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Stephen Chukwunenye Anyamele

INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A Study of Leadership Approaches to Quality Improvement in University Management – Nigerian and Finnish Cases

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Cover
Developed by Stephen C Anyamele showing a mini-model
for University Quality Management
and colours of the Nigerian and Finnish flags.

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INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION
A Study of Leadership Approaches to Quality Improvement in University Management. Nigerian and Finnish Cases.

Abstract

This study is a theoretical and methodological investigation into quality in university management. It is also an inductive policy analysis of university histories and organizational structures in Finland and Nigeria. The study is guided by survey interviews, observations and document analysis. The research studied university leadership's approaches in quality improvement in the university. In addition, the study sought answers from university leaders concerning how leadership builds up infrastructure in improving the quality of university management. The problems and design of the study were based on the 'enablers' criteria of the European Foundation For Quality management (EFQM) Excellence Model developed in 1988 by fourteen leading European businesses, with a mission to be the Driving Force for Sustainable Excellence in Europe and a Vision of a world in which European organizations excel. One of the overall purposes of the study was to analyze the theories of leadership and management in the university, and to test the theories in Nigeria and Finland. Also the study was an attempt to analyze theoretically the essential roles of university leadership that demonstrates what actually happens in practice in the real world of university management. In addition to these other purposes, the study further attempted to check out whether market principles or private sector practices could be applied in the university.

The design of the questionnaire was based on qualitative data. The data used in the study were collected from university leaders in Nigeria and Finland (N=30) between 2001 and 2002 using open-ended, unstructured questionnaires. The theoretical data were based on extensive literature review. The findings of the study were analyzed by use of benchmarking methodology, which entails a comparison of Nigeria and Finland in order to identify 'best practices' in university management. The findings give information on different ways of managing the university in time of austerity when universities are expected to 'do more with less' resources. The findings suggest that market-like policies or industrial applications of quality to educational setting are essential for survival of the present-day universities. The results also reveal some similarities and differences between Nigeria and Finland in quality improvement in the university. The results further show that there is no one-way approach to managing a university institution, and that Nigeria and Finnish university leaders view quality from different perspectives. The study further offers new dimensions to the discussions about quality in higher education and

quality improvement in university management. One of the conclusions reached in the study is that in view of the present investigation, cooperation between Nigeria and Finland ought to be supported in the future, so that institutions in the two countries will benefit from the opportunity of learning from each other. In the final conclusion of the study, a model of 'best practices' in quality improvement in the university was developed to offer university leaders, especially in developing countries, the opportunities for improved management in the university. One of the overall conclusions is that Finnish responses to specific global trends, and the leadership styles of Finnish universities, may serve as inspiration for Nigerian Universities, especially with regard to quality control and leadership style. The Finnish system, for example, is well regarded as offering consistently high level of curriculum and scholarship. The significant productivity of researchers, innovative instructional practices, successful placement of students into professional occupations, and carefully laid out national plans are among the noteworthy and unique features of the Finnish university system. On the other hand, an analysis of the best practices of Nigerian universities may offer insights into why some universities succeed while others fail during a time of limited sources in an emerging technological culture. When the immediate goal of a university, such as those in Nigeria, is survival, it is important to understand what steps are taken to ensure that essential aspects of the university mission are preserved. It is assumed that societal improvement and economic competitiveness is linked to successful university programming through research, professional training, and preparation of a qualified technical workforce.

Keywords: quality improvement, quality management, leadership, European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), total quality management (TQM), university management, university leadership, benchmarking, policy analysis, Nigeria, Finland

HELSINGIN YLIOPISTO
Kasvatustieteen laitos
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Stephen Chukwunenye Anyamele

JOHTAMINEN YLIOPISTOSSA

Tutkimus laadun kehittämisen lähestymistavoista yliopistohallinnossa – Nigerialaisia ja suomalaisia tapauksia

Tiivistelmä

Tämä tutkimus on teoreettinen ja metodologinen selvitys laadusta yliopistojohtamisessa. Se on myös suomalaisten ja nigerialaisten yliopistojen historiaa ja organisaatiorakenteita luotaava induktiivinen toimintaperiaateanalyysi. Tutkimus perustuu tutkimushaastatteluihin, observaatioihin ja asiakirja-analyyseihin. Tutkimuksessa perehdyttiin yliopistojohtamisen tapoihin laadun parantamisen näkökulmasta. Lisäksi tutkimuksella kartoitettiin yliopistopäättäjien näkemyksiä siitä, miten johtajuus kehittää infrastruktuuria yliopistojohtamisen laatua parannettaessa. Tutkimusasetelman ja -ongelmien perustana on *Énablers criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence* -malli, joka kehitettiin vuonna 1988 neljäntoista johtavan Eurooppalaisen liikeyrityksen toimesta. *Excellence*-mallin kehittäjien missiona oli luoda malli kestävän laadukkuuden edistämiseksi Euroopassa ja visiona maailma, jossa eurooppalaiset organisaatiot erottuvat erinomaisuudellaan. Yksi käsillä olevan tutkimuksen keskeisistä tavoitteista oli analysoida yliopistojen johtamisen ja hallinnoinnin teorioita ja testata niitä Suomessa ja Nigeriassa. Sen lisäksi tutkimuksessa pyrittiin teoreettisesti analysoimaan johtajuuden demonstroitumista yliopistoissa – siis sitä, mitä yliopistojohtaminen käytännön tasolla on. Edelleen tavoitteena oli selvittää, josko liiketoiminnan periaatteita tai yksityissektorin käytäntöjä voitaisiin soveltaa myös yliopistoissa.

Tutkimuksessa käytettyjen kyselylomakkeiden laadinta perustui laadulliseen dataan. Tutkimusaineiston keruu tapahtui vuosina 2001 ja 2002. Tutkimukseen osallistui suomalaisia ja nigerialaisia yliopistopäättäjiä (N=30). Käytetyn lomakkeen kysymykset olivat strukturoimattomia avoimia kysymyksiä. Tutkimuksen teoreettinen data perustuu laajamittaiseen kirjallisuuskatsaukseen. Tutkimuslöydökset analysoitiin *benchmarking*-menetelmällä, joka mahdollisti suomalais- ja nigerialaisyliopistojen johtamistapojen vertailun “parhaiden käytäntöjen” (best practices model) identifioimiseksi. Tutkimuksen tulokset antavat tietoa siitä, kuinka yliopistoa voidaan johtaa tiukan talouden aikana – siis silloin, kun yliopistoilta odotetaan enemmän, vaikka resursseja on vähemmän. Tulokset osoittavat, että liike-elämän tai teollisuuden laatua edistävien toimintaperiaatteiden soveltaminen koulutusympäristössä on keskeistä nykypäivän yliopistojen selviämisen kannalta. Tutkimustulokset osoittavat lisäksi joitakin samankaltaisuuksia ja eroavaisuuksia laadun kehittämisessä suomalais- ja nigerialaisyliopistojen välillä. Edelleen tu-

lokset osoittavat, että yliopistoinstituution johtamiseen ei ole yksiselitteistä lähestymistapaa, ja että suomalaiset ja nigerialaiset yliopistojohtajat tarkastelevat laatua eri perspektiiveistä. Tutkimus tarjoaa uusia dimensioita yliopistotason koulutuksen laadusta ja yliopistojohtamisen laadunparantamisesta käytävään keskusteluun. Yksi käsillä olevan tutkimuksen johtopäätöksiä on, että suomalaisten ja nigerialaisten yliopistojen yhteistyötä tulisi tukea, jotta instituutiot molemmissa maissa voisivat hyötyä mahdollisuudesta oppia toisiltaan. Tutkimuksen lopullisena johtopäätöksenä kehitettiin yliopistojen laadun parantamiseen tähtäävä "parhaat käytännöt" -malli, jonka tavoitteena on tarjota yliopistojohtajille, erityisesti kehitysmaissa, mahdollisuus yliopistojen johtamiskäytäntöjen parantamiseen. Johtopäätöksenä todettakoon myös se, että suomalaisten reagointi tiettyihin globaaleihin trendeihin sekä suomalainen yliopistojohtaminen voisivat toimia innoituksena nigerialaisyliopistoille, erityisesti laadun kontrollin ja johtamistyylin osalta. Suomalaisen systeemin vahvuuksiksi voidaan lukea esim. yhdenmukaiset korkeatasoiset opinto-ohjelmat ja apurahat. Edelleen suomalaisen yliopistosysteemin suotuisina ominaispiirteinä mainittakoon tutkijoiden huomattava tuotteliaisuus, innovaatiiviset opetuskäytännöt, opiskelijoiden menestyksekäs sijoittuminen työelämään sekä toiminnan suunnitelmallisuus. Toisaalta nigerialaisyliopistojen "parhaiden käytäntöjen" -analyysi saattaa tarjota oivalluksen siitä, mihin perustuu joidenkin yliopistojen menestys toisten epäonnistuessa rajallisten resurssien aikana teknologisen kulttuurin nostaessa päätään. Kun yliopistojen ensisijaisena tavoitteena on eloonjääminen, kuten Nigeriassa on asianlaita, on tärkeää tietää miten toimia, jotta yliopistojen mission keskeisten aspektien säilyminen turvataan. Oletetaan, että yhteiskunnallisten olojen parantuminen ja taloudellinen kilpailukyky ovat yhteydessä menestyksekkääseen yliopistosuunnitteluun tutkimuksen, ammatillisen koulutuksen ja teknisesti pätevöityneen työvoiman kouluttamisen kautta.

Avainsanat: laadun parantaminen, laadun hallinta, johtajuus, *European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM)*, kokonaislaadun hallinta, yliopistojohtaminen, *benchmarking*, toimintaperiaateanalyysi, Nigeria, Finland

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear wonderful wife Ursula Mary, a very special person who wholeheartedly coped with the many years of the academic pursuit, and our daughters Ugonna Uzoamaka and Oluchi Ijeoma, and the boys Nnaemeka Uzukwu and Kelechi Obi Henry with gratitude for their love and patience. I wish my father had lived to this day to share in this great event.

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The failed effort to appoint a supervisor for my research work by the faculty of education brought in Professor Harri Westermarck from the Department of Economic and Management, and Centre for Extension Education in the University of Helsinki. Professor Westermarck acted as my supervisor for three years in his private capacity to help me out from this arduous task. I really thank Professor Westermarck because it was by his honest advice and direction that helped me to broaden and sharpen my perspective on many issues in this study. My gratitude equally goes to my official supervisor Professor Kauko Hämäläinen who guided me to the completion of this study. Professor Hämäläinen was also enormously helpful as my official supervisor. He helped me tremendously in reading and guiding the shape and content of my thesis. I equally thank Professor Hämäläinen immensely, first for accepting to be my faculty supervisor, and secondly for his many useful suggestions and directing my work to its completion. Again without him, the work would never be completed. Like Professor Westermarck, I really thank Professor Hämäläinen because it was by his honest advice and direction that helped to broaden and sharpen my perspective on many issues in this study. Professors Westermarck and Hämäläinen's friendly behaviour and spending their valuable time helped me solve many practical and technical problems that confronted me during this study. Without their assistance, this work would never be continued, and more importantly completed. I will always remember their invaluable assistance in the process of helping me achieve my academic objective, for their constant enthusiasm and encouragement led me through the ups and downs during the study. Their care, support and constructive supervision with compassion and commitment are appreciated. I very much appreciate Professor Jyri Maaninen's contribution in advising me on the methods of data analysis.

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Stephen Chukwunenye Anyamele

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1 GENERAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This chapter serves as the general background of the whole study. The chapter begins with a consideration of the background information concerning the study, in which the motivation for the topic is highlighted. It looks at a context in which leadership and management are generally exercised in both academic and other contexts; arguing for a need for effective leadership at the top. The chapter further presents the purpose and objective of the study by examining the management roles of university leaders as they affect academic staff, resource mobilization and management, and educational processes. Finally, the chapter discusses the justification and significance of the study, and concludes with some of the constraints faced by the researcher while in the process of data collection in the field.

1.1 Background Information of the Study

This study came about after a long reflection on the appropriate area of the Nigerian economy that needs improvement for the enhancement of Nigerian development. Higher education or rather, university management was chosen as a focus for the study because of its importance in contributing to university success. The role of universities in research, evaluation, teaching, information transfer, and technological development is critical to national social progress and economic growth. The promise of social benefit, for individuals and crucially for societies, provides the main justification for increased investment in higher education in both developed and developing countries. Confidence in human capital theory continues to underpin the belief in economic benefit from education investment. In addition much recent writings on the "rise of knowledge economies" (e.g. Neef, 1998) assign an important role to higher education institutions. Whether in Nigeria or Finland as well as other countries in the world, universities are major vehicles for economic and social development. It has been a known fact that institutions of higher education have the responsibility for equipping individuals with the advanced knowledge and skills required for positions of responsibility in government, business and the professions. These institutions produce new knowledge through research; serve as avenues for transfer, adaptation and dissemination of knowledge generated elsewhere in the world and support government and business with advice and consultancy. In most countries, higher education institutions also play important social roles by forging the national identity for the country and offering a forum for pluralistic debate. Furthermore, higher education is also regarded as having the potential for contributing to other political and social changes through its support and underpinning for the institutions of civil society. This role is particularly important in some developing countries. Thus, Higher education appears to play a central role in supporting both advanced forms of capitalism and new forms of democratic citizenship. From these perspectives, higher education is reasonably claimed to be about the transformation of society.

However, with the onset of what Philip Coombs referred to as "world education crisis" (Coombs 1982), of the 1980s, the capacity of university institutions to continue playing these roles was reduced in most of the developing countries. In Nigeria

for instance, since this period universities had faced many constraints. These constraints have led to the decline of the quality of university education as a result of dwindling of resources. Poor national economic performance, inappropriate governing structures, political interference, campus instability and so on, have all contributed to this decline. Shattock (2003, 34) sees as one of the major causes of academic inefficiency, low academic morale and the low public esteem in which higher education is often held is the extent to which institutional infrastructure has been allowed to decline. According to Shattock, in universities core services and systems do not work, campuses look down on heel, student residences are run down, food services are poor and maintenance backlogs have been allowed to build up. He concludes that the efficiency and effectiveness of such structures are as necessary to make universities work well as they are in the private sector. In his opinion, effective teaching and learning cannot be delivered when libraries are badly run, computer systems break down, and teaching room facilities are inadequate. Research time will be wasted if administrative and financial systems are unreliable.

It is my belief in this study that improving the quality of university management can add value to university institutions by enhancing their quality to function effectively and respond to the needs of changing society. Arguing about management information system, George Keller posits that improving the management of the university is an indispensable step in improving everyday operation of the campus as well as a requisite for strategic planning (Keller 1983, 131). The study will assist Nigerian universities as well as those in other developing countries to effectively manage their universities in the areas of research, scholarship and service through adequate utilization of their financial resources. This study was undertaken with the belief in the argument that "good management" is "a necessary condition for effective worthwhile teaching, learning and research, whereas its neglect poses a serious threat to core academic values " (Shattock 2003). Good management can contribute to university success.

As a country in need of development and progress, Nigeria needs more successful universities because of the model they present to the university system as a whole and the impact that institutional success can have on the performance of the economy. Universities in Nigeria need to adopt management styles, which will enable the institutions to realize the full potential of their staff and students, not to suffocate initiative in outdated management-speak or worn out managerialist analogies of control. The benchmarking of Finnish and Nigerian universities was intended to offer ideas as to how management in universities can contribute to institutional success by being creative, supportive and organizationally effective. Therefore, in light of these developments, there is the need for strategic management for revitalization of the universities.[1] It is against this background that this study focuses on the strengthen-

[1] While discussing strategic management in universities, Michael Shattock defines strategic management as an integrating mechanism which pulls policies and processes together to achieve the best institutional outcomes. Following further a standard modern definition of strategic management, he sees this concept as 'the art and science of formulating, implementing and evaluating cross functional decisions that enable an organization to fulfil its objectives (Shattock 2003, 25, 24) .

ing of the management capacity of Nigerian universities through learning from the management practices in Finnish universities.

1.2 The Context of Leadership and Management

The importance of leadership in the management of institutions is becoming crucial. Leadership plays very important role in the performance of an organization. It is the management that lays down the infrastructure, policies and guidelines for the different functions of the organization to perform its best. According to Wong (2001), leadership can help organizations achieve excellence. It is the leader that inspires the organization's employees to work together so as to provide best service to both its internal and external "customers." This argument shows that it is the leadership that affects the goal development of the institution. A growing number of organizations have recognized that to survive and prosper, they must systematically transform how they go about delivering products and services. Doing this successfully requires determined and effective leadership. Leadership is about working to understand more of the whole situation and ensuring that everything goes well and is continually improved. It requires that all leaders become more strategic in the introduction of change to the system as a whole (Simmons 1997, 273–274).

Developing effective leadership in the university as an academic organization can provide such benefits. Institutions need effective leadership that will lead effective institutional transformation. Leadership not only manages the future of the organization in an environment of turbulence but improves productivity and quality, it is the leadership that enables everyone in the organization to develop a shared vision, develop a culture of innovation and continual improvement, and taking positive action to enable everyone in the organization contribute their full potential towards the vision and their work (Simmons 1997).

The crises facing universities especially in the developing countries require improved management as one of the most promising short-term strategies to confront the pressures on universities. Universities must confront the crises facing them through the provision of creative leadership. It has been acknowledged that no plan, or vision, regardless of the cleverness or quality of its design, will work without enlightened leadership to carry it out (Hoff 1999). Universities demand a special type of leadership because they are strongly dependent upon the professional competence of individuals. Effective leadership has been seen as the answer to institutional effectiveness. Rhodes (2001) argues that without strong and effective leadership, no system of campus governance can be effective. He points out that it is the responsibility of the leader, not only to explain the concerns of the campus community, it is to the leader that all campus community looks for direction. The leader is the crucial catalyst in the effective campus governance (Rhodes 2001, 222).

The centrality of 'appropriate' leadership in promoting an ethos of professional and organizational well-being has been acknowledged (Law and Glover 2000). Writing about institutional leadership as they take on new responsibilities in new arenas under new modes of state regulation, Henkel (2002) explores some of the

implications for the concept of academic leadership in the universities, in particular the extent to which it yields to the prevailing ideology of management. Henkel discusses leadership at the institutional level in the context of a general drive for higher education institutions to increase their efficiency and to subscribe to various forms of quality assurance. One instance in this context is her regard of the vice-chancellors as university leaders being responsible for setting the key values and direction of the university. Henkel goes further to state that as the need to position universities in higher education and also in the wider economy, it is the responsibility of the leadership to make important decisions for example, about the size of the university, about resource generation and allocation, and about institutional acquisition, investment and disposal, about the recruitment and (increasingly differential) reward of academic and other staff, about the creation, closure and merger of departments, and about external roles and relationships (Henkel 2002, 29–41).

Many other studies have been carried out on the new emphasis on leadership. Leadership is seen as important in making things work in the organization. As Kotter suggests in his *A Force for Change*, leadership is important in producing change (Mayo and Lank 1994). Hölttä (1995), for instance, regards internal and public representation as one of the responsibilities of the rector as an academic leader. In academic institutions, the importance of having instituted leadership should be seen from this perspective. The university rector (in some European countries) as leaders, represent university in all its official dealings.

In sum, the concept of leadership is important in this study because the life of any institution depends on the vision of the leadership to get things running in the institution. In any institution a unique function of the leader is to supply the energy needed to get the organization off the ground. This energy should be born out of personal conviction, which motivates and builds excitement into other. Organizational

leaders are animators, creators and sustainers of culture, change agents; hence the true leadership must lead to change that translates into social betterment Jenkins et al 1997). These qualities of leadership position leadership as crucial factor in the organizational improvement. Leadership in university institutions is essentially a service, or activity or tool through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and efficiently realized. Leadership tasks in managing higher education institutions should focus on setting objectives for using available resources, formulate plans for achieving these objectives, identify the activities to be done, set up incentives to stimulate productivity (Uwazurike 1998). All these make the focus on leadership pertinent.

1.3 The Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The changes in globalizing political economy the world over have affected the ways universities are managed. These globalizing practices have also altered the environment of teaching and learning. With these changes in the university environment, combined with pressures of increased enrolments, market competition, public accountability, and funding contractions, the environment is becoming more

complex, diverse and hostile, and especially less affluent. This new environment, with the uncertainty it brings, poses a challenge to the traditional university functions of education and research. The main questions relate to the current structural forms and model of university management and the role their leaders must play to at least in alleviating the pressures faced by the institutions. It also raises the questions of organizational, functional and managerial capacity of universities to meet the demands of massification,[2] Competitiveness, and budgetary decline.[3] The widely held view of public authorities is that universities should adopt a new, more entrepreneurial form of organization in order to acquire the strategic capacity to adjust and meet their needs and the needs of the outside world (Clark 1998; Davis 1997b).

One of the overall purposes of this study was to analyse the theories of leadership and management in the university, and to test the theories in Nigeria and Finland. As well as an attempt to analyse theoretically the essential roles of university leadership, the study is also a demonstration of what actually happens in practice in the real world of university management. In addition to these other purposes, the study attempts to check out whether market principles or private sector practices can be applied in the university. The aim of the investigation was to identify 'best practice' management strategies in both countries for managing a university in times of austerity when universities are expected to 'do more with less' resources. In identifying 'best practices' and superior performance in university management, the university organizations in the two countries will learn from each through establishing collaborations, in which university leaders from the two countries would be in exchange to partner universities. Specifically, this study is designed to attempt the following four leadership roles in quality improvement in the university. These roles are drawn from the institutional 'enablers' criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model, and modified greatly to accommodate the specific situation of the university:

1. To make a theoretical analysis of university management.
2. To investigate university leadership perception of their roles in improving the quality of university management.
3. To investigate how university leadership develop and improve the quality of its academic staff.
4. To examine how university leadership develops partnerships for resource mobilization in the university.
5. To find out how university leadership improves the basic processes of teaching, research and learning in the university.

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[2] In many countries institutions of higher education are enrolling more and more students as a way of expanding access to more students. The policy of increasing access to higher education concentrated on making the case for a substantial increase in the participation rate on the grounds of national economic needs and social justice (Reid 1991, 45).

[3] For more readings on these pressures see Davis (1997), Aaviksoo (1997), and Shattock (1997).

Eliciting information from people holding administrative positions in Nigerian and Finnish Universities constitute the approach to reach this end. The scope of the study is limited to the examination of the management roles as they affect academic staff, resource management and educational processes.

The finding of this study will constitute added input in the improvement of university management in Nigeria, and with the hope that Finnish university administrators will benefit from them.

1.4 Justification and Significance of the Study

This study is important for variety of reasons. First it investigated the roles of university administrators in two economically and culturally different countries in building up infrastructures for improving the quality of university management. To provide a cross-cultural benchmarking in institutional management from these two different national backgrounds is one of the distinct aims of this study. To the best of my knowledge, there is currently no study that compared or benchmarked leadership styles of management in Nigerian and Finnish universities. This study is justified because such benchmarking makes sense in that both countries would learn from each other's 'best practices'.

Second, a study of university management techniques in a developing country is significant because in every society, university institutions are considered catalysts of economic development. Invariably, the expertise of university students and staff is associated with the progress of society. An examination of university management practices in Finland would provide a model to a developing country like Nigeria, and offer useful understanding and insight on the ways in which institutional leaders act as agents of change through providing quality education and other services necessary for successful development and societal transformation and change. However, development failures are invariably associated with poor quality of human resources. This study is therefore justified; for it fills the gap of improving the efficiency of management of human and material resources in the university to enable the institutions play their assigned roles in national development. Third, an investigation of the difficulties in delivering quality education in a developing country like Nigeria is important in identifying some of the conditions essential for successful management. Why certain universities in some countries progress while other stagnate under similar environmental constraints is a question worth investigation

A fourth distinctive feature of this study is that it examined the activities of university leadership in two different cultural settings, that makes it possible for each to learn from the other's 'best practice' in managing the complexity of university organization. As argued in the literature, in the course of institutions becoming more responsible for their own survival, one tries to learn from 'best practices' what they have to offer for institutional managers to cope with the challenges they are facing (Frackman 2000). This study is aimed at filling the gap in Nigerian higher education literature. Furthermore, for university institutions to be fully functional and deliver quality education, they will require an accelerated development infrastructures that aid teaching and learning, research and service to society.

This is to suggest that the current crises confronting universities need to be addressed in the areas of new mission and vision. An examination of how these roles can be reconciled by university leadership is significant and justifiable.

It is important that the gains from this international study be sustained and improved upon by other developing countries in the years ahead so as to guarantee an enduring system of higher education that is well positioned for the challenges of the present and future centuries. It is also important to mention that societal improvement depends on qualified technical workforce required by emerging industry, commerce and the professions, are the products of higher education.[4] Therefore, the knowledge gained from this cross-cultural study will provide some good thoughts on better ways of developing human resources in the university. This implies the need to improve mechanisms, techniques and styles of institutional management and to increase the responsiveness of higher education institutions to changing financial, economic and social environments.

1.5 Parameters of the Study

The analysis of the study was limited to information obtained from the self-completion questionnaires administered to university leaders in Nigeria and Finland with support from literature. There is no doubt in the possibility of the use of interview data to obtain an in-depth understanding of leadership perceptions of quality improvement in the universities in both countries. I did not lose sight of the advantages of using qualitative interviewing as a way of finding out what others feel and think about their worlds; and as a way of understanding experiences one as a researcher did not participate in. Qualitative interviewing helps a researcher understand how people draw meaning from the world in which they live and work. I used interview to augment my policy analysis.

In the first place I will admit that many difficulties were encountered in the field more especially in Nigeria. It was not even easy for the administrators in Nigerian universities to respond to my questionnaires. Although some of the administrators I met were easy to approach, and they felt even happy to answer to my questions. Others felt very reluctant to complete the questionnaires claiming to be very busy. Though I understood that these administrators were only trying to get their own work done. The low retrieval of questionnaires as indicated on table 7.5 can attest to this. However, one of the reasons for the reluctance of university

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[4] From an editorial commentary in the International Journal of Educational Development, Stewart (1996, 325–326) argues that the better and developed the education system, and the greater the flexibility of the system to adjust to changing needs and demands, the more likely it is that the economic productivity will increase. Somewhere else, Brigit Brock-Utne in her own analysis of the impact of World Bank policies on higher education in Sub Saharan Africa, rightly argues that only by strengthening African Universities will they be able to play a leading role in developing indigenous research, thereby also helping local socio-economic growth (Brock-Utne 1996, 335–346).

administrators in Nigeria to participate in study may be attributed to the level of corruption in the country in which everybody play the "politics of corruption." Maybe because I did not first present "kola" to the respondents made them unwilling to participate.

Also in Finland, some university administrators did not return their question as I requested from them. I assumed that their inability to return their completed questions might be either because of their tight schedule or because of lack of understanding of the questions. However, when compared to Nigerian respondents, the number of Finnish respondents was greater than those of Nigerian respondents in terms of returning the questionnaires and the people who agreed to be interviewed, though not all Finnish questionnaires were returned.

I was in Nigeria for the two and half months to do fieldwork there. Because I had to administer questionnaires to universities in four states, this later carried me from one state to another for the purpose of collecting the questionnaires. At the end, I was not able to get back even one questionnaire from one of the universities. However, one should always expect such problems from a complex country like Nigeria. In the first place I was born and bred in Nigeria, had my primary, secondary and teacher education as well as teaching profession there before I left for Israel for university education. After the first degree in foreign literatures and linguistics from Israel, I found myself in Finland where I had Masters degree in education before continuing for the doctoral studies in the same faculty of the university of Helsinki. With this little information on my background, I can show my readers that I am not foreign to whatever I problems I might have encountered in Nigeria.

Apart from the difficulty in retrieving the questionnaires I administered to Nigerian respondents, it was not easy to interview vice chancellors, deputy vice chancellors or registrars. Sometimes, I was thinking that these people were not interested in what I was doing, or that they were very occupied with their work. In one university, the secretary to the registrar was angry with me for even coming to his office. He made it clear to me that nobody was ready to, or had the time to answer to my questionnaires. Sometimes, I had to deal with the security agents in the university as to 'bribe' myself inside the university to see an administrator. Excessive bureaucratisation in Nigerian universities constituted a problem to me as a researcher.

Also the problem of financial resources was a limiting constraint. Because of limited resources available to me for the fieldwork constituted a problem for administration of further questionnaires in other universities in order to obtain more in-depth information.

2 UNIVERSITIES IN NIGERIA AND FINLAND

This chapter looks at universities in Nigeria and Finland from the point of view of university development in both countries. The chapter generally focused on how universities developed, how they are managed, and roles these institutions play in the service of the nations in which they operate. Overall, the chapter covers for both countries such issues as size of university system, higher education financing and student enrolments, and constituents of higher education system. All these made up the common elements of quantitative comparison. The chapter begins with an overview of the Nigerian situation, followed by a discussion of governance of Finnish university systems. I begin with development of higher education in Nigeria.

2.1 Development of Higher Education[5] in Nigeria

Higher education covers education at the tertiary level provided by the universities, polytechnic, Colleges of education as well as institutes that prepare students for professional courses such as accountancy, law, architecture, mass communication and other professional courses. This study focuses on the university sector of the higher education system.

The origin and future development of university education in Nigeria have been documented by a number of acknowledged scholars (Fafunwa 1991; Okafor 1971; Ike 1976). For over a decade of British colonization of Nigeria, only one university institution was established in the country. The famous University College Ibadan, an affiliate of college of the University of London was founded in 1948. In the early years of the establishment of the university college, the students proudly referred their institution as "the University of London situated at Ibadan for purposes of convenience"[6] (Ike 1976, 1). The time the University College Ibadan was established, the University of London had the power to grant its degrees to students of this college, because the curriculum patterns were essentially those of London. A scheme of "special relationship" with London made it possible for some changes to be made in the Ibadan curricula, generally to provide for the study of local history, geography, fauna etc. In recounting the development of university education in Sub-Saharan Africa, David Court wrote: the basic pattern of university development on the continent imitated the British model, and had a similar perception of their role" (Court 1991, 331; see also Crossman 1999, 20). Nigerians regarded the Ibadan University College as a tool in the hands of the British 'imperialists' for stifling the aspirations and honest endeavours of brilliant Nigerians (Ike 1976, 7). Nigeria remained with this one university college until independence when the then regional governments established more universities.

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[5] In this study higher education is taken interchangeably with university, unless when it is stated otherwise.

[6] This suggests that the universities in Africa were no more than American, British or French universities located on the African soil for purposes of convenience, and that the African university was yet to emerge.

Post-Independence University Development

The University College Ibadan was far from adequately satisfying the needs and requirements of Nigerian development at independence. The emergence of universities in Nigeria became a part of the struggles for independence from colonial rule. The Nigerian pioneer nationalists understood the critical role of universities in the transformation of backward, impoverished and exploited continent. Dr Nnamdi Azikiwe, one time Governor-General and first President of independent Nigeria recognized the power of universities in Europe and America in being responsible for the great movement in the national history of these continents. Azikiwe called for an establishment of a university in African transformation when he declared: "Give the Renascent Africa a university and this continent can become overnight a continent of light" (Nwala 1994, 179). Nwala also concludes: "our greatest drawback in Nigeria and perhaps in West Africa generally, is the absence of such centres of thought without which there can be no cohesion in the body politic and no strong public opinion. It is with these that the lost balance in native society would be restored." This view is in line with the universal recognition of the mission of the university as a centre for the advancement of human values and social enlightenment (Castells 1994, 14–40). This role of the university is for the World Bank (1977) "the principal reservoir of skilled human resources" and their roles in research, evaluation, information transfer, technology development, are therefore critical to social progress and economic growth, therefore making them key factors in national development" (World Bank 1977, 2).

Based on the critical role of the university in manpower development and the extrinsic qualities they embody, which are found in the services they provide to society, each then regional government in Nigeria consisting of Northern, Eastern and Western governments, at independence started establishing its own regional university. As the University College Ibadan remained the only institution of higher learning in Nigeria, it also continued to establish itself as a reputable institution of higher education; making a great contribution to the manpower needs of Nigeria. The graduates of the "Ibadan College" were used in filling the existing positions in the public service, industrial and commercial firms, schools and colleges, and the private sector of the economy. At a time when the demands for graduates outstripped the supply, there arose an increasingly felt and commonly expressed need for a larger output of university graduates. It was only in 1962 that the University College Ibadan was granted a full-fledged university status.

The thoughts of independence, the large size of the country and the varied manpower needed to exploit its resources, the need to explore the geography of the country and the history of its peoples, and to study and preserve its diverse cultures, impelled a serious consideration of establishing more universities in the country (Taiwo 1980, 148). In these circumstances, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME), on behalf of the regional governments, appointed the Ashby Commission whose recommendations gave support for the establishment of universities in each of the regions and one in Lagos territory. The implementation of the Ashby Report led to the establishment of the three then regional universities; the government of Eastern region established the University of Nigeria at Nsukka in 1960, the University of Ife for the Western region in 1962, and Ahmadu Bello

University at Zaria in the northern part of the country in 1962. A Federal University was established in Lagos also in 1962. Today these universities established immediately after independence are referred to as "first generation" universities. The first generation universities are displayed on figure 2.1.

Year of est.	University
1960	University of Nigeria, Nsukka
1962	University of Lagos
	University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), Ile-Ife
	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria
1972	University of Benin

Figure 2.1 "First generation" Universities and Year of Establishment

The work of the Ashby Commission led to the establishment of the National Universities Commission (NUC) to serve as intermediary agency through which the government could plan, develop and finance the universities. This situation remains the same to date. The creation of the Mid-West Region out of the Western Region brought a need for its own university. This was delayed because of the civil war (1967–1970). After the civil war Nigeria had twelve-state structure, coupled with the conversion of the then Mid-West College of Technology into a university in 1972.

In the Third national Development Plan 1975–1980, there was further development of universities. In this development period, the Federal Government of Nigeria spelt out its policy on higher education, part of which was the consolidation and expansion of the six existing universities to permit maximum utilization of facilities. In addition to the existing universities, the government proposed the establishment of four more new universities during the plan period. This expansion of universities was made possible because of oil boom in the country.[7] However, instead of establishing four universities proposed, seven were established in 1975. These universities constitute the "second generation" universities shown in figure 2.2.

Year of est.	University
1975	University of Calabar
	Bayero University Kano
	University of Port-Harcourt
	University of Ilorin
	University of Jos
	University of Maidugri
	University of Sokoto

Figure 2.2 "Second Generation" Universities established in 1975

[7] The post-civil war oil boom era and the geopolitical restructuring of Nigeria into 12 states led to strident demands for more universities in the newly-created states.

University expansion and development also increased with the creation of more states in Nigeria in the 1980s and beyond. As at 1991 Nigeria could point at its 30 states. From this period to the end of the 1990s, Nigerian states rose to 36. Creation of more states called for more universities as each state established its own university, while at the same time the Federal Government of Nigeria established universities of technology. These set of universities are today known as "Third Generation" universities, shown in figure 2.3.

Year of est.	University
1980s–1990s	Federal Universities of Technology Owerri, Makurdi, Yola, Akure, Bauchi State Universities Imo State, Ondo State, Lagos State, Akwa Ibom State, Oyo State, Uyo State , Cross River State

Figure 2.3 "Third Generation" Universities established between 1980s and 1990s.

I have shown how universities expanded in Nigeria by presenting three generations of university development. For the fear of leaving out some universities in the country that are included on the figures and tables, it will be pertinent to present a roll call of Nigerian universities as at 2002 in the next section, showing enrolments and percentage of female students to men, when the number of universities in Nigeria reached 47 with seven being private universities.

2.2 Expansion, Access and Size of the University System

The raid expansion of the university system in Nigeria as outlined in the last sections has been reflected in the enrolment of students and the number of academic staff employed in the universities. Over the years various Nigerian governments have been committed to democratising access to education. This led to growth in enrolments and increased access to higher education. Access to university education in Nigeria is open to all Nigerians who have the basic post secondary qualifications. In the 6-3-3-4 system[8] of education successful completion of senior secondary education allows the student for the four-year higher education programme in the university (Okebukola 2002, 6).

Enrolment into Nigerian universities has grown steadily over years. This increase in student population in the universities has shown that the trend is increasing more and more. Okebukola (2002, 7) argues that from a take-off enrolment of

[8] 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria entails six years of primary education, six years of secondary split into two, of three years of Junior and Senior secondary, of three year duration each. This is followed by four years of study in the university depending on the course of stgudy (Aiyepeku 1989; Fafunwa 1991; Igwe 1990).

210 in 1948 at the University College, Ibadan to six universities in 1962 enrolling a total of 23,000 students. By 1996, the total number of universities stood at 37 with a student population of 234, 581. The rate of growth quickened beginning from 1988 when the first set of product of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme, which began in 1976 came knocking on the doors of the universities for admission. In the 1990s the annual growth rate averaged 12 %. The total number of students enrolled in all universities in Nigeria by 2002 is in excess of 526,780 (table 2.3).

Table 2.1 Enrolment in Nigerian Universities (2001–2002)

S. No	University	Male	Female	Total	Fem. %
1	University of Nigeria, Nsukka	16179	12420	28599	43.4
2	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	19740	8682	28422	30.5
3	University of Port-Harcourt	18348	8594	26932	31.9
4	Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife	–	– *	26427	–
5	Bayero University, Kano	20878	4369	2547	17.3
6	Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto	12885	10367	23252	44.6
7	University of Benin, Benin City	14297	8661	22958	37.8
8	University of Lagos, Akoka	13780	9048	22829	39.6
9	University of Ibadan, Ibadan	12594	8499	21093	40.3
10	University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri	14635	5637	20272	27.8
11	University of Calabar, Calabar	15747	3530	19277	18.3
12	University of Uyo, Uyo	10042	8618	18660	46.2
13	University of Ilorin, Ilorin	12313	6175	18488	33.4
14	Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	9785	8175	17960	45.5
15	Rivers State Univ. of Science & Tech, P/H	10395	7312	17707	41.3
16	Enugu State University, Enugu	9614	6704	16318	41.1
17	Imo State University, Owerri	7319	8672	15991	54.2
18	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	7673	7370	15043	49.0
19	Federal University of Technology, Owerri	10802	3264	14048	23.2
20	Ogun State University, Ago-Iwoye	6763	6280	13043	48.1
21	University of Jos, Jos	8315	4266	12581	33.9
22	University of Ado-Ekiti, Ado-Ekiti	7982	4553	12535	36.3
23	Delta State University, Abraka	5895	6972	11967	50.7
24	Federal University of Technology, Yola	9578	2383	11961	19.9
25	Ladoke Akintola University, Ogbomosho	7096	3617	10713	33.8
26	Abia State University, Uturu	5468	4859	10327	47.0
27	Federal University of Technology, Minna	6809	1584	8393	18.9
28	Federal University of Technology, Akure	6742	1249	7991	15.6
29	Abubakar Tafawa Belewa University, Bauchi	5349	1260	6609	19.1
30	University of Agriculture, Abeokuta	3887	1320	5207	25.4
31	Benue State University, Makurdi	3235	1616	4851	33.3
32	University of Agriculture, Makurdi	3730	933	4663	20.0
33	University of Agriculture, Umudike	1336	964	2300	41.9
34	University of Abuja	1010	794	1804	44.0
35	Igbinedion University, Okada	411	616	1027	60.0
36	Bowen University, Iwo	455	195	650	30.0

S. No	University	Male	Female	Total	Fem. %
37	Madonna University, Okija	228	347	365	54.6
38	Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna	–	–	–	–
39	Lagos State University, Lagos	–	–	–	–
40	Babcock University, Ileshan-Remo	–	–	–	–
41	Nassarawa State University	–	–	–	–
42	Niger Delta University	–	-	–	–
43	Prince Abubakar Audu Univ., Kogi State	–	–	–	–
44	Ondo State University, Akungba	–	–	–	–
45	Covenant University ,Ota	–	–	–	–
46	Benson Idahosa University, Benin City	–	–	–	–
47	Pan African University, Lagos	–	–	–	–
	TOTAL	**321,375**	**178,995**	**526,780**	**–**

Source: Okebukola 2002, pp. 7–8.

* Denotes not available.

2.3 Funding of Nigeria Universities

Funding is the most important non-material resource of all inputs into the education system in general and universities in particular. Many leaders of Nigerian universities believe in the argument that when funding gets right, most other things will fall in place." For the purpose of funds management, the broad categories of recurrent and capital are adopted.[9] A major source of recurrent and capital funds for public universities (both federal and state) in Nigeria is the government. On the average, both federal and state governments in Nigeria handle over 60 per cent of both recurrent and capital costs of university financing. For instance, about 80 per cent and 70 per cent of recurrent cost and capital cost of the federal universities are the responsibility of the federal government. At the same time, state governments fund state universities. Many state universities get less than 10 % of funds required to cover capital expenses and barely 25 % for overhead. In all cases, funding from both federal and state governments is diminishing. Besides funding from these governments universities make marginal income[10] from miscellaneous fees such as grants from donor agencies, investments, bookshops, guest houses, collection from part-time students and in takes from miscellaneous services to the public in form of consultancies and petty trading (Okebukola 2002, 28).

[9] Recurrent funds are those for the day-to-day operations of the universities, while capital funds are used for putting up buildings, purchase of equipment, cars and fixed assets. In turn, recurrent cost is divided into personal cost for addressing salaries and emolument issues, and overhead costs. The overhead cost has to do with routine running and maintenance of plants and services.

[10] The sorry situation of universities in Nigeria shows that financial position of these universities is minimal. This suggests that more appropriate measures of financial mobilization is needed. I have dealt with this issue in chapter 3.

However, it was towards the 1980s that government's position as the major source of funding for universities became progressively weaker as more universities were established, revenue from oil dwindled and the responsibilities of the government multiplied. With these changes in the environment of the universities, the resources of the federal government were over-stretched, and the gap between the demands of the universities for funds and the grants provided became widened (Onokerhoraye and Nwoye 1995, 25). The issue of funding universities in Nigeria and the associated problems are discussed in section 2.4.

2.4 Economic Crises and Financial Problems of Nigerian Universities

In this section I discussed the economic crises in Nigeria. The aim of the discussion was to identify the associated problems the crises have had on the operation of universities in the country.

2.4.1 The Nature of the crisis in the Economy

Pre and post-colonial Nigeria were periods dominated by agricultural production. This trend continued up to the 1960s. During the early 1960s agriculture contributed about 63 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The proportion declined to 54 per cent in the later part of the 1960s (Onokerhraye 1995). The structure of the economy changed drastically in the 1970s because of spontaneous switch from a predominantly agricultural economy to one driven largely by the oil sector. Given the availability of oil in large quantities, the 1970s became known as the era of oil boom as the significance of oil heightened tremendously in terms of its contributions to the gross national product, government finances and foreign exchange earnings. The net effect of the expansion in oil output and increase in crude oil price was an enormous increase in oil revenue, which greatly eased foreign exchange constraints on development (Obadan 1993, 10).

The oil sector, therefore, became virtually the only source of government foreign exchange earnings despite the sharp fall in world oil prices. The massive government revenue from oil encouraged the public sector to assume increasing responsibility in the economy during the period. The government became the prime mover of the economy investing large sums in social, infrastructure and economic activities. The federal and state governments embarked on huge and expensive projects; a large number of which were of doubtful viability (Omoruyi 1989; Fashoyin 1993, 79). This period was also characterized with massive misappropriation of government revenues,[11] excessive corruption in government circles and poor attitude to work characterized the public sector. As economic problems start-

[11] During the period of oil boom, the federal government's major foreign exchange earning was from the oil. Because of this oil boom, the government embarked on extravagant and over ambitious development projects. Nigerians referred to this as "squandimania" on the part of the government.

ed creeping in, the government introduced series of measures to correct the ills of the economy. The various measures undertaken by governments failed to bring about solutions to the existing problems. Thus, by the end of 1985, real per capita GDP and consumption were well below their levels in the early 1970s (Ihimodu 1993, 50). Accordingly, the structural Adjustment Programme was put in place in September 1986, with a view to removing several areas of administrative controls and adopting a free market-oriented economy that would encourage private enterprise and the more efficient use of resources (Onokerhoraye 1995, 24–30, Anunobi 1992; Sadique 1995, 111–112).

According to one Nigerian scholar, the decline in the fortunes of government, deregulation of the economy, partial disengagement of government from social services, its disengagement from the commanding heights of the economy as well as the competing social demands/pressures on allocation of government resources are factors that contributed to the decline of government funding of universities (Onokerhoraye and Nwoye 1995, 39). The inadequacy and irregularity of funding brought loss of dignity and other constraints to the universities. Thus, under funding has had an implication for quality university education in the country. The most alarming aspect of this is the decline in scholarship; research reflection and publication, and so has the quality of teaching declined. Nevertheless, within the last four years since the Obasanjo administration assumed control of the affairs of State, the increase in government funding to universities has increased phenomenal. According to Okebukola (2002, 29), in 2001, federal universities received a total of 34 billion Naira from the Federal Government through the National Universities Commission (NUC). That the increase is brought about largely by the significant improvement in the welfare scheme of university workers who began to enjoy a 22 % increase over 1999 salaries from June 2001. Okebukola concludes that while the Federal Government deserves a great deal of credit for this gesture some attention needs to be paid to the hangover of shortfall from 1999 which is already choking the universities. In the next section, I will examine the pressures created by government inability to adequately fund university education in Nigeria.

2.4.2 Defining the 'Crises' of University Education in Nigeria

The story of university education in Nigeria has largely been a story of mixed fortune. These institutions initially laid claims in making respectable impact on the socio-political and economic advancement of Nigeria. Also, the first generation universities alleviated the pains of colonization by filling the gaps in high-level manpower created by the exit of colonial powers like in other African countries; in replacing them with graduates of higher education system. Today there are doubts whether Nigerian universities under the present conditions will be able to continue to lay claims on being central to national capacity to connect with the new international knowledge system and adopt, adapt and further develop the new technologies (Verspoor 1994, 1), needed in the wider society. One Unesco (1991) study shows that the university institutions in Africa have not fared well in recent times because they are in countries where the economies have deteriorated. The study further reveals that African countries and societies as a whole, has been

going through a period of economic uncertainty, political and social upheavals, plus other contortions, in which higher education has become a victim of the prevailing state of affairs (Ajayi et al. 1995).

A Report of the African Association of Political Science (AAPS 1996) showed that the crisis facing African universities has been most acute because fiscal adjustment has been harsher. The study, however confirmed that the universities as centres of learning and production of knowledge have been in terrible recession. But concluded that the lack of maintenance culture also led to steady run-down of existing facilities such as buildings, equipment and other infrastructure. This situation was blamed on the continent's political leadership for the erosion of intellectual values in contemporary African universities. In the assertion of authors, the first impression one gets of an African university campus is one of an overall pervading state of physical, managerial, and intellectual dilapidation (Ajayi et al 1996).

Writing in one Nigerian magazine (Newswatch 1990), Professor and one time Vice Chancellor of University of Benin, Grace Alele Williams, while describing the situation in Nigerian universities writes: "It is common sight everywhere; dilapidated buildings, overcrowded classrooms, ill-equipped laboratories, antiquated libraries, stinking hostels and abandoned projects, are the tell-tale sign of a world out of joint in the ivory tower; from Benin to Bauchi, Ibadan to Ilorin, and Calabar to Kano the situation is the same." Within the same period of economic crises and structural adjustment crises of many facets affected university education in Nigeria, characterized by growing difficulties of the federal and state governments to finance the continued development of education and, very often, by the inability of university stem to achieve the objectives which have been assigned to them (Chinapah 1992, 1). The consequences of these events to universities were the onset of decay in delivery apparatus and delivery process, with their attendant managerial problems. Even today, we can still define Nigeria's university crisis, some of which have been identified by World Bank (1994), and the traces are noticeable, as 1) declined public expenditure; 2) deteriorated infrastructure/facilities/equipment for teaching, research and learning -these are either lacking or very inadequate and in a bad shape to permit the universities the freedom to carry out the basic functions of academic; 3) the erosion of university autonomy and academic freedom; 4) the increasing rate of graduate unemployment; 5) brain drain, and student unrest and constant strikes by both students and academic staff. The consequences of these to university organizations are defined by Ifana (2000, 2) as a burden for the classical tradition of higher education. He points out that under this circumstance, the research, teaching and institutional setting, are being theoretically deconstructed and geared more to the cultures and practices external to their classical traditions. His conclusion is that in recent times, a structured counter mode of interpretation with some pathetic formulations have also increased in the writings of social epistemologists' configuring the vulnerability of present-day universities as threat to both society and science.

