(Fr:F). Beyond the confines of the classroom setting, students at USJ(Fr:F) and LU could not receive additional instruction or supervision from professors or tutors, unlike their peers in the remaining institutes of higher learning surveyed in the study. It is worth noting however that approximately half of all the students surveyed indicated that they progressed through their field of study without any major difficulties, suggesting that to some extent students initially had the required competencies and skills for their chosen field of study.

The principal component of any staff member's job description at all institutions is teaching. Excellence in teaching, as found previously, is an imperative performance indicator adopted by institutions to measure the effectiveness and productivity of higher learning. It is also one of the most significant factors influencing promotion of academic staff members within most private institutions in Lebanon. This led me to survey students' perceptions in relation to two statements: '*Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the instructor*' and '*Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the administration*'. Agreement prevailed at each of the American and French styled universities, although responses were varied. While the majority of students believed that their evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors was of importance to the instructor at BAU(Eg:F) they asserted it was not so important to the

administration. A plausible explanation for this finding is that most of the staff members at BAU(Eg:F) were experienced and competent professors who have taught previously at Alexandria University (AU) in Egypt and, according to the interviews with staff members, namely a professor and a department chairwoman, have been rewarded by being transferred to BAU(Eg:F) (October 3, October 12). At the State University, LU, on the other hand, most of students considered their feedback - of the teaching/learning process - to be of negligible significance to both professors and the administration, furthermore emphasising the weak measures of accountability adopted by the institution and reinforcing previous results where quality of teaching had negligible impact on promotion and continuation of employment, due to a variety of factors discussed in previous chapters.

7.3.4. Students' Perceptions of the Quality of Academic and Non-academic Services

The next area investigated through the Student Questionnaire was students' perceptions of the quality and standards of both the academic and non-academic services and the various facilities at the universities they attended. Student responses were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from very high, high, average, poor, very poor and not aware of any. Frequencies for each response to each item and the means are summarised in Tables 7.33 – 7.40 (see Appendix 7E). Figure 7.5 gives a graphical display of the data.

Item:

1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is

4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is

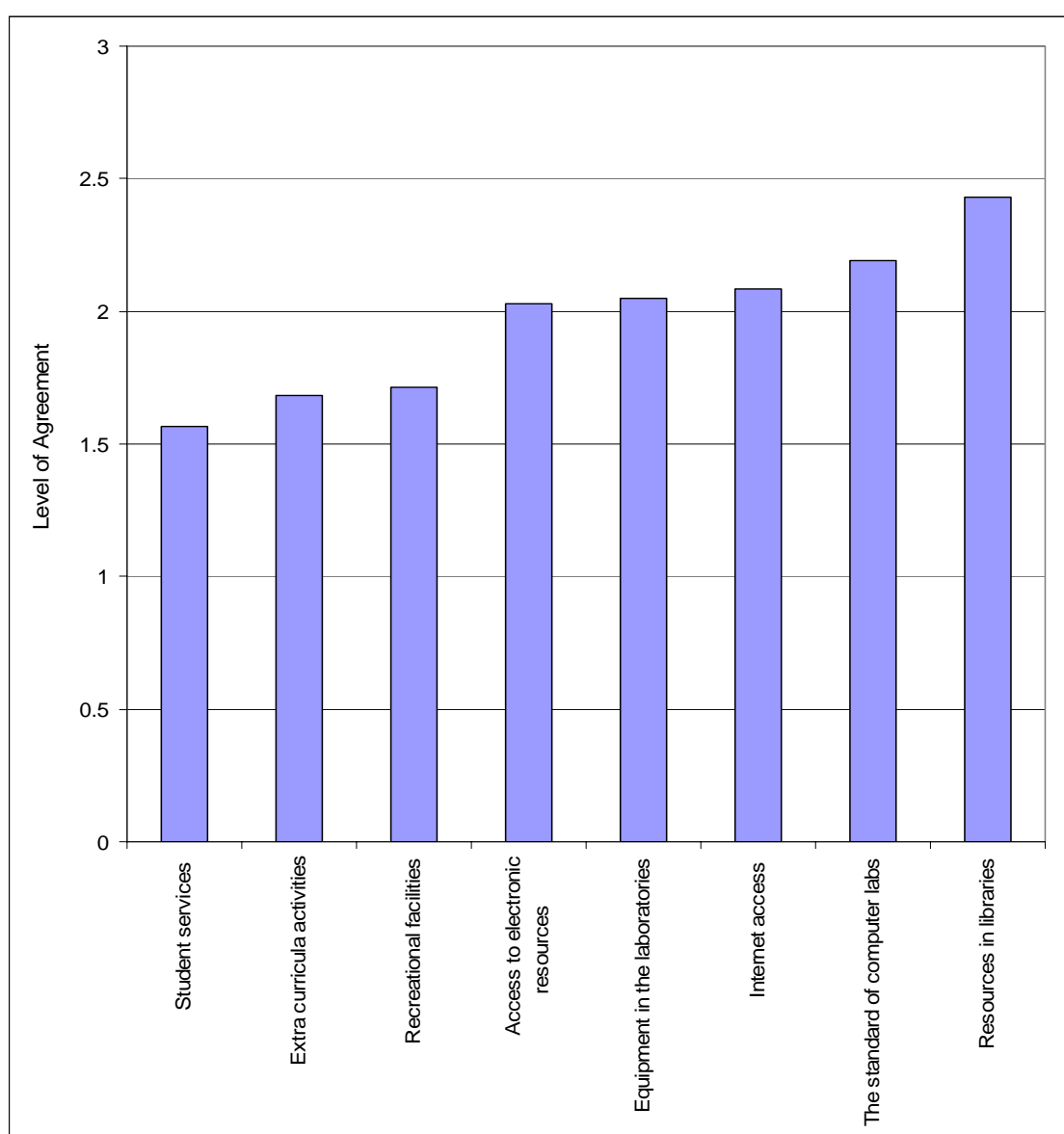


Figure 7.5 Means of Statements Related to Perceived Quality of Academic and Non-academic Services in Institutes of HE

Based on the responses of students enrolled in private institutes, the level of the academic services and facilities such as the level of resources in the libraries, the level of access to on-line data bases, the ease of access to the internet for educational purposes and the standard of computers and equipment in the various labs may be described as high, particularly at AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F) and high to average at NDU(Am:N), UOB(Am:N) and BAU(Eg:F). The standard of the extra curricular activities was seen as high at AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and NDU(Am:N), average at UOB(Am:N) and BAU(Eg:F) and average to poor at USJ(Fr:F). Students at BAU and LAU(Am:F) suggested that the standard of recreational facilities was high, those at UOB(Am:N) and AUB(Am:F) suggested it was average, while students in the remaining private institutes, namely NDU(Am:N) and USJ(Fr:F) suggested it was somewhat average to poor. As for the standard of student services such as housing, food and health services, students at AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) suggested that they were of relatively high quality while students in the other private institutes described such student services as average to poor. At the State University, LU on the other hand, students surveyed described the quality of both academic and non-academic services and facilities as fairly poor. These findings further illustrate the deteriorating standards at LU and the pressing need for renovation and reform.

One may conclude that in terms of quality and standards of both academic and non-academic services and facilities, there is superiority for the American type institutes of higher learning. This is especially true if one considers that the young universities, NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N), are still in the developmental stages, continuously initiating new and novel programmes and constructing buildings, labs and academic and non-academic facilities to house their rapid expansion within panoramic campus

sites. The French University, USJ(Fr:F), shares with the American modelled institutes, particularly the older institutes AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F), quality of academic services. The standard of extra curricular activities and student services such as housing, food and health services in American modelled institutions surpasses those of the French and Egyptian universities except for BAU(Eg:F) scoring high on the standard of recreational and sports facilities. These findings reflect to some degree the concerns of management at USJ(Fr:F) with the knowledge formation of students rather than their total mental and physical development. interview data with staff had revealed a lack of historical concern about extra-curricular or recreational activities at USJ(Fr:F), while in contrast the President of AUB(Am:F) claimed in the University bulletin (May 2004) that such provision was the thing ‘that sets us apart’.

Unlike the private universities in the country, the State University, LU, has had to deal with the issue of mass higher education alongside the growing pressures to perform and excel coupled with the challenges of new forms of learning, new technologies for learning and new competences and skills required of graduates. It has had to deal with these issues with fewer resources in view of declining public funding, a trend which seems irreversible in light of escalating state debts and annual budget deficits looming over the government’s shoulder. Management at LU has had to deal with yet more challenging issues such as: the academic appointment of most staff members including the deans and the president of the University have become political appointments; the selection criteria of academic staff members no longer emphasizes quality academic qualifications; the almost complete absence of research facilities and opportunities at the University which makes it difficult for faculty members to remain up-to-date with the latest developments in their fields and restricts considerably their

research productivity (Tabbarah, 2000); and the physical infrastructure at the LU is inadequate in terms of buildings, laboratories, libraries, offices and outdoor and indoor recreational facilities (Al-Amine 1997). All these factors undoubtedly have had an adverse effect on the quality of education as suggested by the survey findings.

7.3.5. Students' Perceptions of Their Destination on Graduation

The final area investigated through the Student Questionnaire was students' perceptions of their destination upon graduation. Responses of students to five statements listed below in each of the seven universities included in the survey were analyzed. Responses were ranked on a scale of 1 to 6 ranging from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree and do not know. Frequencies and means for each response to each item are summarised in Tables 7.41 – 7.47. Table 7.48 gives the means of each statement for each university (See Appendix 7F). Figure 7.6 gives a graphical display of the data.

Statements:

1. The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in reputable organisation or firm in the Lebanese market.
2. The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organisation or firm in the Arab States.
3. The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organisation or firm in the international market.
4. The University aids students in various ways in finding jobs after graduation as in organising career fairs and events in which students can meet employers.
5. The degree you attain upon graduation allows you to continue your education in internationally recognised universities.

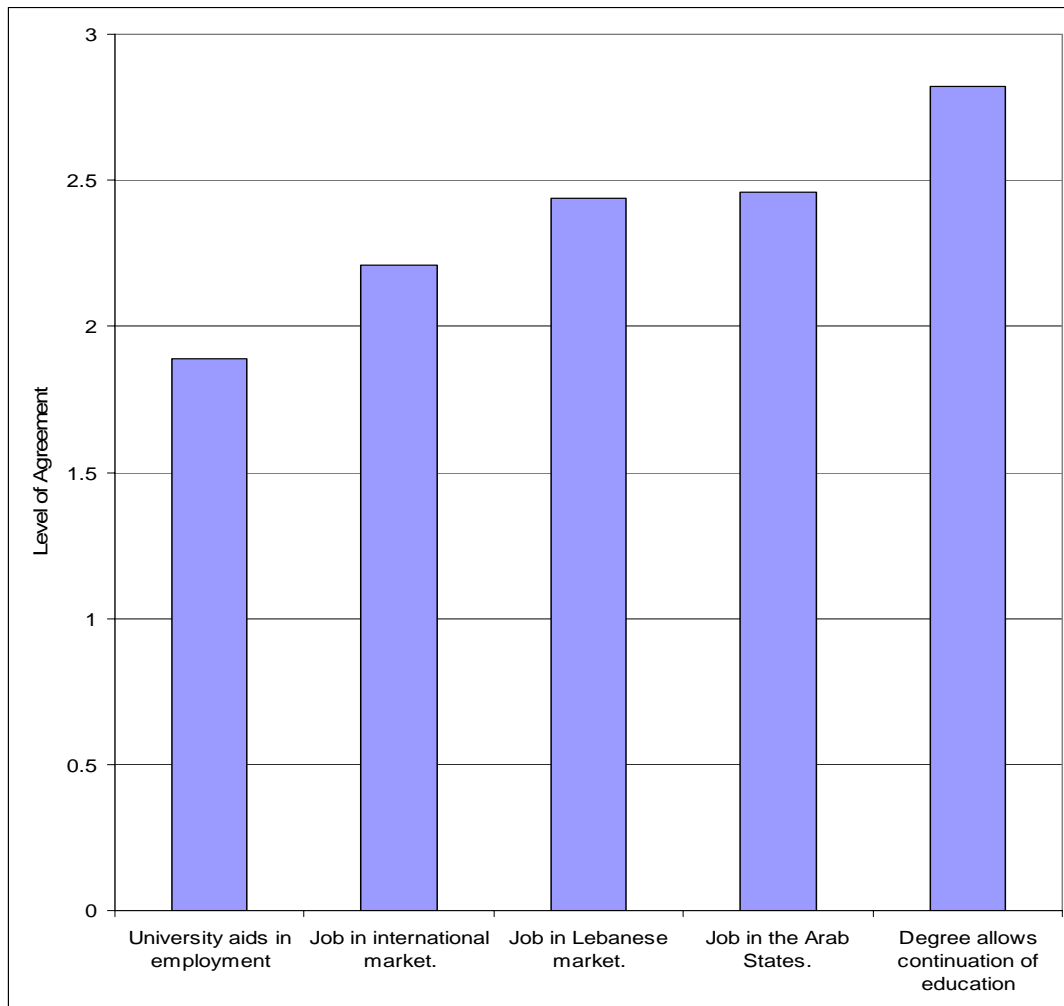


Figure 7.6 Means of Statements Related to Students' Perceptions of Destination on Graduation for all Institutions (n=1470)

Almost two thirds of students in American patterned universities and the French modelled institution believed that their degrees would enable them to find jobs in the Lebanese markets and the Arab States with a slightly smaller proportion – approximately half - indicating that their degrees would enable them to find jobs in the international market. Around a quarter to a third of the students in these universities however were not sure whether they would be able to find jobs in these various markets. Two fifths of the students at BAU(Eg:F) felt that the degree they

attained upon graduation would enable them to find jobs in Lebanon and the Arab States while almost a third were uncertain of the job prospects available to them in these regional markets. Two fifths expressed uncertainty or disagreement with regards to the possible job opportunities open to them in the international markets. Students surveyed at LU had a gloomier vision of their job prospects with a third believing that their degree would enable them to find a job in the Lebanese markets, a quarter suggesting that they would find jobs in the Arab States and only 15% indicating possibilities of job opportunities in the international markets upon graduation. These findings are in accordance with previous findings which one could attribute to students' lack of confidence in the quality of education they were attaining if not for the astonishing finding where 70 to 80% of students surveyed in all institutions believed that the degree they attained upon graduation would allow them to continue their education in internationally recognised universities. There is no doubt however that the history of the institutions, the educational system adopted by the institution and the relationships established over time with potential employers, strengthened and proven credible through the performance of their graduates over the years, explains these latter findings to some extent.

In relation to the statement '*The University aids students in various ways in finding jobs after graduation as in organising career fairs and events in which students can meet employers*' the majority of students in the historically grounded institutions AUB(Am:F), USJ(Fr:F) and LAU(Am:F) agreed. Responses were varied in the young American modelled universities NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N), while at BAU(Eg:F) the majority of students disagreed with this statement and just over 15% expressed agreement. At LU two thirds of the students surveyed indicated that the university did

not aid students in finding job opportunities through the organisation of career fairs probably as such events are organized at a national level to include students of all institutions of higher learning.

7.4 Gender and Educational Experiences

The gender analysis was further sustained in relation to the educational experiences of students that included five major themes: the management culture of the university, the realisation of the mission of the university, aspects of the teaching/learning process, the quality and standard of both the academic and non-academic facilities, and career opportunities after graduation. Students' recognition of the mission of the university and their perception of the quality of academic and non-academic facilities was not found to be influenced by gender. Gender however was found to have an impact on students' perceptions of the management culture of an institution, particularly those related to institutional rules and regulations and to institutional affiliations with the Western World. Males more than females thought that the rules and regulations set by the institution were clear and well defined. Similarly more males in comparison to females seemed to believe that the university had important relationships and affiliations with the Western World. This final finding complies with the previous gender analysis finding (chapter 7, [section 7.2](#)) where more males in contrast to females indicated that their choice of institution was influenced by its international standing. In conformity also is the finding that more males than females perceived the university as assisting in various ways in finding career and job opportunities after graduation. These findings further reinforce the masculine characteristic of the Lebanese society discussed earlier.

With regards to the teaching/learning process, gender differences were found in connection to the teaching methodologies adopted by faculty members. First, females more than males tended to perceive the syllabi describing course content and requirements to be lacking in detail. Further, females more frequently indicated that professors used a variety of teaching methodologies in their teaching such as the interactive discussion approach as well as the traditional lecture approach. In a study conducted by Philbin et al. (1995) they found significant gender differences in learning styles. The traditional educational setting appealed more to males since it was primarily abstract and reflective while females learned better in an environment that emphasised the realm of the affective and doing.

7.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, factors influencing the choice of university were reported including the influence of gender. The findings suggested that there was a relationship between gender and three institutional choice items, namely the international standing of the institution, its political affiliation and its geographic location. These institutional choice items bear economic and cultural dimensions distinctive to Lebanon and the region of the Near East. To determine whether students' overall educational experiences were quite as they expected their views and perceptions in five major areas were solicited. These areas were (1) the management culture of the university, (2) the realisation of the mission of the university, (3) the teaching/learning process, (4) the quality and standards of academic and non-academic facilities and (5) career opportunities and prospects upon graduation.

It was found that major differences in pedagogical approaches exist among the different institutions based on the culture of the institution and the educational model that has been adopted by the institution, whether American, French, Egyptian or Lebanese. Students enrolled in American type institutions where the culture of control is less pronounced expressed a positive overall satisfaction with the education they are getting. They are active learners. Their education is a mixture of theory, application which entails some community service, and research, thus offering them adequate preparation for their career that lies ahead. They consider the knowledge and skills they have acquired render them attractive to various local, regional and international markets. Even though two of the American universities – UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N) - were young, students still expressed satisfaction with their educational experience. This experience was not complete, however due to deficiencies in academic and non-academic resources and facilities, specifically as these universities are still in the construction and developmental stages. A supportive management culture encouraging the introduction of innovative teaching methods, the use of modern technologies, and the production of collective research teams, probably to serve the national interests at the early stages, may help these young universities create a niche for themselves within the Lebanese and regional communities.

Students studying at the French type (USJ(Fr:F)) and Egyptian type (BAU(Eg:F)) universities characterized by a culture of control were receiving sound and solid knowledge and theoretical instruction, with practical experience related to their field of specialisation but few opportunities to participate in research, basically since research was not a mandatory part of faculty members' job description, particularly in French type institutes. Watson (2002: 184) asserts,

‘Inside the academy ‘excellence’ is mostly related to research...carefully focused research is a legitimate part of the mission of all higher education institutes (HEIs); that - to put it in reverse – there is no such thing as a ‘teaching only’ university’.

An obligation of the university to students, which is the development of intellectual independence, is thus lacking. Regardless, most students expressed satisfaction with the education they are obtaining, possibly since they have not been exposed to more liberal forms of learning whereby firstly students are actually involved in the creation of knowledge by participating in research and project activity rather than merely being recipients of knowledge and information and secondly whereby through its regular programmes and the extra curricular activities students develop skills and competencies in areas they find personally interesting and rewarding.

Students studying at LU were attaining a solid theoretical education; no more, no less. Their educational experiences in comparison to the experiences of students in the private institutes in the country were deficient in most areas that distinguished higher learning from the preceding secondary educational level. This may be attributed to several factors. Foremost the inadequacy of physical infrastructure which is sufficient for only a third of the academic staff and student body (Al-Amine 1997) is a major obstacle daunting the enthusiasm of individuals and hindering effective interaction in the teaching learning process. As there is substantial research evidence to suggest that the active engagement of students and faculty members in the teaching/learning process fosters critical thinking and student learning (McKeachie 1990, Kember and Gow 1994), it would seem that attention should be given to this ‘arena of social interaction’ (Howard 2002, p. 764).