David Kerr, former acting Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Science at the University of Benin, while also writing in one Nigerian monthly magazine when describing the attitude of the former military governments in Nigeria, noted: "Edu-

cation occupies too small a place in our priorities, and that was the reason why university education in Nigeria had suffered the worst bettering in the hands of the military rulers in the past since and until the late 1990s." He goes further to say that the military perceived intellectuals as threat, because the members of intellectual community played significant role in raising people's consciousness regarding disastrous socio-economic policies of governments (Newswatch April 2, 1990). Under the military governments also, state authorities resorted to harassment, sacking, torture, and even killing of academics, and to concerted efforts to stifle academic freedom (Nwala 1994)

I have traced the origin and further development of university education in Nigeria. The chapter discussed the issues of university expansion, enrolment trends and the roles of federal and state governments in development and funding of university education in Nigeria. The section closed with a brief discussion of the crisis of university education in Nigeria. I will now examine the environment of universities in Finland a under appropriate headings of background to university development, steering and funding of universities in Finland.

2.5 The Finnish University system

2.5.1 The University in Historical Finland

Like in some other countries such as Nigeria, higher education in Finland is provided in universities, polytechnics and other tertiary institutions. However, our concern in this study is only on universities. In 1640 the first university was established in Turku during the time of Swedish rule of the country. This institution was transferred to Helsinki, where it was re-opened in 1828 as the Imperial Alexander University of Finland. This took almost two hundred years, by which time Finland had become an autonomous Grand Duchy of the Russian Empire. The University was invested with the task of educating clergymen and civil servants (Ministry of Education 2001). One web source[12] states that the Imperial Alexander University of Finland, which was later renamed the University of Helsinki, remained the only institution of higher education in Finland until 1908, when the Helsinki University of Technology was granted a university status. Furthermore, the monopoly of Helsinki of university education was broken when two universities were established in Turku as Åbo Akademi University (Turku's Swedish language university) in 1917, and the Finnish Language University of Turku in 1920. In responding to the demands of business and industry, several specialist business and technical institutions were founded in the fifties and sixties. As available statistics for the year 2001 shows, it is easy to point at the twenty universities in Finland as shown on table 2.3.

[12] This internet publication can be located in the following website: www://minedu.fi/eopm/hep

Table 2.2 Finnish universities, number of students and teachers

S. No	Universities	Students	Teachers
1	University of Helsinki	37,244	1,573
2	University of Joensuu	6,817	374
3	University of Jyväskylä	13,450	658
4	University of Kuopio	5,287	307
5	University Lapland	3,745	170
6	University of Oulu	14,500	842
7	University of Tampere	14,358	573
8	University of Turku	14,708	801
9	Åbo Akademi University, Turku	6,638	329
10	University of Vaasa	4,604	157
11	Helsinki School of Economics and Business Administration	3,963	150
12	Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration	2,341	95
13	Turku School of Economic and Business Administration	2,005	87
14	Helsinki University of Technology	14,270	490
15	Tampere University of Technology	10,534	333
16	Lappeenranta University of Technology	4,631	178
17	Sibelius Academy	1,432	239
18	Theatre Academy	358	47
19	University of Art and Design Helsinki	1, 667	133
20	Academy of Fine Arts	233	23
	TOTAL	**162,785**	**7,559**

Source: Ministry of Education 2001, pp. 20–21

For decades the general climate in Finland has been very much pro education and pro research. It has been the view of government that funding for the institutions that were responsible for producing and disseminating new knowledge should be raised to the same level it had already reached in countries that were seen as Finland's rivals. The result of this way of thinking was that funding for research and development in universities doubled in real terms. As funding for science system continued to develop favourably, so did the structures and infrastructure of the university system as a whole; leading to continued growth of budget funding for universities. As this growth continued, the position and preconditions for research and postgraduate training in universities further strengthened (Academy of Finland 2000).

The report of the Academy of Finland (2000) further states that from the initial establishment of universities in Finland, universities have been assigned the basic functions of research and education. In addition to cultural function of education, universities themselves like to stress the key significance of academic autonomy. In these universities, free research is still regarded as the main precondition for autonomy. This autonomy includes the freedom to choose what one wants to research and the right to publish research results even when they are detrimental to

those who funded the research. This situation is further complicated by stringent quality requirements, by the continuing growth in international co-operation and closer links demanded between university system and industry (Academy of Finland 2000, 50–51).

Era of Expansion

The 1960s and 1970s were times of rapid expansion[13] and regional development in university education. According to Häyrynen et al (1990), the growing provision of upper secondary education, new economic prosperity and demands for equal educational opportunities provided further impetus for expansion. The expansion of university institutions was aimed at providing university education for one fifth of the age group, and to extend the institutional network of universities to eastern and northern parts of the country. At the same time, other significant decisions were made such as incorporating teacher education into university system, and upgrading arts education to university level. In recent years, other changes in the university system include the joining of the Academy of Fine Arts with other art academies and the former independent College of veterinary medicine was annexed as a faculty within the University of Helsinki. In recent years, there have been other changes in the university system in Finland.

A Report by the Finnish Ministry of Education notes that today, the university system in Finland is made up of 20 universities. The system comprises 10 multifaculty universities, 3 universities of technology, and three schools of economics and business administration, and 4 art academies. In addition, university level education is provided at one military academy under the Ministry of Defence. All universities engage in both education and research and have the right to award doctorates. The first university degree, which roughly corresponds to a Bachelor ‘s, can generally be attained in three years of full-time study and the higher, Master’s degree in five years, i.e. a further two years following the Bachelor’s degree. There is also an optional pre-doctoral postgraduate degree of licentiate, which can be completed in two years of full-time study after the Master’s degree. Full-time studies for a doctorate take approximately four years following the Master’s degree (Ministry of Education 2000, 15).

[13] Expansion was the most dominant feature of Finnish higher education in recent decades. During these periods, the number of university students rose 3.5 times higher than what it was in the earlier decades. One of the central goals of the expansion policy has, in recent decades, been the building of a new regional network of universities. Though expansion of higher education especially opened the university gates to the new lower-middle layers of society, social inequality is the prevalent feature of school to university transition (see Häyrynen et al. 1990).

2.6 The Management of Finnish University System

In the administration of education in general, Parliament enacts laws on education and decides on the principles of education policy. As well as in the universities, the Government and the Ministry of Education are charged with implementing these principles at the central government level. The government adopts a Development Plan for Education and University Research. The Higher Education Evaluation Council, which was established in 1995, assists the universities in matters relating to evaluation (Ministry of Education 2001, 5). All publicly funded education is steered or supervised by the Ministry of Education. Regarding the funding of universities, it is stated in higher education policy document that the universities are State-run institutions and receive their core funding from the State budget. The universities have extensive autonomy under the universities Act. Educational legislation is passed by parliament, which also determines the overall lines of education policy (Ministry of Education 2001).

In principle, Finnish higher education is based on the German model according to Ben-David (Hölttä 1995, 21). This Humbodtian ideal of unity of research and teaching has been increasingly replaced by an emphasis on technological application, and by an interest in strengthening the competitive edge of the economy (Kekäle 1997, 21; Kivinen 1993, 5). Like other Scandinavian countries of North European countries, Finland shares a high standard of living and a strong welfare system. In this system university education is placed central in the role of creating national welfare and identity. In recognition of this, universities are of crucial importance to social, political and economic development. This role of the university resembles Grey-Johnson's view that the benefits of education coincide with increasing productivity and human capital investment and development needed for national growth and transformation.[14] The importance of human resource development and its responsibility for the development of the economy as a whole has been a target to education as producer of national skilled manpower (Grey-Johnson 1990, 135). Tawari and Koko hold similar view when they place the university in a pivotal position in producing human resources for national growth, development and productivity. For them, universities represent the highest centres of excellence; by their very nature of being the seats of research as well as knowledge factories for producing all high-level manpower for a nation (Tawari and Koko 1996, 78–87).

In the 1998 Universities Act, the basic functions of the universities, scientific research and postgraduate training and education were spelt out, and this governs each university in Finland. The Act guarantees the autonomy of universities as

[14] The crucial role and importance of education in general and university education in particular has been discussed extensively in the literature, for instance see Fagerlind and Saha 1989; Unesco 1998; Lumsden 1974. It is generally agreed that education is one of the vital factor of development. It is a vehicle of both national and individual progress. Several empirical studies ion the field of economics of education have proved the significant relationship between education and development.

well as the independence of their research and teaching. Increased decision-making powers have been devolved to universities, and the former system of detailed budget steering has been discarded in favour of management by results (MBR)[15], which emphasized the links between operative targets and performance based funding. The universities have the right to decide independently on how they want to arrange their research and education. The motive of this has been to give universities the flexibility they need to respond more rapidly and effectively to changing situations. The new Act also allows for a new kind of strategic management.

2.7 Strategies of Adaptation and Change in Finnish University System

One of the issues on the agenda since the 1980s was the importance of universities working closely with government research institutions and business companies. The aim of this relationship was to encourage co-operation between basic and applied research as well as development work. The key objectives have been to promote technological development in industry and to innovate industrial products based on research, in order to maintain strategic capacity of industry for production and for strengthening its competitiveness. Though Finnish universities are comparatively small and they have been encouraged to specialize in fields of study that they know best.

Like other OECD countries, Finland witnessed similar environmental change of the 1990s. The main operational and structural features of recent development in Finland have included the establishment of the centre of excellence system, the creation of the graduate school system, the advancement of professorial research career through the postdoctoral research system, as well as increased co-operation between universities and units, disciplines, research institutes and industry. These changes have been conducive to the development of creative research environment, which in all universities has met with a positive response (Academy of Finland 2000, 51).

Throughout the 1990s, there was structural development in Finnish Universities. The decision to launch the programme of structural development was made by the government in connection with the adaptation of new development plans for education and university research. Both schemes required that universities

[15] In Finland the change in the steering philosophy has been fast. The principle of management by results and cost efficiency were established rapidly in the Finnish academic world with the introduction of development legislation between 1980s and 1990s. Management by results is an effort to increase the efficiency of public administration in general to facilitate the job of management in the public sector. These efforts have been chiefly geared to breaking loose from the old centralized planning system and to replace it with a result-oriented and service-oriented management culture. Instead of rules, norms and meticulous control of spending, the accent now is on targets and agreements on the allocation of the resource needed to attain those targets (Academy of Finland 2000).

should specialize and adjust their education and research operations to the prevailing economic realities. A key objective of this development was to improve the quality of education and research and to enhance the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of universities. The Academy of Finland's report noted that the aim of the exercise of structural development was to strengthen the university network to facilitate the allocation of resources to strategic growth areas and to support new emerging areas. Again, the purpose was to give universities the tools they needed to cope in the situation where their core funding has been reduced and to respond to other changes in their environment. In many universities in Finland, structural development has been a very far-reaching exercise (Academy of Finland 2000, 54).

2.8 Universities Contribution to Development

From the perspectives of development, the contribution of Finnish universities has a number of dimensions. In the first place, there is the direct economic impact of universities as an economic sector. Universities are major employers of relatively high-grade staff with considerable local spending. Furthermore, the direct employment impacts are essentially more significant on the effects, which a university can have through interacting with industry. A more significant impact is likely to be through teaching and the recruitment of graduates by regional businesses and through programmes of continuing professional development. The final area is the contribution of universities to social and community development; which can be seen from the contribution of universities in raising levels of education attainment in different parts of Finland and to enhancing skill levels of the workforce by recruiting non-local students and placing them with local employers. In addition to programmes targeted to the needs of employers, universities can demonstrate contributions to non- vocational education and cultural programmes in the arts. Last but not the least, the role of university staff and students in providing key leaders in local civil society by participating in voluntary activities, interpreting world affairs in the regional media and undertaking strategic analysis of the regional economy and social situation can be documented. The relevance of this discussion to regional development are neatly captured in the following statements:

> The skills of a nation's workforce and the quality of its infrastructure are what make it unique and uniquely attractive in the world economy ... so important are these public amenities, in particular the university and the airport, that their presence would stimulate some collective symbolic analytical effort, even on a parched desert or frozen tundra. A world class university and an international airport combine the basic rudiments of global symbolic analysis: brain and quick access to the rest of the world (Dahllöf et al. 1998, 8).

Universities in Finland have not only a vested interest in ensuring that the development of postgraduate training corresponds to the needs of society, but have committed themselves to the national centre of excellence policy. The status of centre of excellence in research has been important to Finnish universities. This is

one of the ways in which universities have sought to increase their impact and the relevance and exploitation of research results as a way to increase co-operation with the business sector; which was a key strength of Finnish universities. The growing number of endowed professorships provides one example of this. Today, the most popular branch is the information industry.

As report of the Academy of Finland posits, Finnish Universities are involved in regional know-how centres. Science parks, special service centres supporting research-oriented business and innovation have also been set up in universities. Recruitment services designed to promote graduate placement services as an important link between universities and business companies. Many universities in Finland have their own research and business ombudsmen, whose job it is to help businesses make the best possible use of the research and product development services offered by universities (Academy of Finland 2000, 64).

Finnish universities are actively involved in regional development efforts and in promoting welfare. It is a widely shared view among the universities today that one of their most important future challenges is to strengthen their impact locally, for instance in terms of the education opportunities they offer; this is highly significant in terms of attracting people into the region. Universities influence local industrial structure by producing expertise and creating job in certain areas. The aim is to make available the knowledge and know-how generated within the university as quickly and as effectively as possible so that local companies can benefit. The country's growth centres provide an example of regional impact of universities. Universities are also keen to make a positive impact on the cultural and social welfare in their region. They like to see and portray themselves as highly influenced agents in terms of social development and as leading experts in their respective fields of specialization, with close contact to the surrounding society.

2.9 Summary

This chapter examined the universities in both Nigeria and Finland, as an attempt to shed light on the environment of the two systems of university organization. The chapter revealed that the development of universities in the two countries had different histories. On the one hand, while the establishment of university institutions in Nigerian had a recent history, Finnish university development stretched over a long historical period of over four centuries. We also gathered from the discussion that in both countries, all universities are public institutions, except in Nigeria where wealthy private individuals were licensed to operate their own universities, though following the National Universities Commission's guidelines.

The recent years have been years of positive development for Finnish universities. There has been increase in university resources, to which Finland has been ranked as the first country in the world in international competitiveness. Finland's strengths include the high quality of its education, the level of research, and the co-operation between universities and the business community. Finnish universities are thus cornerstone of Finnish competitiveness. Internationally, too, the significant of universities for development, prosperity and competitiveness is crucial (Ministry of Education 2001, 5–4).

The chapter further showed that development and growth of university institutions in these two countries followed different trends. In Nigeria the establishment of universities especially since the 1980s and 1990s, was to assure geographical representation in university development without any consideration of how to finance these institutions. In Finland, university establishment has followed conscious national development policy, which has had much impact on regional development in recent years. Also considering the sizes of the two countries, Nigeria with higher population density has more universities than Finland, which population is about twenty-four times that of Nigeria. In the same way the size of each country determines enrolment trends in individual university. However, in both countries the Ministry of Education is responsible for regulating and steering the university system.

3 REVIEW OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

The purpose of this chapter was to review the published literature on leadership and management and how it applies to the study and the practice of leadership. The chapter began by introducing the concepts of leadership and management in general, and then discuss how the two concepts relate or differ from each other. Supported by extensive literature review, the chapter reviewed different theories of leadership in organizational management.[16] This led to a discussion of new paradigms of leadership that are relevant in turbulent environment of organizations. From this the discussion took up the issue of leadership in the university management. Also based on extensive literature review, the application of market forces to higher education is presented. The chapter begins with different definitions of leadership and management.

3.1 Leadership and Management: A Definition

As discussed in Greek and Latin classics, the Old and New Testaments of the Bible, and the writings of ancient philosophies, leadership and management have been of interest to society for thousands of years, the scientific study of leadership and management is a recent origin; beginning in the early part of the 20th century. Over the last years, in particular, there has been extensive research on the concepts of leadership and management. A review of the literature suggests that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership and management as there are researchers who have attempted to define the concepts (Kanji and Moura E SA 2001; Peretomode 1991)). As the ongoing discussion will show, more definitions of leadership were found in literature than it is to the concept of management from the available materials. I think the reason is that leadership has been a topic of discussion since the distant past due to its particular importance in organizations.

Because of its importance in the success and failure of organizations, leadership has long been a key focus of study by students, researchers and practitioners. The consequence of this is that in both professional and academic literature on leadership is full of definitions, models and theories of the concept abound. In spite of these numerous studies and writings on the subject, still there is no one ‘correct’ definition or meaning of leadership (Bass 1981), because of the com-

[16] It is assumed that when people come together to combine their talents and efforts, they form *organizations*. A good working definition of the word organization is provided by J.D Mooney in his book *The Principles of Organization*. Here he defines organization as the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose. ... the framework of every group moving toward a common objective. ... It refers to the complete body, with all its correlated functions.... It refers to the coordination of all these functions as they cooperate for the common purpose (Northcraft and Neal 1994).

plexity of the phenomenon [17] Differences in definition of leadership exist and they reflect different contexts as well as different perspectives. James McGregor Burns, in his discussion of leadership noted that a recent study of leadership turned up literally hundreds of definitions and as a result, the concept dissolved into small and discrete meanings as Crainer (1997, 49) opined. However varied definitions that may exist, a brief look at some of them will follow.

Management is important in organizations but it is not enough to accomplish organizational objectives and goals. Organizations require leadership who will set direction of the organization as Burns (1978) suggests. Hersey et al (2001, 8–9) posit that leadership occurs when one person attempts to influence the behaviour of an individual or group for whatever reason, which may be for one's own goals or for the goals of others, and these goals may or may not be congruent with organizational goals. They also define management as the process of working with and through individuals and groups and other resources such as equipment, capital and technology, to accomplish organizational goals. In the same way, Geneen and Moscow (1984, 207–208) do not see management as "a collection of boxes with names and titles on the organizational chart", but a "living force that gets things done to acceptable high standards." At the same time, they see leadership as the single most important ingredient of organizational success, and define it as the ability to inspire other people to work together as a team, following your lead, in order to attain a common objectives, whether in business, in politics, in war, or on the football field (Geneen and Moscow 1984, 99).

Kotter (1988) defines leadership as the process of moving a group in some direction through mostly non-coercive means. Also, he extends this definition to accommodate effective leadership as one that produces movement in the long-term best interest of the group or groups. He further states that management as it evolved over the last five decades, can be described in a number of different ways. At the heart of all such descriptions, one always finds four or five key processes, which include the following:

1. *Planning*: Planning is the science of logically deducing means to achieve given ends. A variety of techniques have been developed to aid in this process.
2. *Budgeting*: This is part of the planning process associated with an organization's finances.
3. *Organizing*: This means creating a formal structure that can accomplish the plans, staffing with qualified people, defining clearly what each person's role is, providing them with appropriate financial and career incentives, and delegating appropriate authority to those people
4. *Controlling*: Controlling involves looking constantly for deviations from plans ("problems"), and then using formal authority to "solve" them (Kotter 1988, 21–22).

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[17] Bass (1990) confirms that there is no generally accepted definition of leadership and Burns (1978) states that the study of leadership has serious intellectual difficulties; and as a concept, it dissolved into small and discrete meanings.

This four step management tasks coincide with Gibson and colleagues' definition of management as a 'set of activities classified as concerning planning, organizing, or controlling'. It is a job of getting things done through people (Peretomode 1991). The suggestion here is that management is a process; a sequence of coordinated events. According to Sherlekar (Peretomode 1991), management is guidance, leadership and control of the efforts of people toward some common objectives. It is a social or interact ional and economic process involving a sequence of coordinated events – planning, organizing, coordinating and controlling or leading – in order to use available resources to achieve a desired outcome in the fastest and most efficient way. Equally, management is viewed as the process undertaken by one or more individuals to co-ordinate the activities of others to achieve results not achievable by one individual acting alone (Peretomode 1991, 1–2).

Charles Handy views leadership as implying setting one man above another as individual 'linking-pins' who will bind groups in the organization (Handy 1985, 92). In referring to a definition provided by Keith Davis, Peretomode (1991) linked leadership with management, and defined it as the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. In line with the Handy's (1985) definition, Peretomode further defines leadership as 'the human factor, which binds a group together and motivates it to towards goals. Also in his considered opinion, leadership is a process involving two or more people in which one groups attempts to influence the other's behaviour toward the accomplishment of some goals (Peretomode 1991; see also James 1996).

In another instance, leadership is defined in its relation to organizational behaviour. Owens believes that leadership is a group function, occurring only in the process of two or more people interacting and intentionally seeking to influence the behaviour of other people (Hoff 1991). Hoff argues that leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain purpose mobilize, in competition or in conflict with others – institutional, political, psychological and other resources – to arouse and satisfy the motives of followers. Furthermore, leadership is treated as a process of persuasion or example by which an individual induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader and his or her followers. In addition to inducing and persuading people, teaching, learning and building relationships are crucial to effective leadership (Gardiner 1990; Depree 1992). Peter Drucker adds that the foundation of effective leadership is thinking through the organization's mission; when it is defined clearly and visibly (Hoff 1991). For Ogawa and Bossert (1997), leadership is organizational quality and an effective performance and organizational quality are therefore characteristics of effective leadership.

Drucker (1992) takes a contrary position by defining 'manager' instead of management or leadership. Manager, according to him is one who is responsible for the performance of all the people on whom his own performance depends. In the same way, Mintzberg (1989) defines manager in terms of being in charge of an organization or its sub-units. It is also seen as one who operates an enterprise to get something done and to accomplish something set out to be done (Geneen and Moscow 1984, 83). Bennis and Nanus (1985) argue that "to manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge for or responsibility for, to conduct."

They state that managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right things (Bennis and Nanus 1985, 21). The difference may be summarized as activities of vision and judgement -effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines-efficiency (Beairsto 1997, 13).

There are three definitions of leadership by three researchers that occur in Paul James' introductory text, *Total Quality Management*. In their concern with managerial leadership, Drucker, Mukhi and colleagues, and Tannabaum provide the following definitions of leadership:

> Leadership is the lightening of man's vision to higher sights, the raising of man's performance to a higher standard, the building of man's personality beyond its normal limitations.
>
> Leadership is a broad visionary activity that seeks to discern the distinctive competence and values of an organization; to articulate and exemplify that competence and those values; to inspire, even, to transform people in the organization, to feel, believe and act accordingly.
>
> Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals (James 1996, 143).

In bringing management and leadership into a common framework, Stephen P Robins equally distinguished between management and leadership as terms that are often confusing. He draws his reference from John Kotter of Harvard Business School, who argues that management is about coping with complexity. This approach ponders that good management brings about order and consistency by drawing up plans, designing rigid organizational structures, and monitoring results against the plans. Leadership in contrast, is about coping with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. He further points out that organizations need both strong leadership and strong management for optimum effectiveness because in today's dynamic world, quality leaders are needed to challenge the status quo, to create visions of the future, and to inspire organizational members to achieve the visions (Robins 2001, 311–314).

A note of importance in these attempts at defining leadership and management is that leaders and managers, in whatever position they are, do not work in vacuum. They engage in many roles, develop multiple relationships, espouse individual and institutional values, empower other, and in some cases hold an incredible amount of power. Leaders of our institutions today must hold a vision of what the institutions should be like in the years ahead. They create mission statements and establish goals and objectives to ensure the probability of that vision becoming reality (Hoff 1991)

After this extensive review of literature on different definitions of leadership and management, the next section will discuss the theories of leadership. The aim of doing this is to connect different approaches of leadership to different roles leaders play in their organizations. But before I embark on this, I will first have a brief look at differences between leadership and management.

3.2 Leadership and Management Differentiated

Variations exist about how different authors of organization theories distinguish leadership from management. Some organization theorists see leadership as synonymous to management (e.g. Ramsden 1998, 107). "As Hunt posits, a manager is by definition the same as a leader (McNamara 1999, 11), and for others, leadership and management are different concepts. For example, Hersey and colleagues document Warren Bennis, a highly regarded leadership theorist who differentiated leadership and management in a number of provocative ways:

> Leaders conquer the context -the volatile, turbulent, ambiguous surroundings that sometimes seems to conspire against us and will surely suffocate us if we let them -while managers surrender to it. The manager administrates; the leaders innovates. The manager is a copy; the leader is an original. The manager maintains; the leader develops. The manager focuses on systems and structure; the leader focuses on people. The manager relies on control; the leader inspires trust. The manager has a short-range view; the leader has a long-range perspective. The manager asks how and; the leader asks what and why. The manager has an eye on bottom line; the leader has an eye on the horizon. The manager imitates; the leader originates. The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it... Managers do things right; leaders do the right things (Hersey et al. 2001, 9; Bennis 1998, 63).

Donnelly et al. (1995) see leadership as a part of management but not all of it... Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives, management activities such as planning, organizing, and decision-making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them towards goals (Donnelly et al. 1995). These authors however, go far to propose five different bases for such power:

1. *Coercive power:* This power is based on fear. Coercive power is based on the expectations of individuals that punishment is the consequence for not agreeing to the actions, attitudes or directives of a superior in form of threats, intimidation, and anxiety.
2. *Reward power:* Reward power is a reverse of coercive power. This occurs when a subordinate perceives that compliance with the wishes of a superior will lead to positive rewards. These rewards could be in form of increase in pay or a compliment for a job well done.
3. *Legitimate power:* This comes from the position of a superior in the organizational hierarchy. For example, the president of a university possesses more legitimate power than a faculty dean, and faculty dean has more legitimate power than head of department (italics mine).
4. *Expert power:* An individual with expert power is one with an expertise, special skill, or knowledge. The possession of one or more of these attributes gains the respect and compliance of peers and subordinates. In some cases, individuals with expert power are placed in managerial positions and are expected to lead.

5. *Referent power:* Referent power is based on a followers' identification with a leader; either for influence or for desirable resources (Donnelly 1995, 378–379).

In distinguishing between the function of management and the function of leadership, McNamara (1999) describes Hunt's summary of Kotter's differentiation thus:

> For Kotter, like a number of others, the essential function of leadership is to produce adaptive or useful change whereas management is essentially to make the current organization to operate smoothly. Planning is a managerial process quite different from what Kotter calls the "direction-setting" aspect of leadership, a process that produces not plans but visions and strategies (aking to "agenda-setting"). Kotter speaks of the key leadership aspect of alignment-getting individuals to understand, accept, and line up in the direction chosen and differentiates from the managerial function of organizational (McNamara 1999, 11).

Ramsden (1998) has also made the same distinction between management and leadership when he said that "management is for creating order" and "leadership is for producing change" (Askling and Kristensen 2000). In his book *Learning to Lead in Higher Education*, Ramsden (1998) uses 'leadership' as shorthand for "leadership and management" in his argument that 'leaders' are also 'managers'. He points out that management, as a fairly recent idea is a response to the need to handle large and complex enterprise in a way that brings consistency and conformity to the delivery of products and services. It is a way of imposing regulation on the incipient chaos of the large firm and its multiple suppliers and customers. It is a way of keeping companies on time and on budget. It is the essence of rationality. Managers plan, organize, staff, and solve problems. Management is about 'doing things right'. (Ramsden 1998, 108). In contrast to management, leadership in Kotter's model is about movement and change (Ramsden 1998). According to him, leaders produce change; effective leaders produce 'constructive and adaptive change to help people and firms survive and grow'. Leaders establish direction, align people and motivate them. Leadership involves 'doing the right things'. He further posits that leadership foresees and enables, enabling people to change rather than to resist (p.108).

A central idea in the two systems -management and leadership- is that they are necessary to an organization's success. No one of the two systems has to undo each other, but the two remain in balance. As Ramsden (1998) argues, excessive management produces compliance, passivity, and order for order's sake; it discourages risk-taking and stifles creativity and long-term vision. On the other hand, excessive leadership without the compensating force of strong management produces inconsistent, delayed and off-budget results, while emphasizing change for change's sake. In this case the whole organization is threatened with destruction as deadlines, budgets and promises fail to be delivered (p.108). Ramsden concludes that at a time of significant change in the external environment, resolute leadership is essential to help people adapt, and to ensure survival. But substituting lead-

ership for management is not a sensible solution; for both systems are needed. A combination of capable leadership and resourceful management is associated with more productive, happier work environment is compelling. Management and leadership are two distinctive and complementary systems of action (Kotter 1990).

Finally, in an article "*Total Quality Management from the Future: Practices and Paradigms*," Edward Fuchs, in trying to distinguish between managers and leaders states that managers focus on the short-term on obtaining current results, on the quarterly statement and annual report. They are concerned with control of resources, with making things happen by giving orders and issuing policies. As regards leadership on the other hand, the developing research about leaders suggests that they have a long-term perspective, that they are visionaries with 'Merlin-like' powers. Leaders establish credibility with their passion and their personal deeds. He later concludes that the first and most important dimension of business culture is the leadership paradigm (Fuchs 1992, 26–34).

This analysis has shown that to survive in the twenty-first century, new generation of leader are needed, leadership that will be necessary to forge the future. I will now consider different approaches to leadership.

3.3 Approaches to Leadership

Many leadership theories may be classified into three dominant leadership approaches; these are trait approach, behavioural approach and situational/contingency approach. Each of these approaches can provide insights on how we view leadership. Collectively, they also give a multifaceted view of leadership. In both the private and public organization literature, many theories of leadership can be isolated. A review of scholarly studies on leadership shows that there are a wide variety of different theoretical approaches to explain the complexities of the leadership process (Bass 1990; Gardiner 1990; Rost 1991). Some of these researchers conceptualise leadership as a trait, or as behaviour, while others view leadership from a political perspective, or from a humanistic viewpoint. These researches collectively provide a picture of a process that is sophisticated and complex. This places leadership as a term that can refer to a variety of things: a person, a position, or a process. In this section I will first deal with trait theory as one of the classical views of leadership.

3.3.1 Traits Approaches to Leadership

The *traits* approach was one of the first attempts to study leadership. The traits perspective sees leadership as a quality that is inherent in people. Leaders are human beings, who are able to express themselves fully. Warren Bennis tells us that leaders know what they want, why they want it, and how to communicate what they want to others, in order to gain their cooperation and respect. They also know how to achieve their goals (Bennis 1998). But there is something that makes someone exceptional in this respect. A study of the lives of people labelled great leaders will show that they have different qualities, which are believed to be present. Early studies of traits theories by Stogdill and Man (Doyle and Smith 2002) reported that many of these studies identified characteristics that appear to differen-

tiate leaders and followers. Doyle and Smith however referred to Peter Wright's comment in his research that 'others found no difference between leaders and followers with respect to these characteristics, or even found people who possessed them were less likely to become leaders' (Doyle and Smith 2002). However, the theories developed within this approach are sometimes called 'great man' theories because they focused on identifying those innate qualities possessed by great social, political and military leaders (Northouse 2001, 15). I will briefly discuss the 'great man' theory of leadership.

'*Great man'* theory of leadership is the earliest theory of leadership but is still current. Events in human history are explained in terms of unique qualities of promising personalities. History books feature major people who are seen to be responsible for important events. This approach acknowledges that certain individuals matter in shaping events. Scholars in this school of thought focused their studies in determining the elements that made certain people great leaders.

Marinner-Tomey (1996) deals with the "great man" theory and also identified the view that a few people are born with the necessary characteristics to be great. He further believes that these 'great leaders' display both *instrumental* and *supportive* behaviours. According to him, *instrumental* activities include planning, organizing and controlling activities of subordinates to accomplish organizational goals. Obtaining and allocating resources such as people, equipment, materials, funds, and space, are particularly important. Supportive leadership is socially oriented and allows for participation and consultation from subordinates for decisions that affect them. Tomey concludes that people who use both instrumental and supportive leadership behaviours are considered 'great men', and are supposedly effective leaders in any situation (Marinner-Tomey 1996, 268). Describing effective military leadership in *The Art of War* from internet sources, Doyle and Smith (2002) put it thus: "The leader of armies is the arbiter of the people's faith; the man on who it depends whether the nation shall be in war or in peril."

In his book *Leadership Dynamics*, Hollander (1978) reports two researches by historian Frederick Woods who studied monarchs, and sociologist Gustav Spiller's work on variety of leaders in the arts. These two researchers were interested in the validity of the 'great man' theory. As the results of the studies showed, Woods concluded that the flourishing of a nation depends upon a strong monarch. Equally, Spiller concluded that greatness was determined by a combination of individual, social and historical circumstances (Hollander 1978, 20). However, this theory became unattractive because of its premise that leaders are born and not made; suggesting that leadership is inborn and cannot be developed.

As the early researchers ran out of stream in their search for traits, they turned to how leaders behave towards followers. Different patterns of behaviour were grouped together as styles. The best known of these styles is perhaps Blake and Mouton's (1964) *The Managerial Grid*, which shows two areas of concern in management style: *concern for people* and *concern for production*. In concern for people, leaders look upon their subordinates as important factors in determining managerial effectiveness. Managers show this concern in their efforts in meeting the needs, interests, problems and development of their followers. In concern for production style, leaders emphasize the achievement of concrete objectives. They

look for high levels of productivity, and ways to organize people and activities in order to meet those objectives (Blake and Mouton 1964, 9–11).

Charismatic leadership. Charisma is also a part of how leadership is viewed. Charisma is, literally, a gift of Grace or of God (Wright 1996). Marx Weber brought this idea into the realm of leadership. Marx used 'charisma' in describing leaders who are followed by those in distress. Such leaders gain influence because they are seen as having special talents or gifts that can help people escape the gains they are in (Gerth and Mill 1991, 51–55). The charismatic leader inspires others by obtaining emotional commitment from followers and they arouse strong feeling of loyalty and enthusiasm. Such leaders can also affect anticipated satisfaction, both from the work itself and from success. As House has suggested, charismatic leader arouses new potential rewards in subordinates. This occurs through subordinates' identification with the leader as a role model, which depends upon the leader being seen as supportive, competent and trustworthy (Kerr 1979, 230). Basing on the amount of control that leaders exert over the followers, Kreps (1990) reports three major leadership styles identified by Lippit and White. The styles are:

Authoritarian leadership is perhaps the most common form of leadership in modern organizations. In this style, leaders are very dominant and wield strong authority over subordinates. The authoritarian leader tells the subordinates what they have to do and how to do it, and sometimes makes sure that workers follow orders correctly. Formal organizations such as business and schools, informal organizations such as families and social groups, often ate led by authoritarians. In authoritarian leadership, there is a clear line of authority, strong control, rapid decision-making, quick response time, and ability of the leader to direct novice workers in complex and emerging tasks. As a boss, such a leader expects subordinates to perform well or be subjected to punishment or replacement (Massie 1979, 99).

Democratic leadership involves shared authority with subordinates in the organization. The democratic leader elicits information from the subordinates, and as against the authoritarian leader, asks for their participation in decision-making. Democratic leadership is best used in complex problem-solving situations where a great deal of information and expertise are needed to make non-emergency decisions. Long range planning for organizational development and innovation might employ democratic group processes, with group members representing several relevant groups within the organization and its environment.

Kreps regards *laissez-faire* leadership as a weak form of leadership. The leader in this model delegates authority to organization members. In practice, laissez-faire leadership often requires the great strength of a leader, who must be confident enough in his or her subordinates to allow them make decisions on their own. The leader provides organizational members with information and is available for problem-solving but generally gives authority to subordinates for taking care of business. This type of leadership is best suited to well trained, sophisticated, professional groups of people who can handle the demands of their jobs (Kreps 1990, 182–183).

Stephen Robins summarized the key characteristics of charismatic leadership that appear to differentiate charismatic from non-charismatic leaders:

- *Self-confidence*. Leaders have self-confidence in their judgment and ability
- *A vision*. The idealized goal that proposes a better future for the organization
- *Ability to articulate the vision*. This involves the ability of the leaders to clarify and state the vision in an understanding manner to others.
- *Strong conviction about the vision.* This is being strongly committed, and willing to take on a high personal risk and engage in self-sacrifice to achieve their vision.
- *Behaviour that is out of the ordinary.*
- Perceived as being a change agent. Ability to assume the role of a change agent rather than as caretaker of the status quo.
- Environment sensitivity. These leaders are able to make realistic assessment of the environmental constraints and resource needed to bring about change

(Robins 2001, 437).

3.3.2 Situational Theory

Situational theory approach to leadership suggests that the traits required of a leader differ according to varying situations. The most competent leaders are able to adapt their leadership style to the particular groups of people they are working with and the specific situations they are confronting (Marinner-Tomey 2001). In order words, any particular context would demand particular forms of leadership. Hersey et al. (2001) have developed the situational theory of leadership model that has gained a strong following among management development theorists. These management theorists stressed that the focus in situational approaches to leadership is on the observed behaviour of leaders and their group members in various situations, not on inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. Their emphasis on behaviour and environment allows for the possibility that individuals can be trained to adapt their style of leader behaviour to varying situations. They believe that most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development (Hersey et al. 2001, 107):

Robins (1996) points out that situational leadership is a contingency theory[18] that focuses on followers. According to him, successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, which is contingent on the level of followers'

[18] The earliest contingency theory was developed by Fielder as Robins pointed out. According to his theory, a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. Within the same paradigm, Hersey and Blanchard developed a model stating that leadership is composed of both a directive and supportive dimensions, and each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation (Kanji and Moura E SA 2001, 701–718).

readiness or maturity (Robins 1996. 424). Lawrence and Lorsch present a contingency theory of organization that underlies the situational approach to leadership. According to the contingency theory, there is no "right" way to organize. Effective organization is developed to reflect the specific goals, members, technologies, and environmental constraints of the organization. Here the situational leader attempts to identify the organizational constraints affecting each decision, and then adopts the leadership style that best suits the constraints identified (Kreps 1990, 184).

Northouse (2001) argues that situational leadership is one of the widely recognized approaches to leadership, which was developed by Hersey and Blanchard, based on Reddin's 3-D management style theory. According to this author, situational theory focuses on leadership in situations; the basic premise being that different situations demand different kinds of leadership. From this perspective, to be an effective leader requires that an individual should adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations.

However, some scholars have given support to the view that the traditional models of leadership became no longer relevant to the present realities in organizations. They called for new different models of leadership, which fit the social and organizational character of the age (see for example Maccoby 1981, 23–24). In support of this view of changed management reality, Schmid (1992) argues in an article "Executive Leadership in Human Services Organizations," for the emergence of new pattern for managing; that functions of management delineated in the past no longer fit the situation that have arisen as a result of changes in the following areas:

1. Turbulent, uncertain environments characterized by a high degree of politicisation, a crisis of legitimation affecting social services, lack of resources, intensification of trend toward changing public services and private services, and a target population with a high level of consumer consciousness and high demands.
2. Structural changes that have a profound effect on the organization's structure and the role of management and the leader to 'flattening' the organizational chart.
3. A professional staff that seeks personal development, professional fulfilment, and autonomy and the demands to participate in policy making and decision making.
4. A strong orientation among constituencies toward visible measurable effects that are significant for the target population.
   (Schmid 1992, 112–113).

3.4 New Paradigms of Leadership

Research in recent years has focused on the question of universality of leadership behaviour. Most of these inquiries have focused on a host of specific behaviours, attitudes, and values that leaders in the twenty-first century will need in order to be successful. In this scheme, leadership can be seen as inseparable from followers' needs and goals. The essence of the leader-follower relation is the interactions of

people with different levels of motivation and power potential. The interactions however, take two fundamental different forms, which Burns (1978) identified as transactional and transformational, on the basis of a study on political leadership. He approached leadership from the point of view of power and influence; implying that all leaders are active or potential welders of power, but all welders of power are not leaders. According to Burns, one of the basic functions of leadership is to unite individual objectives of the leader and subordinates in order to achieve higher objectives (Nissinen 2001, 32). This higher objective that the leader pursues is vision. Kanji and Moura E SA (2001) define vision as a "mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization."[19] A paradigm shift in leadership field ushered in the advent of the "new leadership school" (Bryman 1992), which included visionary, transformational, and transactional leadership approaches. These new theoretical approaches transformed the field of leadership studies. It also came with the acknowledgement of the continuing importance of researches that help in the understanding of leadership issues. Research to date has left us with a clear understanding of the existence of different aspects of leadership, which are to influence organizational performance in different ways. The addition of the new concepts of leadership has enriched our understanding of the impact of leadership on organizational performance. The classical or traditional view of leadership was criticized by researchers who argue that it blurs the distinction between leadership and management, as pointed out by Zaleznik and Kets (Popper et al. 2000). It was in this context that the concept of visionary, transactional and transformational, leadership was introduced.

3.4.1 Visionary Leadership

Vision is one of the attributes of leadership as Terry maintained (Beairsto 1997). He describes "a truly visionary leader" as one that "teaches, provides insight so that people understand both the future's possible content and the process by which that content is predicted and/or created. Content visionary theory leaders see vision not only as one important ingredient but, as the very essence of leadership. Vision is the heart of leadership because vision transcends political interest, testing the outer limits of the vested views that lock people into parochial perspective, limit creativity, and prevent the emergence of new cultural and political realities. Vision designs new energies, challenges everyday taken-for-granted assumptions by offering new directions and articulating what people feel but lack word to say." He concludes that if the vision involves fundamental change, or in Peter Senge's term "metanoia," an approach that qualifies as process vision theory (Beairsto 1997, 16).

Furthermore, the potential of leadership can be approached from point of view of culture. A deeper understanding of cultural issues in organizations is necessary to know what goes on in the organizations and also identify what may be the

[19] Vision relates to some futuristic ideal, to some notion of how things could/should be, and can reflect an inspired state of being for an individual, an organization, or society at large (Kenny 1994).

priority issues for leaders and leadership. According to Schein (1985, 2), organizational cultures are created by leaders, and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management, and if necessary, the destruction of culture. According to Schein, the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and management culture. Schein concluded his argument by stating that a dynamic analysis of organizational culture makes it clear that leadership is intertwined with culture formation, evolution, transformation, and destruction. Culture is created in the first instance by the actions of leaders; culture also is embedded and strengthened by leaders. When culture becomes dysfunctional, leadership is needed to help the organization to learn new assumptions. What leadership is in an organization be simplified, we recognize that the unique and essential function of leadership is the manipulation of culture (Schein 1985, 316–317). In essence, what the leader most needs is insight into the ways in which culture can aid or hinder the fulfilment of the organization's mission and the intervention skills to make desired changes happen.

The single defining quality of leadership is the ability to create and realize a vision. Such vision must have a strong defined sense of purpose, through which an effective leaders leads through a vision, a shared set of values, and a shared objective. It is the responsibility and duty of top management to create a vision for the organization and to articulate this vision so that it turns into concrete strategies, solid management systems, and informed resource allocation that enables an organization accomplish results (Hersey et al. 2001, 79). The first thing all leaders must do is to clearly articulate a vision, which must be communicated clearly, compellingly, forcibly, and simply. A vision must be communicated ceaselessly, indefatigably, and endlessly in all sorts of ways- a vision anchored in reality. The only way a leader is going to translate vision into reality is to anchor and implement and execute that vision through a variety of policies, practices, procedures and systems that will bring in people and empower them to implement the vision (Bennis 1998, 159–160).

3.4.2 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

In his book *Leadership* published 1978; McGregor Burns deals with the issue of leadership as distinct from "mere power-holding and as the opposite of brute power." He discusses the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership, which essence in leader-follower relation is the interaction of persons with different levels of motivation and power potential. Different scholars and theorist, however, have discussed these leadership theories within the context of organizational management research (Bass 1978; Burns 1978; Tichy and Devanna 1990; Kotter 1988). In his study, Burns distinguished between *transactional* and *transformational* leadership. Transactional leadership has to do with the exertion of influence and the use of rewards and sanctions to set agendas, build coalitions, ensure compliance, encourage and generally make sure that required things are done and done well. He sees the relationship between most leaders and followers as transactional; that is, leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another. Such transactions comprise bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers, especially in

groups, legislatures, and parties (Burns 1978, 4). Bass and Avolio also explained transactional leadership and further sub-divided it into types as follows:

> Transactional leadership occurs when the leader rewards or disciplines the follower depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance. Transactional leadership depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward (CR) or the more negative active or passive forms of management-by-exception (MBE-A) or MBE-P). In MBE-A the leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes and errors in the followers' assignments and to take corrective actions as necessary. MBE-P implies waiting passively for deviances, mistakes and errors to occur and then taking corrective action (Beairsto 1997, 17).

Transactional leadership operates through a process essentially of exchange with followers. It occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. Such valuable exchange could be economic, political or psychological in nature; where each party taking part in the exchange is conscious of the power resources and attitudes of the other. In this transactional model, leadership takes place but it was not one that binds leader and follower together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose (Burns 1978, 19–20). The transactional theories of leadership are focused on how leaders can motivate followers by creating fair exchanges and by clarifying mutual responsibilities and benefits (Chemers 1997, 77). In his contribution to the transactional model of leadership, Allix (2000) views this model as temporal, utilitarian and non-binding relationship that occurs for the purpose of exchanging valued thing.

Transactional leadership model involves all necessary activities of the leader that takes up most of his or her working day. In Search of Excellence (1982), Peters and Waterman see most of these leadership transactional actions as many things:

> It is patient, usually boring coalition building. It is the purposeful seeding of cabals that one hopes will result in the appropriate ferment in the bowl of the organization. It is meticulously shifting the attention of the institutions through the mundane language of management systems. It is altering agendas so that new priorities get enough attention. It is being visible when things are going awry, and invisible when they are working well. It is building a loyal team at the top that speaks more or less with one voice. It is listening carefully much of the time, frequently speaking with encouragement, and reinforcing words with believable action. It is being tough when necessary, and it is the occasional naked use of power - or the subtle accumulation of nuances (Peters and Waterman 1982, 82).

Transactional leadership has been characterized as focusing on basic needs and intrinsic rewards as a source of motivation and basis for management. The leader approaches the followers with some transactions in mind to obtain compliance (effort, productivity, loyalty) in exchange for expected rewards (economic, political or psychological). Transactional leaders recognize what followers need and want and recognize and clarify roles and tasks required for followers to achieve

desired outcomes. This form of leadership produces an efficient and productive workplace but is limited when compared with transformational leadership (McNamara 1999, 14).

Transformational[20] leadership, on the other hand, goes beyond the transactional activities of management, to create meaning and purpose in a manner, which justifies the team leadership. Leadership, which relies exclusively on power, is not real leadership (Burns 1978), but transformational leadership is that which "occurs when or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purpose, which might have started out separate but related, in the case of transactional leadership, become fused. Power bases are linked not as counterweights but as mutual support for common purpose." Transformational leadership also "becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leaders and the lead, and thus has a transforming effect on both" (Peters and Waterman 1982, 83). The result of transformational leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that convert followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (Burns 1978, 4).

Transformational leadership was further described as having a vision and as inspiring trust and respect in subordinates (Popper et al. 2000). Furthermore, transformational leader appeals to a higher-order universal set of human needs that can be activated by virtue of the natural proclivities of human nature to become self-actualized and self-organized. As Yukl notes,

> Transformational leadership can be viewed both as a micro level influence process between individuals and as a macro-level process of mobilizing power to change social systems and reform institutions. At the macro level of analysis, transformational leadership involves shaping, expressing, and mediating conflict among groups of people in addition to motivating individuals (Bess and Goldman 2001, 419–450).

Although leaders and followers are inseparable, they are not the same in their functions. Burns presents some of the functions of leaders that distinguish them from followers.

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[20] In understanding Organizations, Charles B. Handy distinguishes transactional and transformational models of leadership. Drawing from Alistair Mantz's illustration, he refers to transactional leaders as "bipod or raiders" and transformational leaders as "tripods and builders." According to him, bipods or transactional leaders think of life and success in terms of their relationships with other people. Their objectives are to control, dominate or seduce the others in the interest of personal survival. He argues that the bipod or raider mentality may thrive for a time but this type of flawed leadership eventually self-destructs. For the transformational leader – tripods or builders – the question is so much on what Handy calls "the third corner of all relationships" as the task or purpose. This type of leaders, as Mantz says, can run personal risks in pursuit of some higher purpose and can observe themselves in their relationship. He concludes authoritarian personality fits the raider (bipod) that public institutions need more builders than raiders (Handy 1985, 1049).

> The leader takes the initiative in making leader-led connection. It is the leader who creates the links that allow communication and exchange to take place. The leader takes the major part in maintaining and affecting the relationship with followers and will have the major role in carrying out the combined purpose of leaders and followers. Finally, leaders address themselves to followers' wants, needs, and other motivations, as well as their own, and thus serve as independent force in changing the makeup of the followers' motive base through gratifying their motives (Burns 1978, 20).

Bass asserts that transformational leadership has four key components reflecting four types of leadership behaviour (Bess and Goldman 2001, 419–450). These four leadership behaviours show how leaders "motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible" (Beairsto 1997). The four "Is" necessary to accomplish the motivational behaviour by a transformational leaders are:

Idealized influence. Transformational leaders behave in ways that result in their being model for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them. Among the things leader does to earn this credit is considering the needs of others over his own personal needs. The leader shares risks with followers and is consistent rather than arbitrary. He or she can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct. He or she avoids using power for personal gain and only when needed.

Inspirational motivation. Transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their follower's work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader gets followers involved in envisioning attractive future states. The leader creates clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet, and demonstrates commitment to goals and the shared vision.

Intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders stimulate the followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from leader's ideas.

Individualized consideration. In this behaviour leaders pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successfully higher levels of potential. Individualized consideration is practiced as follows:

- New learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate.
- Individualized differences in terms of needs and desires are encouraged.
- The leader's behaviour demonstrates acceptance of individual differences... A two-way exchange is encouraged, and "management by walking around" work space is practiced.
- Interaction with followers is personalized – the individually considered leaders

listen effectively.
- The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers.
- Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress – ideally, followers do not feel they are being checked on (Beairsto 1997, 18; Hodgetts and Luthans 2000, 418; Bess and Goldman 2001, 419–450).

We have seen that transformational leadership is evocative and compelling. This implies that leaders "transform" either organizations and/or individuals. Change is an underlying factor of most theory and research about transformational leadership. Conger suggests the approach emerged as corporations faced global competition requiring them to radically reinvent themselves while "simultaneously building employee moral and commitment – a seeming contradictory endeavour" requiring change in people. Universities face similar pressures (Bess and Goldman 2001). However, it has been postulated that the two broad leadership styles -transformational and transactional – can be matched to the two broad organizational states- 'divergent' and 'convergent' (Burnes 1996). When the organizational context is divergent, making existing goals and structures increasingly inappropriate, the leaders' task is to challenge the status quo, encourage innovation and change: in short to adopt a transformational style of leadership. Conversely, when the context is convergent and the organization is broadly in line with the environment, the leader needs to optimise performance within existing structure and norms. In the convergent state a transactional approach to leadership is required. In these circumstances, a transformational approach would be counter-productive, just as a transactional approach would be ineffective when the organizational state is divergent (Bargh et al. 2000, 23–24).

In summary, this chapter accomplished a number of goals by covering a lot of territory. It began by defining leadership and management, in which management was seen as handling a set of activities such as guiding the efforts of people to achieve organizational goals or common objectives of the organization. In the discussion, management was also taken to be a social or interact ional and economic process involving a sequence of coordinated events using available resources to achieve a desired outcome. On the other hand, discussion of leadership puts the concept as a group influence; ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives and also an activity that aimed at satisfying the motives of others or followers. These specifications seem very simple and shallow, but the chapter further dealt with a comprehensive review of major approaches to leadership and each was discussed with an eye toward explaining the basic principles, the research evidence, and where appropriate, the relationship of the theory to other theories.

The review went further to show that what today's organizations need is quality leadership that will challenge the 'status quo', create a vision and inspire organizational members to achieve the vision. In adding the issue of leadership in organizations, the chapter first discussed the major approaches to leadership in which new ways of looking at the concept was highlighted. Majority of the researches on leadership presented in the chapter collectively presented a picture of a process that is sophisticated and complex regarding leadership. Although the

early approaches of leadership such as trait and situational, approaches, were discussed, new paradigms or novel ways such as visionary, transactional and transformational, approaches were also dealt with. However, the possession of transactional behaviour by a leader should not serve as our model for a quality or effective leader. The transactional model of leadership thinks of success in terms of relationship with people regarding control, domination and seduction in the interest of personal survival. Researches that have discussed this kind of leadership theory were aware of the limitations of such theories; hence other emergent theories such as visionary and transformational. Transactional model of leadership is very much concerned with the nature of leader-follower relationships. The relationships are seen as reciprocal exchanges in which leaders and followers create a transaction that allows for mutual satisfaction of goals and needs. However, to gain an insight into a kind of leadership that seems to go beyond transactional considerations to create situations in which followers are induced to transcend their own self-interests and become truly committed to the leader's mission, our discussion will move to addressing 'transformational' leadership.

As opposed to transactional theory of leadership or what Charles Handy in his research on organizations referred to as "raider mentality", transformational leadership shows a sense of purpose through pursuing higher purpose. This model of leadership appeals to a higher-order universal set of human needs. Researchers like Peters and Waterman, McGregor Burns, Bess and Goldman, and other before and after them, inferred that problem -solving and innovation are among the crucial function of this type of leadership. In this particular study, the leader in this category is needed in the university to help to create the kind of atmosphere that encourages the sensitivity, flexibility and creativity that allows the group in the institution to deal with new or complex demands. The leader as a change agent must possess a legitimate authority for influencing followers.

Researchers, who have used the transformational model of leadership, as well as those who simply describe effective leadership during turbulent times, agree that an important leadership characteristic is the ability to create a shared vision. A vision in case is simply a picture of the future that individuals want to create. A vision motivates because it provides a challenge that can mobilize the organization and its people and because it increases self-esteem among the people. A vision can provide both a dream of what the organization will be in the future, and a look at what is required in order to get there. It was also seen from our discussion that vision is at the heart of leadership; and the ability to create and realize the vision by accomplishing results through variety of policies, practices, procedures and systems, is a strength in leadership. Visionary leader as an effective leader is one that thinks through the organization's mission; activities of vision and judgement that correspond to effectiveness and efficiency in organizations.

In the next chapter, what I would like to do is to discuss how leadership is construed in academic environment of the university. The focus will be to examine the wider context in which institutional leadership is exercised in the university. Among other themes discussed, what leaders do in the university as academic leaders to revitalize their institutions to meet the challenges of austere times; the uncertainties and increasing global competition, are presented.

4 UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP AND CHANGING CONTEXT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In this section I intend to focuses not simply on who university leaders are, but what they do in the university as academic leaders to revitalize their institutions to meet the challenges of tough times of certainty and increasing global competition. Therefore the subject of this section is to examine the wider context in which institutional leadership is exercised in the university. However, this context is rapidly changing, leading to the transformation of the core mission of higher education, by addition of new roles. As a result of these transformations, of missions (or roles) and of system, the organizational culture of universities has been substantially modified to accommodate 'new' styles of leadership. In this changed environment of the university, which calls for quality leadership, is the focus of this section. Before this I will first examine the changing context of higher education.

4.1 The Changing Context of Higher Education

Drastic changes have taken place in the organizational environment of higher education institutions the world over. These changes stemmed from the substantial alteration in the macro-environment, including that of the political and economic systems, and of the microenvironment inherent in the national education systems (Bentoa 2000). With these changes currently facing the institutions, their environment is becoming more complex, diverse and hostile, and especially less affluence (Bayenet et al. 2000). These authors have equally argued that the new environment, with the added uncertainty it brings, poses something of a challenge to the traditional university functions of education and research. It also raises questions as to the operational mechanisms, organizational, functional and management capacity of these university institutions to meet the requirements of increased enrolments, competitiveness and financial restrictions (Bayenet et al. 2000, 65–80). In order to confront this new environment, it has been a widely held view by experts and political authorities that universities should adopt new, more entrepreneurial form of organization to acquire the strategic capacity to adjust and meet the needs of the outside world in an independent, dynamic, structured and coherent manner (Clark 1998; Davis 1997a). They acknowledge this strategy unanimously as prerequisite if universities are to adapt and survive in the changing world.

In a forward to a book *Managing University Curriculum: Making Common Cause*, Kenneth Edwards, Chairman of Committee of Vice-chancellors and principal of Universities, and vice-chancellor of the University of Leeds, argues that higher education in the United Kingdom has been in a condition of permanent change over the past quarter of a century. He sees these institutions experiencing dramatic changes in their organization, governance, funding, and above all the expectations of the system (Bocock and Watson 1994, ix). Universities have long been regarded as centres of knowledge creation and application for the larger society, but not as learning organizations developing and transferring knowledge for the improvement of their own basic processes. The new competitive environment of higher education throughout the world appears to be creating incentive for uni-

versities to become active learning organizations. These changes can be understood as fundamental change in the architecture of academic organizations[21] (Dill 1999, 127–154). David Garvin defined 'learning organization' in a classic article in Harvard Business Review, as " an organization skilled at creating, acquiring, and transmitting knowledge, and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights" (Dill 1999).

As academic organizations wrestle with adapting to a more competitive environment, higher education scholars have attempted to apply the 'resource-based view of the firms' to the design of organizations and management structures in academic institutions (Dill and Sporn 1995; Gumport and Sporn 1999). Clark's (1998) studies of entrepreneurial universities in Europe, provide empirical evidence to show that academic institutions have utilized direct experiences to redesign their internal organizations in order to better cope with a more competitive environment. The study attempts to further develop this literature on organizational design in higher education by studying the adaptations universities are making in their teaching and learning processes. But as the environment within which the process of teaching and learning in universities is being radically reshaped by more varied student cohorts who place strains on the traditional methods of instruction, by external mechanisms of accountability designed to assure and improve academic quality. In this new context, it is reasonable to expect that many academic institutions may need to re-consider the basic organizational and governance of their system for teaching and learning.

Cathryn Hoff further provides documentation concerning the environment of higher education. In most cases these issues are not simple, but multidimensional, broad in scope, and require complex assessment, planning, implementation, and evaluation. Although many of these issues are not new to the environment of higher education, societal, technological, economic and political factors are altering the way in which they must be viewed (Hoff 1999). As the author further points out, some of the issues foremost in the minds of educational leaders today are the changing demographics of students and faculty populations, alliance building with community and global organizations, changing and diminishing financial resources, fund raising and development activities, rapid technological advancement, diversity, continuing professional and leadership development activities for all constituencies on campus, community building both on campus and with the surrounding community, gender equity, curriculum reform, and ethical considerations in relation to all services and programmes offered (Hoff 1999, 311–331).

In their study *Reforming Higher Education Systems: Some Lessons to Guide Policy Implementation*, Thomas Owen Eisemon and Lauritz Holm-Nielsen, in addition to this debate agree that higher education systems are in a state of con-

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[21] Dill (1999) indicates some of the useful recent reviews of the literature on learning organizations that could be seen in Easterby-Smith and Tsang. The broader literature on knowledge acquisition within learning organizations provides a useful theoretical context within which to clarify the concept of learning organization.

stant change nearly everywhere. The authors draw attention to the need for effective policy structures to manage higher education; as these institutions are being established with new missions and innovative configurations of training, serving populations that previously had little access to higher education. Nevertheless, despite the dynamic characteristics of higher education systems, they are notoriously difficult for government to reform (Eisemon and Holm-Nielsen 1995, 405–420). In a world that is changing rapidly, universities need to adapt if they are to avoid stagnation, decline and eventual extinction. In such circumstances, the necessity to adopt better management techniques becomes imperative with the consequent need for strategic management[22] to achieve this, as identified by Rudzki (1995).

This current changed landscape of higher education has created the pressure for institutions to be more formally accountable.[23] The pressures have led to a growing emphasis on more explicit and systematic mechanisms for quality management and assessment within institutions. The quality assessment exercise should reflect broader processes of institutional change and new management needs. Quality management involves processes of periodic internal review, which are usually initiated and managed from the centre of the institution. This is much more about accountability as it is about improvement. Today many changes in external circumstances of higher education institutions lay behind many new approaches to quality management. According to Brennan and Shah (2000), these approaches include the development of institution-wide systems, the introduction of regular reviews of subject provision and widespread use of student survey, new forms of accountability -to the state and to the 'consumers' as well as to the academic community- called for new forms of quality management. Brennan and Shah go on to suggest that strengthening institutional management processes more generally, explicit lines of internal accountability are an important part. In this context, strong institutional management and leadership is needed because of the

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[22] For a discussion of application of strategic management to higher education, see Easterby-Smith (1987); Kelley and Shaw (1987).

[23] The success of a university institution depends on its demonstrable accountability, otherwise no government is likely to invest substantial and increasing amount of money without first ensuring that there exist ways to check how the money is being used In higher education, accountability cannot be defined from one-dimensional perspective. It can be dealt with at different levels and for different functions. It is a special reporting mechanism, and given the multifunctional tasks higher education institutions are challenged to fulfil, the level and function of accountability in higher education should be clearly distinguished. The concept of accountability can be introduced at two different levels in higher education: the systems level and institutional level, or what economist equate with micro and macro-level systems.

The promotion of individual academic staff, which is the most conspicuous reward system of the university must link into the accountability system of the university as a whole. So accountability must build on, and contribute to, learning and development, which is at the heart of academic work (Boyer 1990; Ramsden et al. 1995).

greater complexity of the external environment and the need for faster decision-making to effect the changes perceived to be necessary to ensure future institutional success and survival (Brennan and Shah 2000, 86).

With this background of institutional change, the question facing us is, what role can leadership play in transforming the university into a new kind of institution? I will now discuss what functions university leaders play in reinventing the university.

4.2 The Views of Missions and Functions of University Leadership

Much concern has been devoted to the issue of leadership in higher education. In much of academic management, leadership commitment has for years been recognized as the foundation and precondition for building the total quality management culture characterized by continuous focus on the customer (Dahlgaard et al. 1997). It is leadership that puts quality in an organization. According to Ogawa and Bossert (1997) leadership is one of the concepts in the society on which much seems to turn. For them it is important, and is looked for in special places; from elected state officials to those who manage our institutions of higher learning. The importance of leadership in educational institutions has been one recurring debate (Firestone 1996).

One of these debates comes from a study *Towards the Learning Organization: Implications for Institutional Governance and Leadership*, where Askling and Kristensen (2000) made a contribution to the on-going debate on how higher education institutions design their internal organization, management and leadership in order to maximize their own capacity for meeting internal and external demands on efficiency and quality in all their academic and other activities, including the demands of their many stakeholders (internal and external). The authors further state that most higher education systems are moving towards further differentiation and variation with regard to types of institutions, categories of students, kinds of programmes and courses. These trends also reflect an increasing variation in purposes, goals and objectives, and consequently also in expectations to produce more for less money. According to them, these new challenges would be met by using their own flexibility and creativity. This widened space of actions call for a more pronounced institutional leadership, which:

> ... have to be proactive rather than reactive. They have to replace the former, and nowadays withdrawn, state regulations with their own set of regulations. They have to generate strategic plans and design their own institutional leadership and governance (Askling and Kristensen 2000, 17–41)

As institutions became larger and more complex, the management of this complexity becomes a key strategic task of leadership. For example, the university leadership has the major responsibility most importantly not only for the academic leadership of the university, but also with providing the academics with the facilities they need for their teaching and research, as well as creating an environment in which the prime purpose of the university can be accomplished by the academic staff (Bargh et al. 2000, 64).

In another study *Leadership Studies in academic Department* (1997), Kekäle found there is indication that during the past decades studies on leadership have produced theoretical perspectives, which can more or less, be applied to the context of higher education as academic institution. Basing his argument on studies by Bolman and Deal, Kekäle pointed out that organizational typologies from the perspective of leadership suggest that organizations can be looked at through four different vantage points or coherent perspectives identified as frames, in line with Bolman and Deal's (1984) frames, which include structural, the human resource, the political, and symbolic frames. Accordingly, structural frames emphasize formal roles and relationships, the human resource frame focuses on the needs of people, the political frame considers the conflict over scarce resources, and the symbolic frame views organizations as cultures with shared values (Kekäle 1997).

In a further argument based on Birnbaum's study, Kekäle (1997) posits that leadership models developed in other contexts cannot be applied to higher education because higher education has unique features. On the ground of other studies by Lockwood, van Vught, Maassen and van Vught, he recalled that attempts have been made to identify the basic characteristics of higher education institutions, which affect the issue of leadership and strategic management in academic setting. He however identified the following basic features of universities as singled out in respective studies by such scholars as van Vught and Maassen and van Vught, who have stressed the importance, power and authority of the professionals at the best operational level:

1. The handling of knowledge is the most crucial activity in universities
2. The knowledge areas (disciplinary departments) from the basic building block of higher education organization; consequently, the typical of organizational structure of university is fragmented and its specialized cells are only loosely coupled.
3. Decision-making power is spread across a number of units and actors.
4. Innovations in universities mainly have a "grassroots" character. Sudden and major changes are rare and extremely difficult to effect because of the diffusion and the fragmentation of tasks.
5. Authority is located at the lower level of the organization (with academic professionals), while the institutional authority in higher education institutions (of continental Europe) is rather weak (Kekäle 1997, 59–60).

In another study on *Academic Leaders and the Fields of Possibilities*, Kekäle (1998) dealt with academic leadership on two main premises. First, it relies on a contingency approach, which stresses that leadership is not a single-direct process, but there is a dynamic interaction between a leader and his/her context. This theory posits that there is no 'one best way' of performing leadership, but different circumstances require different qualities if a leader wishes to be effective. In the second premise he attempts to employ multiple perspectives in the analysis of leadership. In his study Kekäle discusses '*a changing field of possibilities*', which both enables and limits human action and leadership. He argues that different cir-

cumstances call for different leadership, and educational organizations as well as university departments, differ from each other in terms of personnel, history, institutional and national context, tasks, and disciplinary basis. Furthermore, he discusses the different spheres of the field of possibilities that are open to academic leaders vary in different departments, calling for a different leadership. Five of his fields of possibilities include "laws and statutes, power and interests, culture sphere, human resources and competence, economic resources (Kekäle 1997). Kekäle concludes on the basis of the spheres that effective academic leaders observe that law, recruit motivated and competent researchers and support the development of their competence, function as a model and use their means to construct an innovative and flexible culture characterized by commitment, work motivation and mutual trust, broaden the economic field of possibilities, or at least provide researchers with adequate resources along the lines of strategic choices, and use their power wisely in order to support the performance of the basic tasks (Kekäle 1998, 237–255).

These leadership functions are perhaps possible in situations of calm. As Birnbaum (1989) argues, much of leadership in cybernetic systems consists of carrying out routine tasks when things are going on well and making minor adjustments and subtle changes of emphasis when problems are noticed. He further posits that leaders in cybernetic systems must become directive and intrusive in two occasions. One occasion is when the institution is exposed to an external shock in terms of sudden loss of resources for example, that threatens institutional survival. The other situation occurs when the leader believes that the system is operating at an unacceptable level of performance and there are no institutional processes that can be activated to change it. The implication of this to academic leadership is that the leaders can shock the system by attempting to make major alterations in its ongoing processes; resulting to institutional renewal... (Birnbaum 1989, 197–198).

Bayenet et al. (2000) note both in theory and practice , that universities are often described as professional bureaucracies or organized anarchy,[24] in which the link between players and structure is relatively weak and the organizational goals somehow intangible. Such descriptions are sign that there is some scope for self-organization, and those divisions, and hence conflicts of interest are to be found between the various entities and categories of players, either in the allocation of internal and external resources or in prioritising for the university's development. This aspect of university's dynamics also reveals an initial paradox, that while universities like to think they are open to the outside world and society at large, their internal organization is usually highly compartmentalized. The authors further draw from contingency theory, stating that the organizational configurations referred to above will only suffice if the environment is stable and therefore sure; a situation, which does not seem to be the case in universities today. They there-

[24] Birnbaum (1989) has extensively discussed both bureaucratic institutions and anarchical institutions in his work How Colleges Work: The Cybernetic of Academic Organization and Leadership.

fore, argue that the organizational nature of universities has yet to be defined, and it remains uncertain whether or not their structure fits today's world. They further argue as follows:

> Universities do, however, appear to be societal institutions, having been an integral part of society for many years now, and can be distinguished from entrepreneurial organizations by the nature of their objectives. Other features not commonly found elsewhere make universities even more distinct. They are fed on all sides by research and allow their members substantial freedom. They have a multidisciplinary dimension and their main feature is their intergenerational mix. Universities are also communities in which knowledge is built up and transmitted to new generations. And they are singular living environments. Moreover, each university has its own historic identity distinguishing it from all others (Bayenet et al. 2000, 65–80).

The question then is, how does university leadership fit into this multidirectional process. I shall present some of the arguments about the role of university leadership in bringing this about. Attempts have been made to associate leadership in higher education with a strategic approach as being *a pilot* -keeping the institution on course; as *conductors*- striving for harmony, and as *jugglers* who balance all kinds of different interests and emerging strategies. Universities are regarded as institutions rather than as enterprises, and have always shown a certain sense of tradition, whether with regard to structure and function or culture or mission. This traditional image no longer seems to equate with reality. Today, universities have to adopt a strategy that will constantly adapt its main thrust to suit market needs. Moreover, the attention granted to image and market suitability seems to be an increasing preoccupation within universities. Furthermore, stakeholders require proof, or at least guarantees, from the universities of the quality and efficiency of their activities, as a means that universities have the capacity to self-processes more generally, of which more explicit lines of internal accountability are an important part. In this context, strong institutional management is needed because of the greater complexity of the external environment and the need for faster decision-making to effect the changes perceived to be necessary to ensure future institutional success and survival (Brennan and Shah 2000, 86).

Most of the general models of leadership were developed in the context of private sector, rather than public service management. Because of this, private sector models have increasingly influenced leadership styles in the university. One of the reasons assumed for this influence is due to the fact that only by adopting the culture of private sector and the cult of management can public institutions like universities develop much-needed habits of enterprise and innovation. Another reason reflects the coalescence of the political, social, economic, cultural and scientific systems. It is true that the boundaries between these once separate systems are becoming more permeable; it is likely that organizational patterns as well as management challenges are converging. In short, running a university is now much more like running a company: not because universities have become more like companies or even that universities, like large companies, are now complex

organization; but because both universities and companies are evolving towards some new hybrid form of organization (Bargh et al 2000, 17–18).

4.3 Managing the University Institution

In recent years interest has intensified on programmes that promote, through research, training and information exchange, greater professionalism in the management of institutions of higher education, and the facilitation of a wider dissemination of practical management methods and practices. These programmes have given birth to a serial journal published by the *Journal of Institutional Management in Higher Education*. The Journal covers different disciplinary fields in the management of higher education institutions through articles and research reports on research projects on the subjects, addressed to managers and administrators of institutions of higher education. The Journal is a source of information on activities and events that address issues of effective institutional management in higher education. Majority of these programmes focused on institutions as units of analysis for implementing innovations in institutions of higher education as well as to identify obstacles and problems, and suggested ways of improving institutional management (Sanyal 1995).

As I pointed out in the last section, over the years higher education institutions have faced different kinds of demands from both internal and external environment. They have been forced to reduce expenditure per student, seek new sources of funding and to improve the utilization of existing resources. At the same time they have had to cope with increased diversification and new types of students seeking to gain degrees, so as to meet the changing needs of the labour market. They have also been pressed to foster links with industry and to widen participation through the introduction of distance learning (Sanyal 1995, 3). Martin (1998) emphasized the awareness of these changes and the effects they might exert on higher education institutions when he warns that there is a need to increase performance as a policy objective, more particularly in developing countries where resources are specially limited. Arguing on the same line of increasing the efficiency of institutional management, with emphasis on scarce financial resources to higher education, Wholgemuth (1998) argues that shortage of resources increasingly requires that universities should be run efficiently and effectively in order to attain set goals. According to Kivinen (1993), in order to achieve 'more with less' resources, university management is expected to make critical choices so as to be able to proceed to strategic decisions, which can be implemented within a reasonable time and, which are for the good of the institutions (Kivinen 1993, 136). All these demands suggest the need to improve the quality of university management, by changing the mechanisms, techniques and styles of institutional management.

Approaches to transformation of university sector have often become most central in the public debate over public sector reforms in recent times. The management of university institutions is becoming onerous and complex in our time. As institutions are facing financial difficulties, and as quality is becoming one of the criteria by which funding of institutions are judged, effective management of in-

stitutions is becoming critical for their survival. In addition to these, the following demands are made on the institutions:

1. To find ways of using their resources better and to generate more resources.
2. To be more 'accountable' to wider society, through planning effective means of assuring better academic standards.
3. To develop improved system of strategic planning and institutional management.
4. To engage more fully with society in which they function -in access for students, links with other educational establishments, or through course offerings, consultancies, and applied research (Barnett 1992, 64).

These pressures put together ensure that the art of management be both more demanding and more central in maintaining institutional effectiveness. In the wake of these developments, quality has become a key concept for the modern institutions (Barnett 1992, 64). Therefore, the maintenance and improvement of the quality of institutions must be a responsibility of institutional managers. In their book *Performance Indicators in Higher Education* (1990), Johnes and Taylor pressed for fundamental improvement in the contribution of higher education sector to national economic development. In their argument concerning the changing policy of British government towards higher education in the last decades; which performance fall below the expected standards. According to them, the efficiency and effectiveness of higher education institutions be improved in order to make the institutions of higher education contribute to the economy than they have done in the past. This will involve several fundamental changes in the activities of the higher education sector. According to the authors, the main changes, which government would like to see are summarized as follows:

> First, it expects the higher education sector to become more responsive to the needs of industry and commerce. second, it expects higher education to become less dependent on public funding and more dependent on private source of income. Third, it expects higher education sector to provide wider access to its services so that a great proportion of the population are able to reap the benefits of a university... Finally, it expects higher education to become more cost effective and to allocate resources more efficiently between competing users (Johnes and Taylor 1990, 12).

It is easy to see that the main thrust of the above argument is that the university sector of higher education should be more responsive to the needs of national economy, by forging closer links with industry. In addition, a switch to subject mix away from the arts and humanities toward science, technological and vocational courses will be in order. Also, instead of higher education depending solely on government funding, greater efforts are needed to raise private funds through applied research, consultancies and continuing education. Furthermore, greater selectivity is needed in the allocation of research funding so that more resources are concentrated in the centres of excellence. Finally, there is a need for higher

education institutions to be more cost-conscious and should manage its resources more efficiently and more effectively. This requires the construction and regular publication of a range of performance indicators that will be used to aid the resource allocation process both within and between institutions.

I have attempted to examine ways of improving institutional management. In the next section I shall discuss the changing role of state-university relationships and present different models that help to re-balance the relationships between the state and universities in order to restore the universities' distinctiveness.

4.4 State and University Relationships

Relationship between state and university institutions has been a subject of debate for a long time (Ziderman 1994; Eisemon and Kourouma 1994; and Salmi 1994). Majority of these studies on government and higher education relationships conclude that the present balance of power should be shifted in favour of higher education institutions because most often, government influence has negative connotations (McDaniel 1997). Many challenges of higher education improvement and innovation globally, cannot be limited to financial reform alone. They call for a rethinking of the traditional relationship between governments and universities. Drawing from public administration and innovation theory, van Vught lays out the case for devolution of central control of higher education institutions. Such change in governance structure has occurred in several European countries lately and has been termed a shift from 'model of State control' to 'Model of State supervision' (van Vught 1989; Neave and van Vught 1991; Maassen 1996). This model of state supervision implies that state authorities allow institutions take over responsibilities and do not meddle with the management of the institutions. This also calls for the higher education institutions to develop the necessary steering and regulation instruments of their own; something that requires a stronger leadership function than it had before. At the same time, such self-regulation within an institution should allow the same principle to benefit from the existing complex set of decision-making mechanisms (Bauer et al 1999, 25–26).

In another instance, van Vught argues that the public authorities through institutional self-regulation within the framework of broad policy priorities and incentives define the most effective way for managing higher education. He further says that in this model the state will act as a supervisor steering from a distance and using broad instrument of regulation. These perspectives in van Vught's view, were summarized in the following ways:

> Government should provide the general rules within which institutions can use their autonomy, and within which the market can function. The institutions should try to maximize their innovative capacities within the context provided by government. The market should be used to let societal needs come to the fore (Verspoor 1994, 7).

This author sees increased autonomy, combined with effective procedures for ensuring accountability as a key step toward greater quality and efficiency. The emphasis on quality means that the evaluation of teaching and research in terms of

processes and outcomes becomes critically important. Evaluation has been used as a tool for supervision and management control, rather than as a tool for learning from experience. In their contribution to the debate, Teichler and Weinkler stressed the importance of paying attention to the prevailing national "evaluation culture" and the need to design evaluation in such a way that it could form the basis for the design of institutional self-improvement strategies (Teichler and Weinkler 1994, 126–173). In Thinking about Management, Palmer and Hardy (2000) summarized the views of some scholars like Winton, Neal and Tomely, and Gross, who believe that organizations should be designed with "survival of the fittest" in mind, that 'bureaucratic fetters' must be 'chopped' with flatter hierarchies and larger spans of control." They see this model as the variety of new organizational forms that are associated with flattened, networked and clustered organizational arrangement that are assumed to offer institutional leaders more scope and flexibility in dealing with the radically different and far more demanding environment (Palmer and Hardy 2000, 14).

Frans A. van Vught distinguishes two strategies of government regulation. He called these two strategies "the strategies of rational planning and control and the strategy of self-regulation" (van Vught 1994, 322). According to him, the strategy of rational planning and control is an approach to governmental regulation in which confidence is put in the capabilities of government to acquire comprehensive knowledge and to take the best decisions. In the self-regulatory approach, government puts an emphasis on the self-regulatory capabilities of decentralized decision-making units, limiting its own activities to setting broad policy frameworks and to providing facilities for the decentralized units. These two models are found in different contexts in different countries. The governmental strategy of rational planning and control corresponds to the state control model of higher education, traditionally found in the higher education systems of European continent. On the other hand, the governmental strategy of self-regulation can be recognized in the state-supervision model of higher education, which has its roots in both United States and British higher education systems. In developing countries state control model of higher education predominates. van Vught goes further to stress that the predominance of state control model in the higher education systems of developing countries is a major barrier for the further development of these higher education systems in terms of increased efficiency and quality, and argues that tight governmental regulation and control limit the innovative capacities of higher education institutions and make them less inclined to try to optimize their internal and external efficiency (van Vught 1994, 323).

In general terms, regulation has to do with influencing of behaviour – trying to steer the decisions and actions of others according to certain objectives and by using certain instruments. Mitnick defines 'regulation' as the "intentional restriction of a subject's choice of activity." Government regulation is the effort of government to steer the decisions and actions of specific societal actors according to the objectives the government has set and by using instruments government has at its disposal (van Vught 1994, 327). In the management literature, reasons have been given to justify governmental influence on and in higher education systems and their institutions. McDaniel (1997) suggested five reasons for limiting institutional autonomy:

1. Government as mediator for public welfare. This involves:
   a. the generation of knowledge and preparation of highly skilled manpower.
   b. higher education as a supplier of educated citizenry
2. Ideological motives and political priorities
   a. a social mobility with the assistance of higher education.
   b. social change with assistance of universities.
   c. government interference as a reaction against student revolts
3. Accountability
   a. of public invested money
   b. avoiding micro and macro inefficiencies
4. Corrective policies
   a. lack of trust in institutional management
   b. patterns of behaviours of administrators
   c. intrinsic conservatism of institutions
   d. academic gaming
5. Protecting vital interests
   a. protection of consumer's interest
   b. other societal interests [25]

(McDaniel 1997, 115–133).

Efficiency (usually pertaining to correcting market failure); distribution, and stimulating or protecting social and cultural objectives are equally defined as three basic categories of the rational for government regulation of higher education (van Vught 1994, 327).

In another study, van Vught (1997) offers a useful descriptive and theoretical interpretation of the "steering at a distance" practiced in the Netherlands by Dutch Ministry of Education. In this study van Vught analyzes government's strategy toward higher education as it has been designed and implemented in the policy document of the Dutch government since 1985. This strategy is a significant break with the government traditional attitude of detailed planning and control of higher education institutions. It tries to strengthen the autonomy of higher education institutions and to enlarge their adaptability to the needs of society. It is argued in the study that the strategy shows that the Dutch government tries to address both market and non-market failures.[26] However, this has created a mixed bag of policies

[25] Higher education and research are the two main activities in a higher education system that can be seen as clear examples of activities yielding positive externalities to society, hence providing a rational for government intervention.

[26] The combination of planning and market as a new steering strategy towards higher education in the Netherlands is one remedy to solve or at least alleviate both categories of failures. Government interventions on the one hand, are assumed to be necessary to address the dynamics of imperfect markets. On the other hand, the mechanism of market coordination is strengthened to stimulate higher education system to become more adaptive and innovate.

and instruments, demonstrating that government has not yet abandoned its confidence in its own capacity to successfully steer higher education system (van Vught 1997, 211–224).

Meek and Wood's study on steering strategy for Australian higher education shows that governmental model of higher education steering and coordination have shifted away from what has been termed "state control" model towards "state supervisory" model (Meek and Wood (1997). The state control model according to these researchers, while based on principles of competition and commercialisation in a climate of a more deregulated higher education environment, is also a planned or regulated form of market competition. The authors go on to say that regulation in terms of market steering of higher education comes mainly in the from of accountability measures and economic incentives. This is the case in Australia where the federal government has direct legislative control over universities. The findings of the study show that the privatisation of public higher education and the introduction of market-like relationships to achieve both greater efficiency and adaptability have been the key features of Australian higher education policy for well over a decade (Meek and Wood 1997, 253–274).

In his work *Towards the Self-regulative University* (1995) Seppo Hölttä recounts the recent policy in European higher education systems characterized by decentralization of power and responsibilities to universities. He terms this approach "the strategy of self-regulation." According to him, government has to an increasing degree concentrated on regulating the quality of education and research instead of controlling educational resources and processes. In addition to reform of government steering strategies, national self-regulation policies are characterized by the mobilization of professional and market control into the coordination of activities of the universities. Hölttä puts it that the strategy of self-regulation as concentration of regulation on essential variables, which are politically important and necessary[27] for survival in the long run, leaving the other regulation mechanisms in the hands of individual universities. He further points out that the involvement of state authorities in the business of higher education has had long tradition in industrialized countries (Hölttä 1995, 63–64).

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[27] The essential variables defined as politically important and necessary for institutional survival are such variables as student demands, and demands for graduates in labour market, which institutions have to monitor to survive and guarantee funding in the long run. Also, institutional reputation was cited as an example of an essential variable tightly coupled with more concrete variables related to market demands. In this regulatory context, the government steering based on the "principle-agent model" refers to definition of new essential variables for universities and coupling funding with these variables. The ability to keep the subsystem in balance, and to maintain balance between its subsystems and the environmental system, a system needs sensors to gather information, especially on the states of the essential variables and the state of the main environmental system variables affecting them. Bureaucratic machinery, national statistics, surveys, and external representatives play the roles of sensing mechanisms with regard to external systems. Different sensing mechanisms are needed in interaction with different reference groups, partners and clients (Hölttä 1995, 59).

Hölttä (1995) also describes three traditions and later on American model, which formed the basis for the role of governments and national governance structures for many other national systems of higher education. Though he pointed out the case of France after the French revolution, where university reform took place in circumstances the government was thought to be representative of the people. Under these conditions, the government took responsibility for developing higher education systems, which were centralized and strongly controlled by the government. Everything was almost entirely in the hands of the state (Hölttä 1995, 68).

In comparing German and French higher education system, the French system was built up around the ideals of autonomy of individual universities and individual professors. The University of Berlin founded by Wilhelm von Humboldt, upholds the ideas of a university model oriented toward scholarly research. It was organized around the chair structure and the autonomy of individual chair holder, with a major goal of training scholars. Furthermore, in England the development of higher education system in the nineteenth century was based on cooperation between universities and professional associations, which controlled professional training. However, business and public figures played a role in the early movement of the higher education system, where the government did not intervene in the formation of much of educational policy, which was in effect more of policy of professional societies (Hölttä 1995, 68). In addition, Hölttä further states that in the United States, the government took no responsibility for developing higher education. Instead, there prevailed a general democratic pressure to make higher education accessible to all strata of society. Also the private and free enterprise nature of the system roots deep in American society. The educational philosophy on which the system grew was individualistic and was not the concern of the state or public service. The emerging American system of higher education, developed without the control of federal government, was characterized by high differentiation in function and quality. It was concluded that the influence of these major systems of higher education could be seen in former colonies and in developing countries today, combining old traditions and more novel system and industrial structures (Hölttä 1995, 68–69):

Institutional Independence. One of the ways to make institutions of higher education such as the university to maintain the necessary independence is by resisting excessive intrusion and regulation that may accompany funding whether from government, industry, or individuals. Writing about private funding for university research in Europe, Klaus Neuhoff observed that the European tradition of state regulation and financing of higher education seems to threaten the system of self-regulation by institutions of higher education. He also contends that this capacity for self-regulation can be protected because the autonomy of university is a public good worth protecting, and further calls for the need to prepare universities to adopt new strategies for survival in the new environment of an even tighter financial regime (Neuhoff 1990). He concludes that if educational quality of the universities is to be maintained and enhanced in the face of declining financial resources, improvement in efficiency and productivity will come from improved management, made possible by quality leadership.

It will be important to note that institutional autonomy can often be confused with academic freedom. In this regard, Berdahl's definition will be necessary. In distinguishing institutional autonomy and academic freedom, he pointed out that academic freedom is where the individual scholar in his or her teaching and research, pursues truth where it seems to lead without fear of punishment or termination of employment for having offended some political, religious, or social orthodoxy. In the same way, he sees institutional autonomy as the degree of freedom the university has in steering itself (Bauer et al. 1999, 75). In an effort to clarify the issue of autonomy, Berdahl identified two types of autonomy- procedural and substantive:

Substantive autonomy is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine its own goals and programmes or the '*what' of the academe*. *Procedural* autonomy is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine the means by which its goals and programmes will be pursued *– the how of the academe* (Bauer et al. 1999, 75). Marianne Bauer and colleagues argue in line with Berdahl's opinion, that in the area of procedural autonomy (such as audits, financial controls, personnel policies) the government should have a low profile, since 'procedural controls are probably counter-productive and certainly irritating'. But as regards substantial autonomy, a 'constructive partnership' be formed between state and higher education institutions, with "sensitive mechanisms for bringing together state concerns with accountability and academic concerns with autonomy" (Bauer et al 1999, 75–76).

4.5 Centralization vs. Decentralization

In discussing the state governance for higher education system, Bauer et al (1999) used four types of state governance in analysing the concept of institutional autonomy. There is a shift of authority from centralized authority to decentralized state authority (van Vught 1998). These four types demonstrate that institutional autonomy is tied to the understanding of both purpose of higher education and the way in which the state exercises authority. Bauer et al (1999) analysed these typologies in the following ways: The first typology that results from such a combination is labelled '*security guard'*. This model is often referred to as 'Humboldt ideal', in which tradition has it that the nation-state was playing important role, but a role, which limits the nation-state's interference in university affairs. Here knowledge is to be pursued for the sake of knowledge itself. Thus the role of the state is only to safeguard and guarantee university autonomy so as to protect university from both forces on the outside of the university (religious powers for example), and threats from within, such as internal power struggles. This typology is not very restrictive of institutional autonomy since the state recognizes and accepts the university's own authority on the basis of scientific contribution (Mayer 1997, 1). In this model however, the state can retain some control over the universities in the appropriation of funds and in the area of faculty appointments, where the appointment of senior professor for example was seen as a 'civil service' issue.

The second typology, which the authors call '*honour society'*, is most associated with the example of the British autonomous institutions. Similar to 'security

guard' model, the primary goals are based on cultural values, emphasizing the disinterested pursuit of knowledge. In addition, there is a high awareness of the universities' role in the forming of student character as evidenced by the traditions of Oxford and Cambridge. In this model the role of the state is minimal, with no role assumed as 'protector' of the institutions from outside and inside forces as with 'security guard' model, but instead, there is a deliberate decision on the part of the central government not to get involved. Here a type of trust, 'honouring' of one's words exists between the central government and the universities, hence the 'honour society'. This model is the least restricted of all criteria for institutional autonomy given the minimal role of government.

The third typology labelled '*social goals*'[28] is located on the side of purpose dimension, where utilitarian requirements are dominant. In this model the state acts as financial and political authority, exercising its authority through legislation and budgetary policy. The state also exercises power in the areas that are viewed as traditionally 'academic' (admission policies, type of curriculum, research agendas, and assessment methods); areas earlier defined as 'procedural'. Given both the authority of the state as well as the predominance of state goals rather than internal goals of the academic, this model strongly restricts the extent of institutional autonomy. The fourth and last typology identified by the authors is 'invisible hand', which reflects the theoretical possibility of academics functioning in an open market as providers of services to clients who are willing to purchase them. In this model students will be buying courses and research will be supported by external sponsors and commissioned projects. However, the state may act as a provider of subsidies in this model, thus helping to set the terms of the market. Based on the idea of new public management, researchers like Bleiklie outlined a model of the university as 'producer of educational and research services'. Universities under this ideal are called a 'corporate enterprise', which consists of leadership and different functional (academic, technical and administrative) staff groups servicing different user groups in need of the services the enterprise offers. This invisible hand typology, with its emphasis on meeting external demands from the 'markets', 'clients', and 'customers', also puts procedural autonomy at risk as traditional criteria such as the content of the curriculum and the agendas for research, as well as methods of assessment, are in need of approval or support from markets and customers ... (Bauer et al 1999, 77–79) (see figure 4.1 for the four typologies of state governance of higher education).

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[28] Bauer et al. (1999) state that this model is often referred to as the command/managerialist' model in the higher education literature, and it assumes a more limited degree of substantive autonomy where academic objectives are subsets of social objectives which can be laid down by systems and university management. They also place traditional welfare state model, with socially defined goals for higher education and research. Furthermore, the prescription of the university as 'public agency' falls into this category. As a 'public agency', the university is part of the national civil service and is required to implement national public policy, and should do so loyally.

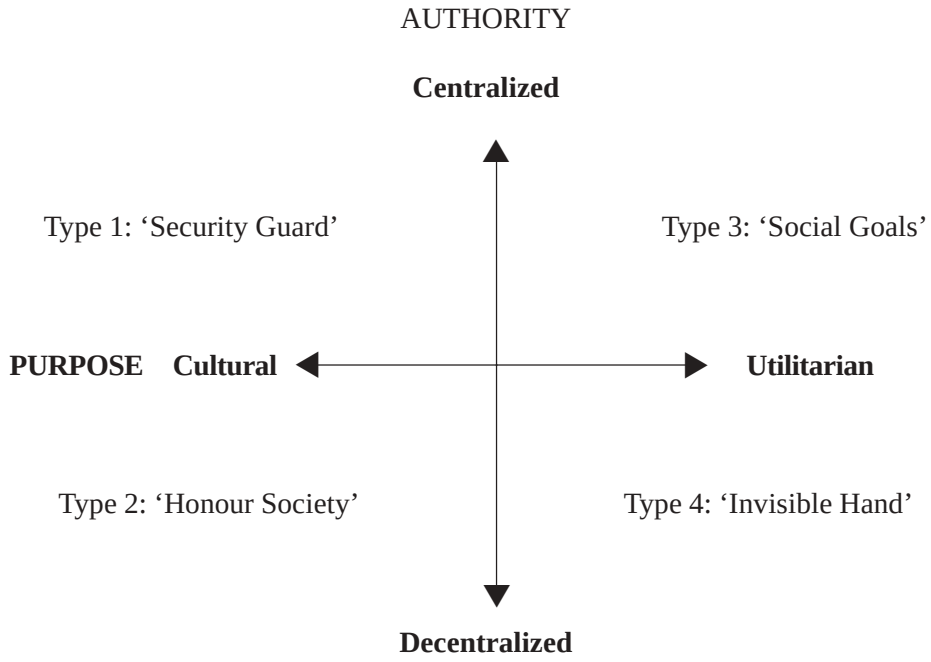

Figure 4.1 Model of four types of state governance of higher education. Source: Bauer et al. 1999.

Improved management processes can help restore public confidence in institutional management, and ideally lessen the pressure for further governmental control. Basing on research, it was concluded that improved management effectiveness of university institutions is almost unanimously acknowledged if universities are to adapt and survive (for example Bayenet 2000; McCorkle and Archibald 1982). The notion of adaptation goes with the idea of coping with rapid change. Elaine Martin argues that stable structures and systems, which once made organizations strong are now believed to contribute to their downfall. Her view is that the organization, which will survive and thrive, is that which can change -the one that can learn (Martin 1999, 49).

Patricia Worgan discusses in her The Changing Relationship Between the State and Higher Education in the CZech Republic. The article focuses on the relationship between the state and higher education in the country, which changed from total state control under the communist regime to democratisation of higher education. In order to understand this changing relationship, he discusses the effects of command economy on higher education. The relationship between state and higher education changed rapidly from one of state control toward academic oligarchy by the autonomy given to higher education institutions through the introduction of new legislation in the early 1990s. Worgan (1995) draws illustration of this movement from state to institutional control as seen in Scheel's model based on Clark's 'triangle of Coordination' (see figure 4.1). The model shows the movement of Czech system of higher education moving away from state control (Napo-

leonic Model) towards one of institutional control (Humboldt Model) to one of Market control (Anglo-Saxon Model).

In explaining the main features of the model, Worgan (1995) teases out the issue that arises when one looks at two of the models- Napoleonic and Humboldt models. In the Napoleonic model, which lies at the apex of the triangle, legislation under communist system was enacted by the Parliament of the Czechoslovak state. Administration and control of higher education by the state began with the introduction of centrally planned economy in the 1950s. Management and administration of higher education was placed in the hands of two separate Ministries of Education and Culture, which were subordinates to the Communist Party leadership. In the same way, restriction on the academics increased, and the suppression of democratic ideals led to the creation of an alternative culture. The alternative culture for higher education meant that research took place both formally and informally.[29] Positions in higher education were filled by those who were deemed as politically correct, as those who were qualified could not meet the political criteria and thus many positions were filled by those not qualified in the job. This type of behaviour had a negative effect on the universities (Koucky 1999). Furthermore, funding during this period was historically based, but rectors were able to negotiate directly with the ministry for additional funds. Funding of higher education became confused, and in many cases unfair; muddle of relations, connections, fierce pressures and ostentatious political gestures (Cermakova et al. 1994).

A look at the model again reveals that the Humboldt model (of institutional control) lies at the left base angle of the triangle. The model shows government's attempt to devolve power to the institutions with the Ministry as an enlightened 'overseer'. In this model attempt was made to move management and administration of the higher education institutions away from the Ministry of Education to individual autonomous institutions. The government had no responsibilities towards education except as a legislative body. The administration of higher education institutions, once in the hands of the Ministries, has now become the norm in institutions. Many of the administrative and clerical functions are now in the hands of the academic senates created by State act. Regarding academic rights and freedoms, members of the academic community were guaranteed certain freedoms and rights. The freedom was in form of undertaking scientific research, publish the results and develop arts. The academic community also had the right to teach and learn, elect academic self-governing bodies, hold differing philosophical views, religious affiliations and to propagate them as stated in the state act. Also under this model, teaching and research are united as in all Humboldtian models of universities as teaching and research universities. The basic task of institutions of

[29] Formal research was undertaken in research institutes, academies of Science and to a lesser extent higher education institutions, funded by government. Informal (and possibly illegal) research took place in people's homes and in institutions but was funded by those taking part.

higher education became to provide education through creative scientific research, or as van der Molen (1996) argues, universities have played an important role in shaping culture and civilization of present day societies. The handling of knowledge has become dominant in all activities of higher education institutions. Funding, which was previously historically based has become formula based, allocated by cost per student and student numbers (Turner 1994).