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUDING REFLECTIONS

Introduction

After an in depth investigation of the higher education system in Lebanon, this final chapter first identifies the principal organisational features and management cultures in seven institutes of higher education each adopting a different educational system, but derived from four types – American, French, Egyptian and Lebanese. McNay's model of university cultures - collegium, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise - formed of the two dimensions of policy definition and control over implementation, both defined as either loose or tight, was used as a main reference to attempt to classify the management cultures of the institutions and to determine the appropriateness of fit of the model in the Lebanese context. Further explanations for the variations seen in the institutions were then examined. The chapter also focuses on institutional autonomy, a differentiating feature between private and public institutes of higher learning, and the notion of accountability. Differences in the pedagogical approaches adopted by institutions are also highlighted. Finally, the implications or recommendations that stem from the major themes that have emerged will be highlighted.

8.1 Organisational Structures

The organisational structures were found to differ based on the educational model adopted by the institutions and occasionally even among institutions following the same educational model. An organisational hierarchy is extensive in both the French and Lebanese educational models creating a distance between the helm (the level

where decisions are made) and the operational levels (the level of those effectively involved in delivering and receiving the services of higher education). Although the levels of hierarchy at BAU(Eg:F) are fewer, the structure itself is more rigid with rules and regulations governing procedures. Like LU and USJ(Fr:F), this is a type of management distinctive of Continental Europe, Africa and Asia. It is characterised by centralized planning and control, according to a classification of management trends by Sanyal (1995). Decisions are made by central administration without the participation of staff members or, as at LU, with minimal impact due to the influence of different interest groups thus nullifying the effects of any democratic procedures adopted by the institution.

Although the organisational structure of American patterned universities was similar to a large degree, major differences were found in relation to the participatory role of staff members in the decision-making process and accordingly the level of democratic representation. At AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) the structures are rigid with standard operating procedures governing operations at each level. The flatter hierarchy at LAU(Am:F) however leads to some blurring among the levels rendering decision-making more participatory. At AUB(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) the Senate permits extensive representation of academic staff and faculty and fits in well with the values of the Weaver Committee (1996) which endorsed a belief that the vitality of an organisation is dependent on the cooperative effort of academics to achieve a joint purpose, with impulses of command moving not only downwards but also upwards. Faculty and staff members had mixed feelings about the 'open door policy' adopted at UOB(Am:N) but the tendency was towards more structure and standard operating procedures, thus following suit of other American patterned universities. This

development is probably a consequence of growth in size (McNay 2002) and is being paralleled at NDU(Am:N). The only difference is that at NDU democratic practices are seen as scant, with faculty representation limited to one individual. Such a practice may lead to the creation of 'the servant of the committee' as referred to by McNay (1995), particularly in a culture that stresses loyalty to senior management. McNay further notes that in such a culture 'the servant of the committee' may gradually distance himself or herself from ordinary colleagues not involved in the formal decision-making mechanism and eventually lose their trust.

8.2 Management Cultures

It was established that there is no single management culture distinctive of the educational model or the organisational structure of the institutes of higher learning. On the contrary, elements of all four cultures exist in all universities. The only institution that may be classified as collegial is LU, at least in relation to the two dimensions of definition of policy and control over implementation. No clear-cut categorisation based on these two dimensions may be made in relation to the remaining universities. All universities however appear to distinctively exhibit features of a bureaucracy and of a corporation, but still no neat categorisation of management cultures emerged from the combination of various data sources used in the study.

The implications of a bureaucratic management culture are numerous. Bureaucracy essentially implies that regulation is important. 'This can have many positive objectives: consistency of treatment in areas such as equal opportunity or financial allocations; quality of activities by due process of consideration;...; efficiency

through standard operating procedures' (McNay 1995: 106) and should be implemented at all levels of the organisational hierarchy following a clear chain of command that originates at the summit and moves downward. The organisational cultures of the universities of Lebanon however do not fit completely with this description of a bureaucracy, for the following reasons.

Gender representation seems to be a contradiction to the first positive objective of a bureaucracy about 'consistency of treatment in areas such as equal opportunity'. Female representation, which is quite low not only in relation to senior administrative positions but also among teaching staff may be attributed to the Lebanese and Middle Eastern culture considered to be patriarchal. A female has never been a president of any university. Only at LAU(Am:F) has there been a female vice-president, namely the vice-president of student affairs. Rarely have females been appointed as deans. Interesting, however, is the fact that universities with western origins have not made any worthwhile contribution in the direction of reversing this trend, probably as America is considered to be a relatively masculine country where gender roles are clearly defined (as claimed in a research study conducted by Hofstede (1984) or possibly simply as Lebanese females have accepted the role the Lebanese society has set for them, which may be safely assumed to be a masculine society, according to Malek (2001). This is clearly conveyed in an interview with a female lawyer.

'I have chosen to teach law rather than practice it although I love practicing law. Teaching is an answer for my special needs. First, practicing law is very time consuming, Second, I am a female and must hold onto to my femininity. Third, I do not want to compete with my husband. That is absolutely impossible' (Faculty member, USJ(Fr:F), November 12, 2002).

The personalised form of management revealed in interview quotes that we saw through expressions such as ‘it is clannish, family-like’, ‘it is only human to choose people you trust’ and ‘each manger protects his or her territory’ also seems to violate the bureaucratic objective about ‘consistency of treatment’. One probable consequence of this personalised mode of management is that it alienates those not ‘chosen’ and frequently gives rise to reactions of resentment. Another possible outcome is that it incites sentiments of commitment and loyalty to the institution but primarily to one’s superiors who possess the power of decision, although in varying degrees depending on the rank of the superior in the organisational hierarchy. This personalised mode of management is to some degree even in contradiction with the corporate culture, which although dominant in the treatment of people with an emphasis on loyalty, is believed by Handy (1993) to be a culture for crisis and not for continuity. The opposite seems to be true in the Lebanese context as the sentiments of power and control enjoyed by authority versus the sentiments of loyalty and submissiveness endured – willingly or not – by subordinates are deep-seated cultural traits of the people of the Middle East, further strengthened through lack of opportunity to permit mobility, particularly nationally, and a desire for stability of employment usually not guaranteed in private institutes.

Other objectives of a bureaucracy such as ‘quality of activities by due process of consideration and efficiency through standard operating procedures’ tend to lose some of their positive aspects in the Lebanese context. Decisions appear to be made in an environment where the general desired outcomes are made explicit to all concerned parties or members of the committee with no one ‘daring to fall out of line’, as stated in interview by a senior faculty member at AUB(Am:F) who spoke with nostalgia

about the good old collegial era (August 14, 2002). Decision-making then is effectively confined to senior officers in the centre of the organisation (as in a corporation) although it appears to the observer that committees are the arena for policy development or consultations with senior officers. An alternative approach focuses on excessive delays in the decision-making process characterised by the passive involvement, if any at all, of faculty members in the process in a general environment markedly lacking in transparency. Rules and regulations tend to be consistently violated or stretched to accommodate for exceptions, voiding the decision-making process of impartiality. In such a culture characterised by differentiation, even the implementation of measures of accountability (at least in relation to decision-making which is a consistent requisition of faculty members across the universities) becomes futile. It is thus very difficult to categorise the management cultures of the universities in Lebanon using McNay's two dimensional model of definition of policy and control over implementation. Definition of policy and control over implementation may simultaneously be both loose and tight, where personalised forms of management dominate managerial processes and procedures.

While the model does not work perfectly, it enables us to posit some interesting connections. A first element worthy of note is that the degree of democracy seems to be directly proportional to the type of policy definition and the level of control over implementation. Where there is loose policy definition and loose control over implementation, democracy manifested through the degree of representation and the mode of representation – election versus appointment - is extensive. This particularly is the case at LU, as not only faculty but also students are elected by colleagues to represent them at various levels of the organisation hierarchy. On the other hand,

where there is tight policy definition and tight control over implementation, democracy is shallow. This is typical of BAU(Eg:F) where faculty representation is totally absent in the governing bodies of the institution and at NDU(Am:N) where faculty representation is limited to the election of just one member of the teaching staff. Faculty member representation in the governing bodies of central administration is relatively weak at USJ(Fr:F) and is manifested through the deans who are themselves faculty from within the institution elected by the faculty upon nomination by the president. The management style is just slightly more democratic than that of BAU(Eg:F) but is scant in comparison to most American patterned universities, namely AUB(Am:F), LAU(Am:F) and UOB(Am:N) where faculty representatives from all faculties of the institution are elected by colleagues. Thus these three universities may be considered exceptions to the supposition of proportionality between control and democracy. One plausible reason could be, simply, that these Universities follow the American educational model and they are influenced by the democratic processes of its culture. Further, the flatness of hierarchy unique to LAU(Am:F) that necessitates the distribution of authority and responsibility among a wider base could be an underlying factor for its broad democracy.

Another factor influencing control could be the delegation of power manifested in various forms. Control is at optimal level at BAU(Eg:F), with the highest governing authorities in the Alexandria University of Egypt delegating authority to an Egyptian professor of AU who is appointed president of BAU(Eg:F). This president of BAU(Eg:F) in turn appoints loyal senior Egyptian administrators from AU to assist him in administrating the university. At USJ(Fr:F) and NDU(Am:N) the governing church authorities delegate authority to a president from among its members who in

turn appoints loyal senior administrators to assist him in his numerous tasks. At USJ(Fr:F) the senior administrators are usually distinguished teaching-staff of the institution who have proven their loyalty to the institution. Where power is delegated to a president not directly related to the establishing authorities, control is seen to be more relaxed as at UOB(Am:N), LAU(Am:F), LU and AUB(Am:F). There can be devolution of power which refers to the transfer and subsequent sharing of power between the establishing authorities and the president rather than deconcentration of power which involves the realignment and redistribution of powers and mandates away from the centre of the organisation.

8.3 Categorising and Comparing Higher Education Institutions in Lebanon

Given the similarities and the differences between the seven institutions, McNay's model seems to have some uses, but it appears over simple in a Lebanese environment. As well as questions of policy control and implementation, there are a number of factors which are impinging on management cultures which would need to be incorporated into any model. I discuss two major areas here:

- degree of secularisation
- history and culture (Lebanese, Arab and Western)

8.3.1 Degree of Secularisation

The secularisation of the institution has an impact on its management culture and explains to some extent the level of control and democracy within the institution and the diverse audiences it attracts. The Lebanese Republic is made up of different confessional communities. Each community has claimed the legitimate right to

establish an institute of higher education that would issue forth from the community serving the cause of knowledge and the interests of the community, Lebanon and the region. The Lebanese Moslem Welfare Society founded BAU(Eg:F) with a view to providing opportunities of learning to students of Lebanon, the Arab and Islamic Worlds with special emphasis on reinforcing the Arabic and Islamic culture and transmitting its heritage, as mentioned in the statement of purpose of the institution. With such a vision BAU(Eg:F) has limited its audiences to the people of these countries. NDU(Am:N), established during the devastating civil war that almost led to a complete destruction and metamorphosis of the social fabric of the Lebanese community, emanated from the Lebanese Maronite Church. With two private Catholic institutes of higher learning, namely USJ(Fr:F) and USEK following the French educational model, NDU(Am:N) adopted the American educational model in an attempt to satisfy the varied needs of the community and to attract a wider audience. The purpose for its establishment is clearly conveyed in the following mission statement.

‘The cultural and spiritual heritage of the Maronite Order of the Holy Virgin Mary highlights a belief in a unified Lebanon, a belief in education as a means of protection against fanaticism and corruption and a dedication for freedom of thought and expression. The University espouses such values and beliefs irrespective of colour, creed, race or gender....’ (p. 3)

UOB(Am:N) on the other hand was established towards the end of the war and emanated from the Greek Orthodox community to serve the community, Lebanon and the Arab East. In its statement of purpose, a management culture that combines control with democracy – in terms of *cooperation* and transparency - may be identified.

‘Christian-Muslim understanding involves rigorous cooperation between the two communities to realize great national objectives, for isolationism, fundamentalism, and fanaticism disrupt national unity and hinder progress....’

The University relies on knowledge, openness, and dialogue as paths to cooperation and cultural development, fully recognizing that development depends on interaction with other cultures to further peace, justice, and basic values.’

In the secular institutions as LU and to a lesser extent AUB(Am:F), control is light and democratic processes are copious. The LU is a state university for all Lebanese regardless of creed and gender. Its faculties and branches are dispersed over the entire country offering affordable opportunities of learning to citizens of the state. The missionary that founded AUB(Am:F) stemmed from a creed foreign to Lebanon and therefore did not find rich soil to germinate and expand. Management at AUB(Am:F) eventually conceded its religious orientations and embraced all communities of the country, the region and even the international community. Hence it is not just the religious base, but the extent to which it is continued or minimized over time which conditions management culture.

8.3.2 History and the Lebanese, the Arab and the Western Cultures

Other key factors that impact on the management culture of the institutions are the history of the institutions and the culture and heritage of the establishing authorities. BAU(Eg:F) is an institution deeply rooted in the Arabic and Islamic culture, a rich culture characterized by an extensive history of war, conflict and struggle. It was founded at a time when the only institutions in the country other than the State University were of western origin or influenced by western ideology and originated from different Christian sects. UOB(Am:N) and NDU(Am:N) are national Christian institutions influenced by a culture typical of the Arab East, a region in which Christianity along side Islam flourished and yet continuously clashed. They were both established during the civil war that led to increased fundamentalism and fanaticism in the Lebanese community threatening its unity. While BAU(Eg:F) sought as an

audience the Arab and Islamic worlds, NDU(Am:N) and UOB(Am:N) sought initially all factions of the Lebanese community while emphasising their Arab roots and reaching out to cultures of the West. The Arab culture is thus one of continuous conflict and struggle, an environment which is seen to necessitate the enforcement of authority by those in power. Control is an integral part of the culture which may explain the lack of political democracy in this part of the world, although Lebanon is considered to some extent an exception to the rule in the Arab world.

The history of the people of the region has also impacted on the management culture of the institutions. From the Ottoman rule to the British and French mandates, the peoples of the region have been the subjects of various forms of oppression. With independence nothing has changed much. There is simply a new group of oppressors exercising power over their subordinates to assert their control. This explains to some degree the tight control over implementation that characterises the management cultures of these institutions. It also explains the bureaucracy in the systems at BAU(Eg:F), NDU(Am:N) and to a lesser degree at UOB(Am:N) as expressed through the interviews, where a clear chain of command necessitates assertion of control at each level of the hierarchy and loyalty of subordinates to senior officers, due to the adoption of a personalised mode of management. Probably control could be relaxed if measures of accountability were enforced strictly and impartially. The implementation of such a personalised mode of management further impedes transparency.

The impact of these factors on the management culture of the State University have resulted contrarily in fluidity in general policy definition and in control over implementation, as authorities and responsibilities are blurred and change with changing circumstances. The independence of the Lebanese State acted as a catalyst

for the development and expansion of a national system of education with higher education at the pinnacle of the system rather than just having private institutions for the elite only. The establishment of LU in 1953 was designed to emphasize its role as a national entity and to provide the means of perpetuating particular 'knowledge traditions' considered to be unique expressions of the Nation's exceptionalism. Despite the enduring themes such as 'democracy' and 'assertion' that accompanied the development of LU it could not isolate itself from its heritage. It has been continuously subjected to a tug-of-war behaviour between national, regional and foreign influences. The war has only amplified LU grievances. The collegial management style at LU still exists not because of a belief that it is the appropriate management culture for mass higher education but rather due to an inability to put change into effect. This results from multiple political, secular and non-secular interferences, leading to a further gradual decline in LU's autonomy and thus prohibiting the appointment of a group of people who are individually committed to excellence and equally capable of attaining it, the first basic requirement of effective collegiality (Baldwin, 1996). Moreover, accountability and transparency appear to be absent at LU, which is no surprise as they equally appear absent in most private institutes of the country.

The institutions of western origin in which control over implementation is less pronounced have had to operate however within this general environment and culture. The Arab culture has impacted more heavily on the management style at USJ(Fr:F) as the Christian community in Lebanon readily identified with the establishing authorities of the institution. The French mandate over Lebanon further reinforced the concept of control but more one of centralised planning and control while preserving

the autonomy of entities and individuals. Those in management at AUB(Am:F) and LAU(Am:F) have found themselves after the war forced to become more bureaucratic and corporate to neutralise the conflicting spheres of power and influence within the Lebanese community but have had to deal less gravely with such spheres of power as they have originated in churches not rooted in the country. Accordingly the University has been able to address a broader audience than other universities, extending beyond Lebanon to the Arab world and countries of the Middle East and international communities. In particular at LAU(Am:F), control and bureaucracy have characterised the management style since its development, as initially it was an institution offering opportunities of learning to females within a society that did not believe in equal opportunities of education for males and females. Management at LAU(Am:F) progressed cautiously in such a culture, preserving the masculine values of the society in which gender roles are rigidly defined, according to Hofstede (1984).

As peace firmly settled in the country, foreigners were reappointed as presidents of the institutions at AUB(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F). Such appointments would gradually weaken the cultural effects and their impact on the management culture of the organisations and pave the way for reform. This has been accompanied by the implementation of more stringent accountability measures, particularly at AUB(Am:F). To realise reform, AUB(Am:F) has all faculty members actively involved in an accreditation process, an approach to reform based on an awareness that change cannot be realised unless all faculty members collectively and individually put change in effect. LAU(Am:F) has embarked on a similar course of action but at a much slower pace as it awaits the new Lebanese president from the US to assume his post. USJ(Fr:F) has expanded and diversified its academic programmes

and adopted in 2003 a new educational system similar to that of the American credit system based on modules, as is the case in most European universities. The purpose of such a shift is to provide their students with mobility, particularly to France and Europe, through the transfer of modules.

In light of the above, it seems that McNay's model that provided four possibilities of collegium, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise based on two dimensions is useful up to a point to start to look at who defines policy and who controls implementation. In the Lebanese context two other possible dimensions impact on organisational culture: (1) degree of secularisation and (2) the combined effect of culture and history. The rich description of the culture of the peoples of the Lebanon and the Near East and the history of the institutions that has preceded depicts culture not as a single dimension but as a highly complex set of interacting variables. In such a Lebanese cultural context, these dimensions become overlaid with highly complex and fluid features and it is impossible to categorise institutions of higher learning into simple cultural types.

8.4 Institutional Autonomy and Accountability

As well as cultures, the study also wanted to look at how autonomous higher education institutions were, and in relation to this, to whom they were seen to be accountable. Institutional autonomy was indeed found to be a differentiating factor among institutes of higher learning, namely private and public institutes. Characterising public policy towards higher education as 'laissez-faire' is justifiable in light of the fact that faculty and staff members in both private and public institutions believed that the government does not determine the desired process or

outcomes to be met by institutions. Institutional autonomy however was perceived differently by faculty and staff members in the private and public sectors. Faculty and staff members of private institutions believed the management of their universities enjoyed considerable autonomy to manage their internal affairs both academically and financially, while those in public institutions believed that their internal autonomy was impinged on by the government, particularly financially.

The notion of accountability was investigated at two levels, institutional and individual, and did not differ between the private and public sector. At the institutional level, the major stakeholders of institutes of higher learning from the point of view of faculty and staff members were the establishing authorities of the institutions and the students. At the individual level, progression in rank and promotion within institutions was dependent on research productivity, research publications with priority to international publications over national ones and quality of teaching.

8.5 Pedagogical Approaches

This leads on to pedagogical issues and comparisons. There were found to be major differences in the pedagogical approaches adopted by institutions following different educational systems. American patterned universities and to a lesser degree the Egyptian University, BAU(Eg:F), were said to concentrate on the formation and the development of the student as a total being through the regular curricula programmes that incorporated a range of elective courses and extra-curricular programmes. For this purpose there are specific but different bodies responsible for academic and student affairs. The function of the academic boards or committees is the continuous

assessment of existing educational programmes and the development of new ones using market-sensitive criteria. Student affairs services on the other hand deliver university policies on total student development - social, intellectual, physical, emotional and moral. Other universities, namely the Egyptian University – BAU(Eg:F), the French University – USJ(Fr:F) and the Lebanese University - LU concentrate on the knowledge formation of the student and the acquisition of skills and competencies directly related to his or her field of study. There is a complete absence of either academic or student affairs bodies. It is these bodies that represent a distinctive quality attribute of American universities, thus providing them with a competitive edge in the Lebanese higher education market.

8.6 Implications for Future Research

The findings suggest that McNay's two dimensional model of policy definition and control over implementation that yields four cultural types does serve initially as a basis for categorising the organisational culture of the institutes of higher learning in Lebanon, but it cannot not take into account the bigger secular, cultural and historical dimensions within the Lebanese cultural context. While many reasons for sentiments of loyalty to institutions and in particular to individuals of superior authority may be proposed, such sentiments are natural within the social and cultural context of the Arab world. The feature of the bureaucratic culture, namely the existence of senior administrators at different levels of the organisational hierarchy with power of decision and authority tends naturally to produce sentiments of loyalty from subordinates who strive to develop bonds of trust and confidence with superiors that may prove beneficial at some time in the future. This characteristic is reinforced and strengthened through a personalised form of management adopted by most senior

administrators. To further such a claim, and as in Lebanon there is only one public institute of higher learning and several private institutes, it would be interesting to conduct the study in another country of the region that enjoys similar cultural attributes as Lebanon but where the higher education system consists only of public institutes or a mixed economy of private and public institutes.

A better understanding of institutional culture may assist and facilitate institutional change, rendering the institution more responsive to new demands. Based on the results of this study it may thus help to look at institutional culture from a different angle, that of human relationships which seems to be a significant impinging factor on institutional culture in the Lebanese context, to determine how institutional change can be brought about 'effectively' and 'efficiently'. According to Goffee and Jones, as cited in Hoffman and Klepper (2000) the two types of human relations that are important in understanding institutional culture are solidarity and sociability. Solidarity relates to the ability of individuals to pursue shared goals efficiently. It generates dedication and swift organisational change. Sociability refers to the degree of friendliness of relationships in an institution and is positively correlated to the degree of creativity and productivity in the institution. These two dimensions of culture touched upon in this study must be further developed in detail to investigate their impact on organisational responsiveness and change.

The findings further suggest the feasibility and possible effectiveness of a pedagogical approach gaining impetus in higher education that deserves considerable attention. The mode of learning based on the formation of solid knowledge and theory where

direct personal interaction with the parties involved in the teaching-learning process is minimal would prove extremely alluring to special types of students, particularly as many students through the survey (chapter 7, [section 7.6](#)) expressed satisfaction with such a mode of learning. Furthermore, it would seem to support the notion of the effectiveness and efficiency of the virtual university, which is gaining momentum in the 21st century. Cornford (2000) defines the virtual university 'as an institution that has torn itself free from the geographical confines of the campus, using new communications technologies to connect learners, potential learners, teachers, researchers...and administrators in flexible ever-changing network organisation'. Johnston (1999) however notes that such flexibility introduced into higher education systems through this mode of learning has been instrumental not only in achieving desirable ends related to issues of opportunities of equity, access and efficiency but, also, in achieving less desirable ends such as the commodification of learning and other administrative related issues. In my study, it was found that students in American patterned universities enjoyed the greater interaction with staff, greater choice of electives, an emphasis on extra-curricula activities and the existence of bodies responsible for welfare. These might be threatened by efficiency concerns in a virtual university. While the study has found private institutions in particular enjoying considerable autonomy in decision-making, in this area, the government and educational policy makers should set clear guidelines for modes of learning, allowing new developments to progress alongside the traditional mission of the university.

More flexible modes of learning should give rise to the enterprise culture in many universities, of which only elementary traces have been detected in the management cultures of a couple or more institutions. The tendency of universities towards slowly

adopting some features of this management culture does not seem to be distant, specifically in the historically grounded well established institutes AUB(Am:F) and USJ(Fr:F) that have begun to offer programmes especially designed to cater for the needs of the client who seeks the knowledge and skills of experts and professionals. In doing so management of the universities hopes to capture what is referred to by Gilliland (1993) as 'customer delight'. It is not surprising then that the younger universities will follow suit, particularly now that the education service sector has proven to be a lucrative sector for the Lebanese economy (Iskandar 1999). This study has indicated that special attention must be given to the continuous enhancement of the *quality* of educational programmes and services in Lebanese universities, and that in management terms this will best be achieved through the collective efforts of all concerned parties in the educational process.

Appendix 1A
Institutes of Higher Education
Student Questionnaire

This questionnaire attempts to determine what are students' expectations from the university education they are attaining. Please provide the answer that best represents your opinion. Be sure to answer all items.

I. Please complete the following personal information section.

Gender: Male() Female()
 Age: _____
 University: _____
 Major: _____
 Faculty: _____
 Class: Sophomore() Junior() Senior() Master() Doctorate()

II. The following section consists of statements about the style of management of the University you are enrolled in and its statement of purpose or mission. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion. Mark only one item for each question. Be sure to answer all items. Use the following key:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=not aware of any

1.	The regulations set by the University (such as admission requirements, graduation requirements, etc.) are clear and well defined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The regulations set by the University are strictly followed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various academic functions of the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Student bodies play an important role in the decision-making process with regards to various non-academic functions of the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	The number of levels of authority in the University is satisfactory (not too many) to enable decision-making to be effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	The University seeks excellence in teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6

KEY: 1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=not aware of any

7.	Admission to the University is open to all regardless of religion, race, sex and political beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	The admissions policy adopted by the University is selective ensuring that students have the necessary pre-requisite knowledge and skills for the fields they choose to enroll in.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	The University has developed programmes geared towards satisfying Lebanese market demands in various in sectors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	The University has developed programmes geared towards satisfying market demands for the Arab States in various sectors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	The University has programmes whereby it provides basic services to Lebanese communities in various regions of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	The University has important relations and affiliations with the neighboring Arab States.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	The University has important relations and affiliations with the Western World- The United States, Europe, Australia, Canada, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6

III. The following section has a number of statements about the various aspects of teaching and learning. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion. Be sure to answer all items. Mark only one answer to each item. Use the following key:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=not aware of any

14.	Professors provide students with detailed syllabi regarding course content and course requirements at the beginning of the each course.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Students are clearly informed at the beginning of each course of the evaluation procedure to be followed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Professors may in general be considered competent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Professors mainly use the traditional lecturing approach (teachers talk and students listen) in their teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6

KEY: 1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=not aware of any

18.	Professors use a variety of teaching learning approaches in a course such as the traditional lecturing approach, the inter-active discussion approach (teacher-student or student-student discussions), etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Professors use modern technologies in their teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Classes, in general, are too large to allow for effective teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Courses are designed in a manner that allows all issues (social, political, religious, etc.) to be discussed openly and freely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Courses are designed to encourage student participation in projects and research activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	The curriculum is designed in a manner that ensures students get practical experience related to their education.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Students have a wide range of elective courses to choose from.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Professors set specific office hours to allow individual students or small groups of students to obtain additional instruction or assistance in their courses outside regular class sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Academically excellent students (teaching assistants) provide instruction for students with weaknesses in certain areas under the supervision of faculty advisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	As a student you progressed through your field of study towards graduation with few problems as failing or withdrawing from courses or as in changing your major.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the instructor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Student evaluation of the teaching performance of instructors is very important to the administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6

IV. In this section, your opinion on the quality and standards of academic services and various facilities at the University is required. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion. Mark only one answer to each item. Be sure to answer all items. Use the following key:

1=Very high 2=High 3=Average 4=poor 5=very poor 6=Not aware of any

30.	The level of resources in the library/libraries is	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	1	2	3	4	5	6

V. The following section has to do with the various opportunities open to you upon graduation. Circle the answer that best reflects your opinion. Mark only one answer for each item. Be sure to answer all items. Use the following key:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=do not know

38.	The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organization or firm in the Lebanese market.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organization or firm in the Arab States.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	The degree you attain upon graduation will enable you to find a job in a reputable organization or firm in the international market.	1	2	3	4	5	6

KEY: 1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree 6=do not know

41.	The University aids students in various ways in finding jobs after graduation as in organizing career fairs and events in which students can meet employers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	The degree you attain upon graduation allows you to continue your education in internationally recognized universities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

VI. The section below involves a list of factors that may have affected your choice of university. Circle the answer that best reflects your opinion. Mark only one answer for each item. Be sure to answer all items. Use the following key:

1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree

Your choice of university was influenced by the:

43.	history of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
44.	academic reputation of the university especially in your field of study	1	2	3	4	5
45.	international standing of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
46.	national standing of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
47.	religious affiliation of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
48.	political affiliation of the institution	1	2	3	4	5
49.	educational system (American, French, Egyptian or Lebanese) adopted by the institution	1	2	3	4	5
50.	language of instruction in your field study	1	2	3	4	5
51.	field of study	1	2	3	4	5
52.	level of tuition	1	2	3	4	5
53.	fees financial aid provided by the institution during course of study in terms of loans, scholarships, student work, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	ease of finding a job in a reputable organization after graduation	1	2	3	4	5
55.	parental pressure	1	2	3	4	5
56.	geographical location of the institution	1	2	3	4	5

If you would like add any comment or to express an opinion, please feel free to do so

I would like to thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Appendix 1B

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-II-

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6	5	4	3	2	1)				1
						(
6	5	4	3	2	1					2
6	5	4	3	2	1					3
6	5	4	3	2	1					4
6	5	4	3	2	1	()				5

			-6 "			-5	-4	-3	-2	-1
6	5	4	3	2	1					6
6	5	4	3	2	1					7
6	5	4	3	2	1					8
6	5	4	3	2	1					9
6	5	4	3	2	1					10
6	5	4	3	2	1					11
6	5	4	3	2	1					12
6	5	4	3	2	1					13
							(...)	

-III-

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			-6			-5	-4	- 3	-2	-1
6	5	4	3	2	1					14
6	5	4	3	2	1					15
6	5	4	3	2	1					16
6	5	4	3	2	1))	17
6	5	4	3	2	1)		(18

-6 -5 -4 - 3 -2 -1

6	5	4	3	2	1	.	19
6	5	4	3	2	1		20
6	5	4	3	2	1	(..)	21
6	5	4	3	2	1		22
6	5	4	3	2	1		23
6	5	4	3	2	1		24
6	5	4	3	2	1) (25
6	5	4	3	2	1	()	26
6	5	4	3	2	1		27
6	5	4	3	2	1		28
6	5	4	3	2	1		29

-IV-

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1-جيد جدا" 2- جيد 3- متوسط 4- سيئ 5- سيئ جداً 6- لا أعلم

6	5	4	3	2	1	/	30
6	5	4	3	2	1	.	31
6	5	4	3	2	1		32
6	5	4	3	2	1	(computers)	33
6	5	4	3	2	1		34
6	5	4	3	2	1		35
6	5	4	3	2	1		36
6	5	4	3	2	1		37

-V-

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-6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1

6	5	4	3	2	1		38
6	5	4	3	2	1		39
6	5	4	3	2	1		40
6	5	4	3	2	1		41
6	5	4	3	2	1		42

-VI-

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1-أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- حيادي 4- لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق نهائياً

:

5	4	3	2	1	تاريخ الجامعة	43
5	4	3	2	1	شهرة الجامعة في مجال دراستك بشكل خاص	44

1-أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- حيادي 4- لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق نهائياً

45	أهمية الجامعة على الصعيد العالمي	1	2	3	4	5
46	أهمية الجامعة على الصعيد الوطني	1	2	3	4	5
47	الانتماء الديني للجامعة	1	2	3	4	5
48	الانتماء السياسي للجامعة	1	2	3	4	5
49	النظام التعليمي المعتمد في الجامعة (لبناني، أميركي، فرنسي، مصري)	1	2	3	4	5
50	لغة التدريس في مجال دراستك	1	2	3	4	5
51	مجال دراستك	1	2	3	4	5
52	الأقسام الدراسية	1	2	3	4	5
53	المساعدات المالية الممنوحة أثناء الدراسة كالقروض و المنح وعمل الطلاب	1	2	3	4	5
54	سهولة العثور على وظيفة في منظمة مرموقة بعد التخرج	1	2	3	4	5
55	إرادة أو ضغط الأهل	1	2	3	4	5
56	موقع الجامعة الجغرافي	1	2	3	4	5

إذا كنت تريد إضافة أي تعليق أو تعبير عن رأي ما، يرجى تدوين ذلك في المساحة المخصصة أدناه:

»

Appendix 2A

Institutes of Higher Education

Faculty Questionnaire

This questionnaire attempts to determine what are the faculty members' expectations with regards to the academic and administrative posts they hold or possibly could hold at the University. It also explores the management style adopted by the university. Please provide the answer that best represents your opinion.

I. Please complete the following personal information section.

Gender: Male()

Female()

Age: 20-30()

31-40()

41-50()

51-60()

above 60()

University: _____

Faculty: _____

Department: _____

Academic position(s) held: _____

Administrative position(s) held: _____

Number of years of service at the University: _____

II. The following section consists of statements about the style of management of the University you work in and its statement of purpose or mission. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion, circling only one for each statement. Use the following key:

1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

1.	The University has set standards at which participants are to perform academically.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The University has standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which participants are to relate to one another within the institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The University has standard operating procedures highlighting the manner in which activities are to be performed within the institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Holding on to traditional management practices hinders change in the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	University goals (such as to achieve equality, excellence, etc.) are loosely defined.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	There is loose control over the implementation of institutional goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Key: 1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

7.	Committees negotiate University goals to be pursued by the institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	The management style adopted by the University allows participation of individuals in determining University goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	The management style adopted by the University allows a degree of freedom for individuals to work towards the University goals they think most important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	The management style adopted by the University allows a high degree of freedom for faculties (discipline-based departments) in the selection of their goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Within the University, faculties are the main organizational unit.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Within the University, a small project team (or teams) is the dominant organizational unit.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	As an institution, the University is a self-governing community of scholars.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	There is a strong centralised control of administrators in the institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	The University is a top-down managed institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	The management style is one of delegated (passed on or entrusted) leadership.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	The management style is liberal (laissez-faire or nonjudgmental).	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Decision-making is consensual (by agreement) within the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Decision-making is rule-based (follows a fixed set of rules).	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Decisions are made by appointed rather than elected committees or working parties	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	The number of levels of authority in the University is satisfactory (not too many) to enable decision-making to be effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	The management style adopted by the University focuses on loyalty to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	The management style adopted by the University focuses on loyalty to senior management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	The management style adopted by the University allows considerable freedom for faculty to teach courses of interest to them.	1	2	3	4	5	6

- 38a. The Faculties at the University have a council. Yes() No() Do not know()
- 38b. Decisions made by the Faculty Council are: Recommendations ()
Final ()
Do not know ()

IV. How would you describe the style of decision-making at the University? Identify at which level your description applies by putting a (X) in the box that best represents your opinion:

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory			
40	Non-participatory			
41	Both participatory and non-participatory			

V. The following questions have to do with the role of the Lebanese State in the shaping of higher education in Lebanon and explore the management of resource allocation in institutes of higher education. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion, circling only one for each statement. Use the following key:

1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

42	The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of admission requirements to the various programmes of study.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of course requirements of the various programmes of study.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of quality of essential facilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	The government has set detailed guidelines to be adopted by the University in terms of faculty-student ratios.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	The government sets desired outcomes and processes for Universities to meet.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	The government only sets desired outcomes for Universities to meet but not the processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	The government leaves both outcomes and processes to the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	The University has a considerable degree of autonomy to manage its internal affairs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	The government manages resource allocation within the university.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Key: 1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

51	Senior administrators manage resource allocation within the University.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	The individual faculties of the University manage resource allocation within the faculty.	1	2	3	4	5	6

VI. Who is the University accountable to? Put an (X) in the appropriate cell and give the name of the bodies the University is accountable to where applicable and indicate the extent of accountability? If you do not know the name of the bodies the University is accountable to or the extent of accountability, please state so.

52a	The University is accountable to Lebanese governmental bodies.	Yes	No	Do not know
52b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

53a	The University is accountable to Lebanese non-governmental bodies.	Yes	No	Do not know
53b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

54a	The University is accountable to religious bodies.	Yes	No	Do not know
54b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

55a	The University is accountable to foreign bodies.	Yes	No	Do not know
55b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

56a	The University is accountable to student.	Yes	No	Do not know
56b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

57a	The University is accountable to the parents of its students.	Yes	No	Do not know
57b	If yes, the extent of accountability is: Extreme() Moderate() Light() Do not know()			

VII. Which of the following performance indicators is currently used to assess University performance? Put an (X) in the appropriate cell and specify whether internal mechanisms adopted by the University itself, external mechanisms adopted by the government or bodies outside the University, both or neither are used to measure these performance indicators whenever applicable. (Mechanisms adopted could be writing of reports, surveys, quality committees, ...)

Performance Indicator?					Mode of Assessment if applicable		
		Yes	No	Don't know	Internal	External	Both
58	Student satisfaction						
59	Drop out rates						
60	Graduation rates						
61	Relative faculty-student levels						
62	Degrees held by faculty members						
63	Research publications						
64	Research grants						
65	Consulting rates						
66	National ranking of University						
67	International ranking of University						

68. List other significant performance indicators

VIII. The following section explores factors that influence promotion of faculty at the University. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion, circling only one for each item. Use the following key:

1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

Promotion in the University is influenced by:

69	Quality of teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
70	Research productivity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

71	National publications.	1	2	3	4	5	6
72	International publications.	1	2	3	4	5	6
73	Number of research grants.	1	2	3	4	5	6
74	Degree of involvement with students (through advisory roles, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
75	Community service activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
76	Consultancy projects awarded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
77	Number of years of service.	1	2	3	4	5	6
78	Loyalty to the institution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
79	Political influence of the promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6

If there are other factors that influence promotion in the University, please state them and indicate the extent of their influence. _____

IX. In this Final section you are to indicate how promotion takes place. Circle the correct answer or the response that best reflects your opinion, circling only one for each item. Use the following key:

Key: 1.Strongly agree 2.Agree 3.Neutral 4.Disagree 5.Strongly disagree 6.Do not know

80	Promotion in the University takes place after a fixed number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6
81	Promotion in the University takes place upon the fulfillment of a fixed and transparent set of requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
82	Promotion in the University takes place on a case-by-case basis, and can happen simply upon the request of the Faculty member concerned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
83	Promotion in the University takes places on a case-by-case basis and can happen upon the request of the Faculty member's superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Appendix 2B

استبيان خاص بأفراد الهيئة التعليمية

يرمي هذا الاستبيان إلى معرفة توقعات أعضاء الكلية بشأن المناصب الأكاديمية والإدارية التي يشغلونها في الجامعة. كما يعرض للأسلوب الإداري الذي تعتمده الجامعة. نرجو اختيار الجواب الأقرب إلى رأيك.

I- نرجو إكمال المحور التالي الخاص بالمعلومات الشخصية.