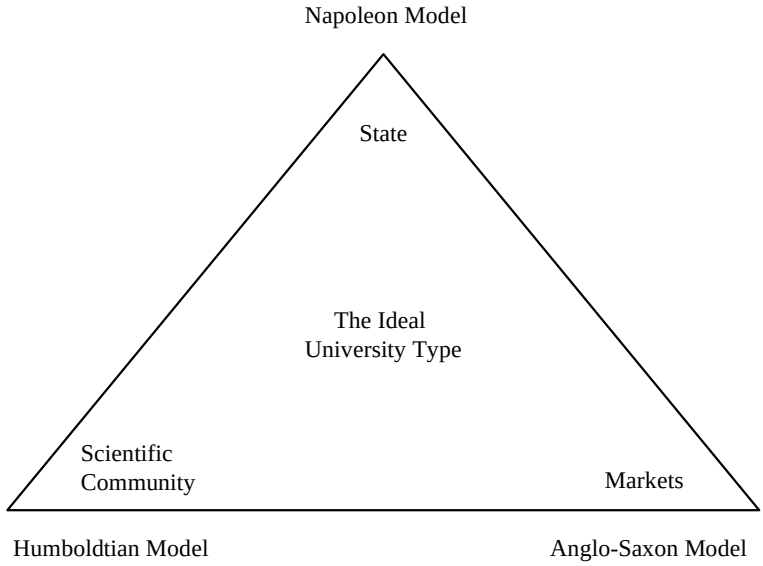

Figure 4.2 Scheel's higher education models based on Clark's 'triangle of coordination. Source: Worgan, P. (1995).

As innovations in university management is gaining ground, and at the same time becoming burning issue throughout the world, they are attracting much attention in developing countries. In these countries higher education institutions have become preoccupied with performance improvement. Faced by pressures from governments and other stakeholders espousing the doctrine of accountability and 'value for money', there is emphasis on finding competitive edge for national economies (Fagerlind et al. 1998, 78). These authors observed that higher education is historically tied to national objectives such as promoting national culture and building national elite. For this reason, national education investments should be internalised to fit into strategies of national competitiveness, external national economic space and to create absolute advantage and national systems of innovation. McCorkle and Archibald agree that the problems facing universities virtually demand increased attention to their management, which they term "a theoretically sound management model" that will meet and confront the challenges ahead. They conclude that quality management can be achieved, not by making it mandatory that the decision-making process will be viable, but requires rational, self-conscious, open, and deliberate process of institutional management (McCorkle and Archibald 1982).

In another discussion about managerial effectiveness in higher education, it was also assumed that effective management can be achieved by making the institutions use their flexibility and creativity, be proactive rather than reactive, have to replace former, nowadays withdrawn, state regulation with their own set of regulation, and generate strategic plans and design their institutional management (Askling and Kristensen 2000, 17–41). Another expert opinion on institutional management comes from Frackman (2000). Frackman's study on institutional management and institutional autonomy emphasises the need for ensuring quality in education as a challenge facing institutions of higher education. He convincingly argued that institutional approach to strategic planning and quality assurance, have been vital tools to confront the present and future challenges of university management. He suggests that as institutions are becoming more responsible for their survival, new techniques of management should be devised to cope with the challenges they are facing. In his opinion, institutional approach to management entails applying new management techniques with which to steer higher education in desired direction.

The demand for effective institutional management of the university has been fuelled by the necessity to 'do more with less'. Scott (1989) argues that government restriction on public expenditure on higher education institutions has exerted pressure on institutions to become more cost effective. Strengthening management of higher education institutions through greater use of 'modern' techniques has been seen as an aid to achieving this objective. Lomas (1996) further adds that the growth of quality management techniques has also been fuelled by government concern for accountability and the rise in 'managerialism'[30] in higher education institutions. Lomas concludes by arguing that quality management has recently started to impinge and influence the operation and development of universities, as the public sector has adopted the techniques utilized by private sector; assuming that quality management systems and structures, which have been applied to the private sector could be used in public sector professions such as education. In support, Tannock and Burge (1992) assert that higher education institution can learn from the experiences of industry and commerce because they have similar problems surrounding the provision of quality products and services.

In their study *Micro-Economic Reform Through Managerialism in American and Australian Universities*, Currie and Vidovich (1998) discussed the reforms in American and Australian universities. In the discussion there is a feeling among academics that both external agencies like government departments, legislators, politicians and managers internal to their universities are shifting the balance of power and autonomy away from academics. In this shift of power, a new kind of

[30] New Managerialism in higher education refers to changes that have occurred in this sector; being the striving to put industrial-driven productivity models into a service and scholarship profession, more especially into the educational process. New Managerialism also entails how universities are being run like business (Currie and Vidovich 1998, 160).

fundamentalism has developed where university managers adopt business practices with earnestness. These authors reflected Hecht's quotation of university of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) administrator who asked, "can a university be run more like a business"? This administrator believes that "most universities can do a significant job of cutting cost through the same re-engineering of processes and work that have characterized the best for-profit corporations (Currie and Vidovich 1998, 153–154).

These trends discussed above have set the ground for instituting corporate influences in higher education institutions. The shift in government policies and political effectiveness of groups outside the universities, have brought new environment and new demands for higher education. This new environment has spurred many higher education institutions to adopt market-like measures by venturing into commercial and business fields to generate additional revenue for their survival. The adoption of market trends in university management for institutional development constitutes our discussion in the next section.

4.6 Market[31] Trends in Higher Education

In many reforms of higher education being introduced around the world, market and market-like policy instruments are assuming increasing importance (Dill 1997; Dill and Sporn 1995). These market reforms have been termed "marketization." (Williams 1997), and these reforms are aimed at confronting the problems currently facing higher education. The worldwide spread of this new environment has been noted in research (Brunner 1997; Leslie and Slaughter 1997; Meek and Wood 1997; William 1997). As a result of this new context, many countries now engage in vigorous policy debate about the appropriate balance between social demand, government regulation, and university autonomy. The policy reforms of national governments are therefore major focus of the current debate about the introduction of market policy to higher education, because in recent years organizations have realized that they can improve their structures through market mechanisms.

The role and place of the "the market" in higher education mean different things to different people. Within the classic function of the university, there are 'markets' for students, for academic and administrative as well as support staff, for services provided either to the local community or to trade, industry and commerce, and the research market (Neave 1997, 161–162). According to Neave, each

[31] The market is basically different when compared with government planning. A key aspect of government planning is the effort of government to design and implement institutional frameworks to influence the behaviour of other actors. The market is a type of interaction in which matters are disaggregated and no one is in-charge: there is nothing more than an option for each individual to choose among numerous existing institutions, or to fashion new arrangements suited to a situation or taste. .. The market is simply the freedom to choose among many or still-to-be created possibilities... The market is no particular set of institutions, as Sowell posits (van Vught 1997).

of these markets 'trades' in very different 'commodities', involving very different processes in the transformation of 'raw material' in the way it 'adds values' and in terms which exchange is carried out. In order to manage this wide range of exchanges, it requires more than a single perspective or disciplinary-driven analysis capable of taking into account what is both coherent and satisfying.

According to Dill (1997), one fundamental characteristic of the new forces affecting higher education is an increase in competition. For Dill, governments are one source of this increased competition, as they implement policies that encourage private higher education in what previously were state monopolies, as they introduce market-like competition in the allocation of research grants and student places, and as they help to disseminate academic quality information to inform student choices of academic programmes (Dill 1997, 166–167). The inevitable consequence of these new forces as Dill and Sporn (1997) proposed, is a declining unit of resources to higher education in many developed countries and increased international competition for students, for faculty members, for revenues and for academic prestige. While there is much descriptive literature decrying these changes in different countries, there have been attempts to analytically examine precisely how government policies manage or manipulate markets in higher education systems.

This discussion has brought together policy studies and issues affecting higher education, and to have them systematically address the nature of market in higher education of different countries, as a means of higher education reform. I take this up in the next section under marketization of higher education.

4.6.1 Marketization of Higher Education

The use of the term "market" in higher education often implies the traditional assumption of perfectly competitive markets under which conditions the allocation of goods and services will supposedly be optimally efficient for the larger society (Leslie and Johnson 1974). In higher education there is not a single market, but rather a multiple and interrelated markets. Countries like the United Kingdom have introduced competitive 'quasi-market' schemes for allocation of public funding for both university places and research grants as a means of increasing efficiency or 'value for money' (Williams 1997). This example shows that higher education policy in many countries is increasingly driven by the belief that freeing, facilitating, and stimulating market in higher education will provide academic institutions with the incentive to improve quality of teaching and research, to enhance productivity, and to stimulate innovations in academic programmes, research, and services of benefit to the larger society.

In general there has been a growing interest by many governments in the introduction of market types of organization and in the use of financial incentive to encourage a more efficient allocation of resources. This movement towards market approaches has taken several forms. Williams (1997) referred to Moore's idea in his argument that British Universities have always been private institutions and, therefore prone to market-like behaviour. That they have a legal status rather similar to commercial companies, moderated only by the fact that as registered charities their ability to make profits is limited. The shift towards 'quasi-markets' in

public funding and real markets in supplementary funding has had far reaching effects on the internal management of universities (Williams 1997, 275–289).

In *Market Trends in Spanish Higher Education*, Jose-Gines Mora provides an insight into the changes in a traditional European, state-controlled system of higher education. Mora explicitly states that higher education in Spain broke away from its close dependency on the state in the last decade because of the significant political and sociological changes that have transpired in Spain in the last two decades that affected higher education. Today, universities are currently autonomous. In the study Mora analysed the steps taken by the Spanish higher education system, which allowed market influences to grow in recent years. He further analysed the historic framework and legal changes, which have facilitated market trends in higher education, by considering the influence of these market trends on the financial and organizational structure of the universities. The study concludes that although the steps are still hesitant, market-like elements are increasingly affecting every aspect of higher education life. The results of Mora's study show that higher education institutions in Spain have moved from depending on the central government to one depending on autonomous regional governments. They have changed from hierarchical internal structure where all university officials were appointed by the government to an extremely democratic mode of conduct. Furthermore, curricula, which were the same in all universities, are now distinct in each. The organization of curriculum, which had a rigid structure based on academic years, is now modular, and organized in semesters. Higher education financing, research funding and funds for student aid programmes, have been increased remarkably in recent years. These results were considered very positive in general for many aspects of Spanish higher education as ways education could be improved, using market mechanism (Mora 1997, 187–198).

In another study Akira Arimoto examines *Markets and Higher Education in Japan*. He points out that by introducing market principle into the areas of research, teaching and services, Japan's higher education system began to seek measures of efficiency. The introduction of the elements of competition now characterizes the pattern of government expenditure in research. In teaching, the intention has been to provide information relating to education's quality to consumers in accordance with the needs of the market. The supply of information to consumers regarding the quality of education is becoming more and more important for the survival of universities. As regards social service, the government provides positive incentives to encourage cooperation between commercial enterprises and universities. Arimooe concludes by recognizing three important trends in the application of market logics to higher education in Japan. By proposing a new policy for appointment of academic staff, the Japanese University Council introduced *contract system for faculty recruitment*. This system follows the practices in the business world, with the intention of removing the habitual practices of life-long employment, the seniority rule, academic nepotism and inbreeding (Arimoto 1997, 199–210).

The framework of marketization of higher education in Hong Kong and Mainland China is examined with considerations of how higher education in these countries has been affected by strong market forces with particular reference to the

strategies, which institutions of higher education have adopted to cover cost in education. Accordingly, in a study *Education and the Market Place in Hong Kong and mainland China*, Ka-Ho Mok attempts to examine how market forces have affected educational development in these countries. Based on research conducted in these countries, the author argues that higher education in these countries has been significantly affected by emerging market forces, and that the strong market forces have caused institutions of higher learning to re-orient themselves to be more sensitive to market needs, and produce employable graduates to suit employers' demands. Mok further pointed out that new mode of education has been in place in both Hong Kong and Mainland China. In China there is a call to "integrate the school and business units, support the schools with factories", in order to diversify sources of financial support. It was believed that, universities' ventures into the commercial and business activities could support universities' scholastic and research activities. Also, financial income obtained will be used to improve teaching conditions, provide teachers and staff with opportunities to exercise their professional skills, and relieve them any anxieties about their livelihood. He concludes, stressing that with additional income gained after ventures in the 'commercial seas', educational institutions can allocate more money to raise the salaries of teachers and improve teaching and research facilities (Mok 1999, 133–158; Cheng 1996).

One of the findings of this study was that the public sector of higher education is starting to look more private; through universities running businesses, and that the role of the state in the educational arena is declining. The growth of private higher education institutions, coupled with the adoption of market principles and strategies in recovering educational costs, suggests in the case of Mainland China that the Mainland is moving to a global process of marketization in education.

In summary, this chapter has explored the main sources for the theoretical ideas that guide this study. It discussed the different levels of leadership and management in the context of organization. The chapter first established that both the environment, and the relationship between state and higher education, have changed tremendously that necessitated effective management of the institutions. The discussions in the chapter are based on the premises that with what is happening to institutions of higher education, there is demand for quality management in the universities. Within this changed environment, universities have to find answers to the growing imbalances, in form of coping mechanisms. Within the context of the themes mentioned, there are some categories of reform that would help confront this new environment. Such reforms as some researches pointed out include universities adopting new, more entrepreneurial form of organization and a more pronounced institutional leadership, who creates an environment in which the prime purposes of the university can be accomplished; by the acquisition of the strategic capacity to confront the present changing landscape of university organization.

As university institutions are facing financial difficulties, and also as quality is becoming a criteria by which funding of university institutions is judged, effective management of institutions are becoming critical for institutional survival. Regarding financial reforms in higher education, the chapter discussed how universities should look more "private" through the introduction of market or private sec-

tor principles in their activities. This is market orientation as studies by Deal and Sporn and other researchers showed. The market mechanisms therefore include tuition fees, and the sale of research and instruction through grants, contracts and entrepreneurial training, private sector, including both non-profit and proprietary providers of tertiary education; institutional decentralization, or devolution of authority from the central government to the institutions. This 'new managerialism' strives to put industrial-driven productivity models into a service and scholarship profession. It is under these conditions that university institutions should be optimally efficient in providing services to the society in terms of education and research. In the next chapter I will discuss a tool, called "quality management" model considered to assure the quality of university management.

5 MODELS OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN THE UNIVERSITY ENVIRONMENT

This chapter discussed quality management models in higher education institutions. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part considered a general conception of quality in relation to quality management in the university. This led to an examination of total quality management (TQM)). The chapter closed with the introduction and discussion of the 'enablers' criteria of The European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model, which forms the theoretical framework of this thesis. The chapter started with the examination of ways quality can be conceptualised.

5.1 Conceptions of Quality

Since the 1980s and 1990s quality has been at the top of most agendas, and has been one of the basic means of competition. Even today quality is still a key concept in the future success of national economies. For the survival of mankind, quality must pervade all our activities; whether in business or in service. There is no doubt today that improving the quality of our public and private sectors of the national economy must be the most important task facing all of us if our institutions have to survive. Quality remains central to survival of even large organizations. However, despite the importance attached to the concept of quality, quality is still a word that is not easily defined. Today, quality is seen as an essentially contested issue to which competing voices and discourses by front-line academics and managers view differently. This leads to the idea by some scholars that quality has suffered over the years by being used to describe attributes such as beauty, goodness, expensiveness, freshness and above all luxury. All this makes quality appear a very difficult concept to understand; for it is not possible to manage something that is so imprecise and means so many things (Munroe-Faure and Munroe-Faure 1992, 5). Quality is a slippery concept because it has such a variety of meanings and the word implies different things to different people (Sallis 1993, 12). I will touch on some of the different conceptions of quality.

The concept of quality has grown a long way since the early disciples defined it as "producing output in conformance to customer requirements" (Munro-Faure 1992, 2). In line with this definition, Hick (2001) also defines quality from the point of view of the customer. Hick sees quality as meeting customer needs and expectations. What that has emerged from these two definitions is that one of the ways to improve quality in organizations is to determine who the customer is and what are the things the customer needs and then fine-tune the process to ensure that they get it. In this case a customer is important and vital to the survival of organizations. The customer can choose another supplier if the quality of the service or product is inferior or deteriorates.

As the interest in quality continued to increase, because of response to the competitive advantage held by Japanese firms over their European and American rivals (Hall 1996, 20–32), different researchers continued to define quality from

different perspectives. Garvin identifies five principal approaches for looking at quality as recorded by Ollila (1995). He sees quality as:

1. Transcendent

– "Quality is neither mind nor matter, but a third entity independent of the two ...Even though quality cannot be defined, you know what it is" (Robert M. Pirsig, Zen and the Art of Moter cycle Maintenance, New York: Bantam Books 1974, pp.185–213).
– A condition of excellence implying fine quality as distinct from poor quality...Quality is achieving or reaching for the highest standards as against being satisfied with the sloppy or fraudulent" (Barbara W. Tuchman, "The Decline of Quality", New York Times Magazine, November 2, 1980, p. 38).

In transcendent-oriented view, quality assumes to be something that cannot be defined precisely. In this perspective, quality is a simple, unanalyzable property we learn to recognize only through experience.

2. Product-based

Quality refers to the amount of the un-priced attributed contained in each unit of the price attribute" (Keith B. Leffler, 'Ambiguous Changes in Product Quality", American Economic Review.

3. User-based

– "Quality consists of the capacity to satisfy wants ..." (Corwin D. Edwards, "The Meaning of
– quality", Quality Progress, October 1968, p. 37.
– "In the final analysis of the marketplace, the quality of a product depends on how well it fits patterns of consumer preferences." (Alfred A. Kuehn and Ralph L. Day, Strategy of product Quality, Harvard Business Review, November-December 1962, p.101).
– "Quality is fitness for use" (J. M. Juran ed. Quality Control Handbook, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974, pp.2–2).

4. Manufacture-based

"Quality means conformance to requirements." (Philip B. Crosby, Quality is Free, New York: New American Library, 1979, p. 15).
– "Quality is the degree to which a specific product conforms to a design or specification." (Harold L. Gilmore, "Product Conformance Cost", Quality Progress, June 1974, p.16).

5. Value-based

–"Quality is the degree of excellence at an acceptable price and the control of variability at an acceptable cost" (Robert A. Broh, Managing Quality for High Profits, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1982, p.3).
"Quality means best for certain customer conditions. These conditions are a) the actual use and b) the selling price of the product" (Armand V. Feigenbaum, Total Quality Control, New York:McGraw-Hill, 1961, p.1).

These different views of quality shows that quality cannot be easily defined from a single perspective using one attribute because it consists of all operations of an organization. Lillrank also defines quality from the perspective of six attributes in addition to the attributes identified by Garvin (1989). Garvin and Lillrank's approaches to quality are much alike though Lillrank adds two more attributes: 'competition-oriented' and 'environment-oriented' that differ from Garvin's definitions as shown in figure 5.1 The attributes are described as follows:

Production-oriented
This definition is probably the oldest and it means that a product is manufactured according to the specifications eliminating variations and loss. Statistical quality controls (QC) experts have developed many methods and tools to serve this purpose.

Product-oriented
This definition comes from the idea that some products are better than others in measurable quantities. This quality definition emphasizes the quality of planning.

Value-oriented
This definition implies that the highest quality product is the one giving the best cost/benefit relationships, that is, the best value for money. This is a very economic method of understanding of quality, and is used in traditional value analysis methods to analyse the essential factors affecting the unit price.

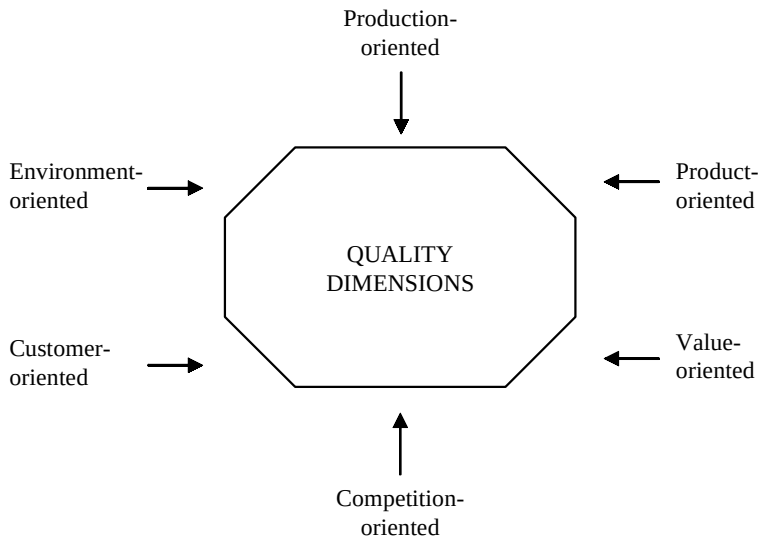

Figure 5.1 Lillrank's Quality Attributes. (Cf. Ollila 1995, 16.)

Competition-oriented
This definition assumes that it is the quality of each product and component is as good as that of any competitor. Competition-oriented quality has evident shortcomings because it puts a company in a position where it must emulate its competitor.

Customer-oriented
This is the most popular definition, and it implies that the quality is good if it satisfies the needs and wants of customers. Three values related to customer-oriented quality: 1) utility values, or need for the operation, benefits of use and performance capabilities; 2) demonstration value, or need to illustrate; and 3) exchange value, or that which the product will have after usage as desired.

Environment-oriented
in principle, this resembles customer-oriented quality in that not only customers but also society, nature, neighbours, that is, the environment, are buyers of the product. This definition includes the prerequisite that a product must be planned, bearing in mind the requirements of law and ecology.

There is also a concern among researchers about quality as a strategic competitive factor. Companies compete in the areas of customer satisfaction and 'value for money' for the user with utilization of minimum resources. This competitive view of quality becomes the most appropriate in defining quality. According to research, company perspective on quality means defining a managerial strategy and a corporate culture[32] capable of sustaining competition in quality through quality practices (see Conti 1993, 8–13). In the same way, Madu (1998, 735) believes that quality is a major factor in achieving competitiveness. In order words company perspective means identifying the main elements of the quality approach the company has adopted to meet the competitive challenge. One of these elements according to Madu is spreading the quality culture and quality practices throughout the organization. Madu concludes that in today's advanced markets whose size and number are growing, consumers have a greater say and occupy an increasing high position in the need pyramid where the quality of products and services is considered a pre-requisite for the quality of life.

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[32] Madu (1998, 743) has made us understand that quality itself is a culture. There is a need to create conducive environment that will help to achieve sustainable quality. According to him, survival in today's competitive market environment depends greatly on articulation of quality management culture organizations needed to make necessary cultural transformation in order to survive. He further says that organizational culture cannot change without changing the culture of the workplace and culture of the people in the workplace. These people or the workforce need to be an integral element of the cultural change or transformation. They must share the same views and goals of management before quality as a culture can be successfully implemented.

The foregoing discussion has shown that quality is conceptually complex and represents a mixture of knowledge from a range of disciplines. A lot of people have had several ideas on what quality should be. From these definitions of quality or of its attributes, one can see that quality is not only a way of managing organization or conformance to requirements, but also a totality of features and characteristics of a product, service or process, which bear on its ability to satisfy a given need; from the customers' view- point, including loss prevention. Within these views of quality, it can be that quality can reduce cost and improve productivity when it evolves in a sense of being capable of serving its aims as business tool, for example in creased efficiency, improvement in addressing client needs, and also in its potential as an instrument of human development. The discussion also suggests that quality can be taken to be: 1) efficiency in meeting set goals; 2) relevance to human and environmental needs and conditions; 3) something more in relation to the pursuit of excellence and human betterment. Having looked at quality from a general perspective, I will now focus my discussion on quality as it relates to higher education.

5.2 Quality Issues in Higher Education

As I pointed out in section 4.1, quality has been a concept that is not easily definable though there is an international consensus of its importance. There is no agreement either between or within countries about what quality means. Also in higher education, the concept of quality is taken to be a pervasive and elusive concept. It has many faces and embraces three broad aspects: 1) goals; 2) the process deployed for achieving goals; and 3) how far goals are achieved (Fazer 1994). This shows that there is no single way to define or measure quality. In higher education, quality must be about scholarship and learning. It is evident that one approach to quality in higher education should mean the quality of education that graduates have acquired. This is understood to mean the correspondence of the achieved level of personal development of an individual and his or her professional skills and competencies as compared to the stated established requirements (Kouptsov and Tatur 2001, 27–28).

The problem of definition constitutes one major obstacle to empirical investigations of quality in organizations. Quality is a term used to refer both to an ultimate outcome and to a predictor of an ultimate outcome in organizations. In organizational literature, quality is treated as an organizational effectiveness (Campbell 1977; Conrad and Blackbrun 1997). Winn and Cameron (1998) made a collection of researches in which quality has been defined from different perspectives: as rate of errors and defects in goods-producing organizations (Crosby); as institutional reputation in higher education organization; as the presence of ambiance and legitimacy in arts organizations (Tschirhart); to levels of customer satisfaction in service organizations (Huff), and so on. In all these cases quality is seen as one of the desired attributes of the outcomes produced by organizations and always used as a qualifier in describing some product or service. Today it is possible to describe a product or service as of high-quality, for example high-quality education, high-quality art, high-quality health care, high-quality service, high-quality products and so on.

However, the increasing attention paid by organizational scholars to quality as a key organizational attribute changed the focus of quality. In this case, quality began to take on the appearance of the 'highest good' in organizational performance. Leaders and managers of both educational institutions and industrial organizations became converted to the pursuit of quality as the single most important organizational and institutional objectives. Today in professional conferences in both the organizational sciences and higher education, quality becomes among the most frequently appearing concepts in scholarly and practitioners' discussions, and articles and books published on quality (e.g. Garvin 1998; Green 1993; Peterson et al 1995; Oakland 1997). In scholarly literature, the concept of quality largely became the central objective of organizational action. It is now the term often to encompass the multiple outcomes, effects, and processes that organizations pursue in order to achieve success (e.g. Winn and Cameron 1998; Ishikawa 1985).

The concept of quality has been essentially a contested issue in higher education and there are competing voices and discourses on the concept. Scholars and other frontline academics and managers view quality in different perspectives. However, what is common among these competing voices is the recognition that quality makes the difference between success and failure (Sallis 1993, 1). The concern with quality has emerged in higher education because of the uncertainties and tensions surrounding higher education institutions. Society members demand that institutions provide a measure of quality assurance, in the face of increased enrolments, the need for the institutions to be accountable for public scarce resources and to provide measure of 'value-for-money' in the case of private resources dedicated to higher education. The establishment of quality assurance schemes in many countries is one of the responses for this concern. In many of these countries, the definition of quality in higher education becomes clear. In the university particularly, quality now comes to be expressed in terms of social and individual desirability as well as in a way that is consistent with what the institution stands for. Definitions of quality are not neutral and innocent; they are about balances of power within higher education and between higher education and other social actors (Lemaitra 2002).

The turbulence and uncertainty, which has become a defining characteristic of today's higher education systems, and which has provided the context in which academics have been required to adjust to invasive quality monitoring arrangements (Newton 2002). Growth of student numbers in today's universities and the accompanying diversification of activities in the environment of the universities has led to an increasing concern with the maintenance and improvement of the quality of academic work in the universities. At the same time the realization that in higher education institutions, as well as in other large organizations, there is interdependence between the performance of individuals and their organizational environment has began to focus attention on improvement of individual performance to the management of quality at the institution as a whole (Harvey 1998). Quality is important in the activities of higher education because unless the university becomes of high quality in its entire guise, it cannot legitimately be described as an institution of higher education.

Several conceptual approaches have been advanced regarding various views to the question of quality specific to higher education. In line with Garvin (1989) and

Ollila's (1995) definitions, Winn and Cameron (1998) summarize seven of the most frequently appearing approaches to and definitions of quality in higher education literature. In their study *Organizational Effectiveness: An Examination of the Malcolm Balderige* National Quality Framework, Winn and Cameron approach the concept of quality from the following bases: resource-based, content-based, outcomes-based, value-based, productivity-based, constituency-based, and reputation-based, definitions (see table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Major Approaches to Quality in Higher Education Literature. Source: Winn and Cameron 1998, 491–512.

Approach	Definition	Example
Resource	Resource quality refers to those commodities, which are inputs to the institution and are used in its various functions and activities (Schmidtlein 1988).	Human intellectual, physical, financial resources.
Content	Content quality refers to the excellence of an institution in terms of what it teaches (Astin 1985).	Exposure to liberal arts And Sciences
Outcomes	Outcomes quality focuses on conformance to mission specifications and global achievement (Bogue and Saunder 1985).	Student/alumni achievement
Value-added	Value-added quality view of quality refers to the educational impact of the institution on its students and faculty members (Astin 1985).	Difference between outcomes to inputs
Productivity	Productivity view of quality refers to those institutions that can 'do more with less'– those that are more efficient (Hines 1988).	Ratio of outcomes to inputs
Constituency-based	Constituency-based quality focuses of the needs of an institution's users- "a social service station" (Wolff 1992).	Satisfaction of students, parents, alumni, faculty, donors, community, government, etc.
Reputation	Reputational view of quality refers to broad-name-brand recognition (McGuire et al 1988)	Ranking and ratings

Though Winn and Cameroon have given a broad summary of the most frequently appearing definitions of quality in organizational literature, their definitions do not in any way exhaust all other possible approaches to viewing quality in the context of higher education. However, their definitions mentioned all of Garvin's (1988) five attributes and two other attributes identified as system-based and cul-

tural-based, definitions. A wide variety of attributes has emerged from these various definitions that have been identified as core aspects of organizational quality (Deming 1994; Juran 1992; Garvin 1989).

Other definitions of "quality" have entered the quality assurance debate. Assuring and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in universities is a major concern in most researches. Harvey and Green distinguished three definitions of quality that are relevant to the issue of quality assurance (QA): as values for money, as fit for the espoused purpose, and as transformation (Biggs 2001).

1. *Quality as value for money*. A "quality" institution in this view is one that satisfies the demands of public accountability. It provides, for example, more graduates for fewer public resources, more peer-reviewed publications per capita of academic staff, has more Ph.D.s on its staff, and a strategic plan that signals high levels of self-funded activities.

2. *Quality as fit for the purpose*. In this view, the "purpose" is that of the institution. Universities have several purposes, with teaching and research among the most important. Teaching is the purpose of getting students to learn effectively, and to accredit that they have learned to the required standards from teaching programmes with valuable results.

3. *Quality as transformation*. Teaching in the university transforms students' perceptions of their world, and the way they go about applying their knowledge to real worlds problems. It also transforms teachers' perceptions of their role as teacher, and the culture of the institution itself (Biggs 2001, 221–238).

Gibbs further concludes that quality does not reside in any one-performance indicator but in the way the system as a whole works, as the most concern. Therefore, a quality institution is one that has high-level aims that it intends to meet, that teaches accordingly, and that continually upgrades its practice in order to adapt to changing conditions, within resource limitations.

Another approach to viewing quality is one given by Lomas (2002). Like other scholars (e.g. Biggs 2001; Harvey and Green 1996, Barnett 1992), Lomas contributed to the discussion of quality by presenting four perspectives from which quality can be viewed.

Quality as excellence. The traditional view of quality equates it to excellence (Harvey and Green 1996). One can draw the analogy that just as Rolls Royce car is universally regarded as 'quality' car because of the high standard of its components, engineering and finishing, so it is possible for a higher education institution to be viewed in the same way.

Quality as fitness for purpose. Fitness for purpose requires that the product or service fulfils a customer's needs, requirements and desires. Higher education goals are articulated at a general institutional level through an organization's mission statement and at a more precise academic level through a particular programmes aims and learning outcomes. These requirements should be clearly articulated by customer programme specifications as a major means of providing relevant information for prospective students and employers, so that they can judge whether

their needs and requirements are likely to be met. In higher education, teaching quality is concerned with teaching effectiveness and teaching efficiency. Teaching effectiveness is linked to the meeting of course aims and objectives; teaching efficiency is linked to the resources that are used in order to meet the stated aims and objectives (Williams and Loder 1990).

Quality as value for money. In this definition of quality, the notion of accountability[33] is central in that accountability is being predicted upon the need for restraint in public expenditure in order to remain competitive in world market (Harvey and Knight 1996). Public services are expected to be accountable to their funders and those who contribute to student fees. Thus, accountability in terms of assuring value for money is generally to the government. However, where there is self-funding, accountability is directed to the students.

Malcolm Fazer also supports the view that accountability is one of the reasons for concern for quality in higher education. According to him, quality in higher education is important because universities must be accountable to society, to employers, and to each other (Fazer 1994, 101). This relationship is shown in figure 5.2.

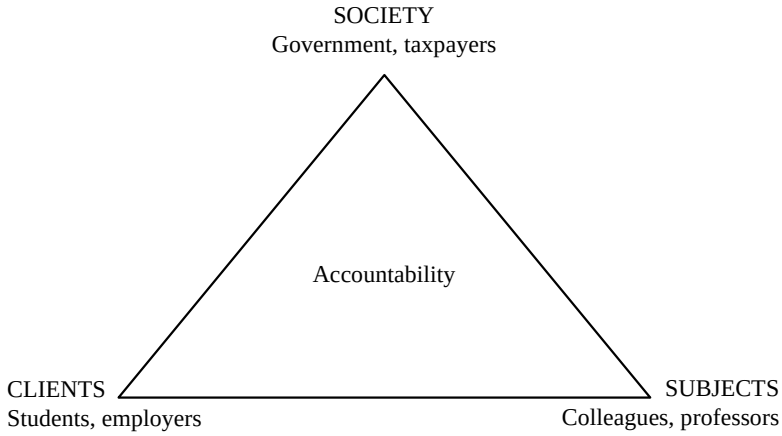

Figure 5.2 A triangle of accountability showing relationship of society, clients and subjects.

[33] Brennan and Shah (2000) have argued that accountability requirements involves satisfying extrinsic economic and social purposes that government has in mind when expanding higher education systems. Thus, funding for higher education is increasingly conditional on achieving the purposes of the funders, whether for contract research, training manpower, greater social equity or whatever. In order to survive and prosper, institutions must address these external purposes, and in typical cases must incorporate them into internal decision-making structures and, where necessary, modify established cultures.

Quality as Transformation. The consideration of quality in broader terms is taking a transformative approach to quality. The transformation of education often involves cognitive transcendence with the provider of education "doing something to the customer than just doing something for the customer" (Harvey and Green 1996, 24). According to Bradley's (1994) argument, this transformation is achieved through:

> "... the flames of inquiry, tolerance and excellence require hard cash and supportive education policies. Innovation research needs money; university staff and students need accommodation, library resources and laboratory equipment. Everybody needs time, a commodity that is being squeezed out of the system by the increasing bureaucratic and financial demands imposed by government education policies" (Bradley 1994).

John Biggs argues regarding current government education policies as unhelpful for the development of transformative approach to quality because, in addition to the falling unit of resource, extrinsic market forces are overshadowing intrinsic educational values, leading now to greater emphasis on employability skills rather than critical reflection (Biggs 2001, 221–238).

In his study *The Idea of Quality: Voicing the Educational (1992)*, Ronald Barnett approaches the ideas of quality by drawing from Burton Clark's triangle of the shape of higher education. Here a distinction was made between systems influenced primarily by the academic community, those in which the state plays the major part, and those, which are open to the market to a significant degree. These three forces give rise to three methodological approaches to quality: one in which the state will tend to favour numerical performance indicators; that the academic community will favour peer review; and that the market-led system will respond to consumer preference. In the light of this, three contrasting methodologies produced by the separate social forces are equivalent to definition of quality. The state in its determination to promote more efficient systems will come to regard as of high quality those institutions which, on the performance indicators, show up as being able to propel increasing number of graduates into the labour market in the most effective way. Thus, quality is defined from the four perspectives on the purposes of higher education (Barnett 1992, 3–19).

1) Higher education as the production of highly qualified manpower

On this view, higher education is seen as a process of filling particular slots in the labour market with individuals who are going to be 'productive'. Graduates are often seen as 'products', as outputs having a utility value in the economy. Here, quality is a measure of the ability of students to succeed in the world of work. Accordingly, the performance indicators adopted will be the percentage of graduates flowing into employment and, more especially, their career earning or 'rate of return' as economists refer to them.

2) Higher education as training for research career

Here those members of academic community who are active in research frame the definition of higher education. Quality in this view is measured in terms of the achievement of students than in the research profiles of the staff. The performance

indicators generated by this view of higher education are the related output and input measures of staff's research activity- for example, in the United Kingdom, the number of fellows in the Royal Society, the amount of research income attracted by an institution and the staff' publication output.

3) Higher education as efficient management of teaching profession

Massification, budgetary decline, and other factors place increasing demands on institutions to harness their resources so as to achieve an ever-higher level of teaching efficiency. On this view, institutions are understood to be performing well or are of high quality if their throughput is high, given the resources at their disposal. Consequently, on this conception of quality, performance indicators are sought which can capture its heightened sensitivity towards efficiency.

4) Higher education as a matter of extending life chances

This conception of quality is that of the potential consumers of higher education. Here higher education is priced as a means of social mobility. It becomes a civil good, valued for its ability to offer opportunities to all to participate in the dominant social institutions. As a result, higher education becomes an outcome of unfettered social demand, what ever it turns out to be. In this view of higher education, the key performance indicators lie in the percentage of growth of student numbers and the range of institution's entrants. Furthermore on the notion of quality in higher education, Robin Middlehurst sees quality as an organising principle for higher education, in which he argues for four general approaches to quality as defined alongside a number of operational dimensions. His first approach views quality as a defining *characteristic or attribute* of something for example, quality of wine is that it bears grapes, a quality of a person is that he or she is sentient being, or a quality singer is that s/he possesses a singing voice with a specific pitch. In the second instance, quality is used to refer to a grade of *achievement*. In this instance, comparison is involved, since quality is defined as relative to other representatives of a type or category. The third association of the term quality; one which is widely used in higher education is excellence – a standard which becomes a model or point of inspiration for others. His fourth definition of quality is that widely used in manufacturing industry and which is now gaining prominence in other sectors, referred to as 'fitness for purpose' achieved through conformance to specifications, where the specifications are set by the customer or by the customer and supplier in joint negotiation. This interpretation allows for great variation in product or service 'quality', reflecting the variety of present and potential suppliers and purchasers in any sector or service. The customer must declare whether or not the product or service is of a quality suited to his or her own purposes and requirements; the supplier must establish a system and an organization, which is capable of producing products or services to the specifications identified; and an external agency or panel is also involved (Middlehurst 1992, 20–38).

There is of course another clarification of quality concept. Rekkedal (2001) approaches quality in line with Juran's definition as 'fitness for purpose' related to the needs of the user/customer, which indicates that quality depends upon the subject's view of what is the purpose of that phenomenon. He acknowledged that in

education, the customer[34] is not easily identified and until recently, the term did not resonate well in a university context. However, Sytsma (2001) pointed out that customer exists in the university context, and that a university has a variety of customers. For him students should be recognized as customers because the student certainly fits the definition of customer as "a buyer of a product or service": they take classes, consume meals, sleep in residence halls, buy books and use many services to which they pay fees. In countries where tuition fees are paid in the universities, the student/faculty relationship is a complex one. Clearly, one dimension of this relationship involves the student as customer. The student buys the professor's course and has the unmistakable right to expect certain things for his or her money – relevant course content, fairness, expertise, access, and a reasonable learning situation. If a professor views the student as a customer, it is likely that the professor will become more tolerant, more interested in implementing ways to improve the learning process.

Birnbaum (1989) takes the view of stakeholder into consideration while defining quality from the perspective of purpose and requirement. He stressed this diversity by pointing out three dimensions of quality in higher education: the *Meritocratic* (the institution's conformity to professional and scholarly norms with academic professions as reference group), *the social* (the degree to which institution satisfies the needs of important collective constituents), and *the individualistic* (the contribution the institution makes to the personal growth of students.

This section has examined and discussed notions of quality in current use within the contexts of business and higher education so as to clarify the opportunities and difficulties which exist in making quality an organizing principle for higher education in this century and beyond. The discussion has shown that quality has been discussed as including efficiency and economy at the same time. Not only that quality has been discussed in resource terms but also from the perspective of achieving desirable standard of outputs. Looked at from these sense, quality was seen as a legitimate aspiration of educational systems to make high levels of achievement, measured in terms of the extent to which this can be achieved within financial constraints. I will now turn to examining of quality principles that can be used in achieving quality management in the contexts of higher education. One of these quality models is the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model in which forms the framework for this study is based on.

5.3 The Quality Model

In this section, I will introduce two concepts associated with quality strategies: the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model and total quality management (TQM), as systems for quality improvement. These two quality systems are introduced to show that the major input for quality improve-

[34] The issue of customer as a concern for quality in the administration of higher education institutions has been discussed by Spanbauer (see Izadi et al (2000), cf www.wysiwyg: //41/http:// scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals

ment in the EFQM is the philosophy of Total quality management (TQM). Furthermore, the EFQM Excellence Model is presented first as model that constitutes the framework for this thesis.

The EFQM Excellence Model is used as the framework for this thesis because of its relevance in quality improvement. Although the model was originally developed for business excellence, it is today being used as a framework for organizational assessment. The model can also be used to provide a health check as planning and strategic tool, and can equally act as a structured approach for enhancing excellence in organizational performance. Furthermore, the model can act as management frameworks and tools for continuous improvement of services, used as a measure of performance and pursuit of improvement activities. It also has the advantage of self-assessment and is widely used in both private and public sector (Herbert 2001, 134). Before discussing the European management model in detail, I will first make a general overview of quality development.

5.3.1 Quality development

During the last few decades, many countries have experienced a growing concern for quality improvement in both public and private sector organizations. The importance of quality improvement as a competitive weapon has been recognized as a critical element of global competitive strategy. Because of this, product or service quality has become a desired outcome for improving the professional standards. Quality systems seek continuous improvement in the quality performance of all processes, products and services of an organization. The only way [...] nations can increase their business and institutional activities and develop a sustainable basis is to improve the quality of their products and services (Djerdjour and Patel 2000). Various awards have been set up to encourage adoption of business excellence principles and these provide a platform for measurement or self-assessment against world-class standards.

Quality improvement has become increasingly important as institutions are trying to achieve greater control over their affairs. Because of this importance, institutions are being required to demonstrate that they are able to offer quality education to their students. In the case of institutions failing to meet these imperatives, institutional well-being and survival may be jeopardized. Also, if institutions fail to provide the best services they risk losing clients who will opt for their competitors.

David Oakland, whose work is influential in quality discourse, has contributed to the debate on the reasons why quality should be of an increasing significance in the present decade for both private and public sectors. He argues that in the private sector, especially in the business world, the arguments that support a concentration on quality are predominantly socio-economic. He says that in an increasing competitive global economy, survival is believed to depend on producing and supplying quality products; those fit for purpose in accordance with customer requirements. He further argues that lack of attention to quality is a major source of direct costs as in manufacturing -the costs of rejects and repairs, warranty costs, inspection and prevention costs. As customer expectations shift with changes in social, economic and educational conditions, so their demands for quality prod-

ucts and services are likely to increase, requiring a continuing emphasis on the maintenance and improvement of products and service quality (Oakland 1989)

Oakland further points out that strong economic pressure can also be seen in the public sector as a reason for quality improvement. As a time of scarce financial resources and increased pressure on public expenditure, analysis of quality provides a means to decide priorities. He continues to say that analysis of costs, as in the private sector, also provides a means of reducing public expenditure through value-for-money and efficiency gains. He however concludes that government has broadly placed emphasis on institutional accountability for the use of public funds; which today the emphasis is moving in the direction of specific outcomes. For instance, such emphasis continues along government demand for improving the quality of public sector management through closer attention to planning, measurement and control (Pollit 1999).

The emphasis on quality has led organizations of all types into constant pressure to improve their practices and performance, measure themselves against world-class standards and focus their efforts on the customer for them to reach a total quality. To help these organizations achieve these processes, many are turning to quality models. Some of these models have been developed to evaluate business process. One such feasible approach for quality development is based on the European Quality Award model and developed by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM). To this model I am going to discuss now in the next section.

5.4 The EFQM Excellence Model

In European countries the EFQM has been a widely used framework for organizational assessment in the private, public and voluntary sectors. The original and unmodified version of this model is shown in figure 5.3.

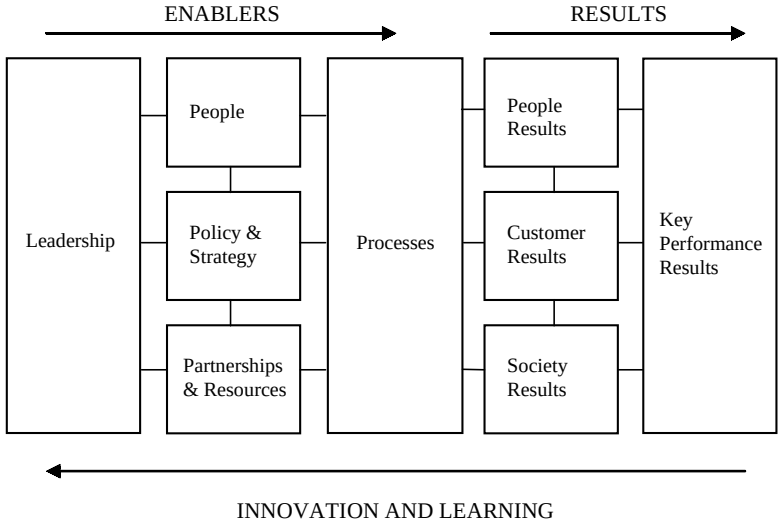

Figure 5.3 The Original EFQM Excellence Model. Source: The European Foundation for Quality Management 1999.

The model has been adopted for public management environment, and some universities have used the model for their quality development. For example, at least the Eindhoven University of Technology (TUE), Netherlands, and the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Zurich , have used the EFQM as a basis for their own quality model for the university (Blomqvist 1997, 21). Blomqvist concludes that an extensive discussion concerning the applicability of the model in education environment can be found for example in the article by Zink and Schmidt. The EFQM Excellence Model, 2003, was modified by the researcher to fit the university environment for quality management as shown in the figure below.

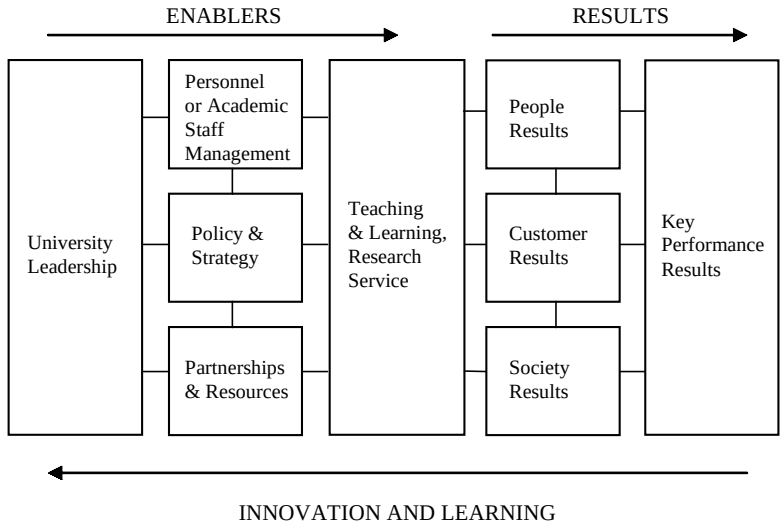

Figure 5.4 The author's self-modified version of EFQM for university environment

This business model, modified to fit the university context is taken to be a management model developed by European Foundation in 1988, with the endorsement of the European Commission. The European Foundation for Quality Management Excellence Model is a framework that recognizes there are many approaches to achieving sustainable excellence in all aspects of performance. The model was developed to promote outstanding performance in European business organizations. Its mission was to act as a driving force for sustainable excellence in organizations through systematic identification and promotion of 'best practice' in business. 'Best practice' means the most cost and effective methods for carrying out a process or providing a service. Consequently, 'best practices' can be described as the process of seeking out and studying the best internal and external practices that produce superior performance (Bogan and English 1994). European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) is a non-profit foundation established in 1988, which mission is to assist European organizations in producing better products and services in the spirit of sustainable excellence (EFQM 2003).

In the EFQM publication, the model is described as a non-prescriptive framework based on nine criteria as represented by nine boxes shown in the figure. For

a clear understanding the model components and fundamental, the model consists of "basic nine building blocks structure" (European Quality Award Report 1999). There is an established division of the nine criteria into five "Enablers", covering what an organization does, and they are the approaches, activities and methodologies used in making leadership, people management, policy and strategy, partnerships and resources and processes to happen. In the 'enablers' criteria, leadership is the driver that enables quality improvement. The leadership criterion is not just a criteria; it is the prime of the model, showing that leadership is responsible for driving the organization in every area towards quality and excellence. The remaining four criteria are "Results", which are what the organization achieves. In combination, these nine criteria represent the areas against which to assess an organization's progress towards excellence. The model is developed on the premise that:

> Excellence results with respect to performance, customers, people, and society, are achieved through leadership driving policy and strategy, people, partnership and resources, and process (EFQM 1999, 8).