الجنس: ذكر () أنثى ()
 السن: 30-20 () 40-31 () 50-41 () 60-51 () أكثر من 60 ()
 الجامعة: _____
 الكلية: _____
 القسم: _____
 المركز (المراكز) الأكاديمي (ة) الذي (التي) تشغله (ها): _____
 المركز الإداري (ة) الذي (التي) تشغله (ها): _____
 عدد سنوات الخدمة في الجامعة: _____

II- في ما يلي أسئلة حول الأسلوب الإداري للجامعة التي تعمل فيها وحول كيفية تحديد هدفها ورسالتها. اختر الإجابة الصحيحة أو الأقرب إلى رأيك. اختر إجابة واحدة عن كل سؤال. واستخدم المفتاح التالي:

المفتاح: 1- أوافق بشدة 2- اوافق 3- لا جواب 4 - لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6 - لا أعلم

1	6	5	4	3	2	1	وضعت الجامعة معايير على العاملين فيها تحقيقها أكاديمياً.
2	6	5	4	3	2	1	وضعت الجامعة إجراءات عملية تحدد نوع العلاقات بين أفراد المؤسسة.
3	6	5	4	3	2	1	وضعت الجامعة إجراءات عملية تحدد كيفية أداء النشاطات داخل المؤسسة.
4	6	5	4	3	2	1	التمسك بالممارسات الإدارية التقليدية يعيق التغيير في الجامعة.
5	6	5	4	3	2	1	تفتقر أهداف الجامعة (كالمساواة والتفوق، إلخ.) إلى التعريف الدقيق.
6	6	5	4	3	2	1	لا تُطبق أهداف الجامعة تطبيقاً دقيقاً.
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	يتولى عدد من اللجان مناقشة الأهداف التي تعمل المؤسسة على تحقيقها.
8	6	5	4	3	2	1	يُتيح الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة للأفراد المشاركة في تحديد أهدافها.
9	6	5	4	3	2	1	يمنح الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة الأفراد درجة من الحرية في تحقيق أهداف الجامعة الأكثر أهمية بالنسبة إليهم.

المفتاح: 1- أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- لا جواب 4 - لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6 - لا أعلم

10	يمنح الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة الكليات (حسب الاختصاصات) درجة كبيرة من الحرية في تحديد أهدافها.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	تُعتبر الكليات الوحدة التنظيمية الرئيسة داخل الجامعة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	يُعتبر فريق عمل صغير (أو فرق) الوحدة التنظيمية الرئيسة داخل الجامعة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	تُعتبر الجامعة، كمؤسسة، مجموعة من الأساتذة يتمتعون بالإدارة الذاتية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	يتمتع الإداريون في المؤسسة بسلطة مركزية قوية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	تعتمد الجامعة على تراتبية إدارية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	قام بتحديد الأسلوب الإداري في المؤسسة إدارة مُنتدبة (بالتفويض أو بالتكليف).	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	يمتاز الأسلوب الإداري بالليبرالية (لا يُبدي تدخلًا أو حسابًا).	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	تصدر القرارات في الجامعة بالإجماع (عبر الموافقة).	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	تصدر القرارات في الجامعة وفقًا لقوانين معينة (عبر التقيد بمجموعة محددة من الشروط).	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	تُعنى بإصدار القرارات لجان معينة وليس لجان مُنتخبة أم فرق عمل.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	تُعد مستويات السلطة في الجامعة مقبولة (ليس أكثر من اللازم) ليساعد في وضع القرارات موضع التنفيذ.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	يركز الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة على الولاء للمنظمة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	يركز الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة على الولاء لكبار الإداريين.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	يمنح الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة أفراد الهيئة التعليمية قسطاً كافياً من الحرية لتدريس مواد تستهويهم.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	يمنح الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة أفراد الهيئة التعليمية قسطاً وافراً من الحرية لإعداد أبحاث في مختلف الميادين التي تهمهم.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	يشجّع الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة على إعداد أبحاث أقرب إلى التطبيقات التجارية منها إلى مجرد أبحاث أعدت بدافع الفضول العلمي.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	يعزّز الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة تقديم مواد أقرب إلى التطبيق العملي المباشر (كالتجارة، والمعلوماتية، والإعلام) خلافاً للمواد التي تقدمها الجامعة على غرار مواد التاريخ والفلسفة والمواد التقليدية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	يتطابق التوصيف الوظيفي لأفراد الهيئة التعليمية مع الواقع إلى حد بعيد.	1	2	3	4	5	6

المفتاح: 1-أوافق بشدة 2- اوافق 3- لا جواب 4 - لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6 - لا أعلم

29	يتمتع أفراد الهيئة التعليمية بقدر وافر من الحرية لتوصيف مهامهم.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	طورت الجامعة آليات داعمة لتطوير إدارة سائر الجهات المختصة في صنع القرار. وفي حال توافره اذكر هذه الآليات:	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	يتعامل الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة مع الطلاب على أنهم زبائن يحق لهم أن يكونوا راضين عن البضاعة (العلم) التي يبتاعونها.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	يتعامل الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة مع الطلاب على أنهم أرقام إحصائية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	يتعامل الأسلوب الإداري المعتمد في الجامعة مع الطلاب على أنهم أكاديميون متمرنون (متدربون).	1	2	3	4	5	6

III- يطرح هذا المحور أسئلة تتناول الهيئات الحاكمة في الجامعة ودورها في صنع القرار. ضع علامة

(x) في الخانة التي تحتوي على الإجابة الأقرب إلى رأيك.

34 أ. ثمة مجلس أمناء تابع للجامعة. نعم () لا () لا أعلم ()

34 ب. تتميز القرارات الصادرة عن المجلس بأنها: توصيات ()

نهائية ()

لا أعلم ()

35 أ. ثمة مجلس جامعة تابع للجامعة. نعم () لا () لا أعلم ()

35 ب. تتميز القرارات الصادرة عن المجلس بأنها: توصيات ()

نهائية ()

لا أعلم ()

36 أ. ثمة مجلس تشاوري تابع للجامعة. نعم () لا () لا أعلم ()

36 ب. تتميز القرارات الصادرة عن المجلس التشاوري بأنها: توصيات ()

نهائية ()

لا أعلم ()

37 أ. ثمة مجلس كلية لكل من كليات الجامعة. نعم () لا () لا أعلم ()

37 ب. تتميز القرارات الصادرة عن مجلس الكلية بأنها: توصيات ()

نهائية ()

لا أعلم ()

IV- كيف تصف أسلوب صنع القرار في الجامعة؟ حدد المستوى الذي يتطابق مع وصفك وضع علامة

(x) في الخانة التي تحمل الإجابة الأقرب إلى رأيك:

التصنيف	القسم	الكلية	المؤسسة
38	بالمشاركة		
39	بدون مشاركة		
40	الاثنين معاً		

V- يتعلق الأسئلة التالية بدور الدولة اللبنانية في تحديد التعليم العالي في لبنان وتتحرى إدارة توزيع الموارد في مؤسسات التعليم العالي. ارسـم دائرة حول الإجابة الصحيحة أو تلك الأقرب إلى رأيك. اختر واحدة فقط عن كل سؤال. واستخدم المفتاح التالي:

المفتاح: 1- أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- لا جواب 4- لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6- لا أعلم

41	أصدرت الحكومة توجيهات مفصلة لتعتمدها الجامعة في تحديد شروط الانتساب إلى مختلف المناهج الأكاديمية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	أصدرت الحكومة توجيهات مفصلة لتعتمدها الجامعة في تحديد شروط المواد في مختلف المناهج الأكاديمية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	أصدرت الحكومة توجيهات مفصلة لتعتمدها الجامعة في تحديد نوعية التسهيلات الأساسية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	أصدرت الحكومة توجيهات مفصلة لتعتمدها الجامعة في تحديد نسب أفراد الهيئة التعليمية بالنسبة إلى الطلاب.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	تحدد الحكومة للجامعات نتائج وآليات عمل مرجوة لتعمل بموجبها.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	تحدد الحكومة للجامعات نتائج مرجوة فقط دون آليات العمل لتعمل بموجبها.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	تترك الحكومة مهمة تقرير النتائج وآليات العمل للجامعة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	تتمتع الجامعة بدرجة عالية من الاستقلالية لتدير شؤونها الداخلية بنفسها.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	تدير الحكومة توزيع الموارد داخل الجامعة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	يتولى كبار الإداريين توزيع الموارد داخل الجامعة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	تتولى كل كلية من كليات الجامعة إدارة توزيع الموارد داخل الكلية.	1	2	3	4	5	6

VI- من هي الجهة التي تعتبر الجامعة مسؤولة أمامها؟ حدد في الخانة الموافقة حجم هذه التبعية. اختر الإجابة الصحيحة أو تلك الأقرب إلى رأيك.

52 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام هيئات حكومية لبنانية.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
52 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة لا أعلم

53 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام هيئات غير حكومية لبنانية.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
53 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة لا أعلم

54 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام هيئات دينية.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم	
54 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة	لا أعلم
55 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام هيئات أجنبية.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم	
55 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة	لا أعلم
56 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام طلابها.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم	
56 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة	لا أعلم
57 أ	الجامعة مسؤولة أمام أهالي طلابها.	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم	
57 ب	إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي درجة هذه المسؤولية؟	قصوى	معتدلة	طفيفة	لا أعلم

VII- أي مقياس من من مقاييس الأداء التالية تُستخدم حالياً لتقييم أداء الجامعة؟ حدد في الخانة الموافقة ما إذا كانت الآليات الداخلية التي تعتمد عليها الجامعة بنفسها، أم الآليات الخارجية التي تعتمد عليها الحكومة أو الهيئات خارج نطاق الجامعة أم الاثنين معاً تُستخدمان في حساب مقاييس الأداء تلك. (تتنوع الآليات المعتمدة بين كتابة التقارير والاستطلاعات ولجان تقويم نوعية الأداء، إلخ). اختر الإجابة الصحيحة أو تلك الأقرب إلى رأيك.

مقياس الأداء؟		طريقة التقييم إذا توافرت		
58	رضى الطالب	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
59	معدلات الرسوب والانسحاب من الجامعة دون الحصول على شهادة	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
60	معدلات التخرج	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
61	المستويات النسبية لأفراد الهيئة التعليمية والطلاب	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
62	الشهادات التي يحملها أفراد الهيئة التعليمية	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
63	منشورات الأبحاث	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
64	المنح المقدمة للأبحاث	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
65	معدلات الاستشارة	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
66	تصنيف الجامعة على الصعيد الوطني	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم
67	تصنيف الجامعة عالمياً	نعم	كلا	لا أعلم

VII- يتحرى المحور التالي العوامل المؤثرة في ترقية أفراد الهيئة التعليمية داخل الجامعة. اختر الإجابة الصحيحة أو تلك الأقرب إلى رأيك. اختر إجابة واحدة عن كل سؤال. واستخدم المفتاح التالي:

مفتاح: 1- أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- لا جواب 4- لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6- لا أعلم

تتأثر الترقية داخل الجامعة بالعوامل التالية:

69	نوعية التعليم.	1	2	3	4	5	6
70	وفرة الأبحاث.	1	2	3	4	5	6
71	المنشورات المحلية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
72	المنشورات العالمية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
73	عدد المنح المقدمة للأبحاث.	1	2	3	4	5	6
74	درجة الانخراط مع الطلاب (من خلال الإرشاد الأكاديمي، إلخ.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
75	النشاطات الخدمية الاجتماعية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
76	المكافآت على المشاريع الاستشارية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
77	عدد سنوات الخدمة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
78	الولاء للمؤسسة.	1	2	3	4	5	6
79	التأثير السياسي للحصول على الترقية.	1	2	3	4	5	6

وفي حال توافرت عوامل أخرى تؤثر في الترقية داخل الجامعة، نرجو ذكرها وتحديد درجة تأثيرها.

المفتاح: 1- أوافق بشدة 2- أوافق 3- لا جواب 4- لا أوافق 5- لا أوافق بشدة 6- لا أعلم

كيف تتم الترقية؟

80	تتم الترقية داخل الجامعة بعد انقضاء عدد محدد من السنوات.	1	2	3	4	5	6
81	تتم الترقية داخل الجامعة فور استيفاء مجموعة محددة وواضحة من الشروط.	1	2	3	4	5	6
82	تتم الترقية داخل الجامعة وفقاً لكل حالة علة حدة، وقد تتم لمجرد طلب من الأستاذ المعني في الكلية.	1	2	3	4	5	6
83	تتم الترقية داخل الجامعة بعد دراسة كل حالة على حدة، وقد تكون بطلب من المرجعية الإدارية للأستاذ المعني.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 3

Semi-Structured Interview

Thank you for being willing to be interviewed. I would like to first assure you that you will remain completely anonymous.

The research aims at identifying the principal organizational features and management styles in different historically grounded institutes of higher education in Lebanon.

- 1- May I first ask you if you have been employed in institutions other than the one you are in presently?
 - a. If yes, what positions did you hold?
 - b. Was your job satisfying?

- 1- How many years have you been employed at the present University?

- 2- What academic positions do you hold at your University?
 - a. Tell me about your academic responsibilities.
 - b. Do you have considerable freedom to teach courses of interest to you and in the manner you wish? (If not, the problem is number of courses you must teach, class size, the available facilities, etc.)
 - c. Do you have considerable freedom to conduct research in areas of interest to you? (If not, the problem is time, research funds, workload, etc.)
 - d. Do you feel the administration provides support for your academic and research work? (a summary of responses to parts b and c.)
 - e. How do you evaluate the time you allocate for teaching and research?
 - f. Do you find your academic work interesting and rewarding on a personal level?

- 3- What administrative positions do you hold?
 - a. Tell me about your administrative responsibilities
 - b. How much freedom do you have to carry out your administrative responsibilities?
 - c. How do you evaluate the time you allocate for administrative issues?
 - d. Has the University developed support mechanisms for management development? (in terms of upgrading knowledge and skills)
 - e. If no, do you see a necessity for such support mechanisms?

- 4- You mentioned that you have been working at the University for ____ years
 - a. Has there been a change in your responsibilities while in this position over the years?
 - b. If yes, are you satisfied with the changes?
 - c. If no, is there a need for change?
 - d. How would you describe your workload?

- e. Do you feel the financial reward equivalent to your workload?
 - f. Do you feel there are opportunities for career progression (both personal career progression or progression in the sense of moving up the ladder in the University)?
 - g. Do you feel secure in your job?
 - h. Do you perform other activities such as consultancy work, part-time work elsewhere, further studies, etc.
 - i. What degree of flexibility do you have to prioritize tasks of interest to you?
 - j. What impact have the above factors had on your performance in your job?
 - k. Do you think of seeking full-time employment elsewhere?
- 5- How would you describe the working environment in general?
- a. How would you describe your relationship
 - i- with your colleagues?
 - ii- with management?
 - b- Does the University have set standards highlighting
 - i- the manner in which participants are to relate to one another?
 - ii- the manner in which activities are to be performed?
 - c- Do you approve of the way things are done?
- 6- Are University goals clearly defined?
- a. Who sets the goals? (Committees, individuals, faculties, etc)
 - b. Is there freedom allowing individuals to pursue the goals they think most important?
- 7- How would you describe the management style at your University?
- a. How much freedom do managers have to manage their internal affairs?
 - b. How do you get along with your superiors?
 - c. Do you like the management style of your superiors?
 - d. Are the communication channels easy and open?
 - e. How are decisions made?
 - f. How do you evaluate the decision making process?
 - g. Were you in the place of your superiors, do you think you would manage matters in a similar fashion?
- 8- How do you understand the notion of accountability?
- a- Who you are personally accountable to?
 - b- Who are your superiors accountable to?
 - c- Who is the University accountable to?
(The following are prompts)
 - d- Is the University accountable to Lebanese governmental bodies? If yes, how?
 - e- Is the University accountable to Lebanese non-governmental bodies? If yes, how?
 - f- Is the University accountable to religious bodies? If yes, how?
 - g- Is the University accountable to foreign bodies? If yes, how?
 - h- Is the University accountable to parents? If yes, how?
 - i- Is the University accountable to students? If yes, how?

- 9- To what extent is faculty satisfaction important to the University?
 - a. What mechanisms do faculty members have available to them to express their satisfaction?
 - b. What support systems does the University provide for the faculty members?
 - c. Does the University support faculty member development? How?
 - d. How would describe faculty productivity compared to their workloads?
 - e. Were you in their position, do you think you would evaluate the various tasks of employment in a similar fashion?
 - f. What support systems does the University provide for the staff members?
 - g. Does the University support staff member development? How?
 - h. How would you describe staff productivity compared to their workloads?

- 10- To what extent is student satisfaction with the education they are receiving important to the University?
 - a. What mechanisms do students have available to them to express their satisfaction?
 - b. What support systems does the University provide for the students pursuing their education?
 - a. Are there educational support systems
 - b. Are there financial support systems
 - c. What facilities does the University provide for students?
 - d. What recreational facilities does the University provide for students?
 - e. How would you evaluate the quality of these facilities?

- 11- What role does the government play in steering higher education at the University?
 - a. Does it set desired outcomes and/ or processes to be met by the University?
 - b. With respect to what areas of higher education?
 - c. Could it be in areas of
 - a. Admission requirements to the various programmes of study
 - b. Course requirements of the various programmes of study?
 - c. Quality of essential facilities?
 - d. Resource allocation?
 - e. If yes, how?
 - f. If no, who manages the allocation of resources within the University? How and at what level?

- 12- Performance and productivity at work are measured in various ways, perhaps by the use of indicators.
- a- Would you be able to suggest some performance indicators used at your University?
 - b- Do you think they are a good idea?
 - c- If you were in a managerial position, what methods would you find appropriate to measure productivity or performance?
- 13- What factors influence promotion in the University?
- a- How does promotion take place at the University?
 - b- Do you consider the promotion procedure fair?
 - c- Are there factors other than performance and productivity that influence promotion?

Thank you once again for taking the time to conduct this interview.

Appendix 4

List of Interview Schedules

Institution	Position	Date
AUB(Am:F)	Senior officer	September 10, 2002
AUB(Am:F)	Senior officer	September 12, 2002
AUB(Am:F)	Senior faculty member	August 14, 2002
AUB(Am:F)	Faculty member	September 18, 2002
AUB(Am:F)	Faculty member	August 28, 2002
LAU(Am:F)	Senior officer	July 24, 2002
LAU(Am:F)	Senior officer	July 25, 2002
LAU(Am:F)	Senior faculty member	July 29, 2002
LAU(Am:F)	Faculty member	July 9, 2002
LAU(Am:F)	Faculty member	July 5, 2002
NDU(Am:N)	Senior officer	August 8, 2002
NDU(Am:N)	Senior officer	August 23, 2002
NDU(Am:N)	Senior faculty member	August 6, 2002
NDU(Am:N)	Faculty member	August 6, 2002
NDU(Am:N)	Faculty member	July 6, 2002
UOB(Am:N)	Senior officer	July 5, 2002
UOB(Am:N)	Senior officer	July 23, 2002

Institution	Position	Date
UOB(Am:N)	Senior faculty member	July 16, 2002
UOB(Am:N)	Faculty member	September 11, 2002
UOB(Am:N)	Faculty member	July 12, 2002
BAU(Eg:F)	Senior officer	June 12,2002
BAU(Eg:F)	Senior officer	October 12, 2002
BAU(Eg:F)	Senior faculty member	October 12, 2002
BAU(Eg:F)	Faculty member	October 3, 2002
BAU(Eg:F)	Faculty member	October 11, 2002
USJ(Fr:F)	Senior officer	November 14, 2002
USJ(Fr:F)	Senior officer	October 22, 2002
USJ(Fr:F)	Senior faculty member	October 28, 2002
USJ(Fr:F)	Faculty member	November 12, 2002
USJ(Fr:F)	Faculty member	November 25, 2002
LU	Senior officer	November 29, 2002
LU	Senior officer	December 11, 2002
LU	Senior faculty member	December 13, 2002
LU	Faculty member	December 5, 2002
LU	Faculty member	November 27, 2002

Appendix 5A

Faculty Perceptions of Decisions Made by the Governing Bodies

Table 5.1 AUB(Am:F) (n=10)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	10	0	0	0	2	8	0	0	0
2. University Council	2	5	3	0	1	1	0	1	7
3. Senate	10	0	0	0	7	1	0	2	0
4. Faculty Council	3	7	0	0	2	1	0	1	6

Table 5.2 LAU(Am:F) (n=10)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	10	0	0	0	1	8	0	1	0
2. University Council	10	0	0	0	4	5	0	1	0
3. Senate	1	7	2	0	0	0	0	5	5
4. Faculty Council	8	1	1	0	5	40	0	1	0

Table 5.3 NDU(Am:F) (n=11)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	10	0	0	0	3	9	0	0	0
2. University Council	9	1	1	0	2	5	0	2	2
3. Senate	2	5	0	4	0	1	0	2	8
4. Faculty Council	8	1	2	0	6	2	0	1	2

Table 5.4 UOB(Am:F) (n=11)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	10	0	0	0	2	9	0	0	0
2. University Council	10	0	0	0	5	4	0	2	0
3. Senate	10	0	0	0	9	0	0	2	0
4. Faculty Council	8	1	2	0	3	3	0	3	2

Table 5.5 BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	9	0	1	0	3	5	0	2	0
2. University Council	10	0	0	0	4	5	0	0	0
3. Senate	2	0	6	2	2	0	0	5	3
4. Faculty Council	9	0	1	0	7	2	0	1	0

Table 5.6 USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1. BOT	3	3	3	2	3	1	0	2	5
2. University Council	10	0	0	1	0	9	1	0	1
3. Senate	1	3	4	3	1	0	0	2	8
4. Faculty Council	10	0	0	1	1	7	2	0	1

Table 5.7**LU (n=9)**

Statement	Existence of Governing Body (a)				Type of Decision (b)				
	Yes	No	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer	Recommendation	Final	F /R	Do Not Know	Did Not Answer
1 BOT	6	3	0	0	2	3	0	1	3
2.University Council	8	1	0	0	1	5	0	2	1
3 Senate	2	6	1	0	2	0	0	1	6
4.Faculty Council	10	0	0	0	7	0	2	0	0

Appendix 5B

Style of Decision Making

Table 5.8 AUB(Am:F) (n=10)

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	6	1	1
40	Non-participatory	1	2	1
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	3	5	6
No reply		0	2	2

Table 5.9 LAU(Am:F) (n=10)

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	5	4	2
40	Non-participatory	1	1	3
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	2	3	3
No reply		2	2	2

Table 5.10 NDU(Am:N) (n=11)

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	7	3	1
40	Non-participatory	1	0	6
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	1	9	0
No reply		2	0	4

Table 5.11 UOB(Am:N) (n=11)

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	6	5	1
40	Non-participatory	3	1	3
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	0	4	4
No reply		2	1	3

Table 5.12 BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	8	8	4
40	Non-participatory	0	0	3
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	2	2	1
No reply		0	0	0

Table 5.13**USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	6	4	4
40	Non-participatory	1	0	1
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	3	7	6
No reply		1	0	0

Table 5.14**LU (n=9)**

	Type	Level		
		Department	Faculty	Institution
39	Participatory	3	3	1
40	Non-participatory	2	3	3
41	Both participatory and non-participatory	3	2	3
No reply		1	1	2

Appendix 5C

Perceived Modes of Decision-Making

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 5.15 **AUB(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	2	4	4	0	0	0	1.80
2	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	2.50
3	0	5	3	2	0	0	0	2.30
4	0	6	3	1	0	0	0	2.50

Table 5.16 **LAU(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	1	6	0	2	0	0	1.90
2	2	3	4	1	0	0	0	2.60
3	2	4	0	2	2	0	0	2.20
4	3	5	1	1	0	0	0	3.00

Table 5.17 **NDU(Am:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	3	2	3	1	1	1	1.78
2	0	6	3	2	0	0	0	2.36
3	3	2	3	3	0	0	0	2.45
4	2	5	1	0	1	2	0	2.78

Table 5.18 **UOB(Am:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	2	4	5	0	0	0	1.73
2	1	1	5	3	0	0	0	2.00
3	2	3	2	3	0	1	0	2.60
4	1	4	2	1	0	3	0	2.62

Table 5.19**BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)**

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
STATEMENT	<i>Agree</i>				<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Know</i>	<i>Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	4	2	1	0	0	0	2.90
2	3	5	2	0	0	0	0	3.10
3	2	5	1	2	0	0	0	2.70
4	0	7	2	0	0	0	1	2.78

Table 5. 20**USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
STATEMENT	<i>Agree</i>				<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Know</i>	<i>Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	5	2	3	0	0	0	2.36
2	0	6	4	0	1	0	0	2.36
3	2	4	0	3	2	0	0	2.09
4	1	6	3	0	0	0	1	2.80

Table 5.21**LU (n=9)**

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
STATEMENT	<i>Agree</i>				<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Know</i>	<i>Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	1	3	3	2	0	0	1.33
2	0	5	2	2	0	0	0	2.33
3	0	6	2	1	0	0	0	2.56
4	0	5	1	3	0	0	0	2.22

Table 5.22 Means for Statements Related to the Perceived Mode of Decision-Making (n=72)

STATEMENT	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1	1.80	1.90	1.78	1.73	2.90	2.36	1.33	1.97
2	2.50	2.60	2.36	2.00	3.10	2.36	2.33	2.46
3	2.30	2.20	2.45	2.40	2.70	2.09	2.56	2.39
4	2.50	3.00	2.78	2.62	2.78	2.80	2.22	2.61

Appendix 5D

Perceptions of Freedom and Autonomy of Faculty Members

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 5.23		AUB(Am:F)(n=10)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	5	1	2	0	1	0	2.56
2	1	5	3	1	0	0	0	2.60
3	3	4	2	0	1	0	0	2.40
4	2	5	1	2	0	0	0	2.70
5	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.30
6	0	2	3	2	2	0	1	1.56
7	0	4	2	3	1	0	0	1.90
8	0	6	3	1	0	0	0	2.50
9	1	1	4	2	2	0	0	1.90

Table 5.24		LAU(Am:F)(n=10)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	1	1	3	2	0	0	2.00
2	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	3.40
3	3	4	2	1	0	0	0	2.80
4	2	5	1	2	0	0	0	2.70
5	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	3.70
6	2	1	0	2	5	0	0	1.30
7	1	2	4	3	0	0	0	2.10
8	2	4	2	1	0	1	0	2.78
9	0	2	5	3	0	0	0	1.70

Table 5.25		NDU(Am:N)(n=11)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	6	3	2	0	0	0	0	3.36
2	2	2	4	3	0	0	0	2.27
3	1	4	4	1	0	1	0	2.50
4	1	3	3	2	2	0	0	1.91
5	2	7	2	0	0	0	0	3.00
6	1	4	3	2	1	0	0	2.18
7	1	1	7	1	0	1	0	2.20
8	1	6	3	0	0	1	0	2.80
9	0	2	5	2	1	1	0	1.80

Table 5.26 UOB(Am:N)(n=11)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	5	1	1	0	1	0	3.00
2	1	7	0	1	0	1	0	2.90
3	0	7	1	3	0	0	0	2.36
4	1	5	2	3	0	0	0	2.36
5	1	5	3	1	0	1	0	2.60
6	0	2	5	1	0	3	0	2.12
7	1	2	4	2	0	1	1	2.22
8	0	4	4	3	0	0	0	2.09
9	0	3	3	4	0	0	1	1.90

Table 5.27 BAU(Eg:F)(n=10)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	4	4	2	0	0	0	0	3.20
2	1	4	3	2	0	0	0	2.40
3	1	6	1	2	0	0	0	2.60
4	2	3	0	4	1	0	0	2.10
5	1	7	2	0	0	0	0	2.90
6	0	0	6	2	2	0	0	1.40
7	0	5	1	0	1	2	1	2.43
8	0	9	1	0	0	0	0	2.90
9	1	5	0	4	0	0	0	2.30

Table 5.28 USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	6	0	1	0	1	0	3.10
2	3	5	2	1	0	0	0	2.91
3	1	6	1	2	1	0	0	2.36
4	3	4	2	1	1	0	0	2.64
5	3	6	1	1	0	0	0	3.00
6	0	2	1	4	3	1	0	1.20
7	0	4	2	2	2	1	0	1.80
8	0	7	2	1	1	0	0	2.36
9	3	3	3	2	0	0	0	2.64

Table 5.29 LU (n=9)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	2	1	2	0	2	0	2.57
2	0	2	2	4	1	0	0	3.56
3	0	2	0	4	3	0	0	1.11
4	0	6	0	2	1	0	0	2.22
5	1	6	0	1	1	0	0	2.56
6	1	3	1	4	0	0	0	2.11
7	0	3	0	3	2	1	0	1.50
8	1	4	1	1	2	0	0	2.11
9	0	5	1	1	1	1	0	2.25

**Table 5.30 Means for Statements Related to Freedom and Autonomy of Faculty Members
(n=72)**

STATEMENT	MEAN							GRAND MEAN
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	
1	2.56	2.00	1.64	3.00	3.20	3.10	2.57	2.58
2	2.60	3.40	2.73	2.90	2.40	2.91	3.56	2.93
3	2.40	2.80	2.50	2.36	2.60	2.36	1.11	2.30
4	2.70	2.70	3.09	2.36	2.10	2.64	2.22	2.54
5	3.30	3.70	2.00	2.60	2.90	3.00	2.56	2.87
6	1.56	1.30	2.82	2.12	1.40	1.20	2.11	1.79
7	1.90	2.10	2.80	2.22	2.43	1.80	1.50	2.10
8	2.50	2.78	2.20	2.09	2.90	2.36	2.11	2.42
9	1.90	1.70	3.20	1.90	2.30	2.64	2.25	2.14

Appendix 5E

Characteristics of the Management Cultures

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 5.31 **AUB(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	4	3	1	1	0	0	2.30
2	2	4	1	1	1	1	0	2.56
3	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	3.10
4	0	5	3	2	0	0	0	2.30
5	0	8	1	1	0	0	0	2.70
6	2	3	3	2	0	0	0	2.50
7	0	1	5	1	0	2	1	2.00
8	1	3	3	1	0	2	0	2.50
9	1	3	3	3	0	0	0	2.20
10	0	1	2	4	1	2	0	1.37
11	1	1	4	2	2	0	0	1.70
12	2	6	1	1	0	0	0	2.90
13	2	6	0	2	0	0	0	2.80
14	0	3	3	4	0	0	0	1.90
15	0	0	4	5	1	0	0	1.30
16	1	1	4	2	1	1	0	1.89
17	0	5	2	2	1	0	0	2.10
18	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	3.10
19	0	0	3	3	4	0	0	0.90
20	0	3	2	4	1	0	0	1.70

Table 5.32 **LAU(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	3	0	5	2	0	0	1.40
2	1	3	1	3	2	0	0	1.80
3	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	3.40
4	2	5	2	0	1	0	0	2.70
5	3	5	2	0	0	0	0	3.10
6	3	1	4	1	0	0	1	2.67
7	0	0	3	1	0	5	1	1.75
8	2	4	1	0	2	1	0	2.44
9	2	4	2	1	1	0	0	2.50
10	1	3	2	2	2	0	0	3.10
11	0	2	3	4	1	0	0	1.90
12	2	7	1	0	0	0	0	1.60
13	4	4	0	2	0	0	0	3.10
14	1	3	3	0	1	2	0	3.00
15	1	3	2	2	2	0	0	2.37
16	4	4	1	1	0	0	0	3.10
17	2	2	2	2	1	1	0	2.22
18	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	3.60
19	0	0	2	3	5	0	0	0.70
20	2	2	5	1	0	0	0	2.50

Table 5.33 **NDU(Am:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	3	1	6	1	0	0	1.55
2	0	1	1	7	1	1	0	3.80
3	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.36
4	3	6	1	1	0	0	0	3.00
5	3	6	0	2	0	0	0	2.91
6	2	4	3	1	0	1	0	2.70
7	0	1	3	3	0	2	2	3.71
8	2	7	0	2	0	0	0	2.82
9	1	2	2	5	0	1	0	1.90
10	0	1	4	1	2	2	1	1.50
11	0	4	5	1	0	1	0	2.30
12	3	6	0	2	0	0	0	2.91
13	4	4	2	0	0	0	1	3.20
14	0	2	4	2	2	1	0	1.60
15	0	1	0	8	2	0	0	1.00
16	2	4	3	0	1	1	0	2.60
17	1	5	4	0	0	1	0	2.70
18	0	5	5	1	0	0	0	2.36
19	2	2	1	6	0	0	0	2.00
20	0	4	5	2	0	0	0	2.18

Table 5.34 **UOB(Am:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	4	0	3	1	2	0	2.11
2	0	0	6	4	1	0	0	1.45
3	0	8	2	1	0	0	0	2.64
4	0	4	4	1	1	1	0	2.10
5	1	3	2	3	0	2	0	2.22
6	2	2	6	1	0	0	0	2.45
7	0	2	3	3	1	1	1	1.67
8	0	5	2	2	1	1	0	2.10
9	0	3	2	3	2	1	0	1.60
10	0	3	3	4	0	1	0	1.90
11	0	2	3	4	1	1	0	1.60
12	5	4	1	1	0	0	0	3.18
13	4	4	3	0	0	0	0	3.09
14	1	3	2	2	0	2	1	2.37
15	1	1	2	7	0	0	0	3.64
16	3	7	1	0	0	0	0	3.15
17	1	5	4	1	0	0	0	2.55
18	1	6	2	1	0	1	0	2.70
19	0	3	3	2	2	1	0	1.70
20	1	6	2	1	1	0	0	2.44

Table 5.35 **BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	2	0	6	2	0	0	1.20
2	0	1	3	4	2	0	0	1.30
3	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	3.50
4	4	5	0	1	0	0	0	3.20
5	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	3.40
6	1	3	1	5	0	0	0	2.00
7	0	3	2	1	0	4	0	2.33
8	3	4	1	1	0	1	0	3.00
9	0	5	1	4	0	0	0	2.10
10	0	1	3	4	0	2	0	1.62
11	1	4	0	5	0	0	0	2.10
12	1	3	1	4	1	0	0	1.90
13	2	7	1	0	0	0	0	3.10
14	1	2	1	4	1	0	1	2.00
15	1	1	2	4	1	1	0	1.67
16	0	7	1	1	0	1	0	2.67
17	0	2	2	5	0	1	0	1.67
18	2	5	1	1	1	0	0	2.60
19	1	1	1	4	2	0	1	1.44
20	1	4	4	0	0	0	1	2.67

Table 5.36 **USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	4	0	5	1	0	0	1.91
2	1	3	1	5	1	0	0	1.82
3	1	8	1	0	1	0	0	2.73
4	2	6	2	1	0	0	0	2.73
5	1	7	2	1	0	0	0	2.73
6	1	4	2	2	1	0	1	2.20
7	0	1	3	1	1	2	3	1.67
8	3	7	0	0	0	1	0	3.30
9	3	3	1	2	1	1	0	2.50
10	1	2	2	3	2	1	0	1.70
11	1	3	1	3	3	0	0	1.64
12	1	4	1	5	0	0	0	2.09
13	3	6	0	1	0	1	0	3.10
14	0	2	4	4	1	0	0	1.64
15	1	3	2	3	1	0	1	2.00
16	3	7	1	0	0	0	0	3.18
17	1	2	3	3	2	0	0	1.73
18	0	6	2	2	1	0	0	2.18
19	0	0	1	4	6	0	0	0.55
20	2	7	1	1	0	0	0	2.91

Table 5.37 LU (n=9)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.22
2	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.22
3	1	2	2	2	0	2	0	2.29
4	1	1	2	3	0	2	0	2.00
5	1	2	0	5	0	1	0	1.87
6	4	4	0	0	0	1	0	3.50
7	0	0	1	4	0	4	0	1.20
8	0	4	1	4	0	0	0	2.00
9	0	0	2	6	1	0	0	1.11
10	1	0	1	6	1	0	0	1.33
11	0	2	0	3	3	1	0	1.12
12	1	5	0	1	1	1	0	2.50
13	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	3.33
14	1	7	1	0	0	0	0	2.78
15	0	2	0	3	3	1	0	1.12
16	1	2	2	3	0	1	0	1.12
17	2	3	2	2	0	0	0	2.56
18	0	1	0	6	1	1	0	1.12
19	0	6	0	2	1	0	0	2.22
20	0	2	0	4	3	0	0	1.11

Table 5.38 Means of Statements Related to the Management Culture of the Universities (n=72)

STATEMENT	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU
1	2.30	1.40	1.55	2.11	1.20	1.91	3.22
2	2.56	1.80	3.80	1.45	1.30	1.82	3.22
3	3.10	3.40	3.36	2.64	3.50	2.73	2.29
4	2.30	2.70	3.00	2.10	3.20	2.73	2.00
5	2.70	3.10	2.91	2.22	3.40	2.73	1.87
6	2.50	2.67	2.70	2.45	2.00	2.20	3.50
7	2.00	1.75	3.71	1.67	2.33	1.67	1.20
8	2.50	2.44	2.82	2.10	3.00	3.30	2.00
9	2.20	2.50	1.90	1.60	2.10	2.50	1.11
10	1.37	3.10	1.50	1.90	1.62	1.70	1.33
11	1.70	1.90	2.30	1.60	2.10	1.64	1.12
12	2.90	1.60	2.91	3.18	1.90	2.09	2.50
13	2.80	3.10	3.20	3.09	3.10	3.10	3.33
14	1.90	3.00	1.60	2.37	2.00	1.64	2.78
15	1.30	2.37	1.00	3.64	1.67	2.00	1.12
16	1.89	3.10	2.60	3.15	2.67	3.18	1.12
17	2.10	2.22	2.70	2.55	1.67	1.73	2.56
18	3.10	3.60	2.36	2.70	2.60	2.18	1.12
19	0.90	0.70	2.00	1.70	1.44	0.55	2.22
20	1.70	2.50	2.18	2.44	2.67	2.91	1.11

Appendix 6A

The Role of the Government in Shaping Higher Education

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement.