Expressing this in another way, the model tells us that

> Customer satisfaction, people satisfaction, and impact on society are achieved through leadership driving policy and strategy, people management, partnerships and resources, and processes leading ultimately to excellence in business results (EFQM 1992, 3).

Although the Excellence Model was initially developed for business practices, in recent years the model is applied to all sizes and types of organizations, such as local governments, charities, the military police force, hospitals and private companies. The model serves as structured approach to enhance excellence. An Internet[35] source provides an abstract of a work by Mike Pappius of Sheffield University in the United Kingdom, showing that may organizations in the private and public sectors seek to measure themselves against the European Quality Award run by the European Foundation for Quality Management. According to this report, these organizations use the model to provide a health check as planning and strategic tool. The same source shows that the model provides a diagnostic framework, which enables organizations to:

- Measure their performance, identify strengths as well as needing improvement
- Prioritising improvement activities
- Measure their effectiveness

[35] This source was printed out from the website, it bore no publication date.

All the criteria in the EFQM framework consist of dimensions that explain what processes, procedures, and outcomes associated with quality organization. The European Foundation for Quality Management model is specifically geared to encouraging the development of total quality management (TQM) in organization of any type. Another Internet source[36] shows that the EFQM model is now widely acknowledged in the United Kingdom and other European countries as a powerful tool for improving efficiency and effectiveness of organizations through self-assessment, benchmarking and business planning. In the United Kingdom's public sector, it is estimated that over 200 agencies are now using the model. In health care, the National Health Service (NHS) executive is promoting the use of the model for clinical governance. In schools it is being used as a tool to track continuous improvement.

I have introduced both the original EFQM Excellence Model (see figure 5.3), and a modified version of the same model as shown on figure 5.4 for use in university environment. The modified model of the EFQM has academic or university leadership as ''driver' of the personnel or academic staff, setter of university mission and vision, and resource mobilize, and one that puts in place a conducive environment in which educational processes of teaching, learning and research can take place. I have equally pointed out that the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model is an idea conceptualisation of total quality management. Since there are not enough background materials where the model was applied to higher education, I will go on to discuss the total quality management and its relevance to higher education hence, as Scholten (2000) argues, the major inputs for quality improvement in the EFQM model is the philosophy of total quality management (TQM). What the total quality management is all about in the context of higher education is the subject of the next section.

5.5 Modern Conceptions of Total Quality Management[37]

During the last few decades there has been an explosion of publications on the subject of total quality management (TQM). These publications have concentrated on topics that reflect the introduction of TQM in different environments. Many of these contributions came from people with technological/operations/produc-

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[36] see http://www.excellence.shu.ac.uk

[37] Total Quality Management (TQM) is a concept introduced by business and industry to establish standards and techniques that ensure the quality of products leaving and reaching firms through continuous actions rather than through one final inspection. This process relies on the experience, expertise, and commitment of all members of an organization to improve the process by which customers are served. To operationally this concept in higher education institutions, a number of implementation models such as EFQM, constitute a method of implementation and its applicability to education describes the benefits that can be realized by adopting a quality improvement process (Lankard 2000), refer also to http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digest/

tion backgrounds; for example, Oakland (1989) and Dale and Plunkett (1990); Wilkinson and Wilmont (1993, 35–46). Today, total quality management has become far more than a set of tools; it has become a new management philosophy that leads to radical changes in the ways people, companies, and even entire societies are working together (Godfrey 1993).

Total quality management has become one of the quality improvement systems in both business or industrial and service sectors; approach regarded as one of the competitive strategies of choice (Kekäle 2001; also see Jayaram et al 1997, 75–99). This management strategy is originally Japanese quality thinking. It is a concept introduced by business and industry to establish standards and techniques that ensure the quality of produces leaving and reaching firms through continuous actions rather than through one final inspection. It is also based on the assumptions of strategic management (Hölttä 1995), an important success factor of a company and a way to achieve profitability in the long-term (Blomqvist 1997). Total quality management is a model developed by Deming in 1986 (Nightingale and O'Neil (1994), to provide a framework for debate and discussion about measures that may lead to improvements in an organization (Feast and Barrett 2000). It is with regard to improvement that TQM has made its headway in the industrial and commercial sectors and this concept is gaining support from service organizations (Yorke 1997). With the increasing globalization of markets and liberalization of local economies, it has become necessary for businesses all over the world to develop competitive strategies that recognize quality management as their focal point (Madu 1998, 735).

Gopalakrishna and Chandra (1998, 756) looked at total quality management from the point of view of the customer; as a way of managing the entire organization so that it excels in all dimensions of products and service that are important to the customer. They point out some of the principal tenets of the total quality management model, which include employee empowerment with decision-making responsibility and authority, horizontal/simultaneous decision-making rather than hierarchical decision-making, cross functional participation in decision-making, speed and innovation, as constituting the overriding objective of organizations. Total quality management provides the overall concepts that foster continuous improvement in an organization.

Soin (1999) also identifies and defines other elements of total quality management as follows:

1. *Customer obsession*, include all activities required to keep the customer happy, satisfied and -whenever possible -thrilled.
2. *Business planning*, involves the way to show and implement management commitment to customers, employees, improving quality, and planning for the future.
3. *Managing improvements and breakthroughs*, has to do with ensuring a rigorous, effective, and systematic method of improving processes and managing new products and services. This element, when properly executed, will help one move towards a mentality of creating zero-defect products or services

4. *Process management*, entails assuring good day-to-day management of key processes, which will result in efficient and predictable processes internally with partners. The result of this will be a lower cost and more efficient managed organization.
5. *Employee development, participation and leadership*, means that all employees must be educated to participate in the total quality effort. In addition, management must show strong leadership and prepare for the future by moving the organization towards common goal (Soin 1999, 7).

In discussing the implementation of quality programmes in developing countries, using Fiji Islands as a case, Djerdjour and Patel (2000) describe quality management with other quality systems, as relatively well-established management techniques especially in developed countries such as Japan, the United Kingdom, Singapore and the United States of America. The authors cited Crosby's statement that nothing is more important to the prosperity of a developing county than quality. Accordingly, the only way developing nations can increase their trade activities and develop a sustainable basis is to improve the quality of their products and services. Djerdjour and Patel see total quality management as a management philosophy, which seeks continuous improvement in the quality of all processes, people, products and services of an organization. The pursuit of such improvement emphasizes among other things, the understanding of the role of the customer and the involvement of all employees at all levels of the operations of an organization.[38] Total quality management has been regarded the fasted growing management theory today; by being a set of principles to follow to achieve quality and productivity by properly managing the corporation. Salmonson (2001) pointed out that total quality management (TQM) pays emphasis on a business objective mainly quality and various policies, practices, and management philosophies to support an overall objective and enhance quality whether it is a product or service. Salmonson concludes that quality lies at the roots of TQM. The understanding of total quality management principles is important for guiding a corporation to the highest quality standards. This will lead the manager in the right direction to instil quality in all the products being manufactured or the service that is being sold.

Total quality management has been generally described and explained from different perspectives. In the next section I will examine total quality management from the point of view of its application of higher education context.

5.6 Views of TQM in Higher Education Context

In higher education quality has been a prominent issue. Since the early 1980s the concept of quality has also been a central focus of attention in the debate of higher education policy making. Within this period also, many countries have experi-

[38] Vansina defines this involvement as a systematic method of organizational learning through sustained collaborative effort across functional and hierarchical boundaries to satisfy the customer (Djerdjour and Patel 2000, 25–44.

enced a growing concern for quality in higher education, though the manifestations of this concerns and the reasons for it vary from country to country. Research has documented the reasons or the concern for quality in higher education (Fazer 1995).[39] A committee reporting to the Commission of the European Communities has also addressed the question of concern for quality. The report points out some factors that explain the attention to quality in higher education:

1. Societal concern about the increase of public expenditure in general and consequently the necessity of defining priority of education relative to other socially desired activities.
2. The expansion of higher education system and rapid growth in the student body.[40]
3. Increased openness in most sectors of modern societies. Higher education institutions must show the society at large what they are doing and how well they are doing it.
4. Increased international mobility of teachers, researchers and students and internationalisation of the European labour market.
5. Extrinsic values of higher education, the service higher education provides to society, have come into focus relative to the intrinsic values, such as search for truth and pursuit of knowledge (Rekkedal 2001).

The need for assessing and improving quality in higher education has been well documented (Gordon 2002; Izadi et al 1996; Yorke 1997; Lemaitre 2002; Lomas 2002; Radford 1997). Quality improvement should be given the greater prominence because there has been perceived increasingly with urgent need to address a number of conditions, which are likely to have a marked impact on higher education in the future (Yorke 1996).[41] University programmes can be improved by implementing quality criteria. As Izadi et al (1996) argue, total quality concepts may be used to improve quality of educational systems. An integral aspect of this belief, in Trow's view, is that the administration of higher education institutions needs to be reformed using quality management principles to make it more efficient and to improve the quality, make it function optimally, and to ensure that it provides a skilled, knowledgeable workforce (de Vries 1997, 53). The important

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[39] Fazer (1995) identified five reasons for the concern for quality in higher education: government, which in most countries is the pay master, Citizens, who pay taxes to government, Employers of graduates, students and their parents; and teachers, professors and managers in universities. In summarizing his argument, he said that quality in higher education is important because universities must be accountable to society, to employers, to students, and to each other (p.101–102).

[40] For example, in many countries, the population of student body has grown in recent years. For instance in Nigeria, the number of students in higher education has grown from 28,599 to more than 526,000 within one year (2001–2002 as shown in table 2.2).

[41] For more broader context of this argument, see for example Yorke 1996, McCormick and Chapman 1996).

aspect of the quality management model is its adoption of the ideology of instrumentalism, technical rationality or scientism. This way of reasoning is concerned with finding the best means to predetermined ends. It emphasizes logical reality, based on the assumption that when higher quality processes are used, high quality products will be attained (de Vries 1997, 53–54).

Improving the quality of products and services is crucial to the public education system. Quality is of interest to management because it can provide a management tool, a focus for planning, organization and control. Bank pointed out that this interest in quality is as a response to the competitive advantage[42] held by Japanese firms over their European and American rivals. He goes on to state that while the initial impetus was in the manufacturing sector, the advantages were quickly perceived by service industries, and he suggests that a focus on improving quality can yield benefits in any organization, which has 'a sequence of activities directed towards a defined end results' (Hall 1996, 20–32).

The application of total quality management to higher education is becoming numerous and important. Although it is a concept developed in business firms, and based on the assumption of strategic management (Hölttä 1995), scholars such as Blomqvist (1997) see TQM as an important success factor of a company and the only way to achieve profitability in the long-term. It is a management model developed by Deming in 1986 to provide a framework for debate and discussion about measures that may lead to improvements in educational process (Nightingale and O'Neil 1994; Feast and Barrett 2000). Bettina (1992) emphasized that total quality management relies on the experiences, expertise, and commitment of all members of an organization to improve the processes by which the customers are served.

A shift from competitive advantages of firms towards customer satisfaction is one of the principles of application of total quality management to higher education; a shift that is of added relevance to universities. Although some of the methods of quality management may not be directly applicable in the university context, TQM's philosophy places customer satisfaction as an organization's primary goal. As in the fields of industry, business and commerce, education institutions supply service (education) by starting with raw material (Students) through an application of a process (teaching), and turn out products (graduates) (Parker and Slaughter 1994). If universities wish to move towards a culture that embraces positive change, they must not only 'talk quality'; they must demonstrate it in their management activity (Sytsma 2001).

Watkins surveys various views of total quality management from the perspective of higher education. He notes the widely held view that it is potentially a very congenial and appropriate way of working toward the goals of higher education, but he also cites the work of others who have found it to be oppressive rather than empowering for workers. The argument is that

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[42] There seems little doubt that in industry and commerce as a whole, the needs to respond to competition is the key imperative behind the drive to introduce total quality management (TQM), especially into Britain and the rest of the capitalist West (Hall 1996).

> ...while TQM does encourage the decentralization of responsibilities which were traditionally held centrally, this does not necessarily lead to greater autonomy. Rather the result is that employees are asked to perform an increasing number of task which are, in turn, closely monitored and strictly controlled. The characteristic of TQM regimes is the extension of management control with work intensified through heightened surveillance, accountability, peer pressure and waste elimination (Nightingale and O'Neil 1997, 143)

Thus, while there are many attractions in the principles of total quality management in trying to bring about some changes in the institutions of higher education, there is the need for facilitation of action, which might enable universities gradually to reshape themselves into learning organizations in which all categories of staff work to achieve institutional goals, in particular, the goal of fostering high quality management of institutional activities.

Grant et al. (2002) uses a quality management framework to analyse quality management approaches that have been implemented in institutions of higher education in the United States of America in their study of quality management in US higher education. The application of quality management principle, tools and techniques to solve industry-related problems has been a successful adventure. Companies like Xerox and Motorola's success can be directly attributed to use of quality as their primary competitive strategy. Quality management is widespread and heavily institutionalised in these companies as a part of the organizational culture and dominates all aspects of the daily organizational activities of management and workers. Furthermore, in the technology and the automotive industries, quality is one of the primary drivers of competition. In the late 1980s, higher education began to adopt and apply quality management to academic problems and opportunities because of the success that was attributed to quality management in industry. Several universities, including Drexel Virginia Commonwealth, Auburn, Rochester Institute of Technology and Michigan State, have developed unique quality management approaches for improving the quality of teaching, student life, academic programmes, research and university operations (Grant et al. 2002, 207–215).

By using a quality framework in their study, Grant et al. (2002) evaluated recent articles that dealt with quality management in US higher education. They analysed each article by trying to identify the three parameters of quality: quality by design, quality by conformance, and quality by performance. This model is discussed briefly below as the basic parameters of quality management[43]:

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[43] According to Grant et al. (2002) the three parameters of the model are interrelated. For example, low QP may lead to changes in the QD or QC. Similarly, low QC may require better quality control techniques or changes in the design stage. The parameters of the model were chosen because they are often used in quality practices and the model itself has been used in several industries.

Quality by design (QD). This parameter deals with determining the characteristics of a good education in a given market segment at a given cost. For example, a comparison can be made of the quality of education among schools in a locality.

Quality of conformance (QC), deals with how well the design requirements (that is, the education ideals of a university) are satisfied, including the cost requirement (uniformity and dependability). One example is that it is a known fact that Harvard University prepares its students to become business leaders.

Quality of Performance (QP), deals with how well the education serves the student in his/her environment. It is a measure of the value that students derive from their education. QP measures include the level of endowment, tuition revenues, student enrolment, salaries of new students and career advancement. Grant and colleagues concluded by insisting that quality management implementation should always address design, conformance and performance, because the three components collectively represent a comprehensive approach to quality management.

Another study in which quality management was applied to higher education was Mergen et al.'s (2000) study, which provided a framework to identify research, teaching and operational improvement opportunities. According to these authors, the problems confronting the College of Business at the Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) that was suffering from several problems, including declining student enrolment, low research productivity and decreasing student retention. Under this situation, the College needed an approach to deal with the problems. The solution was the application of quality management principles. There are still several other studies that discuss this application to higher education (Bailey and Benneth 1996; Coate 1999; Costin 1999; Ensby and Mahmoodi 1997; Evans 1996; Marchese 1999; Mehrez et al. 1997; Vazzana et al 1997; Weinstein et al. 1998). However, few other examples of comprehensive quality frameworks applied to higher education (Byrne 1998; Natarajan et al. 1999; Wallace 1999). These examples are narrow in scope and much less comprehensive than other frameworks. They basically apply quality tools and techniques to improving specific aspects of education. For these reasons a new proposal was made of a comprehensive quality management framework for higher education proposed by Grant et al. (2002).

In most academic institutions in developing countries, systems of quality assurance and control have been established but in different degrees of complexity and effectiveness. In Turkey for example, Gozacan et al. (2002) attempted to propose a quality criteria checklist for private academic institutions of higher education. This checklist was expected to form the basis for a management strategy that harnesses the human and material resources of these organizations in the most effective way to achieve academic objectives. In the same way, total quality management as a management process has equally made its way into higher education institutions in many developed countries. For example, a study by Kanji and Tambi (1999) report on the results of recent survey on TQM in UK higher education institutions, in which an examination of how TQM principles and core

concepts can be measured to provide a means of assessing the quality of institutions on various aspects of their internal process. It is found that the measurements of TQM principles and core concepts reflect the performance of institutions.

In this study, following Lozier and Teeter, Kanji and Tambi (1999) pointed out that total quality management is a process that was applied successfully in industries in the US in the 1980s. They posit that by using the process, such firms as Texas Instruments, Xerox, IBM and Motorola, were able to improve their business positions by overcoming threats from global competition and other changes in the business environment. As a result of the success in using TQM by these firms to bring them out of crisis encouraged many US higher education institutions to adopt it.[44]

Kanji and Tambi (1999) continues by saying that Narasimhan says that the first application of total quality management in US higher education was at Fox Valley Technical College. As a result of TQM this College has become more efficient in areas such as placement of graduates, employer satisfaction with contracted training programmes, acceptance of college credits at receiving institutions and improvement in its learning environment. They further add in line with Seymour's assertion that other institutions began to implement TQM, including University of Wisconsin-Madison, North Dakota University System, Delaware community College and Oregon State University. They also reported Burkhalter's work that within the US there are 160 universities that are involved in applying quality improvement principles, and approximately 50 per cent of the universities have established an organizational structure for quality. In addition, they stated that recent report on the TQM in US higher education institutions could be found in the works of Kanji and Malek.

In addition to numerous accounts of TQM application reported to US, Kanji and Tambi (1999) cited the work of Holloway where it was state that there is a smaller number of TQM efforts in the United Kingdom, which numbered about half a dozen institutions that responded to the quality in higher education study of the University of Central England in 1992. They also referred to Doherty's study, which found out that case studies in the UK are represented by the projects at South Bank University, University of Ulster, Aston University, and Volverhampton University. However, there are signs of rapid growth of interest in TQM and quality systems standards in higher education since 1993.

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[44] Lozier and Teeter say that US higher education faced its own crisis during the same decade. Reports by education authorities such as the National Institute of Education and Education Commission of the States indicate the unfavourable state of US education and a realization of the need for greater involvement in learning. The authorities also acknowledged the complaints received from various sectors of the economy, including business, industry and the government, over the decline in quality of graduates. Lozier and Teeter add that signals of higher education dilemma are received from various facets of the environment within which higher education institutions operate, e.g. demographic, technological, economic, legal, the public, competing institutions and accreditation bodies (Kanji and Tambi 1999).

The utility of the foregoing discussion is that TQM as a management philosophy has been proven to have convergent validity by way of consisting of a common set of assumptions and practices as it is being practiced in various organizations. Many TQM models, which are based on these assumptions and principles, exist in higher education institutions in many parts of the world. As in other management models, TQM models can be used to achieve continuous improvement in educational institutions regardless of whether or not the institutions encounter specific problems. In addition, TQM implementation is influenced by certain TQM principles and core concepts that are critical for organization's success, and vital in institutional development. Total quality management can provide the means by which the demands of universities, such as students' need for better facilities in the institution, reduced government funding, decline in quality of graduates, decline in student performance, spiralling tuition, and increased competition for outstanding students and faculty, could be met by making use of structural approach that allows measurement of education quality, and recommendation on how institutions can achieve continuous improvement. Other authors for example, Borahan and Ziarati (2002, 913–926) confirm this.

This chapter dealt with models of quality management in the university environment. The chapter also dealt with the concept of total quality management from both its industrial and business perspectives, and from the point of view of its application to higher education. The chapter discussed the different conceptions of quality, which when interpreted shows that quality cannot easily be defined from a single perspective in both private and public sector. The common element in these sectors is that leaders and scholars are beginning equate quality as a key organizational attribute and is beginning to assume the appearance of the highest good in organizational performance. As regarding higher education, the chapter discussed quality as not residing in any one performance indicator but it does so in a way an institution as a whole works, The chapter views quality university institution as one that has high level of aims and meeting those aims such as teaching in accordance with a set curriculum and an institution that continually upgrades its practice in order to adapt to changing conditions. The chapter also introduces the European Foundation for Quality Management Excellence Model (EFQM), which serves as an avenue of attaining a total quality management culture in organizations that serves as quality improvement system for business or industrial sectors. Total quality management was also discussed in this chapter in relation to higher education institutions. In the next sections I will discuss the "critical success factors for institutional development."

As I showed in chapter 5.3.2, these so-called "critical success factors" are what I referred to as institutional 'enablers', which are academic leadership, academic staff, policy and strategy, partnerships and resources, and educational processes such as teaching and research-two processes that when effectively and efficiently provided amount to quality learning. I will now discuss these institutional enablers that constitute the framework for this study. I begin with Leadership as the 'driver' to all the other enablers of academic institution. As a conclusion to this chapter, I would like to pose one question to policy maker to ponder about: Whose

values are served when adopting a particular model. It is important for policy makers in higher education to understand that the models can be interpreted on competing values of the various stakeholder groups.

6 LEADERSHIP AS A DRIVER OF INSTITUTIONAL ENABLERS

What I intend to do in this chapter is to discuss all the institutional enablers, which form the criteria of the model for this study. The discussion in this chapter focuses on the role of institutional leadership in acting as a 'driver' who takes proactive and creative approach in the development of their university institutions. The chapter will provide practical ideas of leadership roles within the university institution. The discussion of leadership in this chapter centres on how effective leadership in a university institution should manage the institutions strategically. These are designed to clarify objectives and then improve practice. It is assumed in the chapter that leadership should become a powerful catalyst for change if their management strategies support the development of academic staff in the university, adopt strategic vision for their institution, is a fundraiser by being able to build alliance with external constituencies for resource mobilization, and being expert in improving the basic process of teaching and learning, research, and service in the university. I will now begin with leadership in academic institutional as one of the organizational enablers.

6.1 'Enablers' Criteria in the Excellence Model

6.1.1 Leadership in Academic Organization

The approach in this section focuses on what leadership is all about in a university institution. Here the discussion will draw from patterns of leadership roles in organizations in general, to show how leadership can be understood as organizationally relevant. After examining leadership at a more general level, I will then concentrate on leadership in academic organization. The purpose is to provide unified actions in solving the fundamental problems that prevent university institutions from responding to new demands in the environment in which they exist.

One of the recurring debates in education concerns the importance of leadership. In organizations, leaders are needed to create a quality vision, infuse a quality culture, satisfy customers' dynamic demands and encourage continuous improvement. These leadership competencies are important for an organization committed to quality and excellence. When these competencies are identified, they can be used to select, develop and reward leaders in quality organizations. Similarly, leadership is essential if an organization is to achieve superior performance (Kanji and Moura E Sa 2001). Universities in crises can be greatly assisted by leadership of high quality, who for the most part successful in building robust structures and strong teams and work with them to seek institutional success. Leadership must therefore be dispersed around a university, in departments, in research groups, amongst administrators and academic support staff, as well as in central decision-making. No central leadership group can deliver university success unless there is leadership elsewhere in the institution, particularly at departmental level and within departments, which can, on occasion, confront the centre with alternative strategies (Shattock 2003, 92).

There have been many studies of this new emphasis on leadership, each taking different perspective, according to Mayo and Lank (1994), who say that the primary function of leadership is to "produce change." It means that all those in leadership position in the organization become more strategic in the introduction of change to the system as a whole (Simmons 1997). These leaders engage in many roles, develop multiple relationships, espouse individual and institutional values, empower others, and in some cases hold an incredible amount of power. Leaders in today's institutions hold a vision of what the institution should be in the years ahead. They create mission statements and establish goals and objectives to ensure the probability of that vision becoming a reality (Hoff 1999). Still in discussing about leadership in academic organization such as university, many other more important beliefs must be emphasized. First, leadership in the university is central principle of quality improvement, a catalyst for positive change, and requires quality management efforts for positive change. It is also essentially a moral and protective act, assertion of a vision of the institution in the future and the intellectual energy to persuade the community or the culture of the wisdom and validity of the vision (Lewis and Smith 1994, 113–114). Lewis and Smith go further to equate leadership with enabling catalyst for a successful intervention at the strategic management level. The individuals who occupy the central management positions of the college or university and who have the broad authority associated with these positions exercise leadership.

It takes leadership to introduce the principles of quality and sustain the practice of quality management in the university. Accordingly, in organizations as well in universities, excellent leaders develop and facilitate the achievement of the mission and vision. They develop institutional values and systems required for sustainable success and implement these through their actions and behaviours. During periods of change they retain a constancy of purpose. Where required, such leaders are able to change the direction of their institutions and inspire others to follow (EFQM 2003, 13). In *The Fifth Discipline* Peter Senge therefore, highlights the importance of viewing leadership as a creative and collective process, stating; "leadership in the future will be distributed among diverse individuals and teams who share the responsibility for creating the organization's future (Kanji and Moura E SA 2001, 701–718; Mayo and Lank 1994, 21). Senge further argues that the traditional view of leaders -as special people who set direction and make the key decisions -is rooted in an individualistic and non-systematic perspective that prevent collective learning from happening. In contrast, he also argues that leaders are expected to be designers, which involves governing ideas, translating ideas into business decisions and fostering strategic thinking), teachers (or coaches, helping everyone in the organization to gain insightful views of reality) and stewards (serving the people they lead and the mission of the organization). These new roles demand new skills such as the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and to challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systematic patterns of thinking (Kanji and Moura E Sa 2001). Senge concludes that every organization recognizes the importance of leadership in the survival of institutions. Prosperity and survival of organizations depend so much on leadership. Leaders must systematically transform how they go about delivering products and

services to their customers. For any particular organization to do this effectively requires determined and effective leadership. Leadership is about working to understand more of the whole situation and ensuring that everything goes well in the organization and that the organization is continually improved. In educational institutions like the university, leaders frequently play the roles of goal setter and motivator. It is the role of the leader to share a vision, norms, expectations, and purposes. Along with shared vision, it is the responsibility of the leader to perpetually rebuild and renew ownership in the shared values, creating and maintaining an environment that encourages people to be creative and innovative; one in which people are motivated to do their best. The leader also keeps the pulse of the organization to maintain the productive, effective aspects of current processes, and to encourage attainment of the vision shared by all within the institution (Hoff 1999, 311–331).

In a study *Leadership for Effective Supply Chain Partnership* Wong (2001) examines how leadership's disposition to whether a company should develop a long-term relationship and adopt a co-operative culture with their supply chain partners would affect the interactions and the nature of goal orientation between the company and its supply chain partners. The results of the study show that leadership has an important role to play in making the supply chain partnerships effective. Wong notes that leadership can help organizations achieve business excellence, and that leadership can inspire organizations to work together with their suppliers so as to provide best service to customers. Wong insists that leadership is a very important criterion in quality models like the Business Excellence Model and the Malcolm Baldrige Model.[45] The central role of leadership in implementing total quality management is well documented (EFQM 1999). For him leadership is recognized as the 'driver' of successful quality systems. He concludes by citing Levinson and DeHont that without leadership, quality and productivity will result just by fortunate accidents. Leaders set the tone for the entire organization, creating an atmosphere of shadow or of light. Leaders shape the culture of the organization through establishing goals, values and policies for the organization (Wong 2001, 913–919).

Leadership in the university is not one individual's responsibility. There are many different actors in leading a university institution. Institutional leadership can be in the form of formally designated roles of administrative or academic leadership, which carries different titles in different countries. For example, president in the United States and several other countries, among them Anglophone Canada, France, some places in Germany and Japan, vice-chancellor in the United

[45] Malcolm Baldrige was the United States Secretary of Commerce in the 1980s. He is not generally considered one of the quality management 'gurus', but he is associated with quality management in North America. The Balderige model is an important tool that defines the elements of an effective, customer-focused management system based on quality principles. Balderige quality principles are widely used for educational and assessment purposes.

Kingdom and some British Commonwealth countries (e.g. Nigeria) and rector in most countries (Green 1997), for instance Scandinavian countries (e.g. Finland). Others include registrars, deans or department heads, in several universities. According to Green (1997, 135–146), the model of academic chief executive officer (CEO) predominates in the United States, Canada, and to a slightly lesser extent, in the United Kingdom and Australia. This model is long entrenched in the United States, with a long history of presidents as managers, external figures and fundraisers. Academic chief executive officers are selected on the ground of their experience as academic managers who began their careers as faculty members and progress through the administrative rank, as dean, vice president and then president.

In the case of United States, university presidents are elected by governing boards, which in the public sector are popularly elected, or named by the state's governor, and in private institutions are named by governing board itself. In a classic description, Kerr describes the US university president as follows:

> The university president in the United States is expected to be a friend of the students, a colleague of the faculty, a good fellow with the alumni, a sound administrator with the trustees, a good speaker with the public, an astute bargainer with the foundations and the federal agencies, a politician with the state legislature, a friend of industry, labour and agriculture, a persuasive diplomat with donors, a champion of education generally, a supporter of professors, a spokesman to the press, a scholar in his own right, a public servant at the state and national levels, a devotee of opera and football equally (Green 1997).

Academic chief executive officers generally have more powers and they usually have control over the budget and multiple funding sources that enable their institutions not depend on any single one. Staffing decisions and control over the appointment of the internal senior management team and the designation of their responsibilities are in the domain of the academic CEOs. The academic chief executive officer functions more like a corporate executive, finding themselves in multiple binds such as being in the position of explaining the academic enterprise to outsiders, educating those who equate hours in the classroom with total hours spent on the job, defending academic freedom, and arguing for stability and preservation as counterweight to political, financial, or ideological pressures. As academic institutions become more complex, demands of society become more insistent, and as pressures amount for institutions to be more relevant to economic development, to be more accountable to the public and to find alternative sources of funds, the academic CEO model seems to be gaining appeal[46] (Green 1997).

The second model of university leadership identified by Green (1997) was the elected rector who is elected directly by senior members or by a broadly represent-

[46] Although the academic CEO model seems to be gaining appeal, this corporate model does not sit well with most academics who see the core values and purposes of the academy as fundamentally at odds with corporate style management. (Green 1997).

ative senate. According to Green, the rector is usually from the ranks of the senior professors, an insider to the institution. Unlike the academic chief executive officer, the rector frequently 'campaigns' for the office in a competitive election.[47]

Green goes on to say that the elected rector plays both internal and external role, presiding over institutional decision-making groups, as well as representing the institution externally. In many respects, the rector combines responsibilities of the US chief academic officer and the president. The result of this heightened internal role is generally that the rector is not perceived as a distant manager who is no longer personally connected to the academic enterprise, and whose chief concerns are public relations, fund raising and representation. Rectors are academics who, after their term or terms expire, return to the classroom.

The *ministerial* model of university headship is the third model identified by Green (1997). In many countries, the ministry of education or the head of state has the final say in the appointment of head of a university institution. It was pointed out that in Japan for example, the Ministry of Education approves the elected rector of public universities. Also in less developed countries, the ministerial role is more direct, with the education ministry sometimes appointing and firing the rector at will. In most countries in Africa, for instance Nigeria and Kenya, crackdown on universities by government included the removal of the heads of higher education institutions. Until recently, rectors were named directly by the ministries of education in central Europe, South Africa, and for some institutions in Mexico, by the state authorities. However, reforms granting institutional autonomy in Central European nations have now eliminated any role for the government in approving the appointment of rectors. The ministry, or its equivalent, also plays an important role in Korea, Singapore, and China. Green concludes that the potential for government interference and ideological control is high when the institution head functions more as an extension of the government than as an intermediary between campus constituencies and government (Green 1997).

One important factor in the tradition of leadership in the university is that institutional leaders play a significant role in charting the course of the university, as an enterprise that places high values on effectiveness, efficiency and accountability. In order to bring about this transformation, effective leadership is desired. As Simmons (1997) argues, developing effective leadership can provide such benefits as making:

- managers at all levels provide a more strategic approach to planning improvement;
- managers to increase their ability to overcome resistance and encourage the whole-hearted involvement of people in continual improvement activities;
- employees contributing their energy and commitment more willingly to the aims of the organization;

[47] A 'multiple constituent' electors include administrative staff, students and others, would presumably require an even broader base of support (Neave 1988, 107).

– individuals improve their performance when working in teams and project groups, and better relationships between customers, suppliers and people in other departments.

Simmons goes on to state that effective leaders have understood that their job is to lead a process of systematic organizational transformation. To be fully effective, this organizational transformation must tackle the following areas, which he describes as follows:

Managing the future in a turbulent environment. This situation cannot be resolved without management understanding the importance of involving people at every level of the enterprise in planning how to manage the future. People need to understand and 'appreciate' what is happening, feel part of a process for changing it and share a unifying sense of direction to guide them through the uncertainty. Creating opportunities for every one to align their personal goals with the direction in which the organization is heading and then planning together how to get there has become an essential component of effective transformation.

Improving productivity and quality. This has become a priority for any enterprise wishing to survive in the world of international competition. People as customers, are exercising increasing judgment about the products and services they buy and receive, and they will only favour those that reach the very high standards. Moreover, every organization throughout the world is looking systematically at how to produce ''more for less', and therefore, finding ways of making substantial improvements in productivity is a necessity for everyone.

Building an inclusive organization. The most important asset remaining untapped in many organizations is the huge reservoir of ability in its people. They must begin to build an 'inclusive organization', which is one that reaches systematically to ensure that everyone's contribution is valued and that difference is embraced as an asset rather than a limitation (Simmons 1997, 273–274).

These goals of transformation must begin with putting people right at the heart of the enterprise and then bring effective leadership to bear in order to integrate these different goals. In pursuance of these goals, leaders focus their organization on three key activities:

> ... enabling everyone in the organization to develop a shared vision of the future and planning how to achieve it; developing a culture of innovation and continual improvement towards all products and processes; and taking positive action to enable everyone at all levels to contribute their full potential towards the vision and their own work (Simmons 1997)[48]

[48] The practice of developing a shared vision and plans enables the enterprise to manage a turbulent future. The practice of innovation and continual improvement enables the enterprise to improve quality and productivity. The practice of bringing positive action to involving everyone enables the enterprise to build an inclusive organization (Simmons 1997, 913–919).

Leadership is seen as playing very important role in performance of an enterprise. In a study concerning Leadership for Effective Supply Chain Partnership (2001), Wong states that leadership lays down the infrastructure, policies and guidelines for the different functions of an organization to perform its best. He stresses, not only that leadership can help an organization achieve excellence it can also inspire an organization to work together with their suppliers so as to provide best services to customers. In conclusion, he argues that those leaders who understand the importance of working together with their suppliers would develop a co-operative culture for working with suppliers, and in effect, when inspired by their leaders, supply chain managers would develop co-operative instead of competitive goals and interact constructively with their suppliers (Wong 2001, 913–919).

In another study relating to organizational types and leadership roles,[49] Grendstad and Strand (1999) tackled the issue of roles leaders assume in different types of organization. The overall research interest in this study was to try to describe and explain patterns of leadership roles in organization, in which he makes the following characterization:

- Leader as producer: the leader incites efforts to achieve results and goal fulfilment.
- Leader as administrator. the leader sees to it that rules and systems operate well and that they are complied with in the organization

While trying to measure the relationship between organizational types and leadership role patterns in private Norwegian organizations, Grendstad and Strand first constructed two key dimensions for organizations: change as against stability, and internal as against external orientation. By intersecting these dimensions, four organizational types or orientations were identified: expert organizations (stable and an external orientation), group organizations (change and internal orientation), bureaucratic organizations (stable and internal orientation), and task organizations (change and an external orientation) (Grendstad and Strand 1999).

According to Grendstand and Strand, this range of possible leadership roles has to be determined both theoretically and empirically. A good starting point is to explore assumptions common among theorists about the basic functions required for organizations to survive, and the social roles required to up-hold those functions. Accordingly, the institutional leaders need to do the following in order to keep an organization going:

- attending to organization's goals, standards and achievement,
- creating and up-holding structures and systems;

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[49] Although the concept of role has been used widely and applied loosely (Mintzberg 1973), it has received little serious attention in leadership studies (Bryman 1986). One exception is Pfeffer and Snalcik's (1975) study, which provides extensive account of the roles, expectations and role performance of managers in a United States university housing division.

– integrating various views, interests and purporting coherence; and finally
– attending to the threats and opportunities in the environment of the particular organization (March 1982).

Concern for executive leadership in the university is not a new phenomenon. In higher education institutions generally and university in particular, strong leadership is given greater emphasis on levels of institutional organization. In their study of innovation and change in higher education, Berg and Östergren identify the importance of strong leadership in Swedish higher education. They argue that leadership at all levels in the organization must be stressed and that leading positions must become attractive for leaders. Toward the end of the 1980s the Higher Education Commission (HEC) also raised the issue of academic leadership. The Commission also carried out few studies in which the point of departure was that leadership role was changing, and there were no sample models to copy from the business sector, not even from the knowledge production companies. The new leadership was to be formed with respect paid to the distinctive character of higher education institutions as multi-professional organizations (Bauer et al 1999). Bleiklie examines similar trends in Norway, where he claims that this kind of new leadership calls for a balance between a democratic and an authoritarian leadership. The role of institutional leader therefore becomes a combination of civil servant operating in a hierarchical organization, a senior academic as the disciplinary coordinator, and an executive leader in an organization devoted to knowledge production (Bauer et al. 1999, 167).

6.1.2 Leadership in Building Quality Culture in the University

The practice of leadership is related to different images of academic organization, such as 'the entrepreneur and adaptive university' (Clark 1998; Middlehurst 1993), and 'the university as cybernetic system' (Birnbaum 1989). Dill and Sporn (1995, 138) point out evidently that it is not enough to focus on individual personal traits of the leader. The university leadership will become more critical; not necessarily leadership by individual personalities, but rather leadership vested in collegial groups and collective processes for planning, resource allocation, and quality assurance. In his broad international overview of ongoing trends in higher education systems, Kerr comments on the new kind of leadership that can inject quality in an organization:

> Leadership will be both more necessary and more difficult. It must, under current circumstances, be based less on power and more on persuasion. Even more than in the past, the leaders of the future will need to be like the legendary proteus, who both know all things, and has the power ofassuming different shapes in order to escape being questioned (Bauer et al. 1999, 168).

Clark (1998) suggests a more entrepreneurial model of leadership to bring about quality in higher education. The crucial issue in the Clark's model is, "how univer-

sities, by means of entrepreneurial action" go about transforming themselves. This transformation occurs when a number of individuals come together in university basic units and across a university over a number of years to change, by means of organized initiative, how the institution is structured and oriented (Clark 1998, 5). In a reflection on the reforms in Swedish higher education, Trow points to the key elements of leadership and the new pattern of authority. He writes that in the Swedish reform:

> There is a clear and substantial increase in the responsibilities carried out by the universities, and in the first instance by their rectors. But here we see the danger of assigning greater responsibility without greater authority. In universities as in other organizations, the power to innovate, to be entrepreneurial, and to promote change, lies in the strength of the chief executive. Academic communities are on the whole culturally and organizationally innovative or politically radical (Bauer et al 1999, 168).

For the university leadership, the unique role of higher education is to create knowledge, and to arrange programmes and courses in such a way that students will be encouraged by the creativity of the university. One university leader expresses his view on mission and functions thus:

> Our mission is to produce knowledge and to transmit knowledge. The university is the only authority which has that as its sole task. This also means that we have to produce such know-ledge which we today might not understand that we need (Bauer et al. 1999, 174).

In his concern with the governance and leadership in the university in the United States, Rhodes (2001, 222) argues for the importance of university president in America, or chancellor in other countries. He posits that effective governance required both shared goals and forthright leadership, as the responsibility of university president. The president forms the link between the governing board and the constituencies of the institution it represents. In Rhodes opinion, without strong and effective presidential leadership, no system of campus governance can be effective. It is the responsibility of the president, rector or the vice chancellor, not only to explain the role and concerns of the academic board to the campus community, but also to interpret for the academic board the distinctive role and concerns of the faculties and other members of the campus community.

Rhodes further states that the academic leader is far more than intermediary between faculty board and the governing council. The president must lead, he posits. It is to the president that the whole institution looks for direction, as the critical catalyst in effective campus governance. Seeing the academic leader as one of the most influential, most important, and most powerful of all positions, there is now both a critical need and an unusual opportunity for effective leadership. This position can be summarized as follows:

> The [...] president is one of the most influential of all position because the future leaders of the world sit in our classrooms. The academic presidency also is one of the most important of all positions because it is chiefly on cam-

> pus that knowledge – the foundation of the future – is created. The university president is one of the most powerful of all positions because of its persuasive influence and its long-term and wide-ranging leverage (Rhodes 2001, 223).

The question of university leadership becoming effective is an important one. When reduced to its essentials, Rhodes states that the task facing the university president is to define and articulate the mission of the institution, develop meaningful goals, and then recruit the talented, build the consensus, create the climate, and provide the resources to achieve them. Institutional missions and goals must be relevant to the needs and interests of campus constituents, as well as the expectations of the society that invests its resources into the institution. Rhodes argues in this instance that the university leadership should devote their best skills to dream the institution into something new, to challenge it to greatness, to elevate its hopes and extend its reach, to energize to new levels of success and galvanize it to higher levels of achievement in every area of institutional life (Rhodes 2001, 223).

Leadership and commitment to change. Innovative and creative leaders are required as the environment in which our institutions function changes and evolves. Educational leaders must be able to manage. Doing things right and doing the right things are both crucial to the continuing viability of institutions of higher education today, and will remain critical far into the coming century (Hoff 1999). Leadership should be committed to institutional change as Tichy and Devanna (1990, 28) reminds us; change either structural, philosophical, or strategic. Hoff argues that in changing society, one of the responsibilities of effective leadership is to ensure that continued learning and development activities are provided to all who are expected to perform and produce within an organization. Taking this one step further, we must strive to build out institutions of higher learning into learning organizations; for today, we need leaders who know and do the right things.

The leadership role of implementing change within and between groups is a new way of understanding the organizing functions of the institution, which becomes much more than an administrative framework for different groups and projects (Parlett 1977). The more proactive and optimistic, task is to encourage a culture[50] of quality and effectiveness. Leadership accomplishes this function by playing a very important role in the performance of the organization. Leadership lays down the infrastructure, policies, and guidelines for the different functions of the organization to perform its best (Wong 2001).

Leadership and learning organization. Many changes occurring in society today require the urgency for continuous, lifelong learning. It is one of the responsibilities of university leadership to ensure that continuous learning and develop-

[50] Rasmussen (2002) point out that culture seems too loosely embedded in the whole task structure and the traditions of university work to be changed revolutionarily. Instead, an effective kind of leadership means being able to support a change from a more static to a more dynamic collegial culture.

ment activities are provides to all who are expected to perform within the university organization. In this context, striving to build institutions of higher education into learning organization is a requirement. Martin (1999, 49) has dealt with the issue of learning organization. She points out that Peter Senge was one of the first writers to use and explore the concept of "learning organization."[51] The work is based on the idea that when organizations are large, people and circumstances generate behaviour and systems, which prevent the organization and its people working effectively. In describing the "learning organization" as a norm for institutional governance, Askling and Kristensen (2000) quote Kells who states that in a search for new institutional governance, such attribute as cybernetic perspective, feedback processes, transparency, collective consciousness, and common goals have frequently been emphasized and brought together as characteristics of a learning organization. Askling and Kristensen further define "learning organization" in terms of Senge's definition in The Third Discipline. According to them, "learning organizations" are where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expensive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together. Askling and Kristensen following Ramsden and Senge, further introduced two axioms in the concept of the learning organization that are crucial for academic leadership: First, the notion that organizational and individual learning are linked; and the premise that leadership in learning organizations focuses on building shared visions, challenging existing assumptions, and linking intrinsic goals such as setting one's own standards of quality with extrinsic ones such as finding new student markets.

6.1.3 Leadership and Achievement of Excellence

Leadership provides a guide to action in higher education setting by contributing to the achievement of excellence. Outstanding leaders have a vision for their institutions. They should have a mental picture of preferred future, which is shared with all in the institution and which shapes the programmes of learning and teaching as well as policies, priorities, plans and procedures pervading day-to-day life of the institution (Beare et al. 1997, 29). In the university community, all members should be included in the quest to shape the institutional culture and define values that will serve to enhance accomplishment of the goals in their constant striving for the vision. Owens suggests one of the central activities of the leader in this process:

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[51] Elaine Martin argues that organizational learning is a relatively new phenomenon. At the heart of the concept is the notion that to cope with rapid change, an organization must be adaptive. She sees those stable structures and systems which once made organizations strong are now believed to their downfall. She warns that organizations which survive and thrive is the one that can change- the one that can learn. For more discussions on the concept of learning organizations, see Senge (1992; also Marquardt (1996) has work on the subject "Building the Learning Organization."

> One of the pivotal activities of leaders is to engage constantly in the dynamic process of stating a vision of things to come; then revising it in light of emerging events, ideas, and beliefs; and restating the vision of where we are going that coheres the members of the organization in mutual purpose and resolve (Hoff 1999, 311–331).

The strength of a leader's vision and his or her ability to articulate that vision to employees will be the measure of leadership in the 21st century. In today's challenging and changing business environment, defining and implementing corporate vision put institutions in competitive edge (Wall et al 1992). Leaders do not achieve success by themselves alone. Exemplary leadership enlists the support and assistance of all those who are members of the institution. They involve, in some way, those who must live with the results, and make it possible for others to do good work. They encourage collaboration, build teams, and empower others and enable them to act (Kouzes and Posner 1988, 10).

Warren Bennis argues that leadership is a creative enterprise, involving all in innovating and initiating. For him leadership looks at the horizon, and not just at the bottom-line. He believes that a leader does the right things; which implies a goal, a direction, an objective, a vision, a dream, a path, a reach. According to him, a leader does the following (Bennis 1998, 95–99):

1. A leader creates a compelling vision. Leadership has to get people in the organization to buy into a shared vision and then translate that vision into reality. They inspire and empower people; they pull rather than push, Leaders motivate people by bringing them to identify with the task and the goal, rather than by rewarding or punishing them.
2. A leader creates a climate of trust. Leaders must know how to generate and sustain trust. In order to do this, leaders must reward people for disagreeing, reward innovation, and tolerate failure. For leadership to create trust, three things are needed:
   i) competence: trust in leader's capacity to do the job
   ii) congruity: a leader must have integrity, and
   iii) to be an effective leader, what the leader says must be congruent with what he does, and what he does must be congruent with what his vision is.
3. A leader creates meaning. A leader creates meaning by creating an environment where people are reminded of what is important. The leader helps to define the mission of the institution and models the behaviour that will move the organization towards goals. Leaders are people who can put words to goals and aspiration, and can use words beautifully to express the collective goals of their people.
4. A leader creates success. Successful leaders perceive and handle 'failure' differently. All successful leaders learn from and embrace error and learn from it.
5. A leader creates a healthy, empowering environment. Effective leadership empowers the workforce to make them committed, has the feeling that its members are learning, and that they are competent. Good leaders make people feel that they are at the very heart of things, not at the periphery.

6. A leader creates flat, adaptive, decentralized systems and organizations. Bureaucracy does not create leaders; they create managers and bureaucrats. Managing change is ultimate leadership challenge. Strong leadership is needed in organizations based on a network or flattened hierarchy model – a more centralized model where the key works are acknowledge, create and empower.

6.2 People

The concept 'People' is among the criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model, which constitutes one institutional enabler. Since an organization may have different people in it, one has to define what he or she means by people. In the university environment, people include students, academic staff, and non-academic/support staff. For the purposes of this particular study, 'people' are hereby defined as academic staff of the university who is responsible for teaching of students. Therefore, what I intend to do in this section is examine the ways leadership improve the quality of the academic staff so that they would bring about quality learning on the part of the students. From section 6.4.1 through 6.9.3 four areas will be addressed. First will be academic staff of the university.

6.2.1 Academic Staff

Staff as people is very important resource of any organization and institutions. As against other groups of people in the university, academic staff is responsible for bringing about students' learning. This group of people constitutes a part of the human assets of the university organization. Although this group is costs in themselves, they are assets in the sense that they are productive resource- a resource that needs maintenance and proper utilization. Academic staff is one of the most important educational resource of a college or university, and just as material resources must be given special care and attention to retain or enhance their values, so must the talents, interest and skills be systematically cultivated (for example Ho et al. 2001).