Table 6.1 AUB(Am:F) (n=10)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	1	1	1	6	1	0	0.67
2	0	0	0	4	5	1	0	0.44
3	0	0	0	4	5	1	0	0.44
4	0	0	0	4	5	1	0	0.44
5	0	0	2	2	5	1	0	0.67
6	0	1	2	1	4	2	0	1.00
7	4	4	0	0	0	2	0	2.50
8	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.30
9	0	0	1	1	8	0	0	0.30
10	2	7	0	0	1	0	0	2.90

Table 6.2 LAU(Am:F) (n=10)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	3	0	4	1	1	0	1.89
2	0	2	1	5	1	1	0	1.44
3	0	3	0	4	2	1	0	1.44
4	0	1	0	2	4	3	0	0.79
5	0	1	2	2	3	2	0	1.12
6	0	1	2	1	3	3	0	1.14
7	2	2	2	0	1	3	0	2.57
8	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	3.40
9	0	2	0	0	8	0	0	0.60
10	3	6	0	0	0	1	0	3.33

Table 6.3 NDU(Am:N) (n=11)

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	2	3	3	1	1	0	1.90
2	0	2	3	5	0	1	0	1.70
3	0	1	4	4	1	1	0	1.50
4	1	1	2	4	1	2	0	1.67
5	0	1	2	5	1	2	0	1.33
6	0	2	2	3	1	3	0	1.62
7	3	5	2	0	0	1	0	3.10
8	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	3.36
9	0	1	1	5	4	0	0	0.91
10	2	5	3	0	1	0	0	2.64

Table 6.4		UOB(Am:N) (n=11)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	5	0	0	2	1	0	2.70
2	1	3	0	2	2	3	0	1.87
3	1	2	2	1	1	4	0	2.14
4	3	7	0	0	0	1	0	3.30
5	1	1	1	1	2	5	0	1.67
6	0	2	1	2	1	5	0	1.67
7	2	2	2	1	0	4	0	2.71
8	4	5	1	0	0	0	1	3.30
9	0	0	0	2	7	2	0	0.22
10	2	4	1	0	1	3	0	2.75

Table 6.5		BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	1	1	0	1	5	0	2.60
2	1	2	1	0	1	5	0	2.40
3	0	2	1	1	1	5	0	1.80
4	1	1	2	2	1	3	0	1.86
5	0	1	2	2	3	2	0	1.12
6	1	1	3	0	3	2	0	1.62
7	5	2	2	0	0	1	0	3.33
8	7	2	0	0	0	1	0	3.78
9	0	0	1	3	3	3	0	0.71
10	2	2	0	4	0	2	0	2.25

Table 6.6		USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	0	0	4	3	1	0	1.33
2	0	0	0	5	4	2	0	0.56
3	0	1	0	5	3	2	0	0.89
4	1	1	0	4	3	2	0	1.22
5	0	1	0	5	5	0	0	0.73
6	0	1	1	3	5	1	0	0.80
7	3	6	1	1	0	0	0	3.00
8	7	4	0	0	0	0	0	3.64
9	0	0	0	4	7	0	0	0.36
10	2	5	2	0	1	1	0	2.70

Table 6.7		LU (n=9)						
STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	1	3	0	4	0	1	0	2.12
2	1	2	0	4	0	2	0	2.00
3	0	2	1	5	0	1	0	1.62
4	0	1	0	6	0	2	0	1.29
5	0	0	1	7	0	1	0	1.12
6	0	2	1	3	0	2	1	1.83
7	0	4	1	4	0	0	0	2.00
8	0	3	0	4	1	1	0	1.62
9	1	5	0	2	1	0	0	2.33
10	2	5	0	2	0	0	0	2.78

Table 6.8 Mean Scores for the Role of the Lebanese Government in Shaping HE in Lebanon

STATEMENT	Means for Institutions						
	AUB (<i>Am:F</i>)	LAU (<i>Am:F</i>)	NDU (<i>Am:N</i>)	UOB (<i>Am:N</i>)	BAU (<i>Eg</i>)	USJ (<i>Fr</i>)	LU
1.government sets admission requirements	0.67	1.89	1.90	2.70	2.60	1.33	2.12
2.government sets course requirements	0.44	1.44	1.70	1.87	2.40	0.56	2.00
3.government sets quality of facilities	0.44	1.44	1.50	2.14	1.80	0.89	1.62
4.government sets faculty-student ratios	0.44	0.79	1.67	3.30	1.86	1.22	1.29
5.government sets outcomes and processes	0.67	1.12	1.33	1.67	1.12	0.73	1.12
6.government only sets outcomes	1.00	1.14	1.62	1.67	1.62	0.80	1.83
7.government leaves outcomes and processes to University	2.50	2.57	3.10	2.71	3.33	3.00	2.00
8.university has autonomy to manage internal affairs	3.30	3.40	3.36	3.30	3.78	3.64	1.62
9.government manages resource allocation	0.30	0.60	0.91	0.22	0.71	0.36	2.33
10.senior administrators manage resource allocation	2.90	3.33	2.64	2.75	2.25	2.70	2.78

Appendix 6B

Degree of Accountability to Governing Bodies

Table 6.9 AUB(Am:F) (n=10)

AUB(Am:F) is Accountable to:	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	2	5	3	0	0	1	1	0	8
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	0	9	1	0	0	0	0	0	10
Religious Bodies	0	8	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
Foreign Bodies	7	3	0	0	5	2	0	0	3
Students	6	3	1	0	1	4	1	0	4
Parents of Students	3	6	1	0	0	2	1	0	7

Table 6.10 LAU(Am:F) (n=10)

LAU(Am:F) is Accountable to:	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	3	6	1	0	0	3	0	0	7
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	7	0	3	0	1	2	1	4	2
Religious Bodies	4	3	2	1	0	2	2	1	5
Foreign Bodies	6	0	3	1	0	3	1	4	2
Students	7	2	1	0	3	3	2	0	2
Parents of Students	5	3	2	0	2	2	1	0	5

Table 6.11		NDU(Am:N) (n=11)							
NDU(Am:N) is Accountable to	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	3	6	2	0	0	1	4	0	6
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	5	2	3	0	3		0	0	7
Religious Bodies	9	0	1	0	5	2	0	3	1
Foreign Bodies	1	7	3	0	0	1	0	0	9
Students	3	5	3	0	0	2	1	0	8
Parents of Students	3	5	3	0	0	2	1	0	8

Table 6.12		UOB(Am:N) (n=11)							
UOB(Am:N) is Accountable to	Count Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	7	2	2	0	0	3	2	4	2
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	2	5	4	0	2	0	0	2	7
Religious Bodies	9	0	2	0	3	2	4	2	0
Foreign Bodies	1	6	4	0	1	0	0	1	9
Students	8	1	2	0	3	2	2	3	0
Parents of Students	6	2	3	0	1	3	1	3	3

Table 6.13		BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)							
BAU(Eg:F) is Accountable to	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	2	5	3	0	0	1	1	0	8
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	0	9	1	0	1	3	0	1	5
Religious Bodies	1	4	4	1	0	1	0	2	7
Foreign Bodies	3	3	4	0	1	1	1	1	6
Students	9	1	0	0	6	2	0	0	2
Parents of Students	7	2	0	1	3	2	2	0	3

Table 6.14		USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)							
USJ(Fr:F) is Accountable to	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	3	8	0	0	0	1	3	0	7
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	2	8	1	0	0	2	0	1	8
Religious Bodies	8	3	0	0	2	2	2	1	4
Foreign Bodies	4	6	1	0	2	2	0	0	7
Students	8	3	0	0	5	2	1	0	3
Parents of Students	5	6	0	0	3	1	1	0	6

Table 6.15		LU (n=9)							
LU is Accountable to	Count of Responses				Count of Extent of Accountability				
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Extreme	Moderate	Light	Not Know	No Answer
Lebanese Governmental Bodies	6	3	0	0	5	1	0	0	3
Lebanese Non- Governmental Bodies	2	7	0	0	0	2	0	0	7
Religious Bodies	3	6	0	0	1	2	0	0	6
Foreign Bodies	2	7	0	0	0	2	0	0	7
Students	6	2	1	0	1	2	3	0	3
Parents of Students	4	5	0	0	0	2	2	0	5

Appendix 6C

Performance Indicators and Modes of Assessment

Table 6.16

AUB(Am:F) (n=10)

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	1	0	0	0	9	0	1	0
2-Drop Out Rates	5	1	4	0	5	0	0	5
3-Graduation Rates	7	1	2	0	5	0	1	4
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	7	0	3	0	1	5	0	4
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	8	1	1	0	6	0	0	4
6-Research Publications	1	0	0	0	4	2	3	1
7-Research Grants	7	2	1	0	2	1	3	4
8-Consulting Rates	4	3	3	0	2	1	10	6
9-National Ranking of University	2	2	6	0	0	2	0	8
10-International Ranking of University	2	2	6	0	0	2	0	8

Table 6.17

LAU(Am:F) (n=10)

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	9	0	1	0	6	0	2	2
2-Drop Out Rates	5	2	3	0	3	0	1	6
3-Graduation Rates	7	2	1	0	3	0	3	4
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	6	0	4	0	2	1	3	4
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	1	0	0	0	5	0	4	1
6-Research Publications	1	0	0	0	5	0	4	1
7-Research Grants	8	0	2	0	4	0	3	3
8-Consulting Rates	4	1	5	0	1	1	1	7
9-National Ranking of University	4	1	5	0	0	2	1	7
10-International Ranking of University	3	0	7	0	0	1	2	7

Table 6.18**NDU(Am:N) (n=11)**

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	8	0	3	0	8	1	0	2
2-Drop Out Rates	5	2	3	1	7	0	0	4
3-Graduation Rates	8	2	1	0	5	0	3	3
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	8	0	3	0	5	0	3	3
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	1	0	0	0	3	1	7	0
6-Research Publications	1	0	1	0	5	1	4	1
7-Research Grants	6	1	4	0	2	1	3	5
8-Consulting Rates	5	0	6	0	2	2	1	6
9-National Ranking of University	6	0	5	0	1	2	3	5
10-International Ranking of University	4	1	6	0	1	2	1	7

Table 6.19**UOB(Am:N) (n=11)**

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	8	0	3	0	8	0	0	3
2-Drop Out Rates	4	1	6	0	6	0	0	5
3-Graduation Rates	7	0	4	0	7	0	1	3
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	5	1	4	1	5	0	1	5
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	10	0	1	0	4	1	5	1
6-Research Publications	6	2	3	0	3	0	4	4
7-Research Grants	4	3	4	0	2	0	3	6
8-Consulting Rates	1	4	6	0	0	0	2	9
9-National Ranking of University	4	3	4	0	0	0	5	6
10-International Ranking of University	2	3	6	0	0	0	3	8

Table 6.20**BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)**

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	8	1	1	0	3	0	5	2
2-Drop Out Rates	7	0	3	0	4	0	3	3
3-Graduation Rates	7	1	2	0	3	1	2	4
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	8	2	0	0	2	0	4	4
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	4
6-Research Publications	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	4
7-Research Grants	4	3	2	1	0	0	3	6
8-Consulting Rates	2	3	4	1	0	0	3	7
9-National Ranking of University	6	3	1	0	0	3	2	5
10-International Ranking of University	6	1	2	1	0	3	2	5

Table 6.21**USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	6	2	0	3	5	0	1	5
2-Drop Out Rates	5	2	1	3	4	0	0	7
3-Graduation Rates	6	0	1	4	5	0	0	6
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	7	1	0	3	6	0	1	4
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	8	0	0	3	6	0	1	4
6-Research Publications	7	1	1	2	5	0	1	5
7-Research Grants	4	2	2	3	2	0	1	8
8-Consulting Rates	3	2	2	4	3	0	0	8
9-National Ranking of University	5	1	1	4	2	3	0	6
10-International Ranking of University	5	1	1	4	2	2	0	7

Table 6.22 LU (n=9)

Performance Indicator	Application				Mode of Assessment if Applicable			
	Yes	No	Not Know	No Answer	Internal	External	Both	No Answer
1-Student Satisfaction	2	7	0	0	2	0	1	6
2-Drop Out Rates	2	5	2	0	3	0	1	5
3-Graduation Rates	6	0	3	0	4	0	1	4
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	6	3	0	0	3	1	1	4
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	1	0	0	0	4	0	1	4
6-Research Publications	7	1	1	0	4	0	0	5
7-Research Grants	3	4	2	0	2	0	1	6
8-Consulting Rates	3	6	0	0	1	0	1	7
9-National Ranking of University	4	4	1	0	2	0	2	5
10-International Ranking of University	5	4	0	0	0	1	3	5

Table 6.23 Mean Scores of Performance Indicators in the Universities (n=72)

Performance Indicator	Means							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	General Mean
1-Student Satisfaction	1	0.9	0.73	0.73	0.8	0.75	0.22	0.74
2-Drop Out Rates	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.36	0.7	0.63	0.22	0.47
3-Graduation Rates	0.7	0.7	0.73	0.64	0.7	0.86	0.67	0.71
4-Relative Faculty-Student Levels	0.7	0.6	0.73	0.5	0.8	0.88	0.67	0.69
5-Degrees Held by Faculty Members	0.8	1	1	0.91	1	1	1	0.96
6-Research Publications	1	1	0.91	0.55	1	0.78	0.78	0.86
7-Research Grants	0.7	0.8	0.55	0.36	0.44	0.5	0.33	0.53
8-Consulting Rates	0.4	0.4	0.45	0.09	0.22	0.43	0.33	0.33
9-National Ranking of University	0.2	0.4	0.55	0.36	0.6	0.71	0.44	0.46
10-International Ranking of University	0.2	0.3	0.36	0.18	0.67	0.71	0.56	0.40

Appendix 6D

Factors Influencing Promotion

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 6.24 **AUB(Am:F) (n=10)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	3	4	1	1	0	0	2.20
2	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	3.50
3	0	2	1	4	3	0	0	1.20
4	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	3.50
5	0	8	1	1	0	0	0	2.70
6	0	3	4	3	0	0	0	2.00
7	0	4	5	1	0	0	0	2.30
8	0	1	8	1	0	0	0	2.00
9	0	1	3	3	3	0	0	1.20
10	0	2	4	1	1	2	0	1.87
11	0	2	2	2	2	2	0	1.50

Table 6.25 **LAU(Am:F) (n=10)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	5	4	1	0	0	0	0	3.40
2	7	2	1	0	0	0	0	3.60
3	2	5	1	0	0	0	0	2.70
4	8	2	0	0	0	0	0	3.80
5	1	6	2	1	0	0	0	2.70
6	1	5	4	0	0	0	0	2.70
7	1	4	5	0	0	0	0	2.60
8	1	4	4	1	0	0	0	2.50
9	3	4	1	2	0	0	0	2.80
10	3	3	3	1	0	0	0	2.80
11	1	0	2	2	4	1	0	1.11

Table 6.26 **NDU(Am:N) (n=11)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	6	2	1	1	0	0	2.45
2	2	8	0	1	0	0	0	3.00
3	3	5	2	1	0	0	0	2.91
4	4	6	0	1	0	0	0	3.18
5	2	3	3	1	1	1	0	2.40
6	2	6	2	1	0	0	0	2.82
7	1	5	3	2	0	0	0	2.45
8	1	3	6	0	1	0	0	2.27
9	1	7	3	0	0	0	0	2.82
10	1	5	4	1	0	0	0	2.55
11	1	2	5	1	0	2	0	2.33

Table 6.27 **UOB(Am:N) (n=11)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	6	1	1	0	0	0	3.00
2	3	6	1	0	0	1	0	3.20
3	1	5	3	1	0	1	0	2.60
4	5	4	1	0	0	1	0	3.40
5	1	2	4	1	2	1	0	1.90
6	2	5	1	0	3	0	0	2.27
7	0	5	3	1	1	1	0	2.20
8	0	2	6	0	1	2	0	2.00
9	2	6	2	0	1	0	0	2.73
10	2	5	3	0	1	0	0	2.64
11	1	1	2	2	2	3	0	1.62

Table 6.28 **BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	3	0	2	0	0	3	2.71
2	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	3.70
3	1	7	0	2	0	0	0	2.70
4	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	3.50
5	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2.00
6	1	5	1	2	0	1	0	2.58
7	0	5	1	3	0	0	1	2.22
8	0	1	2	5	1	0	1	1.33
9	4	5	0	1	0	0	0	3.20
10	1	6	0	2	0	0	1	2.67
11	0	0	0	6	3	0	1	0.67

Table 6.29**USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	6	.2	0	0	0	0	3.09
2	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	3.18
3	1	6	1	2	1	0	0	2.36
4	1	9	1	0	0	0	0	3.00
5	0	1	7	2	0	1	0	1.90
6	1	6	1	2	1	0	0	2.36
7	0	1	6	3	0	1	0	1.80
8	0	2	3	4	1	1	0	1.60
9	1	8	1	1	0	0	0	2.82
10	3	4	2	1	1	0	0	2.64
11	0	0	4	4	3	0	0	1.09

Table 6.30**LU (n=9)**

FACTOR	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	0	0	0	5	3	0	1	0.62
2	2	4	0	1	2	0	0	2.33
3	1	4	1	1	2	0	0	2.11
4	2	4	0	1	2	0	0	2.33
5	0	0	2	3	2	1	0	1.00
6	0	0	3	4	1	0	1	1.25
7	0	0	2	5	2	0	0	1.00
8	0	1	2	3	1	1	1	1.43
9	1	7	1	0	0	0	0	3.00
10	0	3	3	3	0	0	0	2.00
11	2	5	1	1	0	0	0	2.89

Table 6.31**Means of Factors Influencing Promotion (n=72)**

FACTOR	MEAN							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1	2.20	3.40	2.45	3.00	2.71	3.09	0.62	2.50
2	3.50	3.60	3.00	3.20	3.70	3.18	2.33	3.16
3	1.20	2.70	2.91	2.60	2.70	2.36	2.11	2.32
4	3.50	3.80	3.18	3.40	3.50	3.00	2.33	3.19
5	2.70	2.70	2.40	1.90	2.00	1.90	1.00	1.82
6	2.00	2.70	2.82	2.27	2.58	2.36	1.25	2.23
7	2.30	2.60	2.45	2.20	2.22	1.80	1.00	2.00
8	2.00	2.50	2.27	2.00	1.33	1.60	1.43	1.82
9	1.20	2.80	2.82	2.73	3.20	2.82	3.00	2.65
10	1.87	2.80	2.55	2.64	2.67	2.64	2.00	2.37
11	1.50	1.11	2.33	1.62	0.67	1.09	2.89	1.71

Appendix 6E

Mode of Promotion

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 6.32 **AUB(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	5	1	0	2	0	0	2.50
2	2	2	3	2	0	0	1	2.44
3	0	3	1	4	2	0	0	1.50
4	1	2	1	4	2	0	0	1.60

Table 6.33 **LAU(Am:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	5	3	1	0	1	0	0	3.10
2	6	2	2	0	0	0	0	3.40
3	3	2	1	1	2	1	0	2.33
4	2	4	1	2	1	0	0	2.40

Table 6.34 **NDUAm:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	3	3	2	1	1	1	0	2.60
2	2	4	3	2	0	0	0	2.55
3	0	8	0	3	0	0	0	2.45
4	1	6	3	1	0	0	0	2.64

Table 6.35 **UOB(Am:N) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	1	5	0	2	2	1	0	2.10
2	2	4	2	2	0	1	0	2.60
3	0	5	4	1	1	0	0	2.18
4	1	8	2	0	0	0	0	2.91

Table 6.36 **BAU(Eg:F) (n=10)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	5	2	1	1	0	0	1	3.22
2	5	2	1	1	0	0	1	3.22
3	0	0	1	6	2	0	1	0.89
4	2	2	1	3	1	0	1	2.11

Table 6.37 **USJ(Fr:F) (n=11)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	4	3	1	1	0	0	2.45
2	2	6	0	2	1	0	0	2.55
3	1	3	4	1	1	1	0	2.20
4	1	4	3	2	0	1	0	2.40

Table 6.38 **LU (n=9)**

STATEMENT	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Do Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	MEAN
1	2	5	0	0	0	0	2	3.29
2	1	6	1	1	0	0	0	2.78
3	1	5	0	1	2	0	0	2.22
4	1	3	3	2	0	0	0	2.33

Table 6.39 **Mean Scores of the Modes of Promotion (n=72)**

STATEMENT	MEAN							GRAND MEAN
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	
1	2.50	3.10	2.60	2.10	3.22	2.45	3.29	2.75
2	2.44	3.40	2.55	2.60	3.22	2.55	2.78	2.79
3	1.50	2.33	2.45	2.18	0.89	2.20	2.33	1.98
4	1.60	2.40	2.64	2.91	2.11	2.40	2.33	2.34

Appendix 7A

Factors Influencing Choice of Institution

A mean value of 3 symbolises either neutrality on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement in relation to the item influencing choice of institution for tertiary studies. A mean value less than 3 however indicates the weaker influence of the item in the choice of university and a mean value greater than 3 indicates that the item plays a significant role in students' choice of institution.

Table 7.1 AUB(Am:F) (n=210)

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	38.1	42.4	7.6	10.5	1.4	0	3.05
2-academic reputation in field of study	38.6	46.7	9.5	3.3	1.9	0	3.17
3-international standing	28.1	48.6	13.8	6.7	2.9	0	2.92
4-national standing	37.1	45.7	10.5	3.3	3.3	0	3.10
5-religious affiliation	6.7	14.3	29.5	18.6	30.5	0.5	1.48
6-political affiliation	5.2	15.2	29.5	22.4	27.1	0.5	1.49
7-educational system	28.1	42.9	19.0	5.2	3.8	1.0	2.87
8-language of instruction	23.3	44.8	19.0	7.6	5.2	0	2.73
9-field of study	31.4	42.4	16.2	4.8	3.8	1.4	2.14
10-level of tuition	29.5	33.8	19.5	11.0	5.7	0.5	2.71
11-finacial aid offered by institution	10.5	21.0	30.5	22.9	14.3	1.0	1.90
12-ease of finding job	29.5	41.9	20.5	4.3	3.8	0	2.89
13-parental pressure	11.9	20.0	23.8	22.9	21.4	0	1.78
14-geographical location	18.1	26.2	27.1	18.1	10.5	0	2.23

Table 7.2**LAU(Am:F) (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	13.8	32.9	36.2	11.4	5.2	0.5	2.39
2-academic reputation in field of study	21.9	45.7	24.3	5.2	2.4	0.5	3.00
3-international standing	18.1	42.9	28.1	7.1	3.3	0.5	2.76
4-national standing	24.8	42.9	23.3	5.7	2.9	0.5	2.81
5-religious affiliation	4.3	18.1	34.4	21.4	21.0	1	1.63
6-political affiliation	3.8	11.9	38.6	22.9	21.9	1	1.52
7-educational system	32.4	38.6	20.5	3.3	3.8	1.4	2.94
8-language of instruction	31.0	39.5	19.0	5.7	3.3	1.4	2.90
9-field of study	30.0	46.2	18.1	3.8	1.4	0.5	3.00
10-level of tuition	36.7	20.5	22.9	12.4	6.2	1.4	2.70
11-finacial aid offered by institution	25.7	24.8	25.7	10.0	12.9	1.0	2.41
12-ease of finding job	14.3	42.9	28.1	8.1	6.2	0.5	2.51
13-parental pressure	7.6	11.9	26.7	21.0	32.4	0.5	1.41
14-geographical location	13.8	30.0	19.5	14.8	21.4	0.5	2.00

Table 7.3**NDU(Am:N) (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	7.1	32.4	32.9	19.5	7.1	1	2.13
2-academic reputation in field of study	15.7	37.6	25.7	17.1	2.9	1	2.47
3-international standing	7.1	29.5	31.9	23.3	6.2	1.9	2.08
4-national standing	11.0	40.0	21.4	18.6	7.1	1.9	2.30
5-religious affiliation	10.5	19.0	31.0	21.0	18.1	0.5	1.83
6-political affiliation	7.1	11.9	32.4	24.3	22.9	1.4	1.56
7-educational system	21.4	47.1	17.6	7.1	5.2	1.4	2.73
8-language of instruction	27.1	45.2	16.2	8.1	2.4	1	2.87
9-field of study	28.1	40.5	21.0	6.7	2.4	1.4	2.86
10-level of tuition	6.7	15.7	32.4	29.5	14.8	1	1.70
11-finacial aid offered by institution	11.4	21.0	33.8	24.8	8.1	1.0	2.03
12-ease of finding job	11.0	27.1	36.7	17.6	7.1	0.5	2.17
13-parental pressure	7.1	14.3	27.1	24.8	25.7	1	1.52
14-geographical location	22.9	32.4	18.6	13.8	11.9	0.5	2.41

Table 7.4**UOB(Am:N) (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	12.9	27.1	29.5	20.0	9.0	1.4	2.15
2-academic reputation in field of study	16.7	40.0	26.2	12.4	3.8	1	2.54
3-international standing	11.9	27.6	39.0	15.7	5.7	0	2.24
4-national standing	15.7	46.2	23.8	11.4	2.4	0.5	2.62
5-religious affiliation	6.2	14.3	31.9	24.3	22.9	0.5	1.56
6-political affiliation	2.4	13.3	29.5	24.8	30.0	0	1.33
7-educational system	21.4	41.0	23.3	9.5	3.8	1.0	2.67
8-language of instruction	26.7	43.8	21.9	5.7	1.4	0.5	2.89
9-field of study	28.6	47.6	18.1	4.8	0.5	0.5	3.00
10-level of tuition	21.0	19.5	23.3	27.6	8.6	0	2.17
11-finacial aid offered by institution	10.5	31.4	23.3	15.2	19.5	0	1.98
12-ease of finding job	9.0	27.6	40.0	14.8	8.6	0	2.14
13-parental pressure	6.2	18.6	25.7	16.7	32.9	0	1.49
14-geographical location	17.6	31.4	20.5	12.4	17.6	0.5	2.19

Table 7.5**BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	20.5	45.2	20.0	9.5	4.3	0.5	2.68
2-academic reputation in field of study	21.4	36.2	21.0	14.3	7.1	0	2.50
3-international standing	9.0	21.4	36.2	21.4	11.4	0.5	1.95
4-national standing	16.7	47.6	21.9	9.0	4.8	0	2.62
5-religious affiliation	13.3	23.8	22.9	12.9	25.7	1.4	1.86
6-political affiliation	5.2	15.2	29.0	18.1	31.4	1.0	1.44
7-educational system	13.3	33.8	15.7	19.5	15.2	2.4	2.11
8-language of instruction	21.4	44.3	18.1	5.7	9.5	1.0	2.63
9-field of study	22.4	52.4	14.8	4.3	5.2	1.0	2.83
10-level of tuition	12.9	12.4	15.2	35.2	23.8	0.5	1.55
11-finacial aid offered by institution	12.9	18.6	18.1	22.4	27.6	0.5	1.67
12-ease of finding job	8.6	19.0	31.4	20.0	20.5	0.5	1.75
13-parental pressure	7.6	12.4	17.6	25.2	36.2	1.0	1.29
14-geographical location	18.1	36.2	16.2	14.3	15.2	0	2.28

Table 7.6**USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	32.4	41.4	14.8	6.2	4.8	0.5	2.91
2-academic reputation in field of study	39.0	39.5	14.8	4.8	1.4	0.5	3.11
3-international standing	22.4	46.2	23.3	5.2	1.9	1	2.83
4-national standing	46.2	38.6	9.5	3.3	1.4	1	3.26
5-religious affiliation	7.6	20.0	25.7	24.3	21.9	0.5	1.67
6-political affiliation	4.3	10.5	30.5	22.9	30.0	1.9	1.35
7-educational system	22.9	31.4	27.6	10.0	6.7	1.4	2.55
8-language of instruction	27.6	39.0	22.4	7.1	3.3	0.5	2.81
9-field of study	35.2	41.9	16.2	4.8	1.4	0.5	3.05
10-level of tuition	12.9	15.2	30.5	28.6	12.4	0.5	1.88
11-finacial aid offered by institution	7.6	17.1	32.9	25.7	16.2	0.5	1.74
12-ease of finding job	17.1	41.9	24.8	12.4	3.3	0.5	2.57
13-parental pressure	4.3	9.0	24.8	22.4	38.6	1	1.12
14-geographical location	15.7	23.3	22.9	16.7	20.0	1.4	1.98

Table 7.7**LU (n=210)**

FACTOR	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE						MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>No Answer</i>	
1-history of institution	18.1	22.9	25.2	17.6	15.2	1	2.11
2-academic reputation in field of study	23.3	35.7	15.7	11.9	12.4	1	2.46
3-international standing	4.8	19.5	32.9	18.1	24.3	0.5	1.62
4-national standing	20.0	40.5	15.7	12.4	11.0	0.5	2.46
5-religious affiliation	6.7	11.0	23.8	17.6	41.9	0.5	1.25
6-political affiliation	6.7	5.2	25.7	20.0	41.9	0.5	1.14
7-educational system	8.6	24.3	22.9	19.5	22.4	2.4	1.77
8-language of instruction	21.0	34.8	21.0	9.0	12.9	1.4	2.43
9-field of study	29.0	52.4	6.7	5.7	4.8	1.4	2.97
10-level of tuition	2.9	5.2	5.2	32.9	52.4	1.4	0.71
11-finacial aid offered by institution	1.0	2.4	13.8	33.8	47.1	1.9	0.74
12-ease of finding job	5.2	11.9	26.7	23.3	31.9	1.0	1.35
13-parental pressure	2.9	6.7	14.3	28.1	47.1	1.0	0.89
14-geographical location	17.6	28.6	10.0	19.5	23.8	0.5	1.97

Table 7.8 **Mean Scores of Factors Influencing Choice of Institution (n=1470)**

FACTOR	MEAN							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1-history of institution	3.05	2.39	2.13	2.15	2.68	2.91	2.11	2.49
2-academic reputation in field of study	3.17	3.00	2.47	2.54	2.50	3.11	2.46	2.75
3-international standing	2.92	2.76	2.08	2.24	1.95	2.83	1.62	2.34
4-national standing	3.10	2.81	2.30	2.62	2.62	3.26	2.46	2.74
5-religious affiliation	1.48	1.63	1.83	1.56	1.86	1.67	1.25	1.61
6-political affiliation	1.49	1.52	1.56	1.33	1.44	1.35	1.14	1.40
7-educational system	2.87	2.94	2.73	2.67	2.11	2.55	1.77	2.52
8-language of instruction	2.73	2.90	2.87	2.89	2.63	2.81	2.43	2.75
9-field of study	2.14	3.00	2.86	3.00	2.83	3.05	2.97	2.84
10-level of tuition	2.71	2.70	1.70	2.17	1.55	1.88	0.71	1.92
11-finacial aid offered by institution	1.90	2.41	2.03	1.98	1.67	1.74	0.74	1.78
12-ease of finding job	2.89	2.51	2.17	2.14	1.75	2.57	1.35	2.20
13-parental pressure	1.78	1.41	1.52	1.49	1.29	1.12	0.89	1.36
14-geographical location	2.23	2.00	2.41	2.19	2.28	1.98	1.97	2.15

Appendix 7B

Student Perceptions of the Management Cultures of the Institution

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 7.9 **AUB(Am:F) (n=210)**

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	15.2	49.5	17.1	11.4	3.8	2.9	0	2.61
2	24.8	49.0	11.4	12.4	1.0	1.4	0	2.84
3	19.5	31.0	26.2	16.2	6.7	0.5	0	2.40
4	10.0	35.2	31.4	9.5	3.8	9.5	0.5	2.15
5	7.1	23.8	26.7	26.2	10.0	6.2	0	1.92
6	10.0	27.6	27.1	19.0	6.7	9.5	0	2.36
7	10.5	37.6	23.3	10.5	2.9	15.2	0	2.42
8	15.7	39.0	27.6	4.8	1.0	11.9	0	2.64

Table 7.10 **LAU(Am:F) (n=210)**

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	19.5	41.9	21.4	9.5	6.7	1.0	0	2.58
2	29.5	43.8	16.7	6.2	2.9	0.5	0.5	2.91
3	13.8	35.7	33.8	11.9	2.9	1.4	0.5	2.46
4	9.5	39.0	32.4	7.1	4.8	6.7	0.5	2.42
5	6.2	22.9	30.0	20.0	17.6	3.3	0	1.80
6	8.6	30.5	33.3	14.8	8.6	3.3	1	2.16
7	11.9	36.7	27.1	9.5	3.3	10.5	1	2.45
8	21.9	41.0	20.5	6.2	1.9	7.6	1	2.75

Table 7.11		NDU(Am:N) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	15.2	46.2	17.2	14.3	5.7	1.4	0	2.51
2	19.0	45.7	23.3	8.1	2.9	1.0	0	2.70
3	9.5	48.6	20.0	13.8	8.1	0	0	2.38
4	10.5	34.3	30.0	15.7	5.2	4.3	0	2.29
5	10.5	33.8	26.2	17.1	6.7	5.7	0	2.24
6	17.6	37.1	24.8	10.0	5.2	5.2	0	2.52
7	5.2	24.3	31.9	11.4	8.1	18.6	0.5	2.07
8	10.5	29.0	31.0	9.5	6.2	13.8	0	2.28

Table 7.12		UOB(Am:N) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	13.3	43.8	22.4	11.0	6.7	2.9	0	2.46
2	22.4	49.0	16.2	9.0	2.4	1.0	0	2.80
3	9.0	39.0	28.1	16.7	5.7	1.0	0	2.29
4	9.0	26.2	32.9	14.3	5.2	11.9	0.5	2.20
5	6.2	16.7	25.2	23.8	19.0	8.1	1.0	1.67
6	7.6	22.4	22.4	20.0	13.3	12.4	1.9	1.91
7	5.2	28.1	23.8	13.3	3.3	25.7	1	2.19
8	9.5	40.5	18.6	12.4	2.4	16.7	0	2.42

Table 7.13		BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	27.1	36.2	11.9	15.2	6.2	2.4	0	2.63
2	23.3	55.7	9.0	6.7	2.9	1.9	0	2.90
3	16.7	36.7	13.8	18.6	7.1	7.1	0	2.37
4	9.5	27.6	20.0	18.6	9.0	14.3	1.0	2.10
5	5.7	7.1	12.9	28.6	34.8	9.5	1.4	1.19
6	5.7	24.3	16.7	21.0	21.9	10.0	9.5	1.71
7	11.4	38.6	14.8	5.2	5.2	24.3	0.5	2.46
8	2.9	7.6	13.3	18.1	18.6	38.6	1.0	3.58

Table 7.14 USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	21.0	45.2	19.0	8.6	3.8	1.4	1.0	2.72
2	24.8	57.1	12.4	3.8	0.5	1.4	0	3.02
3	21.0	49.5	20.0	6.7	1.0	1.9	0	2.83
4	8.1	45.2	21.4	9.5	6.2	9.5	0	2.40
5	6.2	21.4	23.8	26.7	15.7	5.2	1.0	1.75
6	10.5	43.3	26.2	11.0	5.2	2.9	1.0	2.43
7	5.7	18.6	21.9	17.6	8.1	27.6	0.5	1.96
8	18.1	45.2	17.6	8.1	3.3	7.1	0.5	2.67

Table 7.15 LU (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	15.2	31.4	19.5	14.3	14.8	4.8	0	2.18
2	27.1	33.8	12.4	16.2	5.7	4.8	0	2.60
3	4.8	13.3	14.8	31.9	25.2	10.0	0	1.40
4	11.4	21.0	19.5	21.4	15.7	10.5	0.5	1.91
5	5.7	13.3	16.7	22.9	28.1	12.4	1.0	1.45
6	11.9	30.0	12.9	19.0	14.8	11.0	0.5	2.05
7	3.3	10.5	12.9	19.0	19.0	34.3	1.0	1.60
8	1.4	16.7	11.4	13.8	24.3	31.4	1.0	1.57

Table 7.16 Means of Statements Related to Student Perceptions of the Management Cultures of the Institutions (n=1470)

STATEMENT	MEAN							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN	GRAND MEAN
1	2.61	2.58	2.51	2.63	2.72	2.18	2.53	2.53
2	2.84	2.91	2.70	2.90	3.02	2.60	2.82	2.82
3	2.40	2.46	2.38	2.37	2.83	1.40	2.30	2.30
4	2.15	2.42	2.29	2.10	2.40	1.91	2.21	2.21
5	1.92	1.80	2.24	1.19	1.75	1.45	1.72	1.72
6	2.36	2.16	2.52	1.71	2.43	2.05	2.16	2.16
7	2.42	2.45	2.07	2.46	1.96	1.60	2.16	2.16
8	2.64	2.75	2.28	3.58	2.67	1.57	2.27	2.27

Appendix 7C

Student Recognition of the Mission of the Institution

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 7.17		AUB(Am:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	23.3	46.2	14.3	11.4	4.3	0	0.5	2.73
2	41.0	37.6	11.4	4.8	2.9	2.4	0	3.09
3	5.7	29.5	30.5	20.0	7.1	7.1	0	2.07
4	5.7	31.4	36.2	13.3	4.8	8.1	0.5	2.20
5	5.2	31.0	30.5	15.7	6.7	11.0	0	2.12

Table 7.18		LAU(Am:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	29.5	43.3	16.2	7.1	1.9	1.9	0	2.91
2	61.4	25.7	6.2	3.3	1.9	1.4	0	3.41
3	13.8	42.2	24.3	11.4	4.8	3.3	0	2.49
4	13.8	33.8	31.0	10.5	5.2	4.8	1.0	2.41
5	12.9	38.1	28.1	10.0	3.3	7.1	0.5	2.47

Table 7.19		NDU(Am:N) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	18.6	51.9	14.3	8.6	5.2	1.4	0	2.70
2	51.0	34.8	6.7	3.3	0.5	3.8	0	3.32
3	11.9	41.9	20.5	14.8	8.1	2.9	0	2.35
4	10.0	35.2	30.5	14.3	6.2	3.8	0	2.29
5	7.6	46.2	32.4	5.7	2.4	5.7	0	2.51

Table 7.20		UOB(Am:N) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	23.3	51.9	11.9	4.8	4.3	2.4	1.4	2.86
2	53.3	31.0	8.1	5.2	1.0	1.4	0	3.30
3	11.9	42.9	17.1	15.7	4.3	8.1	0	2.42
4	9.5	35.3	24.3	10.5	5.2	14.8	0	2.33
5	7.6	35.7	26.7	7.6	5.7	14.3	2.4	2.33

Table 7.21		BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	23.8	36.2	15.7	12.4	8.6	2.4	1.0	2.55
2	52.9	35.7	5.2	1.9	2.9	0.5	1.0	3.35
3	11.0	27.1	20.0	23.8	10.0	7.6	0.5	2.05
4	8.6	25.2	15.2	16.7	12.9	20.0	1.4	2.00
5	5.2	21.9	22.9	20.5	11.9	16.7	1.0	1.88

Table 7.22		USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	34.8	32.4	6.7	18.6	5.2	1.0	1.4	2.74
2	46.7	33.8	12.4	3.3	1.4	1.9	0.5	3.22
3	13.8	30.5	21.0	17.6	7.6	9.0	0.5	2.25
4	2.9	18.1	33.8	21.0	9.0	15.2	0	1.85
5	8.1	24.8	31.0	15.2	4.8	15.7	0.5	2.16

Table 7.23		LU (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	26.2	30.5	11.9	13.8	11.0	3.8	2.9	2.49
2	45.2	32.9	8.1	5.2	4.3	3.8	0.5	3.10
3	5.2	9.0	12.9	26.7	34.8	11.4	0	1.23
4	2.9	5.2	12.9	25.7	34.8	18.6	0	1.16
5	3.3	9.0	15.2	27.6	31.9	12.4	0.5	1.24

Table 7.24 Means of Statements Related to Student Realisation of the Mission of the University

STATEMENT	MEAN							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU) (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1	2.73	2.91	2.70	2.86	2.55	2.74	2.49	2.27
2	3.09	3.41	3.32	3.30	3.35	3.22	3.10	3.26
3	2.07	2.49	2.35	2.42	2.05	2.25	1.23	2.12
4	2.20	2.41	2.29	2.33	2.00	1.85	1.16	2.03
5	2.12	2.47	2.51	2.33	1.88	2.16	1.24	2.10

Appendix 7D

Students' Perceptions of the Teaching/Learning Process

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 7.25

AUB(Am:F)(n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	35.7	51.9	8.6	3.8	0	0	0	3.32
2	26.7	46.2	11.9	12.9	1.9	0.5	0	3.16
3	18.1	38.1	24.3	9.5	5.2	4.3	0.5	2.7
4	6.2	10.0	19.5	48.1	16.2	0	0	1.8
5	16.2	55.2	18.1	8.1	2.4	0	0	2.85
6	11.4	45.7	27.1	11.0	4.8	0	0	2.87
7	8.6	32.4	31.0	19.0	7.6	1.0	0.5	2.41
8	14.8	46.2	22.4	11.9	4.8	0	0	2.85
9	10.0	39.5	27.1	14.3	8.6	0.5	0	2.5
10	9.0	33.8	22.9	20.0	13.3	1.0	0	2.31
11	22.9	55.2	11.0	6.7	2.9	1.4	0	2.87
12	11.4	21.4	28.6	20.0	11.0	7.1	0.5	2.32
13	15.7	41.0	13.8	15.2	10.0	3.8	0.5	2.39
14	13.3	31.0	22.9	10.0	16.7	6.2	0	2.46
15	14.3	31.4	24.8	8.6	14.3	6.7	0	2.5