Academic staff as a concept used in this study is the teaching staff. They are a group in the university that encourages academic success and cultural competence. They help students to recognize and understand (Ladson-Billings 1995, 465–491) current problems, which inhibit their learning. Academic staffs as faculty members are by far the largest professional group and the group most directly responsible for the quality of education. For this reason, faculty development is considered as a set of tools that can be used as one component of total institutional renewal. Faculty development is expected to take a vital place in contemporary universities. The crucial question then is, how would the professional competence of the teaching staff be developed in order to bring about quality in their work? For us to answer this theoretical question, we will look at ways, in which the skills needed by academic staff can be developed, for them to fulfil their roles as educators. I will first examine the different ways staff development has been conceptualised.

6.2.2 Defining Staff Development

Staff development is a key component in institutional improvement, but this concept is not easily defined. Different scholarly studies have viewed staff development in various ways. Some of these studies show a narrow view of staff development on improvement of teaching (Teather 1979; Möhle 1979, 125. 141) or in terms of teaching role (for instance Ellis 1993). However, many universities do not traditionally 'train' their staff to teach. Teaching skill is seen as a by-product of, or even a natural accompaniment to, scholarship and competence in research; and as such is either possessed fully grown by those joining a university staff or will come easily with a little experience (Foster and Rose 1979, 33). Piper and Glatter define staff development as:

> a systematic attempt to harmonize individual's interests and wishes, and their carefully assessed requirements for furthering their careers with the forthcoming requirements of the organizationwithin which they (are) expected to work (Teather 1979, 14).

Applying this to higher education the definition covers, for example, the development of the abilities of the academic staff in the areas of teaching, research, consulting and administration; it also applies to administrative, technical and clerical staff (Teather 1979). Staff development activities, though on the whole somewhat narrowly conceived, as improvement of teaching, has become a feature of higher education scene in many countries.

In another instance, staff development takes the form of instructional development. Staff development refers to improving the skills and knowledge of faculty. This is only part of the story in improving learning and teaching in a university. Some improvement can be made by changing the reward system for good teaching, upgrading it as well as publishing, committee, and administrative achievements, which are, in practice, the main criteria for tenure and promotion. Other improvements can be effected by providing better media services and spending money on the library, as pointed out by Shore (1979) in his study of staff development in Canadian Universities.

One aim of staff development is to teach university teachers to be better educators. Arranging courses and offering guidance is one obvious way of going about this. These courses can either be 'behaviouristic' or 'developmental', and they are aimed at changing the behaviour of the individual teacher. Its aim is also to make the entire institution better by improving the individual teacher. The emphasis here as Conrad (1979, 105) argued, was an attempts at harmonization between individual needs and organizational demands, and the thought behind it seems to be that by improving each individual one automatically improve the organization as a whole. But this should rather be a continuing process always leading towards something better.

6.2.3 Enhancing the Quality of Staff

One of the ways of enhancing the quality of academic staff in the university is the introduction of development and appraisal scheme for all academic staff within

the university. This will allow them the opportunity to discuss their professional needs and development in research, teaching and administration. This process provides a valuable channel of communication between staff and encourages academics to view their own contribution to the quality of university teaching. As Roger Ellis suggests:

> One vital lesson we can learn from quality in industry and health care is that assurance requires a commitment to quality throughout the organization and works better where all play their part(Nightingale and O'Neil 1994, 139).

In an attempt to broaden faculty competence, emphasis was focused almost exclusively on helping teachers master their subject matter. Peter Seldin and associates have identified four main approaches to faculty development programmes that stress teaching improvement:

1. In-service workshops that develop specific skills
2. Feedback that provides professors with information on students' and colleagues' perceptions of their teaching effectiveness.
3. Lectures and discussion groups devoted to broad issues of higher education.
4. Financial incentives that encourage innovative instructional practices (Seldin 1990, 16–17).

Wilson reports that the University of California at Berkeley has developed an increasing fusion of student evaluation and faculty development; called 'Personal Improvement Teaching Guide' (PITG), this approach was tailored to the needs of individual faculty members. In this programme, faculty members were supplied with simple, proven, practical suggestions that can be used to improve their teaching (Seldin 1990, 18).

In a study concerning quality assurance for university teaching, Sandra Griffiths associates staff development to quality assurance; such that all formal approaches to quality assurance emphasizes that the key determinants of quality are attitudes and behaviour of staff. According to her, a comprehensive and positive staff development policy is essential to help staff deal with a changing demands and circumstances. In this case, total quality management may be conceived as a massive exercise in staff development; and the requirement is that organizations should make sustained commitment to staff development and training. This can, therefore, be taken as axiomatic that quality assurance for university teaching requires staff development for university teachers, and concludes that a good news for students is that good teaching is becoming crucial, staff development promotes quality assurance in university teaching (Griffiths 1993, 248).

A university that wants its faculty to be motivated to teach well must hold as central to the institution's mission and commitment to high-quality teaching. Universities in which good teaching is truly an organizational commitment find ways to bring teaching issues into prominent view. When teaching becomes a primary institutional goal, it should be reflected in the ways in which faculty are evaluated

and rewarded. Formal and informal rewards for good teaching serve as strong incentives. In addition to former rewards, universities can show interest in teaching and offer incentives to faculty through more informal means. For example, awards for high-quality teaching – bestowed with the same respect and honour attending research awards – can serve as incentives (Rice and Austin 1993, 23–42).

In The New Meaning of Educational Change, Michael G. Fullan tackles the issue of staff development. His view of staff development falls into two different but complementary ways. First, it can be seen as a powerful strategy for implementing specific improvements. Second, for long-term effectiveness it must be seen as part and parcel of the development of schools as collaborative workplace. He therefore sees staff development as a strategy for *specific,* instructional change, and a strategy for basic organizational change in the ways teachers work and learn together (Fullan 1991, 319).

Fullan (1991) points out that staff development for specific instructional improvement is not sufficient for substantial and sustained improvement. The strategy for basic organizational change requires changes in the culture of an institution as a workplace and changes in the culture and role of the university. Significant new strategies involving district-university partnerships have arisen and represent a potential powerful force for change for the future. These new approaches attempt to refocus teacher development so that it becomes part of an overall strategy for professional and institutional reform (Fullan 1991, 321).

6.2.4 Opportunities for Professional Development

For Fullan (1991) professional development is defined as the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement. He points out that the impact of this depends on a combination of *motivation* and *opportunity*[52] to learn. According to him, without regards to one's starting point, the evidence is that teachers will get better or worse in their work depending on the schools in which they teach. He sees continuous development of all academic staff as the cornerstone for meaning, improvement and reform. He concludes that the link between professional development and school development shows that teacher development depends not only on individuals, but also on the teachers and administrators with whom he or she works. Professional development would expand knowledge and skills, contribute to growth, and enhance student learning (Fullan 1991, 318, 326).

In differentiating faculty or staff development activities, Menges (1997) identifies three perspectives on faculty development. He argues that these views differ significantly depending on whether one takes the perspective of the organization,

[52] Here the word opportunity is used in an active sense to refer to both the availability of professional development and to how the educational system is organized structurally and normatively to press for continuous teacher development. In the university, pre-service, in-service, and graduate work represents a wide range of individual opportunity.

the perspective of professional development programme or the perspective of faculty themselves. I will treat these perspectives in turn, beginning with organization's perspective.

The Organization's Perspective

From organization's perspective, Menges (1997) views faculty or staff development as human resource management. This "people side of the organizations" as a term began to appear in the 1950s. The "human element" in organizations is acknowledged by Tracey to include "people as individuals and groups, their recruitment, selection, assignment, motivation, compensation, and retirement" (Tracey 1991, 159). Universities, like other educational organizations should be seen as providers of services rather than as producer of goods, when considering human resource management. The current tendency to adopt the phrase "human resource" from the business world as an alternative to staff development is objected to by Bottery on the grounds that it signifies a managerialist attitude of manipulation. The question raised is whether staff can be developed? In a sense, if we are humans blessed with free will, we can only develop ourselves, choosing to accept or reject the attempts of politicians, managers and trainers to alter our knowledge, skills, values, and performance (Oldroyd 1995, 77–78). Instead, Oldroyd calls for a replacement of the term "staff development" by the phrase "continuing professional development" (CPD) (Nicholls 2001),[53] to signify the notion of career-long learning as an entitlement and necessity in rapidly changing modern societies. He explained that as individual staff and their group strive to cope with new curriculum, increasing school autonomy and changing social norms and expectations, the imperative for continuous learning grows. In this consideration, the tension between the needs of the individual and of the team and school remain a central challenge to the managers and providers of continuing professional development (Oldroyd 1995. 78).

Schneider and Bowen presented two of the differences between service-oriented and goods-oriented organizations. According to them, services in contrast to goods are intangible. What students take from courses and curriculum and what faculty take from professional development activities resists objectification. The usual measure of knowledge and skills, for example, are only proxy indicators of broad goals. Also, in the service orientation consumers are active participants in production and delivery. Learning and teaching in this case are linked together as

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[53] In this study Professional Development in Higher Education: New Dimensions and Directions, Gill Nicholls argues that higher education and academic community are at crossroads. As a result of the continuing expansion of higher education, vigorous demands are being placed upon higher education professionals by stakeholders, including students, funding bodies, quality and research assessment councils and the Government. The professional development of those working in higher education is central to these pressures. His view in this work is that with formalized staff development and accreditation now a reality, this is an issue central to the career of many in higher education (Nicholls 2001).

inseparable components of teaching-learning process. The educational consummation requires that learners interact with teachers or at least with environments and materials prepared by teachers (Menges 1997, 408). From this perspective, the task of faculty development is to manage human resources in ways that create and maintain a climate consistent with the organization's mission, that is, a climate that emphasizes the quality of teaching and learning.

The Teacher-centred Perspective

The second perspective on faculty development is the teacher-centred development, also referred to as professional development. As Menges and Mathis proposed, those who work in college and university centres for faculty development and teaching improvement commonly refer to their work as professional development, defined as "maintaining and improving the professional competence of the individual faculty member within the context of the many roles the faculty member has in fulfilling his or her obligation to a specific institution" (Menges 1997, 408–409).

In a model intended for planning and assessing faculty development efforts, Menges and Brinko offered a three dimensional approach. First dimension of the model is temporal, referring to career stage or amount of experience, ranging from trainees (Graduate students) to professors. The second dimension delineates the roles that faculty fills; namely, instructional, scholarly/creative, service and personal, since faculty development activities should specify which role or roles they are addressing. The third dimension deals with organizational level at which faculty development is targeted, ranging from the individual faculty member through particular units in the organization to the academic and profession and non-academic community (Menges 1997). The final model is the faculty perspective dimension.

The Faculty Perspective: Coping and Growth

The third and final faculty development identified by Menges (1997) is the one from faculties themselves. Faculty members are likely to take pragmatic view of professional development. Faculty work carries multiple demands, it requires a large repertoire of skills, and it must respond to varied constituencies including students, colleagues (both on campus and in the discipline beyond one's own campus), administrators, and segments of the general public (Sorcinelli and Austin 1992; Finkelstein and LaCelle-Peterson 1993).

From the faculty perspective, "faculty development" should enable academic staff to cope more effectively with daily demands at work, to protect significant time and energy for life beyond work, and to grow personally and professionally in ways that enhance feelings of intellectual excitement, accomplishment and esteem.

All organizations profit from attention to the well-being and productivity of their employees. In Universities, this means giving support to faculty for their development and improvement to the quality of their teaching. This is so because teaching is the activity that consumes the greatest amount of faculty time and energy. In recent years, much has been learned about the ways in which teachers can be helped to learn and contribute to improved school functioning and student

learning. It is important to use the phrase 'help teachers to learn'. In this basic sense, all learning must be self-development whether supported or unsupported. Julius Nyerere captured this idea eloquently:

> People cannot be developed. They can only develop themselves. For while it is possible for an outsider to build man's house, an outsider cannot give a man pride and self-confidence in himself as a human being. Those things a man has to create in himself by his own actions. He develops himself by making his own decisions, by increasing his own knowledge and ability, and by his own full participation – as an equal – in the life of the community in which he lives (Nyerere 1967).

This discussion has centred on exploring different approaches to and role of staff development in school improvement by locating it within the frameworks relating it to professional learning, human resource management, and from the perspective of the faculty. As the means of development becomes better understood, it is then remembered that the goals of development will always remain indisputable in a profession like teaching, blessed with the burden of relative values and individually constructed definitions of improvement. In the next section, I will deal with another criteria in our model slated for the study: partnerships and resource.

6.3 Partnerships and Resources

In this section I will consider the different university partners that contribute to university funding. I will also examine the different ways universities should be funded to supplement state funding, through the introduction of market forces into higher education.

In many countries the state has traditionally been the dominant source of finance for higher education. Over-depended on government for funding has left university institutions ill equipped to adequately manage their affairs effectively. In majority of these countries today, the state has been unable to maintain support at levels that both enable universities financially, to accommodate the increasing complexity of the university institutions. Movement from some of the past practices in funding to new system that encourages institutions to mobilize funding from other sources cannot be overemphasized. Developing the capacity to respond to a new environment governed by efficiency incentives and the need to be adaptive cannot be achieved without resorting to new ways of managing finance. In this section what I intend doing is to examine the ways universities create partnership with external constituencies for mobilizing resources. The section will also explore different ways costs can be shared and secured in the university.

6.3.1 Collaboration with Public and Private Sector Enterprises

The availability of the necessary resources (knowledge, information and capital) to support total quality management is an issue in organizations including universities. In an environment starved of resources, good ideas are sometimes killed by

a lack of resources, and this can often be misconstrued as a lack of commitment from the leadership, causing de-motivation among employees. However, what is lacking in this perspective is not leadership commitment to total quality management but rather the reality that resources are frequently severely limited in the university. Bonvillian's (1996) research supports the view that in the event of this happening, the image of the leadership suffers as a result of this perception, which can ultimately have a negative impact on the proper functioning of university organization. The remedy to this problem is for university institutions to develop links with external constituencies, both private and public organizations to generate the resources for its activities within the context of limited resources and develop the ability to "accomplish more with less."

The notion of developing collaboration between predominantly private sector entities and predominantly public sector universities is not new, and the enduring nature of some partnerships has been recognized (Gray and Broquard 2000). In a World Conference on Higher Education, it was recognized that partnerships and alliances between higher education and stakeholders have been powerful force in managing change and prime matrix for renewal in higher education (Unesco 1998, 28). Hoff (1999) points out that it is the responsibility of every faculty member and administrator to recognize and pursue partnerships that could lead to increasing collaborative efforts in research, service and teaching. He argues later that it is often from these strong relationships built on hours of working side-by-side for the betterment of the institutions, and services provided to students and other constituents, that gifts of equipment and financial resources are realized.

6.3.2 University Reforms Through Market-related Policies

In the major reforms of higher education being introduced around the world, market and market-like policy instruments are assuming an increasing importance. As a result of this, many countries now engage in vigorous policy debates about the appropriate balance between social demands, government regulation and university autonomy. In these debates policy instruments based upon concepts of competitive market are playing central role (Dill and Sporn 1995). The policy reforms of national governments are therefore major focus of the current debates about the introduction of competitive markets in higher education. This is because in recent years organizations have realized that they can use market forces to improve their own structures (Howarth 1991).

The use of the term 'market' in higher education often implies the additional assumptions of perfectly competitive markets under which conditions the allocation of goods and services will supposedly be optimally efficient for the larger society (for example Currie 1998). In higher education there is not a single market but rather a multiple and interrelated markets. Countries such as United Kingdom have introduced competitive 'quasi market' schemes for allocation of public funding for both university places and research grants as means for increasing efficiency or 'values for money' (Williams 1996). This example shows that higher education policy in many countries is increasingly driven by the belief that freeing, facilitating, and stimulating markets in higher education will provide academic

institutions with the incentive to improve quality teaching and research, to enhance productivity, and to stimulate innovations in academic programmes, research, and services of benefit to larger society.

Providing support to students in the university seems the most efficient and effective means to equalize opportunities in higher education, and to harness market forces for enhancing the quality of higher education. Recent trends in the United States suggest that the logic of competitive market is becoming more relevant to the organization of the system of higher education. Scholars such as Dill (1997) and Williams (1996) have pointed out the rationale for the introduction of market and market-like behaviour to higher education. In the first place, it is not that the role of the market in higher education has been given a high profile in recent years for the obvious reason that government itself has great faith in the effectiveness of market mechanisms in the management of the public sector of the economy. Foremost is a desire for economic efficiency understood as 'value for money', particularly given the growing cost of meeting social demands for universal access to higher education. Also, of importance is a desire to use market competition as an incentive for greater innovation and adaptation in higher education other than the traditional forms of co-ordination; relying on state control or traditional norms. In Howarth's (1991) view, properly activated market forces are effective tool for improving the match between services provided by higher education system and the needs of its users and funders. The introduction into higher education, of government reforms encouraging competitive research grants systems, greater reliance on tuition fees, and providing incentives for private funding, are therefore examples of the application of market instruments in academic reform.

Meek and Wood (1997) also draws our attention to the market as a new steering strategy in their examination of the concept of market in Australian higher education. They considered the financial and ideological dimensions of the market mechanisms in which the financial dimension considered how best institutions of higher education can meet the cost of a mass higher education. In their view, the common policy response has been to pressure higher education institutions themselves into seeking greater proportion of their revenue from non-governmental sources through "diversifying their funding base" in Clark's (1998)[54] terms.

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[54] Clark (1998) suggests that a 'diversified funding base is one of the pathways to organizational transformation. In the present turbulent environment, universities can no longer carry on their activities solely from meagre funds provided by government. In order for universities to fashion new change-oriented behaviour, they generally require great financial resources. For these institutions becoming the type of institutions they want to be, they must diversify their sources of support through working alliance and partnerships, which bring the resources of partner institutions to bear on shared problems. Clark identifies different sources from which universities may raise money; and these include competing for research grants and contracts from research councils. Other sources stretch from industrial firms, local governments, and philanthropic foundations to royalty incomes from intellectual property, income from campus services, student fees, and alumni fundraising (Clark 1998, 6).

The second dimension in the consideration of the market as it applies to higher education involves a redefinition of the basic ideological principles undermining the relationships between higher education and the state on the one hand, and higher education and larger society on the other. Meek and Wood take the concept of the market, especially 'privatisation' as a market-like instrument to achieve both greater institutional efficiency and adaptability in higher education. They see the government increasingly insisting that the higher education sector "be steered by market forces through competitive, for-profit, exchange relationships between producers and consumers or buyers and sellers" (Meek and Wood 1997, 253–274). Also in Australia, the government has relied on "the power of the purse"[55] as a lever for policy implementation (Smith and Wood 1992, 103–209).

Changes in academic revenue flows have caused the academic institution to be steered to act like a business, and how as a result the internal management and allocation of resources within institutions is also emulating the private sector corporations. Today, it is easy to hear such slogans as 'corporatization of the university'.[56] I will now discuss this concept as it applies to higher education.

6.3.3 Corporatization of the University

In a majority of countries, national governments have traditionally played a dominant role in the provision and financing of higher education. This strong role has its roots in political and economic circumstances. Declining budgets and changing labour market conditions have compelled many governments to reassess their involvement in the provision and financing of higher education as public resources became increasingly constrained, the size of the civil service cut down, and public enterprises privatised. In the same context, the relationship between state and university is becoming indirect than direct, more supervisory than interventionist, more incentive-based than being guided. This does not mean that the role of the state is less important, but rather than continuing to be the main, if not exclusive, financier and provider in higher education sector, the important responsibility of the state is increasingly becoming the development of an enabling policy framework (Verspoor 1994).

As a result of the changing relationships between state and university, university are now made to function less as institutions whose essence derives from their educational and scholarly commitment, and more as businesses that deliver educational services and produce knowledge-based services. In this context, a novel

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[55] "The power of the purse" reminds one of Coombs' (1970) argument that money is an education system's purchasing power; for money is absolutely a crucial input of any education system for it provides the essential purchasing power with which education acquires its human and physical inputs. It was concluded that with too little money education can be helpless, with an ample supply its problems become more manageable even though they do not vanish (Coombs 1970, 45).

[56] For an extensive discussion of this process, see Massy 1996).

word has been coined to identify a significant trend in university development, and hence an attempt to structure higher education along corporate line. In this circumstance, universities are beginning to acquire market-like behaviour. An Internet source (undated) by Andrew Norton notes "creating markets in higher education would allow both a 'traditionalist' university education and more vocationally-oriented degrees to flourish side by side."

Corporatization. In ordinary language Corporatization means making public institutions behave like private business companies. In essence, this entails a process of making a state body into an independent commercial body (Bostock 1997). In many countries, Nigerian for example, it has been considered appropriate for government to corporatize many formerly state-owned providers of services such as energy, petroleum, telecommunication, breweries, and more recently universities. For these governments, the privatization of public services where the ownership of formerly state body is transferred to private individuals and investors, generally through the floating of shares available to the public, and subsequent listing on the stock exchange. The privately owned corporation will then operate in a market under normal commercial conditions and hopefully return dividend and appreciation in the value of its shares.

In the university, corporatization means that universities are assumed to be similar to large business organizations, and therefore capable of being run as business. Reading (1996) contends that corporatized universities are expected to raise much greater proportion of their own revenue, enter into business enterprise, acquire and hold investment portfolios, encourage partnerships with business firms and industries, compete with other universities in the production and marketing of courses to students who are now seen as customers, and generally engage with the market for their education. In many of these countries and at different levels of the education systems, the more simple mode of public control of higher education-what some people may call the 'command level' has given way to a combination of a modified market system in which consumers' preference will determine the flow of resources, along side strong modes of public monitoring and evaluation of higher education (Kogan 1990, 30).

Although there are talks of pressures on universities such as funding reorganization, greater competition, and growing social demands for accountability, universities need to adapt to these pressures as well as taking into account the changing government policies and the international business environment. What began as a pragmatic exercise of cost cutting and shifting of expenditure, has built itself around the notion that such measures were intended to "bring higher education closer to the market" (Neave 1991, 20–25). Neave (1991) argues that one thing that cannot be disputed is that the market ideology has served as a major lever in introducing change in higher education. Neave refers to Michael P. Jackson's advice for universities to adopt the 'best management practices' of private industries and respond to the rigours of market, which is seen as one of the ways to put into effect proactively the changes necessary to survive in a much more competitive and financially constrained environment. With this new wave of higher education adopting business practices, Chris Duke's article *The Learning University: To-*

wards a New Paradigm (1992) agrees that universities are inefficient, and their inefficiency will be improved by a series of external intervention, implemented by top-down in the main, from the management practices and reward systems of other kinds of organizations (Duke 1992, 12). Here the social process according to Duke, which is currently developing is not merely that the university should try to link more tightly with industry and business. The central core of the present focus is that the university itself should become a business. It is in this sense that we may now think of the university as 'entrepreneurial'.[57]

These changes in university's relationships to corporate clients and in associated commercialisation of their practices are seen by critics as indicators of a growing corporate influence over higher education that have ominous implications. As well, both critical and supportive interpreters and commentators on these trends often assume that the corporatization trend has arisen out of the distinct political and economic conditions of the 1990s. Many of the ancient universities founded around the world; some founded by religious orders later became secularised with long and sometimes extremely successful histories of operating like commercial enterprises. Bostock (1998) reported cases where the processes of organizational change in the form of higher education of considerable uniformity taking place in global scale. He cites Harvard University as an example of an old university to be the world's richest with an endowment of 6 billion dollars. He further says that new private universities are being established in the United Kingdom, Australia, North America, Central and East Europe, China and Vietnam. For him, the Western European countries have seen less of this development, though Germany has one such private university with more on the way.

However, there has also been some strong push against the introduction of market-like behaviour in the form of corporate arrangements into higher education. Scroop (1997) made one such criticism in a paper presented to student union of one Australian university concerning higher education in that country. In the paper, Scroop argues that as universities are treated more like businesses, run on economic cost-benefit analysis, not only is the institution being further divorced from the wider society by moving toward effective privatization, but the administration is further removed from the academic heartland (Clark 1998) of the individual university. Furthermore, Scroop echoes Anna Yeatman's view of the purpose of 'corporate managerialism', as a current dominant style of administration. He sees this as "the replacement of public policy objective couched in terms of social goods by public policy objective couched in terms of economic good (Scroop 1997). Despite these criticisms for adopting business practices by university leadership, most universities can still do a significant job of cutting cost through the same re-engineering of processes and work that characterize the best for-profit corporation as Hecht pointed out (Currie and Vidovich 1998, 153). More concrete examples of corporatization in higher education will be discussed below.

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[57] The adoption of entrepreneurial ethic can be seen as rolling back the frontier of the state as a policy of decentralization Neave 1990).

6.3.4 Examples of Corporate Influences in Higher education

6.3.4.1 Freeing and Market Stimulation

Government efforts to alter the structure of the market in higher education is motivated by a desire to correct apparent government failure[58] (Wolf 1993). Any attempt to inject competition into the delivery of public services and bring change in government steering makes use of market mechanism. The primary means for reforming higher education through market-related policies is by freeing regulated markets, and by stimulating markets through various 'quasi-market mechanisms'. Freeing or deregulating higher education markets is generally of two types. First, Huisman (1996) and Volkwein (1987) articulate the need for the relaxation of existing regulations in the public sector governing higher education finances, personnel and curricula, essentially devolving control over those decisions to the institutions themselves. This type of deregulation according these authors usually permits institutions to set and recover their own fees, develop their own classification systems that effectively eliminate civil service regulation; to negotiate their own contracts and to approve their own academic programmes. Ironically, administrators of public sector institutions who, as competitive forces arise, and as public sector financial support per student fall, often actively seek this form of deregulation for greater management flexibility in the operation of their institutions.[59]

Recent studies on management flexibility among public sector universities (Volkwein 1987; McDaniel 1996) suggest there is substantial variation in the degree of governmental control across states and nations. As international market competition increases in higher education, those public institutions operating in more regulated environment are likely to be at a competitive advantage. Therefore, the pressure for regulatory relief by administrators of public academic institutions will probably increase. Devolution of authority over finances and programmes approval to institutional level has been accompanied by new regulation for accountability on institutional finances and academic quality in countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom.

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[58] Government failure describes those conditions in which governments, like the market, will sometimes fail to promote social good, principally because of the defects of government and deficiencies in using public agencies to produce and distribute goods. Advocates of government failure approach therefore support using the market mechanism itself as a principal instrument of policy (for detailed discussion, see Wolf 1993).

[59] Volkwein (1987) provides a framework for the analysis of management flexibility in higher education, and classifies the United States according to the degree of flexibility that accords to their public sector institutions. McDaniel (1997) updates Volkwein's analysis and classifies the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) on the same dimension.

Privatization. Privatisation is another form of changing practices in higher education. A dictionary definition put privatisation as "a reverse of state control and ownership" (The Concise Oxford Dictionary 1990). In a study *Corporate Managerialism, Accountability and Privatisation as Global Practices,* changes associated with globalisation are being brought about in historically divergent national systems and local institutions of higher education are addressed. In the study, Jan Currie and Janice Newson explore the practices through which these changes are accomplished. One of the three practices they investigated was *privatisation*. By privatisation they refer to more than sources of funding for universities and their activities, but encapsulate privatisation as a range of practices through which knowledge is co modified and university services and activities become commercialised and offer for sale to private owners (Currie and Newson 1998, 148). According to Currie and Newson, packaging knowledge for overseas consumption, recruiting 'foreign' students into specially designed programmes that charge full cost-recovery or even profitable tuition fees, and selling self-teaching, 'do-it-at-home' course modules to local students, are forms of privatisation. They conclude that these forms of privatisation are increasingly being adopted in the first world university systems in relation to less developed nation's institutions.

As Berman (1998) would make us believe, many professional literatures have examined the direction of higher education towards marketplace. He made this indication by documenting the issue of corporate influence on the direction of higher education, which has been examined by other researchers such as Slaughter's *Higher Learning and Higher Technology*, Slaughter and Leslie's more recent work *Academic Capitalism*, to mention only two among other studies. The central argument in Slaughter and Leslie's work is that "the structure of academic work is changing in response to the emergence of global markets" (Deem 2001, 1–20). Yet, their focus is largely on research rather than teaching. Also, their data are on actual changes to the organization of universities as institutions, rather than on academic labour processes. However, the study presents framework to facilitate the understanding of the transformation of American higher education in the last century, which he said was characterized as "evolution of markets and management." Collectively, these studies are obvious in the numerous commercial ventures that increasingly link colleges and universities to for-profit ventures (Barman 1998, 213–214). Barman cites countries like China, Australia and Canada, where public higher education has exercised monopoly and privatisation as forms of deregulation to allow them enter the marketplace. He concludes by noting that the great reliance on government institutions for corporate sponsorship -creating a hybrid institutions that are mainly publicly funded but significantly open to corporate sponsorship for specific research and teaching projects- as a form of privatisation.

Dill (1997) recent work *Higher Education Market and Public Policy*, also deals with privatisation as a regulative mechanism. He presents three types of privatisation in higher education. The first is '***de-monopolization***'. This is a process in which a government relaxes or eliminates laws and regulations restricting private universities from competing with public institutions. He sees de-monopolization policies in institutions as levelling the playing field of regulation between private

institutions to compete for government grants and for government-supported students. He however pointed out that de-monopolization is less common, although there has been legislative debates in which some universities were permitted to operate under private laws.

The second type of privatisation is ***'de-nationalization'***. In this mechanism, previously state-controlled academic institutions are permitted to become independent. And finally, the system of ***'contracting-out'*** in which services previously provided by the state sector, such as food services, technology support and other services, are placed out on tender to private enterprises. In contrast to 'demonopolization', 'contracting-out' is being experimented in countries like United States where this policy is actively pursued (Williams 1996). This policy is most common support areas such as repairs and maintenance, food services, security and printing, with the application of specialized professional services. Williams goes further to say that contracting-out often results in significant cost saving, often with improvements in service. He warned about problems that might come up regarding the application of contracting-out, especially when the institutions lack the institutional capacity for supervising and monitoring contractors effectively.

To summarize the argument so far, it is fair to say that I have addressed the need for applying market mechanisms as means for higher education reform. I will now discuss some of the approaches by which leaders in institutions of higher education mobilize resources in higher education.

6.4 Approaches to Resource Mobilization in Higher education

Funding for universities is changing from a centralized to a pluralistic system. This change has led to new requirements in university management, which should be reviewed in universities. Faced with this changed financial environment, universities will have to rely on market competition to a greater extent than before with governments having less control over them. Here quality management should gain more important ground. Therefore, what I intend to do here is to explore the various measures to deal with the financial strains universities are facing today, through diversification of sources of funding.

If one takes a hard look at the condition of education in many countries, it can be seen that the educational enterprise in most countries is experiencing a quantitative stagnation and qualitative decline in the last few decades. Today it is easy to hear of educational crisis, and writers such as Coombs (1985) has written about the 'Crisis in Higher Education'. Shaojiang states that 'the problem of the inefficiency of funds and budgetary allocation to education can be seen as the fundamental reason standing behind the many other problems that are confronting education' (Watson et al. 1992, 115). Nevertheless, the central educational issue of the current time is that of quality: of provision, of teaching, of buildings, of curriculum and delivery, of resources, etc, in which the debate about quality is that of finance (Watson et al. 1992). Raising additional sources of funding to universities constitute a part of solution to difficulties facing education.

As governments are faced with financial crisis of growing proportion, the demands of educational provision has outstripped the ability of governments to provide an adequate number of places to students under existing structure. The governments therefore, are faced with a number of alternatives. According to Watson et al. (1992, 129), they can reduce existing levels of provision; they can reduce unit costs by increasing efficiency; or they can raise additional sources of revenue. Encouraging university institutions to compensate the shortage of public funding by 'making money' brought about the diversification of sources of funding for higher education, which was referred in literature as 'diversification of funding base' (Clark 1998). At this point I will examine the structure of funding sources as a means of ensuring the quality of higher education as an important issue for both the macro- and micro- management of higher education.

6.4.1 Tuition Fees, Taxes and Subsidies

The various possibilities for financial diversification in higher education around the world, and perhaps the most promising and yet the most explosive is that of tuition fees paid by students. The financial base of universities can be greatly strengthened by mobilizing a greater share of necessary financing from students themselves who can expect significantly greater lifetime earnings as a result of attending higher education institution, and who often come from families with ample ability to contribute to the cost of university education. As a consequence, cost-sharing can be pursued by charging fees in the university (Onokerhoraye and Nwoye 1995, 114; Yeguo and Yukum 2000, 57).

Tuition fees for public sector institutions are charges levied upon students that cover some portion of the underlying cost of higher education. This may be understood as a form of tax designed to limit the over consumption of publicly subsidized academic programmes. Despite the argument levelled against charging tuition fees to students, Johnston (1992) justifies it on the ground of its private benefits. In Johnson's opinion, higher education confers upon students a form of lifetime savings, increased career opportunities, and enhanced life chances. Similarly, students are increasingly encouraged to view university degree as providing them access to a particular level of income and, hence, to accept increased tuitions as investment or even equity in their future financial security. In this framework, Education is thus conceived a private commodity for the individual degree holder rather than a public good that serves the interest of citizens of the society as a whole (Currie and Newson 1998).

Another important emerging argument against payment of tuition fees is based on equity rather than efficiency. Because students in higher education come disproportionately from middle and upper class elites with the taxes of non-enrolled working class. From the perspective of competitive markets, tuition fees also provide explicit price for higher education. This can theoretically create cost consciousness on the part of both students and institutions, and also makes institutions more sensitive to the needs of the students. Finally, tuition fees in the public sector provides greater opportunities for the emergence of private sector higher education and can thereby contribute to the potential responsiveness and diversity

of the overall system. Although tuition fees do not depress participation rate of students, they do increase administrative cost, and increase institutional incentive to attract full-cost paying students (Williams 1996).

It is known that there are some countries where tuition fees are not charged to students in the universities. Finland and some other Scandinavian countries serve as examples. In these countries it has been the government's traditional policy to provide free tuition in the universities.[60] Although the national government provides the funding for these universities, there is still the need for universities to explore other sources of funding to supplement what they receive from the national government. It is in this context that I will discuss other income generating techniques for university management.

In their study Mobilization and Management of Financial Resources in Nigerian Universities, Onokerhoraye and Nwoye (1995, 124–134) identified nine innovative techniques for resource mobilization in higher education. These techniques include payment for university services, full cost recovery courses, investment in non-academic income generating activities, publishing, external hire of facilities and conference management, externally-funded contract research, consultancy and links with industry, foundations and endowment funds, and the alumni associations.

Payment for university services. entails universities providing a variety of services which are designed to ensure smooth running and administration of academic services as businesses. According to Onokerhoraye and Nwoye (1995), the services in this category include audio-video, photocopying, printing phone calls, computer, transport, security, and equipment maintenance. Their field survey of Nigerian Universities indicate that very few services in a limited number of institutions operate as internal businesses charging an economic fee for their services. They note that apart from the use of these services internally their external use can be developed as a way of attracting some revenue to the universities. Onokerhoraye and Nwoye conclude that once those services are properly structured as profit centres, they should be made available and marketed to the public to capitalize on the institution's comparative advantage.

Full-cost recovery courses are another resource mobilization technique identified by Onokerhoraye and Nwoye (1995). This entails that universities should design courses, which are supposed to be fully paid by those benefiting from such programmes. The government does not fund such types of courses, and universities providing such courses are expected not only to recover fully the cost of providing such programmes but also to derive some revenues from providing such courses. Onokerhoraye and Nwoye list these courses as sub-degree programmes, professional undergraduate and postgraduate programmes that are available on part-time

[60] In Finland education is free at all levels of the education system – pre-primary, primary secondary and higher education.

basis and foreign students who are enrolled in various full-time courses. The result of their survey in various Nigerian Universities indicates that full-cost recovery has not been attained in most of these courses. Such courses should be co-ordinated and organized either through a consulting company or unit (if one is established), or through an extra-mural department.[61]

Onokerhoraye and Nwoye write that another area where full-cost recovery fees can be realized is the recruitment of foreign students to undertake full-fee degree programme. But the authors argue that the opportunities are quite limited in view of the decline in the quality of university education provided in Nigeria in recent years. According to them, this has discouraged many countries from sending their students to universities in Nigeria. The alternative to this technique, in their opinion, should be the possibility of attracting foreign students through the provision of Study Abroad Programmes (SAPs).[62] The authors define these programmes as opportunities for foreign students to obtain African experience, and to undertake some studies in an African institution, but for non-degree purposes as far as the African institution is concerned. The foreign student would secure credit for their African studies in their home universities. The authors equally see such programmes as big business in many American institutions as well as other European universities.

Investment in non-academic income-generating activities constitutes another resource mobilization technique in the universities. This means that universities should make efforts to generate income through the investment of cash in some revenue-generating ventures such as the operation of bakeries, maize mills, poultry, pharmaceutical services, radiology services, mechanical and vehicle repair workshops, furniture venture, bookshop, artwork production, guest houses, university farms, etc. According to Onokerhoraye and Nwoye this is useful technique for mobilizing resources in the university, but from their research in Nigerian Universities, many of these universities have not been able to embark on such investments as a means of generating resources because of the need to accumulate investable surplus which many of them lack, because of the financial constraint facing Nigerian Universities at the present time.

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[61] One example of these programmes is the 'Sandwich Programmes' organized by Nigerian Universities during long vacations qualified secondary school for teachers to enable them obtain the bachelor of Education degree.

[62] This is an important area of study experience, which can be of benefit to both Nigerian and Finnish Universities. I will recommend that this type of co-operation be established between Finland and Nigeria, in which university students from each of the countries are made to spend few months in each other's university to gain such cultural experience and then return to their home university at the end of their stay in the foreign university, bringing home the credits earned abroad.

Publishing is also named as one area of mobilizing resources for the university. Universities have obvious advantages in terms of academic publishing. Also, the author identified **external hire of facilities and conference management** as another area of income generating activity in the university. Onokerhoraye and Nwoye argue that in many advanced countries, teaching accommodation and conference facilities provide significant source of income to universities because the general public especially for the holding of conferences and exhibitions hires them. The authors regretted that these facilities are available in Nigerian universities but have been allowed to deteriorate seriously and are no longer attractive. Their field survey in Nigerian Universities indicates that some universities in Nigeria do hire their conference facilities to outsiders who pay a fee that is not related to the cost of maintaining these facilities and thus do not amount to cost recovery nor profit making.

Externally funded and contract research is another area of concern in resource mobilization in the university. Universities have a major role to play in attracting externally funded research to the institutions. Onokerhoraye and Nwoye state that in the advanced countries some universities earn between five and ten per cent of their income form the corporate sector, primarily through contract research. For universities to achieve the potential in this area, there is need to develop a research management plan within the university and there is also the need to establish a sound financial system which will enable these institutions to price research of all types accurately, and ensure that all institutional overheads are recovered (Blair 1992, 35).

Another strategy identified by Onokerhoraye and Nwoye as a model of resource mobilization is consultancy and links with industry. These have much potential for income generation in the university. The motives for the university and industry having links or co-operate are self-evidence. On the part of the industry, it the desire to solve pressing technical problems; gain access to facilities and personnel for utilization and recruitment, have a window on the research front; and increase the scope of the firm's own research and development. On the other hand, the reasons for the university's looking for industry's co-operation are also visible. These include to acquire funds for complex instrumentation; for furthering pure research; for supplementing research or professorial income; and to increase placement opportunities for their graduates (Wasser 1990, 110–122). The issue here is a matter of improving effective management to cement collaboration between university and industry.

Finally, foundations and endowment funds and alumni associations are mentioned as other ways of mobilizing resources for university activities. In the advanced countries foundations and development agencies have played major roles in raising money for universities. Many highly sophisticated and imaginative fundraising operations are in existence in these countries and the finance they generate forma relatively significant part of the total funding of the universities. So also, in many parts of the world, alumni associations do support their universities in variety of ways. Onokerhoraye and Nwoye conclude by suggesting that university leadership should spend much of their time in fund raising and improve the

profile of the institution than in continually chairing comparatively in consequential university committees that focus on how to utilize resources not available.

In a study concerning financing universities in the Federal Republic of Germany, Alewell (1990) also identified the different ways a university may be funded. For easy reading, this is shown graphically in figure 6.1.

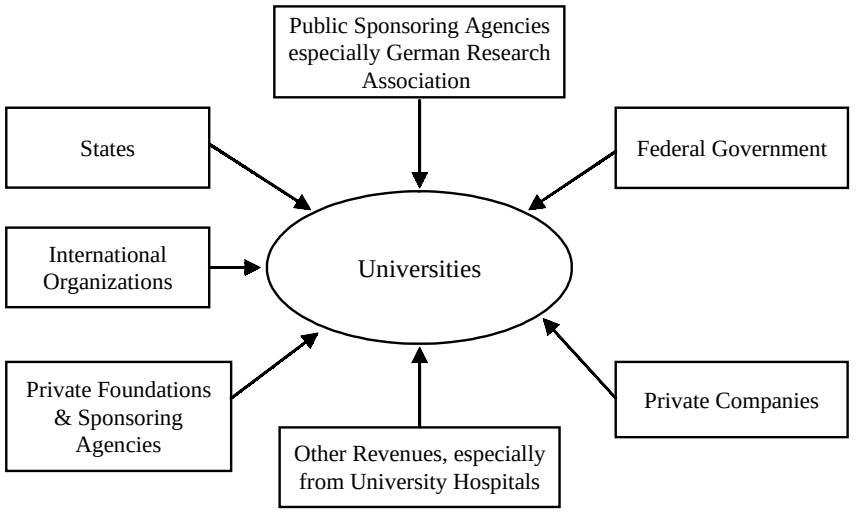

Figure 6.1 Funding Universities in the Federal Republic of Germany. Source: Alewell 1990.

Yeguo and Yukun (2000) made another graphic presentation concerning the revenue sources of American higher education institutions. Yeguo and Yukun making comparison at an international level between Chinese and American Universities in two years from 1993 to 1995, as the figure 6.2 shows.

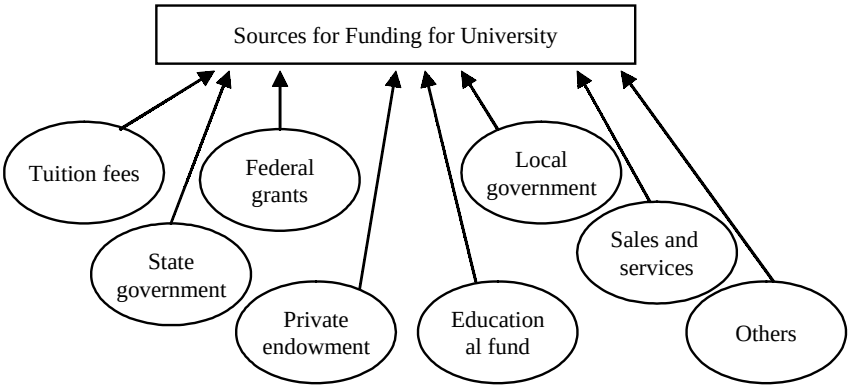

Figure 6.2 Source of funding in Chinese and American Universities between 1993–1995. Source: Yeguo and Yukun (2000).

The importance of seeking other sources of funding for university does not put the role of the state at the background. Higher education should be funded by the government at a level that permits the system as a whole to function without unnecessary instability and uncertainty. Government funding and funding agencies should encourage and assist universities to extend the resources available for their work in each area of scholarship of teaching (discourse), research (discovery), and service (application) (Kemmis et al 2000). The process of increasing income from second and third streams places universities on entrepreneurial positioning where they can learn faster than non-entrepreneurial counterparts that money from many sources enhances the opportunity to make significant moves with out waiting for system-wide enactments that come slowly, with standardized rules attached (Clark 1998, 7). This means that in this era of shrinking revenues for higher education, universities everywhere would want to faculty members who can bring money, not only through research grants and contracts, but through clinics, patents, licensing agreements, and many other products of their intellectual activity from which administrators can take a cut (Berman 1998, 218).

This section has outlined the general ideas on resources mobilization of resources in the universities in a period of financial stringency. The importance of universities to develop and increase their overall level of financing or improve their financial stability, mobilize a reasonable share of their revenues from non-governmental sources is indispensable. The undertaking of income generating activities will provide institutions with more diversified and stable funding base. Apart from charging tuition fees to students, other innovative measures for resource mobilization should include payment for university services, investment in non-academic income generating activities, external hire of facilities and conference management, externally funded contract research, foundation and endowment funds, alumni associations and consultancy and links with industry. As Albrecht and Ziderman state, the reasons for adequate funding are for efficiency, for stability and for responsiveness (Albrecht and Ziderman 1992). Examples were drawn from universities in both developed and developing countries.

6.5 Educational Process

'Processes' is one of the institutional 'enablers' of the study model. In the context of this study 'processes' is modified as 'educational processes' in order to accommodate the purpose of this study. The educational 'processes' is divided into teaching and research, and then learning as an outcome of teaching and research. In this section, these three variables will be discussed, beginning with teaching.

6.5.1 Quality Teaching in University

In this section I will describe what quality teaching in the context of the university means. It will examine the different ways teaching can be improved in order for it to meet the learning needs of the students. The diversity of needs in society and of individual students has led to attempts to define quality teaching as an important business for which the university should increasingly be gearing itself to meet.

These needs place the need for improved teaching to the fore of university business (Perry 1994). Therefore, teaching is one of the main tasks of the university (Bauer et al. 1999), lying at the heart of higher education. Teaching is a human transaction, an interchange between people. The purpose of teaching is to promote learning. In its broad sense, teaching defines the framework within which learning occurs. In a definition given by Felder and Brent (1999) in which 'good teaching' was defined as instruction that leads to effective learning, which in turn means thorough and lasting acquisition of the knowledge, skills, and values the instructor or the institution has set out to impart (Felder and Brent 1999, 9–21). The Quality of any system of higher education is contingent in some considerable measure on the quality of the teaching enterprise. This is because the university wants its students to learn and in order to bring about this learning teaching is considered a vehicle. The volume of learning, the quality of what is learned, and the psychological maturation of the students depends importantly on the willingness of leadership to devote a considerable time to preparation and execution of the task of teaching (Bess 1997, ix). The ultimate guarantee of quality in the teaching process must be in the attitudes, knowledge and skills of teachers; those who feel enthusiastic of their job and the role of leadership, and that the real quality of higher education must be measured in terms of what students known understand and can do at the end of their higher education experience (Perry 1994, 34–35).

However, in the early 1990s some studies have been reported which describe conceptions of teaching. These studies share similarities that make them valuable contributions to the larger picture of conceptions of teaching:

- Teaching as supporting student learning (Samuelowicz and Bain 1992),
- Teaching as encouraging active learning – the motivational, discussion and experiential foci (Martin and Ball 1991),
- The nurturing conception: facilitating personal agency (Pratt 1992), and the social reform conception: seeking a better society (Pratt 1992) (Bruce and Gerber 1995).

Bruce and Gerber (1995) further identified the other conceptions of teaching described in different ways, and represented by Dall'Alba's categories:

- Teaching as presenting information,
- Teaching as transmitting information (from teacher to student),
- Teaching as illustrating the application of theory to practice,
- Teaching as developing capacity to be expert,
- Teaching as exploring ways of understanding from a particular perspectives, and
- Teaching as bringing about conceptual change (Bruce and Gerber 1995, 444–458).

Rautopuro and Väisänen (2001) have pointed out that good university teaching is important as shown above by Bruce and Gerber (1995). They argue that it is undeniable that good teaching improves the quality of students' learning, encouraging

the development of both specialist knowledge and more general competences asked by the modern society and the demands of the working life. According to them, it is when students find teaching good and relevant to their goals, they will be satisfied and motivated to do better work. In addition, they maintained that through helping students to develop skills of lifetime learning, such as self-directed and autonomous learning, independent and critical thinking and capacity to learn, it enhances the capacity of graduates to contribute to the working life and the well being of the society in which they live. The best way to look at the achievement of this objective is to regard the teacher as someone who is in the school to help the students to teach themselves (Raaheim 1997, 101). According to Raaheim (1997), the feeling remains that the teacher is somehow responsible for both starting and the completion of the learning process. Also, another way of arranging the learning situation are decided upon by teachers, or some other party which likewise sees itself as responsible for the final results (p. 101).

Chickering and Gamson (Rautopuro and Väisänen 2001) have shown that good practice teaching in higher education can have many qualitative advantages. These principles were based on research findings, which were widely used as criteria of good teaching in evaluating higher education in the United States:
1) encourages student-faculty contact, 2) encourages cooperation among students, 3) encourages active learning, 4) gives prompt feedback (prompt, detailed evaluation on performance), 5)emphasizes time on task (clarify class expectations, emphasize the need for studying), 6) communicates high expectations, 7) respects diverse talent and ways of learning (create a safe environment where students can ask questions, discourage uncivil remarks, use diverse teaching activities to encompass different learning styles (Rautopuro and Väisänen 2001, 18).

Quality of teaching can be described in the results to be obtained or goals to be reached in the teaching process, either from producing well-educated and trained students, to more detailed descriptions of what the students should master when they leave the university. According to Bauer et al. (1999), a common statement was that quality of teaching depends on a well-qualified faculty that could transmit enthusiasm of their subject, implying that all university teachers should have a doctorate degree and have the opportunity to do research, or in other way, the possibility to be in touch with the latest development within their discipline. In the argument of these authors, giving the teachers opportunity to do research is one general way of doing this, and they conclude that it is only by research and deepening of knowledge that a teacher can ‘burn’ for something; in which case quality teaching results (Bauer et al. 1999, 220).

6.5.2 Promoting Quality of Teaching

The promotion of quality in teaching means the ways we can breath new life into teaching. For teaching to be made result-oriented in the way of improving students’ skills, teaching requires more efficient instructional skills by improving students’ ability to learn effectively. University leadership must champion the promotion of teaching quality. Leadership in the university must introduce and promote appropriate institutional policies and practices through concrete actions that

might be taken to support a higher priority for teaching. Peter Seldin suggests five approaches, which when used in combination must reward effective teaching:
1) changing the campus environment to make it more responsive to teaching;
2) providing the proper setting and tools to support instruction;
3) assisting graduate students to develop their teaching skills;
4) using appropriate rewards to improve teaching; and
5) establishing an effective faculty development systems
(Seldin 1990, 8–9).

Seldin (1990, 11–12) also argues that another way to improve the quality of teaching in the university is for the administrators' need to know when equipment and facilities do not work, and when classroom supplies have run out. If faculty morale should be boosted, institutional leadership should pay serious attention to and correct environmental shortcomings. He further argues that the use of appropriate rewards improve the quality of teaching, suggesting that the best route to improve teaching was to change the reward system. He concludes that a productive way to encourage outstanding teaching is for administrators to provide meaningful rewards to faculty (p.13). Seldin adds that the improvement of teaching is to broaden faculty competence through most often focusing almost exclusively on helping teachers to master their subject matter (p.16).

In making judgement about quality teaching, Perry (1991) logically suggests that the necessary conditions for teaching quality include the performance of the teachers; the construction of the course; the device put in train by the institution to enhance the quality of lecturers' performance; the necessary links with industry; the existence of appropriate accommodation, furniture and equipment for teaching as well as the backup of good library and learning resource facilities. He points out that this list however provides only the necessary, not the sufficient condition for a judgement of quality. He argues that quality in teaching in higher education equals first and foremost, means the quality of students' achievement at the end of their course. For him, it is what a student knows, understands and is able to do, as the chief and legitimate object of the measurement of teaching quality.

Finally, in considering the system as a whole, discussion is generally focused on the provision of quality teaching to merit an institution of higher learning the name it really desires. In this case, three provocative things were said about that. "A higher educational system that fails to provide the quantity and quality of teachers and engineers its society requires is not a system that we can be satisfied with. A higher education system that is not yet providing for all who are able to benefit from, and who wish for, higher education is not a system that we can be satisfied with. A higher education system, which cannot explain what the first degree certifies for all students, is not a system that we can be satisfied with (Ball 1991, 106).

Blackstone (1991) stressed the need to improve teaching by introducing the maintenance of successful reforms on the teaching side, depends crucially on the quality of inputs. He claims that as against the resource constraints universities face, it has been a constant battle to maintain standards of equipment, computing facilities and the library. He points out that the environment in which teaching staff and students have to work should be satisfactory. Lecture halls, classrooms

and laboratories must not be dingy and overcrowded. Sufficient funding must be available to carry out required maintenance, and for capital improvements. Blackstone however acknowledges that it is becoming increasingly difficult for libraries to meet the needs of students with respect to teaching, because of lack of resources. He points out that it is not possible to achieve the goal of ensuring that all students becoming computer literate because the facilities are not there.

6.5.3 Institutional Conditions for Quality Teaching

Institutional conditions make a significant difference to teaching performance. Administrative leaders in universities have a major effect on institutional conditions, which in turn influence faculty morale and motivation to teach[63]. One of the most important actions an academic leader (administrator) can take to improve teaching is to assess it accurately and reward it when effective. Green (1990) has argued that leadership has important supporting role; leadership should create a climate in which instructional evaluation is expected and should cultivate norms that encourage faculty to invest time and energy in instructional improvement. According to Green, for leadership to have an impact on the quality of education, it needs to give some attention to three qualities of educational leadership. For her, leadership must be the following:

1. perceived as vitally interested in and supportive of all efforts by everyone to improve teaching and learning;
2. Knowledgeable about what constitutes educational excellence, specifically what makes teaching good for students and satisfying for teachers;
3. willing to provide incentives and rewards to move faculty and administrators towards excellence in teaching and learning (Green 1999, 46).

Green regards leadership as a key factor in bringing about quality in education when she concludes that leadership causes things to happen in the institutions. In academic for example, leaders can influence the organizational culture to produce change. One university president articulates this notion as follows:

> I don't accept the notion that presidents can't influence teaching. They can create a climate where certain things are apt to happen. Presidents have a great deal of power in choosing the direction of a university" (Green 1990, 46).

Symbolic Leadership from the top, as Green views it, is especially important in effecting change. In her opinion, good teaching will not become a high priority unless academic leaders articulate and consistently reinforce it. For her, symbolic gestures, complemented by concrete actions, are important means of changing institutional culture (Green 1990, 49).

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[63] The key organizational characteristics supporting faculty morale and motivation to teach include "a distinct organizational culture, participatory leadership and a broad view of scholarship" (Green 1990)

Teachers tend to hold different theories of teaching at various stages in their careers (Biggs 2001). These theories are built on two basic conceptions of teaching. In the first place, teaching is viewed as transmitting knowledge and secondly, teaching as facilitating learning (Prosner and Trigwell 1999). Prosner and Trigwell postulate causes for variation in student learning outcomes that lay more responsibility on the teacher, and are ordered into three levels of complexity.

According to Prosner and Trigwell (1999), level 1 focuses on *what the student is*. To them teachers using level 1 theory, are struck by student differences. This group of teachers see students as easily teachable, or not. They assume a teacher-centred, transmission model of teaching. Here, the teacher is the guardian of knowledge, whose responsibility is to know the content well, and to expound it clearly. It is then up to the student to attend lectures, to listen carefully, to take notes, to read the recommended readings, and so on. Therefore, differences in learning outcome occur because students differ in their ability, their motivation, their background, and other differences. In this circumstance, when teaching is not effective, it is seen as the student's fault.

Also in level 2 the focus is on *what the teacher does*. This theory level is also based on transmission, but of complex knowledge structures, which require skill in presenting to students, so that learning outcomes are now seen as more a function of how skilful the teacher is. Level 2 theory emphasizes what the teacher does: forward planning, good management skills, an armoury of teaching competencies, ability to use information technology (IT), and so on.

Furthermore, they postulate that level 3 theory focuses on what the student does. Level three theory does not focus on teachers, but on teaching that leads to learning. Expert teaching in this sense certainly includes mastery of teaching techniques, which bears fruits when appropriate learning takes place. This means, as Tyler said fifty years ago, that learning "takes place through the active behaviour of the student: it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does" (Biggs 2001, 221–238). Likewise, Shuell states:

> If students are to learn desired outcomes in a reasonable effective manner, then the teacher's fundamental task is to get students to engage in learning activities that are likely to result in their achieving those outcomes (Biggs 2001).

6.5.4 Application of Total Quality Management (TQM) to Teaching

Total quality management could serve as a paradigm for improving every aspect of collegiate functioning from fiscal management to classroom instruction. Felder and Brent (1999) carried out one such research in their study, which is concerned with how an instructor can improve the quality of instruction in an individual course, and then they explored the more difficult question of how an academic organization can improve the quality of its instructional programme. In both cases, the potential contribution of total quality management principles to teaching improvement programmes was examined.

The first aspect of the research dealt with improving teaching in an individual class. In this aspect, Felder and Brent surveyed several strategies known to be

effective when trying to improve teaching quality in the classroom. These include writing instructional objectives, using active learning in class and the use of cooperative learning[64]. The authors agree that the quality of teaching programme is related primarily to the quality of the instruction that takes place in individual classrooms. They concluded that for the curriculum and instructional methods to have the desired impact, a reasonable percentage of the faculty must participate willingly and competently in both their delivery and their assessment. If they do not, curriculum restructuring and any other educational reforms implemented will be irrelevant in the long run (Felder and Brent 1999).

On the other hand, Felder and Brent continues to point out that improving institutional teaching programmes in the university entails that in each step in the improvement exercise requires agreement of the faculty members who must implement it and the administrators who must provide the necessary resources. It is therefore necessary to understand that the quality of an institutional teaching programme may therefore be improved by persuading as many faculty members as possible to use those methods in their classes and providing them with the training and support they will need to implement the methods successfully (Felder and Brent 1999).

Regarding the roles of leadership in this process, it was believed that administrators who wish to make major improvements in the quality of their teaching should therefore provide incentives for faculty members to participate in programmes such as salary supplements, travel or equipment funds, or release from service responsibilities. They should also commit to faculty members who carry the principal burden of teaching and assessment in the programmes that they will have the same opportunities for tenure, promotion, and merit raises as their more research-oriented colleagues now enjoy (Boyer 1990; Glassick et al. 1997).

The important challenge in Biggs' (2001) teaching quality model is to define what is required of students to learn, in ways that generate thinking about teaching. On the other hand, it requires that teaching not only presents students with the requisite knowledge, but stretches their understanding of that knowledge with challenging situations. Furthermore, the full implication is to recognize that it is the students who do the learning. The teacher's job is then to support students by aligning teaching methods, assessment tasks, and classroom climate to acquiring the skills and kinds of understanding that needed of them. However, in the process of the appraisal of quality teaching, our definition of teaching quality must be based on what happens to students as Ericksen (1985) reminds us. The effectiveness of teaching can be improved by developing students learning skills, by helping staff to improve student opportunity and incentive to learn (professional development), and by improving staff ability, opportunity and incentive to teach (course, professional and organizational development (Moses 1985, 75–100).

In a reform relating to teaching in higher education institutions in Europe, five areas of reform in relation to teaching improvement was identified:

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[64] For detailed reading of these strategies, see Felder and Brent (1999, 9–21).

1. increased emphasis on the pedagogical competence of teaching staff
2. large teaching group
3. new teaching methods (with focus on problem-solving in small groups)
4. increased use of information and communications technology
5. practical training or work experience as a course element (EURYDICE 2000, 149).

I have tried to examine what quality teaching means in the context of the university. It also looked at ways that teaching quality can be improved by teaching staff. I will now look at the process of learning in higher education.

6.6 Quality Learning

In this section the framework that can be used for describing the concept 'quality learning' was explored. It also examined how student learning in the university can be enhanced in order to bring about quality learning.

6.6.1 The Concept of Quality Learning

Like teaching, learning is a central task of universities and an outcome of combined teaching and research processes in the university. Bowen says that Learning is often viewed as the unifying goal of teaching, research, and service for higher education. He also observes learning as knowing and interpreting the unknown, discovering the new, and bringing about desired change in cognitive and affective skills and characteristics of the individuals. In the same way, Domjan describes learning as a change in behaviour that meets three criteria. First, students think, perceive, or react to the environment in a new way; second, change is the result of students' experiences in repetition, study, practices, or observations; third, the change is relatively permanent (Watson and Stage 1999, 5).

Furthermore, Holloway provides a useful framework for a discussion of the process of learning. He defines learning as the 'transformation of internal representations': learning may be said to have occurred if the mental processes by which one represents reality and internal understandings have been changed in enduring ways that are adaptive or advantageous to the individual. He argues that any learning situation involves an interaction of three factors: a task to be accomplished, a method of learning it, and a learner. Holloway suggests that the model of learning the teacher operates on will be reflected in the interaction of these three factors. One main distinction he makes is between an 'active' and 'passive' learning. The passive model reflects behaviouristic assumption about the processes of learning, and is based on a static conception of knowledge as a copy of reality, which has to be committed in its present form to the memory of the learner. On this view of knowledge the task of the learner is a straightforward one. Knowledge in this circumstance is objective, external and quantitative in the sense that the more one learns the better his chance of being regarded as a competent student. Here, learning can be assessed in terms of what the student has achieved, the time taken on the task, and the relative efficiency of different 'treatment': the criterion of learning is usually in terms of performance on an external test (Wilson 1981, 24–25).

In another study *Quality Monitoring, Innovation and Transformative Learning*, Corder et al. (1999) view learning as transformation. This attribute involves cognitive or intellectual change and transformation of the person. The authors argue that transformation is about the student as a participant in his or her learning process, where he or she is both enhanced through the knowledge, skills and abilities they acquire, and also empowered. Abilities, which enable a person to think critically and reflect to cope with change, all contribute to empowerment (Harvey and Knight 1996).

In order that transformational cognitive change should occur, a learning environment conducive to deep learning is needed, where the student has meta-cognitive awareness of strategies necessary to use a deep approach to the learning 'tasks' they are set to achieve (Harvey and Knight 1996). Corder et al (1999) recognized that deep learning involves relating ideas to knowledge and experience, looking for patterns and meanings, considering evidence and conclusions. They argue that deep approaches to learning contribute to transformative learning, but this alone is not enough. For them cognitive transformation requires a learning process which includes both assimilation, where new information is added into existing mental structures, and accommodation, where ideas are changed in response to new information.

There is also a need to provide opportunities for the person to be transformed. The possession of intellectual skills and knowledge is a necessary but not sufficient condition for control of learning and effective action. Corder and colleagues, following Harvey and Knight's idea, however concluded that if improvement of transformative learning processes are to be facilitated, an institution has to empower staff, especially teaching staff, to provide the freedom necessary to question the status quo and to seek alternative and innovative ways of providing such learning Corder et al 1999, 101–108).

In the active model of learning the structure of learning is more complex and the main interest is in the process by which the learner reaches an understanding of this structure. Underlying the active model of learning is the view that learning, or coming to know, is an active process of mind on experience. Philosophers have expressed this view and psychologists as diverse as Dewey, Polanyi, and Bruner, including two most influential exponents like Piaget and Kelly.[65] (Wilson 1981, 25)

In the university, the achievement or the improvement of learning is undoubtedly one of the main aims of governments, academics, administrators, and students. The question then is, how could quality learning be enhanced. Nightingale and O'Neil (1994) argue that one of the conditions necessary for high quality learning is when the environment offers adequate support for the learner. To them, libraries, laboratories and classrooms are obviously necessary parts of the environment of the institutions. [66]

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[65] Several useful introductions to the works of these authors can be found in Donaldson and Fontana in Wilson (1981, 25).

[66] Support means those services offered by teachers or programmes, which may encourage flexibility through open learning or providing infrastructure for learning groups. Environment always affects learning.

A range of studies conducted since the last three decades have sought to describe students' conception of learning, and more recently, teachers' conception of teaching. These studies used phenomenographic approach, have identified conceptions of learning, which have had a significant impact on the teaching-learning culture of higher education institutions in many parts of the world. In their study concerning university lecturers' conceptions of student learning, Bruce and Gerber (1995) characterized the different ways, reported by Saljo, in which students experience learning as:

- the increase in knowledge
- memorizing
- acquisition of facts, procedures, which can be retained or utilized in practice
- abstraction of meaning, and
- an interpretative process aimed at understanding reality
  (Bruce and Gerber 1995, 443–458).

Bruce and Gerber found out that the first two of these conceptions are also described as related to surface approaches to learning, the next two conceptions relate to deep approaches to learning, with the third being somewhere in between.

Through the result of the analysis of the same study, six different ways in which student learning is experienced, or understood, by lecturers. These conceptions are presented by categories of description each of which is labelled to capture the conception's essential meaning:

1. Learning is seen as acquiring knowledge through the use of study skills in the preparation of assessment tasks
2. Learning is seen as the absorption of new knowledge and being able to explain and apply it
3. Learning is seen as the development of thinking skills and the ability to reason.
4. Learning is seen as developing the competencies of beginning professionals
5. Learning is seen as changing personal attitudes, believes, or behaviours in responding to different phenomena
6. Learning is seen as a participative pedagogical experience
   (Bruce and Gerber 1995).

Each of these categories is formulated in terms of three components; showing what learning is, how it is achieved, and how the accomplishment of learning is demonstrated. These categories are internally related, and they indicate how learning is understood.

6.6.2 Characteristics of Quality Learning

The overarching purpose of higher education is to foster what Nightingale and O'Neil (1994) termed "higher order intellectual capacities in students." The possession of these capacities by students allows them to "form and substantiate independent thought and action in a coherent and articulate fashion." (Barnett 1992a, 58). The implication thus is that the purpose of university education is about developing general qualities of a personal and social kind as well as those of intellectual kind. Nightingale and O'Neil (1994) observed the composition of the general qualities, which encompasses outcomes that include communication skills, problem-solving abilities, interpersonal skills, planning and strategic thinking abilities and critical and evaluative skills, including logic (p. 53).

In referring back to Barnett's (1992b) statement of the purpose of the university, knowledge is about both "thought and action." Following this line of thought, Nightingale and O'Neil (1994, 54–55) identified seven characteristics of quality learning as follows:

1) *High quality learning is characterized by being able to discover knowledge for oneself.*
In this sense, the learner is not a sponge soaking up information, which has already been processed by the instructor. Being able to discover knowledge for oneself does not necessarily mean that the knowledge must be new to the whole world; knowledge simply means discovering something new to the learner

2) *High quality learning is characterized by long-term retention of the knowledge*. Here the evidence is that an approach to learning emphasizes understanding rather than memorizing results in greater retention (Gibbs 1992b, p.158).

3) *High quality learning is characterized by being able to perceive relations between old knowledge and new*. In this model, the learner cannot disregard past experience, but the ideas and methodologies of one area of study should inform others. The quality learner must always try to put the pieces together, to apply logic.

4) *High quality learning must be able to create new knowledge*. This goes beyond independent in discovering knowledge in that it is creative, but the newly created knowledge may still be old to someone else. Independently discovering what others have learned and documented, perceiving the relations between that knowledge and one's own experiences and previous learning and developing new insights would be one example of creating new knowledge, even though someone else had arrived at the same insight previously.

5) *High quality learning is characterized by one's ability to apply one's knowledge to solving problems*. For instance, putting the pieces of data, information, experience, etc. together is necessary to solving problems.

6) *High quality learning entails the ability to communicate one's knowledge to others*. Barnett says earlier that the learner must "form and substantiate independent thought and action in a coherent and articulate fashion." Communication of knowledge almost always requires the spoken and/ or written word, but it may also require skills of numeracy, skills in graphical representation, technical drawing, musical notation, interpersonal skills as well as logic, etc.

7) *High quality learning is characterized by one's desire to know more*. Enabling people to become lifelong learners has become part of the educational business (Duke 1992).

Bearing in mind that one may not immediately apply the knowledge, but one would be able to if one engages in a programme of study, which led to high quality learning. This brings us to consider the conditions under which high quality learning is likely to occur.

Nightingale and O'Neil further review the conditions necessary for high quality learning. According to these authors, the following conditions are necessary for high quality learning to occur:

1) High quality learning occurs when the learner is ready – cognitively and emotionally – to meet the demands of learning task. Readiness is an important concept in designing learning programmes. For instance, it is obviously pointless asking people to undertake tasks for which they do not have the skills. On the other hand, acquiring skills seems to be more effectively achieved if one wants the skills in order to complete a task at hand, so for the facilitator of learning there is a balancing act in structuring a programme. Emotional readiness is less often considered than having skills or prerequisite knowledge in higher education is important. As learners in higher education classrooms become even more diverse, creating a climate, which is conducive to high quality learning will become more challenging.

2) High quality learning occurs when the learner has a reason for learning. The better the reason, the better the learning.

3) High quality learning occurs when the learner explicitly relates previous knowledge to the new. One of the problems with curriculum planning in higher education is the specialist's assumption that learners need to acquire all the 'basics' before they can move on to the 'good stuff'. It is the teacher's and programmes planner's responsibility to help learners recover relevant learning from their past and build upon it.

4) *High quality learning occurs when the learner is active during learning.* Logically no one can be passive during learning, but there is a difference in the activity of a student transcribing dictation in a lecture hall and the student who is truly engaged in the learning process. People learn through doing; that is the foundation of problem-based learning programmes. But even at more mundane levels, en-

couraging interaction between students in a lecture or designing assessment tasks, which require different types of activity than library research or working sets of traditional problems can increase the purposeful and meaningful activity for the learners.

5) High quality learning occurs when the environment offers adequate support for the learner. In many countries such as the UK and Australia governments are decreasing the unit of resource to higher education. But libraries, laboratories and classrooms are obviously necessary part of the environment and institutions – even relatively wealthy ones – are having trouble maintaining a very basic environment for learning. In addition the environment includes the climate of the society, the things people say and write about the institution and their students. Finally, within the institution the environment affects students' learning. Institutional leaders who seem to care about students' progress and who not only help to locate resources but also encourage students to 'hang in there' at rough times of the year make a big difference to the environment. These may be mundane examples but they are part of what is meant by a total quality learning environment (Nightingale and O'Neil 1994, 56–58).

In a study concerning *Students' Models of University Teaching*, Jones (1981) found out that learning means different things to different students, and that the constraints of learning task or course, the individual students' conception of learning and knowledge, and facility in implementing appropriate study strategies affect the quality of the learning outcomes. In describing the quality of learning, which a student has achieved is found difficult, but however points out that the different contexts for learning will generate different options as to what constitutes "quality" of learning. Jones draws from works by Matthias, Gaff and his colleagues, and Ramsden, which indicated that different learning environments do in fact bring about different responses from and behaviours in students.

6.6.3 Improving Learning in the University

In recent years researchers have paid considerable attention to the topic of improving student learning. Scholars such as Glatthorn and Fox (1996); Trigwell and Prosser (1991) have all dealt with the topic.

In his study of the strategies of improving learning, Ramsden (1988) presents a distinct view of how learning in educational institutions can be improved. He is concerned with presenting an argument for how education can be enhanced, which he regards as how to develop professionalism in teaching by sharpening some insights into learning. Though he suggests that teaching should be directed towards helping students to understand phenomena and ideas in the way that scientists, or historians or other subject experts understand them, he regards teaching as an activity that assumes an understanding of learning (Ramsden 1988, 13).

Ramsden argues that learning should be improved, and that what needs to be improved is the methods of teaching. He warns that teachers should discourage superficial approaches to learning by students. That students should be allowed to

avoid changing their conceptions related to the world around them, termed "learning from external imposition" or "surface" learning. According to Ramsden, surface learning is when one concentrates on memorizing facts that leads to poor learning or understanding and knowledge of detail. Alternatively, if a student intends to understand and interact vigorously with the content of the learned material, a "deep approach" results. Here there is a better chance for the student to get the author's message and be able to remember the supporting facts. The 'content' and 'process' of learning (the 'what' and the 'how' of learning) form part of unified whole (Ramsden 1988, 18). Other studies such as that conducted by Byrne et al. (2002) have also discussed these main levels of processing which are clearly related to qualitative differences in how students respond to a learning tasks, in form of *deep* and *surface* approaches. Concerning deep and surface approaches to learning, Byrne and colleagues conclude that a deep approach is more likely to result in a high level of understanding while a surface approach is likely to lead to a low level of understanding, as pointed out by researchers like Entwistle and Ramsden. Byrne et al (2002) however, identified a third approach, which Ramsden called a strategic approach. This describes students who are primarily concerned with achieving the highest possible grades. They use both deep and surface approaches as appropriate and have a competitive and vocational motivation (Byrne et al. 2002, 18–29).[67]

Ramsden further states that deep approaches to learning exemplify the type of learning that employers and teachers expect students to demonstrate. By using these approaches can students gain mastery of concepts and firm hold on detailed factual knowledge in a given subject area. Such approaches embody the imaginative and adaptive skills and wide sphere of interests that are increasingly demanded in the world of work. In contrast, surface learning approaches epitomize low-quality learning, are geared to short-term requirements, and focus on the need to reproduce fragments of information presented in the textbooks or classroom. These superficial relations with subject content lead to poor long-term misunderstanding of fundamental principles and concepts. Still worse, the habitual use of surface approaches may leave students with the idea that 'learning' belongs exclusively to an artificial realm of pleasing teachers and passing examinations. Instead of being a window through which the real world can be seen more clearly, learning becomes nothing more than the tedious recapitulation of other people's ideas, the substitution of numbers into formula, or retelling of facts as Entwistle and Marton pointed out (Ramsden 1988, 20; Ramsden 1983, 691–705).

In his contribution to the debate concerning learning in universities and colleges, Barlow (1997) describes learning as a complex process in which people learn in their own way. Following Rumelhart and Norman, Barlow describes learning in terms of three mental processes: accretion, (re) structuring and tuning. Barlow regards *accretion* as the most basic form of learning, involving learning items or

[67] More readings concerning deep and surface approaches to student learning can be made Entwistle and Tait (1990; Thomas and Bain 1982, 249–259).

facts, which earlier research has concentrated upon as purely memory-based level of learning. Barlow points out that Rumelhart and Norman broke from this mechanistic view in the 1970s to try to define the mental processes involved in organizing and reorganizing facts and perfections. They used the term '*structuring'* to describe the building of a mental 'scheme' for a particular set of facts. Their term 'tuning' describes the continual adjustment which are made in order to fit one's knowledge to the demands of the situation. *Tuning* is the process whereby skills are developed and perfected through practice. The term 'structuring' is used to describe the most painful aspect of learning, which involves breaking down one or more existing schemata and creating a new pattern of understanding (Barlow 1997, 58). Figure 6.3 illustrates the relationships between the different mental processes.

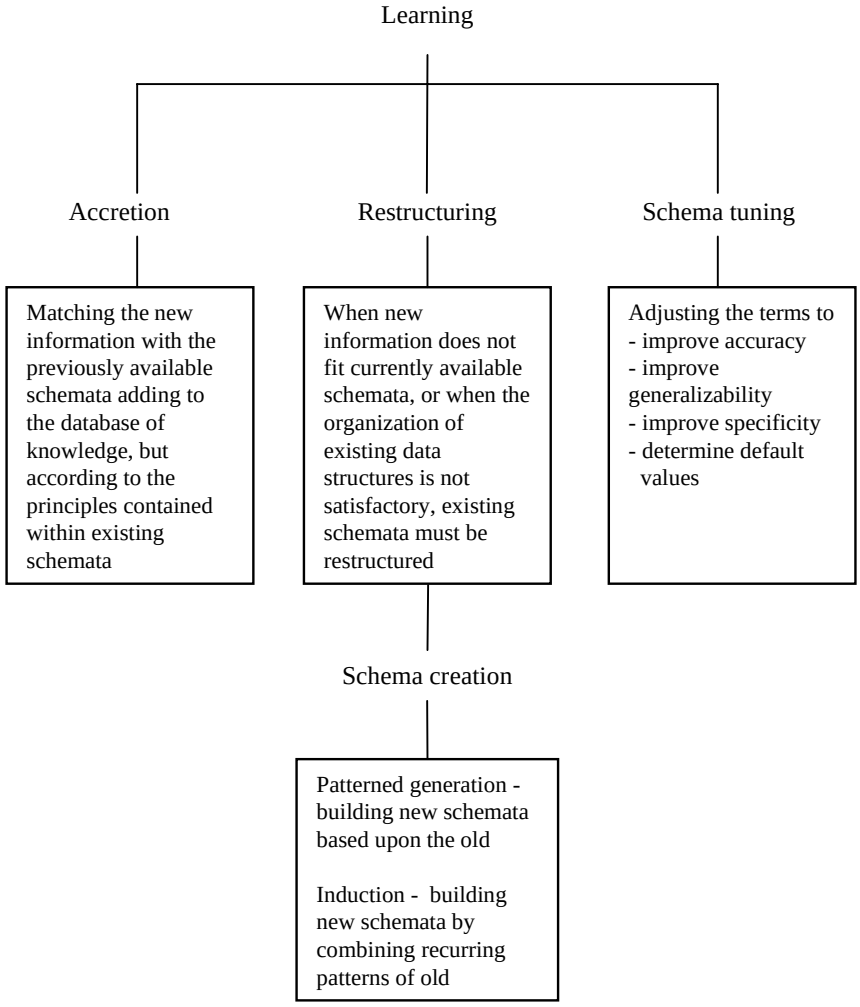

Figure 6.3 Relationships between the three different mental processes.
Source: Barlow (1997, 59).

Like Ramsden's (1988) approaches to learning, Barlow states that the quality of student learning is described in terms of surface and deep learning approaches.[68] In line with the categorization of the Committee of Scottish University Principals, the surface approach to learning is characterized by

- Intention simply to reproduce parts of the content
- Accepting ideas and information passively
- Concentrating only on assessment requirements
- Not reflecting on purpose or strategies in learning
- memorizing facts and procedures routinely
- Failing to recognize guiding principles or patterns (Barlow 1997, 61).

Correspondingly, surface approach to learning is encouraged by:

- Assessment methods emphasizing recall or the application of trivial procedural knowledge
- Assessment methods that create anxiety
- Cynical or conflicting messages about rewards
- An excessive amount of material in the curriculum
- Poor or absent feedback on progress
- Lack of independence in studying
- Lack of interest in and background knowledge of the subject matter
- Previous experiences of educational settings that encourage these approaches

A deep approach to learning is further described in line with the Committee of Scottish university Principals' (CSUP) description:

- Intention to understand material for oneself
- Interacting vigorously and critically with content
- Relating ideas to previous knowledge/experience
- Using organising principles to integrate ideas
- Relating evidence to conclusions
- Examining the logic of the argument (p.61)

From the point of view of learning context as was written by Ramsden, deep approaches to learning are encouraged by

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[68] In his The Quest for Quality (1995) Sinclair Goodlad also dealt with differences in the way in which students went about their learning. Here he argues in line with Marton's argument that when student concentrate on trying to identify key facts and ideas on which they expected to be questioned afterwards, are exhibiting surface approach to learning. In the same way by contrast, students who try to understand the evidence and judge the argument, were using what Marton also called deep approach to learning – one more like that which university teachers often like to think they encourage. He concludes by saying that recent research has shwon that students who used the deep approach tended to be more successful in their studies than the students who used the surface approach, even when the examinations tested factual recall (Goodlad 1995, 47).

– teaching and assessment methods that foster active and long-term engagement with learning tasks;
– stimulating and considerate teaching, especially teaching which demonstrates the lecturer's personal commitment to the subject matter and stresses it meaning and relevance to students
– clearly stated academic expectations
– opportunities to exercise responsible choice in the method and content of study
– interest in and background knowledge of the subject matter
– previous experiences of educational settings that encourage these approaches (p.61).

Professor Noel Entwistle of Edinburgh University adds another dimension to these orientations to studying or approaches to learning. He talks about a 'strategic approach'. According to him, students who adopt this approach are particularly selective as to how they invest their time and energy in studying, aiming to do the minimum to achieve success in terms of passing their course (Barlow 1997, 61). It was further stated by Thomas and Anderson that the very important aspect of this strategic approach, supposedly what higher education should be, is that:

> The learning situation should place the learner in a position of directing and leading their own learning, enhancing their capacity to be independent learners, to look for their own resources for interpretation, problem-solving and for finding out rather than developing a dependency on an external expert who will not be present when learners confront those challenges for which their education has supposedly prepared them (Barlow 1997, 63)

Barlow therefore asserts that the most important task of education nowadays is to help students develop a repertoire of skills for learning which will enable them to respond flexibly in future contexts of life and work and to become lifelong learners (Barlow 1997, 63). Barlow further discusses the four key elements used by John Biggs, which help to foster this approach in students. These elements need to feature in the way courses are designed and the processes of learning that are required for success:

1. **Motivational context**, involving intrinsic motivation, the development of a love of the subject of the subject for its own sake, not just wanting to succeed in examinations. It is part of the role of teachers to motivate students, and inspired teachers can succeed greatly in this
2. **Learner activity** means that the learning process need to include well-planned activity, with reflection on the outcomes of the activity and encouragement to relate it to theory
3. **Interaction with others** refers to the fact that discussion is very powerful in forming and reinforcing understanding. It needs to be built into courses of study, and students should be encouraged to take advantage of any peer-tutoring systems that are organized, and also to inform their own learningteams. Pask uses the word 'conversation', sometimes meaning internaldialogue. Little learning can occur without conversation. True

learners are interested in different point of view and inhibit a natural dialogue about the subject they are studying. One might go so far as to say that human life is characterized by a search for meaning, and this finds its expression through education.

4. **Well-structured knowledge base** means that it is essential to work from students' existing knowledge and to present new subject matter in a structured and integrated way (Barlow 1997, 63).

6.6.4 Quality Management and Learning

University programmes such as learning can be improved by implementing the quality criteria. Total quality management allows internal and external customers to communicate with faculty to continuously improve educational processes. Sherr and Teeter declared that TQM could serve as a paradigm for improving every aspect of collegiate functioning from fiscal administration to classroom instruction (Felder and Brent 1999, 9–21). In the use of quality principles in educational improvement, terms like "customer" and "customer focus" have appearing with regularity in education journals and in administrative pronouncements. Deming himself suggested the linkage between quality management principles and education, by claiming that "...improvement for education, and the management of education, require application of the same principles that must be used for the improvement of any process, manufacture or service (Deming 1994).

6.7 Quality Research

In this section I will concentrate on different ways of looking at research and what constitutes quality research. I will also attempt to examine the role of research and ways institutional administrators improve the quality of research.

6.7.1 Research and Higher Education

In research literature, research is seen as in deed part of the meaning of university, and no bona-fide university could exist without conducting research (Barnett 1990, 122; Moses 1990). Barnett stresses that for many years now, research has become a big business, and has been a key element in the formation of new academic disciplines. According to him, being a costly enterprise and having many uses to the modern state, research has become part of the academic currency (p.124). Barnett (1990) has also pointed out that research is born by a coincidence of social interests: of the academic community, of industry and of the state. In this context, he sees research as an attempt to produce objective knowledge, independent of personal viewpoint (p.124). He however defines research as a systematic human endeavour intended to produce a level of impersonal knowledge, standing outside individuals, and concludes that this world of knowledge and understanding created through research has opened up infinite possibilities for higher education, and so research has become undeniably linked to our modern understanding of higher education. For a genuine higher education to take place, research has to be undertaken somewhere; upon which programmes of study will in part be based (Barnett 1990, 128).

In an analysis of relationships between higher education and research, Neumann (1993) argues that it is virtually impossible to imagine present day universities without research and that out notion of research has been accepted as an appropriate activity for higher education. In her study of senior academic administrators of research and scholarship, she sees research as an integral part of universities in which the nature and division of academic work reflects the importance of research and the organization of universities provides the framework for its productive existence. According to her, the organization of universities into departments according to the British and American models and chairs according to European (German) model provides the structural framework for academic work to be pursued. Research is one aspect of the culture of institutions of higher education. In the university, research is one of the main tasks.

6.7.2 Views of Research

One of the important questions confronting us is to identify what is meant by research. In order to understand this question, I have to explore different definitions offered in literature concerning research. In the first place, research is defined as adding to the sum total of human knowledge (Wilson 1989, 47). In writing about research in super complex world, Barnett (2000) opined that academicians are paid to know things; they are trusted to conduct their inquiries with integrity. Barnett sees university as a site of original inquiry for generating and for managing uncertainty; which is university's research function. According to him, research should be understood as involving creating and managing uncertainty in the wider society or in the public domain. Research has become an institutionalised means of generating uncertainty in our frames of understanding. It has tended to take the form of filling in details in our conceptual or empirical map of the world. Research has willingly confined itself to sharing up the existing pillars of knowledge. Research has contended itself in being a force for stability, entrenching existing frames of understanding (Barnett 2000, 143).

Barnett further regards the feature of research as reinforcing characteristic; as being reactive than revolutionary. For him research reinforces what we have learnt from earlier research. Research gains its legitimacy by telling us something new; and this newness takes us forward in some way. Unless research is fulfilling this reframing criterion, it cannot be a serious contender for the title of re-search. Barnett noted that research is reframing because it is intended to contribute to the ever-continuing accumulation of understanding of the world, no matter the continuation en route. This he refers to as its "Timelessness character." His belief that research should have reframing qualities is simply to say that academic research should recognize that reframing is part of the global age (Barnett 2000, 143). Barnett further talks of "reshaping research", in which he sees the concept of research to be elastic. For him, technology transfer, action research, consultancy, establishing patents, the resolving of social and technological problems, and the creation of software -all these activities remind us of the widening but increasingly uncertain scope of research in the modern world (Barnett 2000, 143).

Ruth Neumann describes two types of views expressed in research literature about a definition of 'research'. On the one hand, there is the broad view which takes into account disciplinary differences and highlights the wide and diverse range of research activities in different settings. On the other hand, there is a narrow view, which includes only the discovery of new knowledge, often with emphasis on quantitative techniques.

The adoption of the broad view of research comes from the findings of quantitative and qualitative research studies. These studies have demonstrated that academics in different fields have different understandings of the term 'research', how it should be conducted and what its relationship should be to other areas of academic work, in particular teaching. Such studies would suggest that an understanding of 'research' is best gained by looking at the context within which the term is used. In this broad view, research is described as what is done in 'projects' whereas in others it involves fieldwork or laboratory experimentation, while in others still; it is the study of documents in a library. As Carter (1980) argued, there is a diversity of activities carried out by different fields under the umbrella of 'research including: scholarship; theory construction; observing and chronicling; experiment; theory testing; design; development; criticising and elucidating; artistic creation; and consulting and advising. All these activities could be classified as 'research' if they include the discovery of new knowledge or the creation of original art and provided also that they involve dissemination through publication, since "only through dissemination do they become a significant advancement of knowledge or the arts" (Bowen and Schuster 1986, 16). However, according to other viewpoints, not all of these activities are legitimately described as 'research'; they may be termed as 'community service' or grouped along with 'scholarship' as a category distinct from 'research'.

In contrast to the broad notion of research, the narrow notion of what constitutes research is based on the view that there is a dichotomy between 'research' and 'scholarship'. But research involves exploring the 'new frontiers of knowledge'. Thus, in this view, real 'research' consists of theorizing, experimenting and theory testing, and applies for all practical purposes only to the 'hard' quantitative sciences, and most particularly to the expensive forms such as high-energy physics. According to Cyert and Knapp, this dichotomous view is used to link 'research' with 'science' and with social and economic value [69](Neumann 1993, 97–110).

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[69] Kember and Gow (1992) adopted the phrase "action research" to describe a process of social research leading to social change, characterized by active participation and democratic decision-making. The findings on ways of changing attitudes and bringing about change led to the adoption of action research in the educational field. Educational action research as Carr and Kemmis describe is a term used to describe a family of activities in curricular development, professional development, school improvement programmes, and systems planning and policy development. These activities have in common the identification of strategies, of planned action which are implemented, and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection and change. Participants in the action being considered are integrally involved in all of these activities (Kember and Gow 1992, 297–310). Here action research is concerned with the purpose of improving the quality of student learning through better teaching as a result of staff development in higher education.

Neumann (1993) further characterizes research into three descriptors. In the first consideration, 'research' is regarded to be the search for, addition, creation, discovery or perception of something 'new'. This refers to contributing to what is already known and includes knowledge gained through activities such as experimentation, theorising, interpretation, observation, and correlation in order to gain a better understanding of the world. He raised the point that research should be seen as re-search, and that much of what people describe as 'research' is really "search", that is the discovery, creation or pursuit of something new. For him however, "*re-search*" involves the checking and replicating of what is known. The next frequent explanation of what constitutes research, was the word "*enquiry*." Neumann claims that the asking and answering of questions is a fundamental academic and research activity. Importantly, 'research' is seen to be a serious, sustained activity, where knowledge and understanding are pursued. Research viewed as fundamental and systematic enquiry involves more than just increasing the stock of information.

Publication is a third important characteristic of research, in which research is defined in terms of published work. The idea of publication involves two vital aspects of what constitutes research. The first of these relates once again to the notion of newness and replication. The second aspect relates to communication, where the results of research are submitted to the critical questioning of others. Thus, for the research work to establish itself in the domain of knowledge, publication needs to be in mediums where it is subject to peer view.

Following a definition provided by The White Paper, Moses (1990) views research as

> systematic and rigorous investigation aimed at the discovery of previously unknown phenomena, the development of explanatory theory and its application to new situations or problems, and the construction of original works of significant intellectual merit.

Besides these general opinions, there are specific ideas about how research is related to other university activities, mores especially teaching. Vidal and Quintanilla (2000) have pointed out this relationship. The "*interferences*" as they called it are as follows:

1. Research activity leads to an improvement in teaching quality. This means that an academic cannot be good without doing research, though a good researcher can be a poor teacher.
2. Certain infrastructure means obtained through research projects are also used teaching activities.
3. Research activities contribute to updating curriculum, positively affecting the most specialized courses.
4. If courses are related to research profiles of the teachers, the relationship is favourable. In brief, transference affects teaching quality, teaching infrastructures and curricula (Vidal and Quintanilla 2000, 217–229).

Rommainville (1996) in his research, associates research and teaching as the main features differentiating universities and other institutions. In line with the finding from Vidal and Quintanilla's study, these two missions stimulate one another and their productive combination represents the very foundation on which universities are based. Rommainville however points out that teaching and researching are two important and respectable activities, which involve different processes. The main justification of frequently made claims about the symbolic relationship between research and teaching is that the problem solving epistemologies and methodologies of research, as well as its findings, are the engine which drives improvement in teaching (Williams 1993, 229–237).

6.7.3 Research as Global Migration of Knowledge

In the post-modern age, the borders between social institutions are becoming porous. Different institutions take in each other's agendas. Universities, industry, the professions, research institutes, military establishments, think tanks and management consultants; all are involved in research activities. Accordingly, the research community is no longer confined to academe; on the contrary, universities constitute just a part -even if a significant part- of the research community (Barnett 2000, 149; see also Barnett 1990, 124). Barnett has argued that the present global situation invites research to take on responsibilities both to expand our framework for understanding the world and to help us live with the ensuing uncertainty. As he put it, in uncertain world, research should become an activity charged with redrawing the frameworks through which we comprehend the world (Barnett 2000, 149).

Other researchers such as Jones and Taylor (1990) regard research as original investigation undertaken in order to gain knowledge and understanding. These authors wrote that in the humanities, research includes scholarship, which leads to new or substantially improved insights. Also, in science and technology it includes the use of existing knowledge in experimental development to produce new or substantially improved materials, devices, products and processes, including design and construction (Jones and Taylor 1990, 157). In line with Jones and Taylor's ideas, Barnett (1990) in his own study regards research as an activity that has much to share with higher education. For him research is built, like higher education, around structured inquiries, which are persistent, deliberative, more or less organized, and set within a context of present knowledge, and which contains elements of interaction, dialogue, problem-solving, creativity and criticism. In his assessment, Barnett regards research as an attempt to produce objective knowledge, independence of personal viewpoint. He concludes that research is a systematic human endeavour intended to produce a level of impersonal knowledge, standing outside individuals.

As a summary of the chapter, a discussion of the different 'enablers' criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence model, from leadership and its functions or roles in academic organization through leadership strategies for resource mobilization in an academic environment to the three processes of education: teaching, learning and research. The chapter began with

examination of leadership in implementing total quality management in an academic organization as well as in university environment. As discussed in the chapter, it is the responsibility of the leaders to manage the future that is in a turbulent environment, improve productivity and quality, and not only builds an inclusive organization; leaders are responsible for building a quality culture in the university. Such critical roles include collective processes of planning, resource allocation and quality assurance.

The chapter begins by discussing what it means to be a leader in an academic organization. Many researches have dealt with how importance leadership has been in organizations in general and academic organizations in particular. Leaders are needed in institutions to create quality vision, infuse quality culture, builds the environment in which customers' dynamic demands will be satisfied, and then encourage continuous quality improvement in the organization; in this case the university. Researchers like Senge situates leadership within the context of learning organization, in which he posits that superior performance of an organization depends on superior learning depends, where leadership is distributed among diverse individuals and teams who share responsibilities for creating the organization's future. As chief executives of their institutions, university leaders lead a process of systematic organizational transformation through managing the turbulent future, improving productivity and quality, achievement of excellence, and building quality culture in the university.

A discussion also centred on "people" that make up the university organization as a second criterion in the EFQM model. Although there are different categories of people in the university, which include students, academic and non-academic staff; the concept was defined as academic staff. This group constitute an important resource of the university. In discussing this criterion, efforts were made in a description of different ways of handling staff development as a means of assuring the quality of staff. The issue of staff development was discussed through three perspectives: organization's, teacher-centred, and faculty, perspectives. In terms of organizational perspective, staff development was seen from the aspect of human resource management as "people side of the organizations." Regarding teacher-centred perspective; this was seen as an element of professional development while faculty development means giving support to faculty for their development.

Another criterion discussed in the chapter was a consideration of different university partners that may contribute to the funding of the university. These included universities collaborating with private and public sector enterprises to acquire the necessary resources either in terms of money, information and knowledge. Another way to achieve this steering strategy was university reforms through market-related policies as a way of making the university a corporate entity. These reform strategies led to a discussion of how financial resources can be mobilized in the university as ways of expanding the financial landscape of university.

The chapter further discussed educational processes as a criterion in the model. Educational processes centred on quality teaching in the university and how quality is promoted in such teaching. Application of total quality management in teaching was also presented. Regarding quality learning, different way of conceptualis-

ing the concept and how quality learning is promoted, and how student learning should be improved were also discussed in the chapter. This was followed by a discussion of quality research and how quality is improved in research as to make it serve societal interest. In the next chapter, the methodology employed in the conduct of this study will be discussed.

7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in the study. Methodology has been defined as a general approach to studying research topics. In this sense, the choice of methods should reflect an overall research strategy according to Mason, as a chosen methodology shapes which methods are used and how each method is used (Silverman 2000, 88). The first section presents the research questions. This is followed by a description of the research design and procedure. A description of the methods used for collecting data in both Nigerian and Finland therefore followed. The last two sections dealt with the content of questionnaire and a description of how the research findings were presented and analysed.

Clearly the methodology taken in this study does not constitute the strength of this research work. The large amount of information collected in the course of this study reveals that the study is an inductive policy analysis, which relies primarily on document analysis, supported by interviews and questionnaire data collected from both Nigerian and Finnish participants.

7.1 Research Questions

The following research questions were adapted from the 'enablers' criteria of the European quality model known as the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model. The questions were constructed to suite the university setting. These questions derived from the 'enablers' side of the model, which represent the criteria against which to assess an organization's progress towards excellence. Each criteria of the model has a definition, which explains the high level of those criteria. The questions were constructed according to the order in which the themes occur in the excellence model. In short, leadership and processes elements are focused in the questionnaires as key points and basic orientation when constructing the questionnaires administered to Nigerian and Finnish university leaders. However, in order to make the model of the study exploratory, the aims and objectives of the research are formulated for university administrators to answer the following policy questions:

1. What development roles do play as university administrator in improving quality in the university?
2. How do you organize staff development (training, empowerment, incentive)?
3. Who are the main interest groups of your university? What kind of linkages do you have with those interest groups (communication, cooperation, competition, conflict, overlapping)?
4. In a situation of budgetary decline for higher education, when universities are expected to 'do more with less', how does your university secure the funding for carrying out its activities?
5. How would describe quality teaching? What innovative measures does your university employ in improving the quality of its teaching?

6. What do you understand by quality research programmes? How do you ensure quality of research in your university?
7. What is quality learning? What kind of processes and organizational support do you have to ensure quality of learning?