Table 7.26

LAU(Am:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	45.7	44.8	6.7	1.4	1.4	0	0	3.32
2	39.0	44.3	10.5	3.8	1.4	1.0	0	3.16
3	16.7	46.7	26.2	7.1	1.4	1.4	0.5	2.7
4	11.4	19.0	20.5	36.2	12.9	0	0	1.8
5	23.8	48.1	18.1	5.7	2.9	1.0	0	2.85
6	28.1	40.5	21.9	5.7	2.4	1.0	0.5	2.87
7	13.8	37.1	25.7	15.7	4.3	2.4	1.0	2.41
8	21.0	51.9	19.5	4.8	2.4	0	0.5	2.85
9	16.7	38.6	23.3	13.8	4.3	1.9	1.4	2.5
10	14.8	35.7	21.9	17.1	8.6	1.9	0	2.31
11	28.6	42.4	16.7	8.1	2.4	1.9	0	2.87
12	14.3	29.5	27.6	14.3	5.7	8.6	0	2.32
13	17.6	35.2	21.9	7.6	11.9	5.2	0.5	2.39
14	16.2	36.7	27.1	9.5	6.7	3.8	0	2.46
15	21.9	29.5	27.1	11.4	5.7	4.3	0	2.5

Table 7.27

NDU(Am:N) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	33.3	54.3	9.0	1.4	1.0	0.5	0.5	3.18
2	27.6	55.2	12.9	2.4	0.5	1.0	0.5	3.08
3	15.7	44.3	23.8	8.6	1.9	4.8	1.0	2.64
4	11.9	16.7	21.4	39.5	10.0	0	0.5	1.81
5	21.9	53.3	14.3	4.8	3.8	1.0	1.0	2.86
6	15.7	44.3	24.8	11.0	2.4	1.9	0	2.6
7	11.9	41.4	26.7	13.3	5.7	1.0	0	2.4
8	19.0	59.5	13.8	5.2	1.4	0.5	0.5	2.9
9	12.9	40.5	23.8	15.7	19.5	10.0	2.4	2.41
10	29.0	44.3	19.0	1.4	5.2	0	1.0	2.26
11	8.6	20.0	30.5	16.7	8.6	15.7	0	2.91
12	23.8	35.2	19.0	9.0	8.1	4.3	0.5	2.03
13	18.6	36.7	18.1	15.2	8.6	2.9	0	2.58
14	20.5	37.1	16.7	11.9	8.1	5.7	0	2.41
15	13.8	35.2	26.7	11.4	8.6	4.3	0	2.5

Table 7.28

UOB(Am:N) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	33.8	44.8	13.3	6.2	1.9	0	0	3.02
2	27.1	48.1	11.0	7.6	5.2	1.0	0	2.84
3	18.1	46.7	21.9	6.7	3.3	3.3	0	2.7
4	8.1	25.7	24.3	34.8	5.7	1.0	0.5	1.96
5	14.8	52.4	19.5	4.8	4.3	2.4	1.9	2.6
6	15.2	47.1	20.5	10.5	4.3	1.9	0.5	2.59
7	11.9	40.0	27.1	11.9	5.2	3.3	0.5	2.42
8	19.0	45.7	20.0	8.1	5.7	1.0	0.5	2.65
9	15.2	41.4	20.5	14.3	6.2	1.4	1.0	2.45
10	11.4	29.0	17.1	19.0	17.1	5.2	1.0	1.99
11	19.5	46.2	17.6	7.1	6.2	2.9	0.5	2.66
12	6.7	21.9	20.0	15.2	18.6	16.2	1.4	1.83
13	18.1	34.3	15.2	11.9	12.4	6.7	1.4	2.34
14	19.5	33.8	21.4	12.4	7.6	3.8	1.4	2.46
15	15.7	36.2	18.6	10.5	11.0	7.1	1.0	2.36

Table 7.29

BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	25.2	47.1	10.0	10.5	4.8	1.9	0.5	2.78
2	27.1	47.1	10.5	9.5	4.3	1.4	0	2.83
3	25.7	39.0	17.6	11.0	5.2	0	1.4	2.7
4	9.0	13.8	14.3	37.1	24.3	0.5	1.0	1.31
5	15.2	53.8	10.5	14.8	4.8	0.5	1.0	2.6
6	11.9	26.7	20.0	22.4	16.2	2.4	0.5	1.96
7	6.2	24.3	18.1	25.7	21.0	3.3	1.4	1.69
8	12.4	31.9	16.7	18.1	18.6	2.4	0	2.01
9	15.7	35.7	17.6	15.2	12.9	2.4	0.5	2.26
10	6.2	11.4	11.4	22.9	44.3	2.9	1.0	1.12
11	31.0	45.7	10.5	7.1	3.3	1.4	1.0	2.95
12	12.9	24.3	13.8	16.7	21.0	11.0	0.5	1.91
13	26.7	27.6	11.0	12.9	14.3	5.7	1.9	2.4
14	16.2	28.1	26.2	14.3	11.4	3.8	0	2.23
15	6.2	14.8	17.1	20.5	25.7	15.2	0.5	1.55

Table 7.30

USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	25.7	48.1	13.8	5.7	3.3	2.4	1.0	2.88
2	29.0	46.2	12.4	6.7	5.2	0	0.5	2.88
3	30.5	46.7	10.0	6.7	3.3	1.0	1.9	2.96
4	6.7	21.9	19.0	31.0	20.0	0	1.4	1.64
5	15.2	41.9	15.7	15.7	9.0	1.4	1.0	2.39
6	13.8	40.5	19.5	14.3	10.5	0.5	1.0	2.33
7	10.0	25.7	25.2	23.3	12.4	2.9	0.5	1.98
8	9.5	40.0	20.5	18.1	8.6	2.4	1.0	2.24
9	14.3	45.2	20.5	10.0	8.1	1.4	0.5	2.48
10	5.7	14.3	11.9	22.9	40.5	3.8	1.0	1.21
11	5.2	15.7	17.1	22.9	30.0	8.1	1.0	1.43
12	5.2	15.2	21.9	22.4	24.8	10.0	0.5	1.54
13	27.1	31.0	16.2	13.8	9.5	1.9	0.5	2.53
14	16.2	37.6	23.8	7.1	9.0	5.7	0.5	2.45
15	13.3	31.4	21.0	8.1	16.2	9.5	0.5	2.18

Table 7.31

LU (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	11.0	38.6	12.9	17.6	19.0	1.0	0	2.05
2	15.2	37.1	15.7	15.7	15.7	0.5	0	2.2
3	19.5	33.3	20.5	12.4	12.4	1.0	1.0	2.36
4	4.3	15.2	10.0	47.1	22.9	0.5	0	1.31
5	7.6	43.3	12.9	18.6	14.8	1.4	1.4	2.11
6	0.5	10.0	14.3	35.7	38.1	1.0	0.5	0.99
7	4.8	12.4	16.7	35.2	28.6	1.4	1.0	1.29
8	5.7	23.8	16.7	31.0	20.5	1.9	0.5	1.63
9	6.2	21.9	18.1	29.5	22.9	0.5	1.0	1.59
10	2.4	9.0	6.2	23.8	55.2	1.9	1.4	0.78
11	5.2	12.4	9.0	24.3	43.8	5.2	0	1.11
12	4.8	11.4	12.4	26.2	39.0	5.7	0.5	1.16
13	30.5	18.1	5.7	20.5	22.4	2.9	0	2.14
14	4.3	15.7	18.6	21.4	29.5	10.5	0	1.44
15	2.9	11.9	12.4	15.7	39.0	16.7	1.4	1.23

Table 7.32

Means of Statements Related to Teaching/Learning Process

STATEMENT	MEANS							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1	3.32	3.32	3.18	3.02	2.78	2.88	2.05	2.94
2	3.16	3.16	3.08	2.84	2.83	2.88	2.2	2.88
3	2.7	2.7	2.64	2.7	2.7	2.96	2.36	2.68
4	1.8	1.8	1.81	1.96	1.31	1.64	1.31	1.66
5	2.85	2.85	2.86	2.6	2.6	2.39	2.11	2.61
6	2.87	2.87	2.6	2.59	1.96	2.33	0.99	2.32
7	2.41	2.41	2.4	2.42	1.69	1.98	1.29	2.09
8	2.85	2.85	2.9	2.65	2.01	2.24	1.63	2.45
9	2.5	2.5	2.41	2.45	2.26	2.48	1.59	2.31
10	2.31	2.31	2.26	1.99	1.12	1.21	0.78	1.71
11	2.87	2.87	2.91	2.66	2.95	1.43	1.11	2.4
12	2.32	2.32	2.03	1.83	1.91	1.54	1.16	1.88
13	2.39	2.39	2.58	2.34	2.4	2.53	2.14	2.40
14	2.46	2.46	2.41	2.46	2.23	2.45	1.44	2.27
15	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.36	1.55	2.18	1.23	2.12

Appendix 7E

Students' Perceptions of the Quality of Academic and Non-academic Services

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 7.33

AUB(Am:F) (n=210)

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	35.2	40.0	17.6	4.3	1.4	1.4	0	2.99
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	23.3	43.3	24.3	6.2	1.9	1.0	0	2.77
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	23.3	50.0	16.7	7.1	2.9	0	0	2.84
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	16.2	36.7	35.2	7.1	3.8	1.0	0	2.51
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	13.3	34.3	30.5	12.9	4.3	3.8	1.0	2.28
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	11.9	31.0	37.1	10.5	4.3	4.3	1.0	2.23
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	10.5	30.0	33.3	14.3	6.7	4.8	0.5	2.09
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	9.6	24.0	34.3	14.3	12.4	4.8	1.0	1.89

Table 7.34

LAU(Am:F) (n=210)

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	24.3	41.4	21.9	7.6	3.3	1.4	0	2.71
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	34.3	39.5	17.1	1.9	3.8	1.9	1.4	2.94
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	46.7	31.9	14.3	3.8	1.9	1.4	0	3.13
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	34.3	35.2	21.4	4.8	2.9	1.4	0	2.89
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	28.6	37.6	18.1	5.7	1.4	7.1	1.4	2.66
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	12.4	24.8	39.0	9.0	6.7	8.1	0	2.03
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	15.2	25.2	35.2	11.4	1.9	11.0	0	2.08
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	20.5	37.1	31.0	6.7	2.9	1.9	0	2.6

Table 7.35

NDU(Am:F) (n=210)

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	13.8	35.2	26.7	11.4	8.6	4.3	0	2.21
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	11.4	41.9	21.0	12.9	11.0	1.9	0	2.24
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	13.3	34.8	26.7	10.0	12.4	2.9	0	2.18
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	18.1	30.5	27.6	9.5	11.4	2.4	0.5	2.27
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	12.4	35.7	24.8	9.0	8.6	9.0	0.5	2.07
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	13.3	30.0	25.7	13.8	10.0	5.7	1.4	2.06
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	7.1	27.6	30.5	17.1	6.7	9.0	1.9	1.84
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	8.6	21.0	16.7	18.1	23.8	11.4	0.5	1.38

Table 7.36**UOB(Am:F) (n=210)**

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	13.8	34.3	15.2	11.9	12.4	6.7	1.4	2.35
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	10.0	31.4	26.7	13.3	11.9	5.7	1.0	1.97
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	9.0	28.1	27.1	19.0	13.3	2.9	0.5	1.92
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	14.3	26.7	28.1	14.3	13.3	2.9	0.5	2.06
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	8.1	37.6	26.7	11.0	4.8	11.5	0.5	1.99
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	9.5	24.8	23.3	17.1	16.2	6.2	2.9	1.75
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	3.3	22.9	30.5	14.8	17.6	9.5	1.4	1.5
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	15.2	27.1	22.9	7.6	19.0	5.7	2.4	1.95

Table 7.37**BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)**

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	22.4	31.9	24.8	8.6	6.7	5.7	0	2.38
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	7.6	15.7	26.7	16.2	22.9	11.0	0	1.36
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	9.5	18.6	20.0	19.5	21.9	9.0	1.4	1.46
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	13.8	34.3	19.5	9.5	11.9	11.0	0	1.96
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	23.3	29.0	24.3	4.8	7.6	11.0	0	2.23
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	8.6	23.3	31.9	8.6	16.2	10.0	1.4	1.69
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	7.1	26.7	25.7	7.1	11.9	21.0	0	1.47
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	12.9	34.3	32.9	10.5	5.7	3.8	0	2.27

Table 7.38**USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)**

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	25.7	39.0	25.7	2.9	1.9	3.8	1.0	2.73
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	21.4	33.8	21.4	14.3	4.8	3.8	0.5	2.42
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	28.1	30.5	15.2	17.6	4.8	3.3	0.5	2.5
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	21.0	36.2	18.1	14.3	6.2	3.8	0.5	2.4
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	17.1	31.0	24.3	11.4	5.2	10.5	0.5	2.12
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	2.9	11.9	32.9	26.7	20.5	3.8	1.4	1.38
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	2.4	19.5	33.8	21.9	15.2	6.2	1.0	1.53
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	4.3	18.1	27.1	25.7	20.0	3.8	1.0	1.49

Table 7.39**LU (n=210)**

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Very High</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very Poor</i>	<i>Not Aware of</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	3.3	21.9	37.6	15.2	13.8	7.6	0.5	1.6
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	1.0	4.8	8.6	19.5	61.4	4.3	1.0	0.51
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	3.3	3.8	9.5	18.1	61.0	3.8	0.5	0.58
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	3.8	13.8	31.0	12.4	32.4	6.2	0.5	1.25
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	1.0	11.9	18.1	28.6	33.3	6.2	1.0	0.99
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	1.9	6.2	11.4	15.2	62.9	1.9	0.5	0.63
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	1.9	2.4	11.0	20.0	54.3	10.5	0	0.46
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	0.5	2.9	7.6	15.7	71.0	1.9	0.5	0.4

Table 7.40 Mean of Quality of Academic and Non-academic Services at All Institutions of HE (n=1470)

QUALITY OF ACADEMIC SERVICES AND FACILITIES	MEANS							
	AUB (Am:F)	LAU (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1. The level of resources in the library/libraries is	2.99	2.71	2.21	2.35	2.38	2.73	1.63	2.47
2. The level of access to electronic resources through online databases is	2.77	2.94	2.24	1.97	1.36	2.42	0.51	2.97
3. The ease of access to the internet for educational and research purposes is	2.84	3.13	2.18	1.92	1.46	2.5	0.58	2.92
4. The standard of computers in the labs you have access to in your course of study is	2.51	2.89	2.27	2.06	1.96	2.4	1.25	2.81
5. The standard of equipment in the various laboratories you have accessed through your course of study is	2.28	2.66	2.07	1.99	2.23	2.12	0.99	2.95
6. The standard of extra curricula activities and clubs is	2.23	2.03	2.06	1.75	1.69	1.38	0.63	3.32
7. The standard of student services (such as housing, food services, health services etc.) is	2.09	2.08	1.84	1.5	1.47	1.53	0.46	3.43
8. The standard of recreational facilities (such as gym, sports grounds, etc.) is	1.89	2.6	1.38	1.95	2.27	1.49	0.4	3.29

Appendix 7F

Students' Perceptions of Their Destination on Graduation

A mean value of 3 symbolises either uncertainty (neutral or do not know) on the part of the respondents or a somewhat equal divide between agreement and disagreement, while mean values greater than 3 in fact indicate stronger agreement and mean values less than 3 indicate stronger disagreement agreement.

Table 7.41 AUB(Am:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	26.2	41.4	16.2	9.0	4.8	2.4	0	2.75
2	21.9	47.6	16.7	5.2	4.3	4.3	0	2.78
3	20.5	37.6	22.4	10.0	5.2	4.3	0	2.58
4	10.5	37.6	22.9	10.5	6.7	11.9	0	2.35
5	20.5	48.1	13.3	6.7	3.3	7.6	0.5	2.76

Table 7.42 LAU(Am:F) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	16.2	41.0	25.7	6.7	6.2	4.3	0	2.54
2	21.0	39.5	28.6	4.3	2.9	3.8	0	2.71
3	17.1	35.2	31.0	7.1	3.8	5.7	0	2.55
4	15.2	36.2	22.4	10.5	5.2	9.5	1.0	2.46
5	24.8	47.6	18.1	4.3	1.9	2.4	1.0	2.90

Table 7.43 NDU(Am:N) (n=210)

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	19.0	37.1	19.0	18.1	1.9	4.3	0.5	2.54
2	14.8	38.6	23.8	13.3	1.9	7.1	0.5	2.51
3	13.3	35.7	22.9	13.3	3.8	10.5	0.5	2.42
4	8.1	24.3	30.5	12.9	15.2	9.0	0	1.97
5	17.6	41.9	19.0	10.5	6.7	4.3	0	2.53

Table 7.44		UOB(Am:N) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	17.1	44.3	22.4	6.7	3.3	6.2	0	2.65
2	11.9	51.4	18.6	5.2	1.4	11.4	0	2.67
3	10.5	31.4	29.0	10.0	3.8	15.2	0	2.35
4	5.7	20.5	25.2	17.6	13.8	17.1	0	1.87
5	22.4	52.4	9.5	7.1	1.9	6.2	0.5	2.87

Table 7.45		BAU(Eg:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	9.5	29.5	18.6	17.1	13.3	11.9	0	2.05
2	10.5	34.3	20.0	10.0	10.0	15.2	0	2.25
3	5.2	11.0	22.9	17.6	21.9	21.4	0	1.60
4	5.2	11.9	16.7	20.5	33.3	12.4	0	1.35
5	21.0	45.7	8.1	7.6	3.8	12.9	1.0	2.73

Table 7.46		USJ(Fr:F) (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	15.2	48.6	21.0	6.2	2.9	5.2	1.0	2.68
2	16.2	33.8	18.1	11.0	2.4	18.1	0.5	2.51
3	18.1	31.9	21.0	8.1	3.3	17.1	0.5	2.54
4	18.1	27.6	18.6	13.8	12.9	8.6	0.5	2.24
5	41.9	39.0	9.5	2.9	1.9	3.8	1.0	3.17

Table 7.47		LU (n=210)						
STATEMENT	FREQUENCY in PERCENTAGE							MEAN
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Not Know</i>	<i>Did Not Answer</i>	
1	11.0	21.9	11.4	20.0	19.0	16.2	0.5	1.86
2	5.2	21.0	16.7	13.8	19.0	23.8	0.5	1.79
3	3.8	10.5	16.2	15.7	29.5	23.8	0.5	1.43
4	2.4	4.3	11.4	18.1	47.1	16.2	0.5	0.96
5	28.6	37.1	9.5	5.7	4.8	13.8	0.5	2.79

**Table 7.48 Means of Statements Related to Students' Perceptions of
Their Destination on Graduation for all Institutions (n=1470)**

STATEMENT	AUB (Am:F)	LAU) (Am:F)	NDU (Am:N)	UOB (Am:N)	BAU (Eg:F)	USJ (Fr:F)	LU	GRAND MEAN
1	2.75	2.54	2.54	2.65	2.05	2.68	1.86	2.44
2	2.78	2.71	2.51	2.67	2.25	2.51	1.79	2.46
3	2.58	2.55	2.42	2.35	1.60	2.54	1.43	2.21
4	2.35	2.46	1.97	1.87	1.35	2.24	0.96	1.89
5	2.76	2.90	2.53	2.87	2.73	3.17	2.79	2.82

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