Although the model has been used in university environment (see BLomqvist 1997), there seems to be no studies so far that benchmarked Nigerian and Finnish university systems basing on EFQM. [70]

7.2 Research Design, Methods and Materials

7.2.1 Design

As Kerlinger (1986, 300) reminds us, research design is the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived as to obtain answers to research questions. Research studies that are qualitative are designed to discover what can be learned about some phenomena of interest. The outcome of this study will not be the generalization of results but a deeper understanding of experience from the perspectives of the participants selected for the study (Maykut and Morehouse 1994, 43–44).

This is a benchmarking study that incorporates qualitative assessment design, aimed at emulating or improving best available practice, process and performance to aid improvement in quality of university management. Benchmarking was adopted for this study because it focuses on creation, the development of excellence and the discovering of new ideas. It offers a chance to learn from one another because we "can learn something new from another organization, whether they are best-in-class or not (Karjalainen et al. 2002, 34). Benchmarking enables an organization to compare itself with others, to identify its relative strengths and weaknesses, and to improve the working practices accordingly. In higher education benchmarking is being promoted to support the regulation of academic standards and also as a vehicle for improving educational, administrative and business processes in a globally competitive academic environment (Jackson and Lund 2000). Included in the activities of benchmarking "is the systematic study and comparison of a company's key performance indicators with those of competitors and others considered best-in-class in a specific function, a learning process, which requires trust, understanding, selecting and adapting good practices in order to improve (Hämäläinen et al. 2002, 7). This perspective is very useful since it will help one to understand and explain the way in which different societies and cultures experience and act upon social, economic and political changes (May 1997, 182).

[70] At least in the light of the references so far in this study, this seems to be the first study that tests or benchmarks universities in developing and developed countries.

The research is essentially an analysis of comparative policy, but qualitative research design is primarily adopted in this study. Qualitative research approach has been adopted because it seeks to capture what people have to say in their own words. It is the task of qualitative methodology to provide framework within which people can respond in a way that represents accurately and thoroughly their point of view about the world. or that part of the world they are talking about (Patton 1980, 28). As Bryman and Burgess (1999, x) argues, this approach enables the researcher to interpret social phenomenon from the point of view of the meaning employed by people being studied; the deployment of natural rather than artificial setting for the collection of data. Fraenkel and Wallen note that in order to gain some insight into the concerns of a certain research problem, where the researcher is interested in the quality of a particular activity, and everyday experiences of those involved in the activities (Fraenkel and Wallen 1990, 367). In addition, scholars believe that qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Kosonen 1998, 87; Denzin and Lincoln 1998). Bogdan and Taylor's (1975) definition of qualitative methodologies refers to research procedures, which produce descriptive data in form of people's own written or spoken words and observable behaviour (Bogdan and Taylor 1975). Denzin and Lincoln also conclude that qualitative methods allow us know people personally and to see them as they are developing their own definition of the world, and that we experience what they experience in their daily struggles within society (Kekäle 1997, 95; Bogdan and Taylor 1975, 4). Adatia-Sandström (1998, 48) views qualitative method as research approach that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification.

In another instance, Patton (1980) has extensively examined different data gathering techniques and how these methods could best be used in different types of research. He considers qualitative research method very important for studying work life setting. These methods offer a chance to better understand the underlying reasons for various phenomena. Patton further posits that the most important source of information is what mankind is learning from one another. In a situation where people could not learn from each other, they could not develop. The goal of qualitative methods is to assist in obtaining knowledge through the experience of others.

7.3 Sampling

The study adopted multi-stage sampling technique. This technique is normally used to overcome problems associated with a geographically dispersed population where it is expensive in time and resources to construct a sampling frame for a large geographical area (Saunders et al. 1997). It is a method used to obviate the need to randomly select from a given population. In Nigeria, the sampling for the study was carried out in three stages: the first and second stages were the selection of four states and six universities in Nigeria. The third stage of sampling was the selection of respondents. The first two sampling stages were purposive, while the third stage was convenience sampling. In the convenience sampling, those who fit

into the criteria of leadership and are available were included. However, from 37 questionnaires administered in six universities, 15 responses were received (see table 7.3). Also in Finland, the sample for the study was got by simply administering questionnaires by e-mail to all university leaders in country. At last only 15 responses were got as table 7.1 shows.

Purposive sampling according to Kerlinger (1973) is characterized by the use of judgement and a deliberate effort to obtain representative samples by including presumably typical groups in the sample. In purposive sampling, instead of taking a random cross section of the population to be studied, small numbers of people with specific characteristics, behaviour or experience are selected to facilitate broad comparisons between certain groups that the researcher thinks likely to be important (Walker 1985, 30). In this sampling procedure questionnaires were sent to university administrators in Nigeria and Finland who accepted to take part in the study. All the information obtained is based on the answers given by the respondents. Researchers choose populations or samples that are as convenience as possible -either because they are nearby or if far away, because they afford an opportunity for exotic foreign travel or the chance to have a personal tribe to study ... (Goetz and LeCompte 1984, 72–74). Raijas (1997) adopted purposive sampling in her study of The Consumer's Choice of Grocer's Shop, in which she compares two metropolitan areas in Finland and Norway, by interviewing consumers in different types of grocer's shops. In this study interviewees were selected without plan, but she personally interviewed after checkouts. In describing sampling strategies,[71] Patton (1980) suggests six reasons for adopting purposive sampling strategy: 1) when sampling extreme or deviant cases; 2) when sampling typical cases; 3) maximum variation sampling -picking three or four cases that represent a range of some dimensions (e.g. size, location, budget); 4) sampling critical cases; 5) sampling politically important or sensitive cases; and 6) convenience sampling – taking the easy cases (Patton 1980, 105).

[71] To make these strategies understandable, the reasons for adopting purposive sampling are described below according to Patton's (1980) description: "Sampling extreme or deviant cases" is a way of providing decision-makers with information about unusual cases that may be particularly troublesome or enlightening, for instance, outstanding success/ notable failures etc. "Sampling typical cases " helps to avoid studying a programmes where the results would be dismissed outright because that programme is known as being special. "Maximum variation sampling" helps to increase confidence in common patterns that cut across different programmes: document unique programme variation that have emerged in adapting to different conditions. "Sampling critical cases" permit logical generalization and maximum application of information to other cases because if it true of this one case, it is likely to be true of all other cases. "Sampling politically important or sensitive cases" attract attention to the study (or avoids attracting undesired attention by purposefully eliminating from the sample politically sensitive cases. "Convenience sampling" saves time, money, and effort.

On the whole, this study of improving the quality of management by university management has unfolded as two parallel streams of theory and empirical, both of which contribute to the same research cause. Through extensive literature search, I explored different aspects of university leadership and management in times of resource decline. Through the empirical study, I also focused on university leadership and their styles of management. The findings from these two methods or aspects of the study – theory and empirical – will be integrated for use in benchmarking Nigeria and Finland in order to compare their university management practices.

7.4 Methods of Data Collection

Data for this study were gathered in two phases from two settings. The first phase of data generation was in Finland (see section 7.4.1). The second Phase of collection of data was carried out in Nigeria (see section 7.5). Three data collection techniques were used: written questionnaire, documents, interviews, and personal observations of the researcher. Written questionnaires were used in Nigeria and Finland, observations were used in both Nigerian and Finland, while interviews were held with three Finnish respondents. Extensive literature was searched to get information on university management and the role of institutional leadership in improving the quality of university management. Table 7.1 shows data collection methods in Nigeria and Finland.

Table 7.1 Data Collection Techniques in Nigeria and Finland

Research technique	Nigeria	Finland
Written questionnaire	×[73]	×
Interview	–[74]	×
Observations[72]	×	×
Documents	×	×

[72] Although no systematic observation was made in Nigeria and Finland, I included observation as a method for collecting data because the fact that I live in Finland and have first hand information about how things work in the universities justified the inclusion of observation as a research technique. Equally, as a Nigerian, coupled with my presence in Nigeria during the field studies also justifies the inclusion of observation as one of the techniques employed for data collection. I was in Nigeria and observed the physical condition of facilities and people's behaviour in their day-to day activities in the universities, including their feelings while taking part in the study.

[73] × denotes where a particular technique was used

[74] – denotes where the particular technique was not used

7.4.1 Data Collection in Finland

7.4.2 Written Questionnaires

The first phase of data collection was in Finland. During March 2001, an e-mail letter was sent to all the university administrators in all the 20 universities in Finland. The letter was sent to a common e-mail address[75] of network of Finnish universities by the help of my supervisor. The information was automatically distributed to all university administrators in Finland. The letter sent to them was to inform them of the study, and also to request that they should give responses to the questionnaires when they get them. Later a copy of the questionnaire was sent to the same common e-mail address, which was distributed automatically to the administrators of the universities. The questionnaire was written in the English language. Within the first two weeks of sending out the questionnaires, three responses were received from three different universities. As others were not forthcoming, several telephone calls were made to some of the administrators by my supervisor. Later, another copy of the written questionnaire was sent to the leaders through the same common email address as reminder. In the course of the year, more and more contacts by telephone and email were made, and more responses were received. By the end of the year 2001, a total of fifteen (15) responses were received from Finland. As all the universities in Finland are public institutions, table 7.2 shows the universities from where information was collected.

Table 7.2 Institutions where responses were received in Finland and number of responses

Types of Institutions where data was received	**Number of responses**
Business Universities	3
Technical Universities	2
Art Academies	1
Music Academies	1
Multi-faculty Universities	7
Ministry of Education	1
Total number of responses	15

7.4.3 Interviews

As was shown on the table describing data collection techniques used in Nigeria and Finland, interviews were another research instrument used to collect data from

[75] Both during the time of informing Finnish university leaders about my study and sending my questionnaires to them, the following common e-mail address was used: haljiohjajat@ewasa.fi All information sent to them through this address was automatically distributed to them.

Finnish respondents. Three interviews were made in three different institutions in order to know their opinions on the subject under study. The same questions on the written questionnaires were used for the interviews. The questions were sent to the interviewees in advance with a background description of my study before meeting them for the face-to-face interview. However, all the interviewees prepared the questions on paper before hand, and the answers were handed to me at the end of our extensive discussion that lasted for about an hour and a half in each instance.

The three interviews were held in the following institutions:
1. *The Ministry of Education in Finland*. Here one officer-in-charge of Universities section of the Ministry was interviewed.
2. *The Academy of Music*. The Rector of the Academy agreed to be interviewed so as to enable me gain deeper insight into the role of institutional leadership in improving the quality of institutional activities.
3. *A business University*. In this university, one administrator was interviewed.

All the interviewees were contacted before hand and date, time and place of the interviews were arranged. The contents of the questionnaire were made known to them. Because of the interviewer's poor knowledge of Finnish language, all our discussions were in English and the interviewee showed no sign of difficulty in understanding the English language.

As can be seen from the above list (1–3), the interviewees represented most influential persons in their respective institutions. Although it was not possible to interview a large population of university administrators, three persons were interviewed. Each interview took place in the office of the interviewee. In addition to note taking, all the interviews were recorded on a cassette recorder and was later transcribed to add details to the written questionnaires. The answers obtained from the interviews were not judged right or wrong but only to capture the real experiences of leadership roles in university management.

In addition, the interviews offered more in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study and to add to the information received from the written questionnaires. Akuezilo (1993) and also Sjöström (1995, 68) state that 'interview is a favoured digging tool' when repeated face-to-face in encounters between the researcher and respondents, and are directed towards understanding informants' perspectives on their lives, experiences, or situations as expressed in their own words. This is to learn about events and activities that cannot be observed directly. Rubin and Rubin (1995) suggest that the researcher should just let people describe their experiences in their own terms for the researcher to learn the world of others.

7.4.4 Documents and Personal Observation

In addition to interviews and questionnaires, documents were also use as a source of information while describing the general situation in Finnish universities. The categories of documents used here are those published by the ministry of education of Finland, dealing with educational reforms in Finland, publications of Finn-

ish higher education evaluation council, research reports, collection of articles dealing with issues in the field of Finnish higher education and publications of the Academy of Finland.

Regarding observation, there was no systematic observation during the conduct of this study. The point is that I have lived in Finland for nearly fifteen years and the contact I have had with university environment have offered me the opportunity to understand the environment of the university in Finland. For many years I have been in Finland, I have at least observed that Finnish institutions have survived for a long lime. This might be because these institutions have been able to accommodate themselves to the changes occurring over time.

7.5 Data Collection in Nigeria

In January 2002, with the financial support from the Scandinavian Institute of African Studies (Nordiska African Institute, Uppsala) a fieldwork was carried out in Nigeria. Before my trip to Nigeria, one Nigerian University administrator, a Vice-chancellor, was contacted first by email about three months earlier, to inform him of my intended trip to Nigeria for a research. In this initial contact the purpose of this study and all that the study was about was explained to the vice-chancellor. Also, his assistance in being my contact person to other Nigerian university administrators in the universities I was going to visit in during the course of fieldwork in the country. He responded to this contact and assured me of his willingness to assist. Before I left Finland to Nigeria at the end of January 2002, a letter of introduction was prepared by my supervisor to introduce me to respondents in Nigeria. The letter stated the purpose of my study, and requested the goodwill of my to-be respondents to make out time to attend to me during the course of my fieldwork in Nigeria. The very week of my departure for Nigeria, I contacted the Vice-chancellor by telephone and informed him of the date of my arrival in Nigeria.

On my arrival to Nigeria, I first met the Vice-chancellor whom I had already made contact with. Our meeting was cordial and the attitude of the vice-chancellor towards me was encouraging. He gave another introductory note, written at the back of his business card, noting the importance of my study and at the same time requesting that they should assist me during my fieldwork. Initially, I had in mind of studying all administrative personnel in the universities; from chancellors, vice-chancellors, registrars, etc. However, my contact person (the V-C) advised that it would be better for me to study the registrars because easier access would be gained from the registrars instead of vice-chancellors who are more bureaucratic. He advised also that the registrars of universities are at the centre of the day-to-day administration of universities just as the vice-chancellors. I heeded strictly to this advice and I later came to understand the reality of the advice. The introductory note the vice-chancellor gave me was very instrumental, at least, as a “gate pass” into many of the universities I visited.

While in Nigeria six universities in four states of the federation were visited and leaders from these institutions took part in the study. The choice of six universities and four states filled the gap of assuring representation of the three genera-

tions of universities in Nigeria. Also, limiting the number of studied universities to six was to make my study manageable to the level of available resources. The six universities in which the study took place represented a range of different contexts evidence in Nigerian university sector. For example, the six universities were government-controlled institutions of which three universities were under the control of the federal government while the other three were controlled by state governments. At the same time, some of the universities are federal and state universities of technology while others are multi-faculty universities as table 7.2 shows.

Table 7.3 Types and controlling bodies of survey universities

States	Fed. Universities	State Universities
A	TU +	NTU ¤
B	TU +	NTU ¤
C	NTU ¤	
D		UT +

Note:

+ sign indicates Universities of Technology

¤ sign indicates non-technological universities or multi-faculty universities.

As the table shows, the states where the empirical studies was carried out are designated A, B, C, D. In these states there are either federal and/or state universities. Some of these universities are Universities of technology (designated TU) and non-technological universities (also designated NTU) or multi-faculty type.

In every university the researcher visited, a meeting was first arranged with the registrars of the institution to explain my mission and what my study was all about and the contents of the study questionnaire. Each registrar contacted members of the administrative staff that were supposed to be included in the survey. The questionnaires were administered in person by the researcher. The first two weeks of my stay in Nigeria was spent administering the questionnaires to all the administrators in different universities in the country (see table 7.3 for the number of questionnaires administered to respondents and the number of responses that were received). No problems were encountered with giving out the questionnaires but there were problems in retrieving back the questionnaires. As one African adage has it “it is easy to give a monkey water to drink but it would not be easy to retrieve the cup from him.”

Generally, I think it seemed to be difficult in both countries to get the administrators to analyse systematically the important issues raised in the questionnaires. On the part of Nigerian university leaders, many of them seemed not to be interested in this study, while some were unwilling to respond to the questionnaires. In one university, an administrative secretary made it clear to me when he said: “I

told you that nobody has time to respond to your questionnaires." In Finland, it seemed to me that the problem in returning the questionnaires might be as a result of proper understanding of the English language. Some Finnish administrators never returned the questionnaires sent to them while some of them returned theirs without answering them.

Table 7.4 Administration of questionnaires to Universities in Nigeria.

States	Total no of questionnaires sent out to each university	No of questionnaires administered in each state	Total number of responses got back	(%) of responses got back
A	13	Univ. 1 = 6		
		Univ. 2 = 7	4	31
B	11	Univ. 3 = 6		
		Univ. 4 = 5	5	45
C	7	Univ. 5 = 7	5	71
D	6	Univ. 6 = 6	1	17
Total	37	37	15	–

As this table shows, in state A, two universities (university 1 and university 2) in which 6 questionnaires were administered to the administrative staff, while 7 questionnaires were also administered to university 2. A total of 13 questionnaires were administered in the universities in State A and only 4 questionnaires (31 %) were retrieved. In state B, 11 copies of questionnaires were administered to two universities in the state (university 3= 6 questionnaires, university 4=5 questionnaires, only 5 questionnaires (45 %) of the questions were returned. Seven (7) questionnaires were distributed in university 5 in state C, 5 questionnaires (71 %) were returned. In state D, six (6) questionnaires were administered to the administrative staff in university 6 only one (1) response (17 %) was returned.

7.6 Research Instruments

In Nigeria the methods used to collect data were a written questionnaire, documents, and non-systematic observation. In a qualitative study of this nature, it is important that 'multiple methods' of data collection is employed. Fieldwork is not a single method or technique. Multiple sources of information are sought and multiple resources are used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective. William Cooley and William Biklen have stressed the importance of "multiple methodological perspectives." In their opinion, taking such an approach will deepen an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, and often increases the external validity of the research (Cooley and Biklen 1986, 42; see also Yin 1984; Robson 1993). By using a combination of observations, interviews and document analysis, the fieldworker is able to use

different data sources to validate and crosscheck findings (Patton 1980, 157). Maykut and Morehouse (1994, 146) also argue that by employing 'multiple methods from the field, along with reviews of relevant documents increase the likelihood that the phenomenon of interest is being understood from various points of view and ways of knowing. Convergence of major themes in the data lends credence to the findings. Initially I had in mind of combining a written questionnaire with other data generating instruments such as person-to-person interview, or focused group interview. This idea was not possible when I arrived in Nigeria because of the difficulties in gathering respondents together.[76]

7.6.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are used to convert information obtained directly from a person (subject) into data (Tuckman 1972). In order to answer the questions posed in the study, a self-completion questionnaire was constructed. In this study the questionnaire contained nine open-ended or unstructured questions, which were used to elicit information from the respondents. The advantages of the open-ended questions have been documented in literature. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (1990), open-ended questions allow for more individualized responses, though they are sometimes difficult to interpret. Open-ended or unstructured questions were used in the study because they gave greater freedom for the respondents to answer in their own terms rather than within the tramlines of set alternatives, using Walker's (1985, 48–49) and May's (1997) terms. As Frederick N. Kerlinger defines it, open-ended questions are questions that supply a frame of reference for respondents' answers but put a minimum restraint on the answers and expression (Kerlinger 1986). Open-ended questions were used because of their advantages in case of going into depth in clearing up any misunderstanding. However, open-ended questions allow for making a truer assessment of what the respondents really believe; and can also result to unexpected answers, which may suggest hitherto unthought-of relations or hypothesis (Cohen et al. 2000, 297). Further advantage, according to Louis Kidder and Charles Judd, are low cost, absence of interviewer bias, immediate response, and feeling of anonymity (Kidder and Judd 1986). Best (1977, 158) says that open question forms call for a free response in respondents' own words, but provide for greater depth response, whereby the respondent reveals his frame of reference. Despite this advantage, open-ended questions are time consuming and difficult to interpret. Fraenkel and Wallen (1990) have shown that open-ended questions are often hard to score, since so many different kinds of responses are received.

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[76] The type of respondents for this study made it impossible to get hold of them for the interview. I intended to interview few university leaders in Nigeria so as to clarify their thoughts on the phenomenon under study. These people were very busy to attend to other matters hence I was unable to get hold of any of them for any interview. Even many of these administrators were not willing to respond to my questionnaires.

7.6.2 Documents

Document materials were also integral part of the instruments for data in this study. They are valuable sources of data about society. In this study a variety of documents dealing with leadership and management in the university environment are employed. The central materials for this study are articles and reports dealing with the quality improvement in university management. The Society for Research in Higher Education has published extensively in this field. The categories of documents used in the study include both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources are in the form of government publications, UNESCO reports and publications, National newspapers, maps and magazines. These had first-hand information on the topic under study. Secondary sources include textbooks, international journals, quoted materials, reports of researches carried out by other investigators, encyclopaedia, and other literatures relevant for my study topic. Documents provided me with good insight into what quality management in the university is all about. These theoretical sources were used extensively in the course of my analysis of the theoretical background of this study.

7.6.3 Observation

Observation was another research instrument used in data collection in Nigeria. Although no systematic observation was undertaken; whereby the researcher participated fully in the lives and activities of subjects and thus became a member of the group, in order to share experiences by not observing what was happening but also feeling it (Saunders et al. 1997, 219). In short, observation used in this study did not "imply a research strategy of immersion by the researcher in the research setting, with the objective of sharing in people's lives while attempting to learn their symbolic world" (Saunder et al. 2000, 219). Rather, some observations were made of physical settings of the institutions and the behaviour of those working in them in form of descriptive data. Robson (1993) classed descriptive observation as one of the sources of data that involves concentrating on observing the physical setting, the key participants and their activities, particular events and their sequence and the attendant processes and emotions involved.

7.7 Analysis and Presentation of Data

The findings of this study are presented in form of tables. According to Walker (1985, 63) tables act as "forms of summary diagrams."

This study deals with the conceptions of quality improvement in university management as described by university administrators. The approach had been inductive. This means that the intension was to discover university leadership's conceptions of good practice. The first aim in the analysis phase was to find out what kind of activities they are involved in improving the quality of management. The questionnaire used in the conduct of this study contained nine open-ended questions. These questions concerned respondents' knowledge about quality improvement in university management and the roles of leadership in their implementation.

In analysing the qualitative data of the questionnaire, two phases are involved. First, I followed Sjöström's (1995) analytic procedure based on Dahlgren and Fallsberg's seven steps analysis: familiarization, compilation, condensation, grouping or classification, comparison of categories, naming of categories and definitive comparison (pp. 57–58). This method of analysis was used for the data from both written questionnaire for self-completion and for the interview. Since the recorded information from the interviews were transcribed to complement to, and fill the missing answers from the self-completion questionnaires, both the interview and questionnaire data were analysed using the same procedure. In this study, this constitutes the first phase of the data analysis. The analysis was done manually by use of these steps, though using the relevant steps from the seven steps modified this procedure. The second phase of data analysis was to benchmark the Nigerian data with Finnish data. The key goal of this benchmarking was to improve performance by learning from others. Learning from others' experience involves seeking information on best practices from other organizations [...] as a means of developing knowledge for the improvement of core processes (Kristensen 2002, 28). However, the processes of data reduction was carried out as follows:

In the process of *familiarization,* I got myself familiarized with the data by reading through all the materials obtained from both Nigeria and Finnish respondents. The second step involved *compilation* in which I compiled all the answers from the two groups of respondents.
The third step was *condensation*. Here, I tried to reduce individual answers in order to find and formulate the central theme of the responses.

The fourth step was a process of *preliminary grouping* or classification. In this step I classified similar answers.
In the fifth step, there is the *naming of categories* to formulate the meaning of the categories.

The final step was *comparing the categories* by description of similarities and differences in these categories found from Nigerian and Finnish data. This comparison of categories is benchmarking in its fullest sense; in which the analysis and comparison of performance within the two data groups in order to identify 'best practice' and adopt it or adapt it to institutional needs to improve performance (Lund 2000, 117).

In the second phase of the data analysis, the data was analysed qualitatively using content analysis. Emphasis was placed on conceptual traits in the answers, that is, special attention was given to keywords used by those interviewed. In the course of analysis of the, quality improvement categories were identified.

I having discussed the methodology for this study by outlining the research design and sample, the methods of data collection in Nigeria and Finland, including the instruments used in the process of data collection in both countries, culminating to how the data were presented and analysed. In the next section I will take up the issue of benchmarking as a research strategy used to compare aspects of how university leadership improve the quality of university management in Nigeria and Finland.

7.7.1 Framework for Comparative Analysis: Benchmarking and Policy Execution

The developmental approach to this study has its drive in trying to improve university management by leadership actions. Certainly, ideas for improvement or critical questions which emerge from the data are prompted with an eye to 'best practices' elsewhere. It is believed that institutions differ in their missions, in what they are trying to be, but it is still assumed as the one overriding criteria by which performance can be judged (Barnett 1992). One such process of comparing institutions; each learning from the other, is the concept of benchmarking. Morgan (2000, 53) describes the aim of benchmarking survey as developmental: to help university achieve its strategic objectives. He did not see the process of benchmarking simply as a matter of identifying best practice. Rather it was a matter of looking systematically at, and learning from, the practices and experiences in other universities. From its original conception from the world of business, Fitz-Enz looks at benchmarking as a process by which a company compares its practices and approaches to those of the best companies to identify ways it can improve. The basic idea of benchmarking is to compare one's own way of working to the best possible way, learn from the best possible model and become best oneself. Put differently, it is to compare and learn - learning something new and bringing new ideas into one's institution. This is "learning by comparing" suggested by Virtanen and Mertano (1999). As an expert in benchmarking practices, Jack Fitz-Enz views benchmarking as an organized method of collecting data that can be used to improve internal administration, production, and service delivery. He argues that as we go to school to learn Mathematics, we engage in benchmarking to learn how to do something well.

In an article Measuring *Up to the Best: A Manager's Guide to Benchmarking*, Mik Wisniewski equally believes that there are as many definitions of benchmarking as there are organizations engaging in it. He provides a more complete picture of the concept when he argues that benchmarking is best thought of as a structured and focused approach to comparing with others how you provide services and the performance levels one has achieved. For him the purpose of such comparison is to enable you identify where and how one can do better, by finding and implementing better practices and performance, where it is found. He maintains that benchmarking is not to say that one should be looking simply to copy approaches and methods used by others; for research has shown that such an approach rarely works as organizations are different to each other in some critical ways – in terms of leadership, culture, attitudes, resource, and customer needs. He writes:

> Benchmarking does not mean copying what other people do; it should be a learning process, challenging existing ways of working and identifying step-by-step changes that can close the gap between current performance and best practice (Wisniewski 2001, 85).

One should be looking for what makes another organization 'better' than your own in terms of service delivery or in carrying out specific activities. This will

then enable you to access how to improve your own performance so that you also can provide best practice service. But Wisniewski warns that benchmarking should not be seen as a one-off, or quick fix, solution to current problems and solutions. Instead, it should be a continuing search for, and implementing of, performance improvement, requiring considerable effort, motivation and good management to be effective.

In its origin, benchmarking is generally acknowledged as having been formally introduced to western managerial practice by Rank Xerox in the early 1980s. Since then it has become one of the two or three most widely used managerial techniques in private sector management in both United Kingdom and America. Increasingly in recent years, it has increasingly crossed the divide between the private and public sectors and is now firmly encouraged as an instrument of 'best-value' management (Price 2000).

In the Rank Xerox sense, benchmarking involves the philosophy of looking outside an organization or organizational unit for examples of better work process. The Sheffield Hallam University Facilities Management Graduate Centre (FMGC) has treated benchmarking as a process of action research and active learning among those involved. In reacting to the issues of benchmarking the Centre states: "Our philosophy is that benchmarking is a process through which groups of 'competitive' organizations share information on the performance and management of key business processes so as to learn from each other." Concluding with a working definition in which the centre sees benchmarking as "open and collaborative evaluation of services and processes with the aim of emulating or improving best available practice" (Price 2000, 140).

As was shown, Rank Xerox has been one of the best known and often mentioned examples of a company using benchmarking in the world of business, by using systematic comparison to enhance its operations. Although benchmarking is widely used in business management, it has also acquired an important role as a development tool in public sector (Karjalainen et al. 2001, 29). The public sector has stressed the importance of competition in the process of benchmarking, some of which illustrations are given below. According to Dervitsiotis (2000), benchmarking is the continuous process of measuring products, services, and practices against the toughest competitors or those companies recognized as industry leaders (pp. 641–646). Robert C Camp also gives emphasis on competition. He writes:

> ...the systematic study and comparison of a company's key performance indicators with those competitors and others considered best-in-class in a specified function (Camp 1989, 248).

Karjalainen (2001) describes benchmarking as "a form of human being's natural curiosity with which s/he explores the possibilities of cooperation and friendship." In this description, the reference to exploration is seen as a form of everyday interaction. From this perspective, benchmarking is characterized as a form of qualitative assessment that has its roots in human existence and rational behaviour. The observation of a colleague or master at work, comparing one's work with that of

another, pondering what the other is thinking, have always been important for the development of culture. Similarly, benchmarking as an explicit method is seen as a way to live, away to survive and a way to develop (Karjalainen 2001, 30).

Although benchmarking has had business origin, there has been its application to education in recent years. Obviously, the lessons of how best the practice of benchmarking could change organization for the better were transferred from industry to education. Many administrative processes that have parallels in industry have been benchmarked in colleges and universities, but the application of best practice to processes unique to educational institutions' operations are still in infancy. In a recent work *Global Cases in Benchmarking: Best Practices form Organizations Around the World*, edited by Camp (1998), there has been application of benchmarking to education. In the work, three examples of benchmarking from the United States and Australia in education were presented (Engelkemeyer 1998, 534–617). This is shown on table 7.5.

Table 7.5 Countries and Universities where benchmarking has been carried out in education

United States	**Asia/Pacific** (Australia)
Babson College	**Queensland University of Technology**
Higher Education Industry	Higher education industry
Enrolment management	**Law research supervision**
"Enrolment Management at Robson College"	"Law Research Supervision at Queensland University of Technology"
Oregon State University	
Higher education industry	
Student advising	
"Collaborative Benchmarking in Higher Education	

Benchmarking practices, which emerged as a popular strategy to enhance the quality and effectiveness of institutional management can improve higher education. Allan Schofield contends that benchmarking is relevant for both enhancement and assurance of quality and the drive to increase the effectiveness of university management (Schofield 1998, 6). He further says that the increased need to ensure productivity and performance that compares with the 'best' in any particular field has been particularly important. He advised that the intention of benchmarking is not merely to copy best practice. Rather, it is to adapt it to different organizational cultures and to reapply some organizational principles that stem from it (p.8). As a "how-to-do-tool" (Drucker 1995, 19), benchmarking is one of the management tools designed to do differently what is already done.

Taking another example from a Scandinavian country, the University of Helsinki has benchmarked its administration with the universities of Stockholm, Oulu and Amsterdam as the first extensive benchmarking project in Finnish Higher Education in testing and developing benchmarking methods (Virtanen and Mertano 1999). The results of this benchmarking study showed experiences in using benchmarking in the assessment and improvement of university administration. It also showed ways of looking for answers to certain administrative problems and search for new motivation for improvement

In this study benchmarking was carried out by comparing a developing country and developed, highly industrialized country. In this exercise, similarities and differences in management strategies were identified. From this identification, 'best practices' in university management were pointed out. Also the data from each country become value-added inputs to the decision-making processes. The benchmarking of Nigeria and Finnish universities reveal that while Nigeria relied heavily on those 'traditional' techniques of management, Finnish university leaders adopted new innovative measures in managing their university institutions. This means that in Finland, universities use functional strategies that account 'best in class' as evidenced in the effectiveness of Finnish institutions. As Michael Spendolini tells us:

> One of the themes of benchmarking is a search for a functional activity or inputs that can be classified as 'best-in class' or as representing best practices. The basic premise of benchmarking is to learn something of values from someone or someplace else, something that helps one perform more effectively or efficiently. The goal of benchmarking activities is to learn from the best (Spendolini 1998, 109).

In the higher education context benchmarking emphasizes the idea of discovering something new and creating new way of working (Karjalainen et al. 2002, 15). It is simply comparing the practices at one's university with corresponding one in another country (Pappas 1996). This is what my study stands to demonstrate.

In the study therefore, benchmarking of management practices in Nigerian and Finnish Universities was done. All the University leaders surveyed in these two countries have adopted a range of approaches to quality improvement in the management of their respective universities. In its simplest form, this benchmarking survey involves comparing one set of collected data with another. Benchmarking has been most actively used as an aid to improvement within higher education systems. Published information suggests that so far benchmarking has primarily focused on administrative functions rather than educational processes, benchmarking should be viewed as a learning tool. Also, by providing a comparative analysis of benchmarking we can also view comparative policy especially regarding assessment.

7.8 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

For the reliability and validity of the research instrument for this study to be improved, a number of techniques were employed. Unstructured questions were used

for the self-completion questionnaire and for the interviews. Kerlinger says that error variance can be minimized and the reliability improved if measuring instruments are administered in similar and standard conditions (Ejiaga 1997). Although the questions for the study have been adapted with modifications from those applied to business, similar questions have been used in studying university rectors in Finland (e.g. Sahlo 2000).

In order to enhance validity of the results, the questionnaire and the interview responses were checked against other sources of data. These other sources of data include, among others, my personal experiences and observation, as a researcher coming from and residing in the two settings in which this study took place. Others are published documents, textbook, articles, Internet sources, and international journals.

Although the research instrument or the questionnaire items were not pre-tested before administering them to the respondents, the reliability of the instrument was assured by discussing the questions with experts in quality management. However, future researchers should do well to subject their instruments to pilot testing before using them. According to Gyekye (2001), the pilot testing of his research instrument provided feedback regarding the clarity of the questions and the overall presentation of the questionnaire. Cohen and Manion (1994) argue that triangulation techniques in the social sciences imply that different methods for the same constructs would explain more fully the complexity of human behaviour and also give relatively high inter-correlation. Furthermore, engaging in data collection procedure for the study in different places likewise respondents during the fieldwork further strengthened the reliability and validity of the research instrument.

Furthermore, according to Rantanen (1997), in different phases of scientific research there can be many sources of errors, which as a rule, researchers do not pay much attention to. Accuracy and trustworthiness of any study is defined by the reliability of the measuring instrument. Reliability by definition refers to the consistency of responses from one administration of an instrument to another, and from one set of items to another. The strength of the instrument used in this study was reliable because it was able to elicit the required information concerning leadership in university management. However, a true measure of reliability should be based on statistical data, but since this study is qualitative in nature and was able to extract the needed information, the instrument was reliable. Again, if the same instrument were to be used by another researcher in the same type of study, I am sure that the same type of results will be got. Another measure of reliability in this study is that after administering the questionnaire in this study the findings were consistent or that similar findings were received from both Nigeria and Finland.

By definition, validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument was able to measure what the researcher intended to measure. The instrument used in this study was assumed to be reliable because it produced for me all I wanted to find out. Another strength to the validity of my research instrument was that my supervisor assisted me in designing the questionnaire. This means that before the instrument was administered, somebody who is knowledgeable in test measurement had read it and confirmed it as a valid instrument that could measure the

intended outcomes. Also, regarding the content and construct validity of the instrument, the instrument contains all the necessary elements needed to be measured in the study, and that the instrument measured the theoretical traits of the behaviour under study.

Finally, I will conclude this section by adding that different cadres of administrators in both Nigeria and Finland responded to my questionnaires. Because these people occupied different positions and have different experiences; these may likely have impacts on the relevance of the results.

8 PRESENTATION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter served two purposes. The first purpose was to present the results of the empirical data in its raw form, drawn from the research studying leadership perceptions of their roles in quality improvement in different aspects of university management. Evidence from this survey indicated a wide range of interesting findings about management approaches as identified by Nigerian and Finnish university leaders. The findings are grouped into two: on the one hand, there are responses from Nigerian university administrators and on the other hand, responses from administrators from Finnish universities. The data are presented in tables, each of which has two columns comprising Nigeria and Finland. In each table there are numerical values attached to every response for each country. Furthermore, each table shows that responses for each research question were arranged from high to low according to the number of mention. The second purpose of the chapter was a discussion of the findings. The discussions were made in terms of information from the respondents in the two countries. Also the discussion utilized information from interviews and supported with evidence from literature. The chapter is organized in accordance with the objectives of the study as they are taken from the 'enablers' side of the modified EFQM Excellence Model criteria shown in figure 8.1: leadership (roles and functions), university academic staff (techniques of staff development), partnerships and resources (strategies of resource mobilization in the university) and processes (teaching, learning and research).

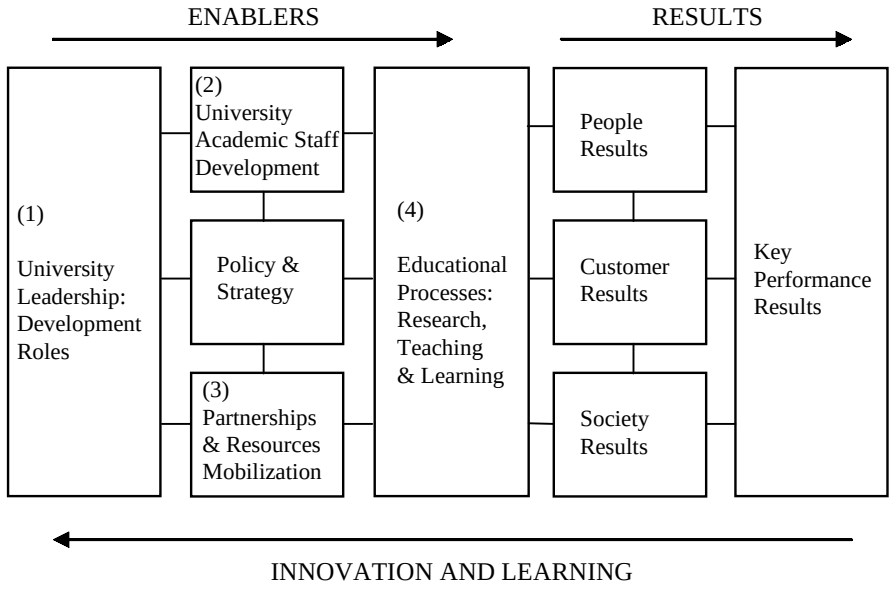

Figure 8.1 Modified EFQM Excellence Model (2003) by the researcher

8.1 Research Question 1a: Development Roles of University leadership

In this research question, university leaders in Nigeria and Finland were posed with the question: What development roles do you play as university administrator? This questionnaire item sought responses from the leaders to freely write down the roles they play as university leaders. In defining their roles, different interesting items emerge as shown on table 7.1 for Nigeria and Finland. The table displays the views of university leaders participating in the survey by showing tasks and responsibilities of these leaders in improving the quality of university management.

Table 8.1a Development Role of University Leaders for Nigeria and Finland

S/n.	**Nigeria**	no	**Finland**	no
1	Ensuring that rules & regulations are kept and revised	3	Quality improvement	8
2	Planning	3	Funding quality projects	6
3	Supervision	3	Policy making	4
4	Drawing university's attention to constituencies to attract student, staff and money	2	Ensuring that decisions are made according to law Quality assessment	3 3
5	Control resources	2	Reporting	3
6	Training junior staff	2	Develop system for quality	2
7	Improve employee commitment	1	Role model for quality	1
8	Coordinating activities	1	Research initiation	1
9	Resource Management	1	Persuasion for quality	1
10	Improve operational efficiency	1	Collaboration with enterprises &	
11	Take care of employee needs	1	interest groups	1
12	Assist university to achieve set goals	1		
13	Orient staff & student to University	1		
14	Adapt to educational change	1		
15	Custodian of academic policies	1		

Table 8.1 shows a variety of leadership roles that Nigerian and Finnish university leaders perceive they carry out. These varieties of responses suggest that leadership flows through the networks of roles that comprise the organizations. These perceived roles set leadership parameters at the level of organizational performance and survival. Research on the roles of organizational leadership shows that leadership functions to influence or enhance the performance of organizations and their chances of survival (Ogawa and Bossert 1997). In the two sets of data from Nigeria and Finland it is seen that some of the leadership roles identified deal with those leadership functions, which make the institutions perform their tasks well and those functions that help them survive. As this tables also shows, there are variations in the ways Nigerian administrators perceive leadership roles within Nigerian universities. Also within Finland, variations occur among respondents in how they perceive their roles. The variations equally exist across the two countries.

A look at the table shows that in Nigerian data, university leaders put more emphasis on policies governing quality control of academic programmes, planning and supervision. Issues such as care of employee needs, adaptation to education change and improving operation efficiency, do not score high on the table; hence these received less number of mentions. For the Finnish data, the table shows that Finnish university leaders pay much attention to quality improvement and this scored 8 points on the table. Others are funding quality projects, policy making, reporting, quality assessment, and developing systems for quality that score 6, 4, 4, 3, and 2 respectively.

8.1.1.Research Question 1b: Core Objectives Pursued by University Leaders

In the second part of the question, respondents were required to identify core objectives they pursue for quality improvement in the university, among other objectives. The results of the question are shown on table 8.1b below.

Table 8.1b Core Objectives Pursued by University leaders for Nigeria and Finland

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Supervision and control to make sure that quality services are provided to both staff and students	3	Quality Improvement	8
2	Encouraging quality Performance	3	Facility Maintenance	3
3	Staff recruitment	3	Focus on Customer	2
4	Encouraging commitment to staff	2	Co-operation with business community	2
5	Dissemination of information	2	Developing national benchmarking for generation of new knowledge	1
6	Provision of facilities	2	Quality Assurance	1
7	Focus on workforce/staff morale	2	Service provider in business education	1
8	Encouraging team work through participatory management	1	Personnel development	1
9	Ensuring that actual teaching is done	1	Setting up university own company	1
10	Making services easily available to stakeholder	1	Research development	1
11	Ensuring that work ethics are observed	1	Resource development	1
12	Identifies with and pursue the policy thrust of the university	1	Leadership	1
13	Persuasion	1	Assuring quality teaching and research	1
14	Implementing and upholding all rules and regulations governing quality control of academic programmes	1	Overall University development	1
15	Maintaining the reputation of the university	1	Staff Education	1
16	Encouraging institutional development	1		
17	Manpower planning and development	1		
18	Aiding professionalism	1		
19	Encouraging local and international collaboration	1		

In the data gathered from the research objective, leadership themes emerged from the two tables, which show similar roles played by academic leaders as mediators of change, in the construction of managerial cultures in the university sector (Gleeson and Shain 2003).

The two tables (tables 8.1a and 8.1b) show development roles and core objectives the leaders pursue in quality improvement in the university. In table 8.1a, the issues of facility maintenance and improving the overall quality of university management, which score 3 and 8 respectively, are crucial to Finnish university leaders. For Nigerian leaders, their data show that such issues as encouraging quality performance, recruitment of staff, supervision and control of quality services to staff and students, are important to them. The data also show that ensuring that rules and regulations of the university are kept and followed and issues of resource control and training of junior staff are important for Nigerian university leaders. Other issues such as orientation of new staff and students to the university, the role of being custodians of academic policies and assisting the university to achieve its set goals received little attention as revealed by the score each of them has. From the perspectives of Finnish university leaders, their responses show that funding quality projects (6), policy making (4), and quality assessment (3) are high in their perception. However, data from Finnish respondents show that role model for quality, research initiation, and collaboration with enterprises and interest groups are important to them but these issues received low scores of 1 each on the table.

As the data from the two tables further show, strategic planning and management are seen as key functions of university leaders. Theories of management and leadership (Middlehurst 1993; Bargh et al. 2000) have shown that leadership in the university responsible for setting the key values and direction of the university, and the need to position universities in higher education and also in the wider economy. Furthermore, their work involves the important decisions: resource generation and allocation, institutional acquisition, investment and disposal, about the recruitment and reward of academic and other staff, about creation, closure and merger of departments, and about external roles and relationships. A significant number of this type of leadership behaviour has been referred to in literature as transformational leaders (Burns 1978).

In a further analysis of the findings, similarities and differences between Nigerian and Finnish responses in relation to the roles university leaders play in rendering quality management in the university are shown on table 8.1c.

Table 8.1c Unique and common characteristics for Nigeria and Finland concerning leadership roles in the university

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Implementing regulations governing academic programmes * Encourage institutional development * Adapt to educational change * Attract students, staff and money * Assist university achieve set goals * Take care of employee needs * Improve employee commitment * Orientation of new student and staff	* Focus on customer/people * Encouragement of collaboration * Staff education/training * Service provision to stakeholders * Ensuring quality performance in teaching, research and other services * Dissemination of information and feedback * Collaboration with enterprises and interest groups	* Facility management * Research initiation * Developing systems for quality * Persuasion for quality * Role model for quality * Quality assessment * Quality improvement * Quality assurance * developing national benchmarking for generating new knowledge * Setting up university own company * Research development * Resource development

The table shows common characteristics in the centre column and characteristics for each country at left and right columns respectively. One important outcome of the study is that there are varieties of roles that university leadership play in both countries. These findings reveal practical and everyday processes of management in supporting, developing and inspiring colleagues to do their work well. Law and Glover (2000) lend support to this finding when they assert that in the present changed environment of the university, effective leadership is called for in promoting the ethos of professional and organizational well being.

8.1.2 Comparative Analysis

On the same table 8.1c for Nigeria and Finland, there are similar responses shown for both countries. These are placed in the middle column of the table as common characteristics, while differences or individual characteristics for Nigeria and Finland are placed at the left and right columns of the table respectively. The findings show that leadership is not something accomplished by someone in a formal position of authority but as a set of functions or tasks to be performed. The functions or tasks suggest there are many roles to be filled in the life of a university leader. The data for Nigeria show variety of tasks, which university leaders perform. Characteristics for Nigeria reveal that policy implementation, attraction of students, staff and money, and caring for employee needs and making staff be committed to their work are some of the roles of university leaders. In the same way, characteristics for Finland reveal that university leaders perform the role of facility and resource development and management, and research initiation and development. These leaders also develop systems for quality by acting as role model for quality, quality assessment, improvement and assurance. The table also show that these leaders develop national benchmarking in order to generate new knowledge for decision-

making in the university. On the other hand, the roles of university leadership as perceived by Nigerian respondents include among others implementing regulations governing academic programmes, encouraging institutional development, and adapting to educational change. Also, attracting students, staff and money, and assisting university achieve set goal are among the roles perceived by Nigerian participants in the study.

In Finland such university leadership roles as perceived by participants include resource and facility management, research initiation and development, and quality systems development such as persuading colleagues for quality services, acting as role model for quality, undertaking the tasks of quality assessment, improvement and assurance. Also, Finnish respondents perceive university leadership roles as helping their institutions to set up their own companies. As can be seen in Finland today, one of the strategies of institutional development is the establishment of university owned companies. One example in this regard is the University Pharmacy of the university of Helsinki. Kai-Ming's (1990) study on *Market in a Socialist System: Reforms in Higher Education in China* supports this finding. In this study, Kai-Ming identifies "institution-operated enterprises" as a practice of income generation in the university. The findings also show that universities carry out commercial or industrial operations, which generate income. Such "factories" as Kai-Ming calls them, are often situated on the campus and are owned by the institution, and are privileged by preferential treatment in taxation; by sometimes obtaining low interest loans from the government.

Establishing national benchmarking for generating new knowledge is another outcome of the study in terms of quality improvement, as perceived by Finnish respondents. Development of national benchmarking for knowledge generation constitute leadership role in quality improvement in the university. This activity implies that in Finland university leaders use benchmarking to drive continuous improvement in performance and service delivery. The use of benchmarking in quality improvement is one of the key learning activities in public sector, and can be an essential ingredient of public sector's efforts to improve quality of service or the provision of 'best values'. The benchmarking approach is supported by Wisniewski's (2001) study, which views benchmarking as a structured and focused approach to comparing with other how they can provide services and the performance level they have achieved in order to find and implement better practices and performance. Also, Jackson and Lund's (2000) study lent support to the establishment of national benchmarking by Finnish University leaders. These researchers see benchmarking as a popular instrument for self-evaluation and self-improvement, enabling organizations to compare themselves with others, to identify relative strengths and weaknesses, and to improve their working practices accordingly. Thus the promotion of benchmarking is meant to support the regulation of academic standards and also as a vehicle for improving educational processes in a globally competitive academic environment.

8.1.3 Common Characteristics for Nigeria and Finland

Overall, common perceptions of the roles of university leadership in both countries are also identified. Respondents in both countries agree that one of the roles of university leadership is the focus on people. In this study I use customer and people interchangeably. As we learned from the discussion on EFQM Excellence Model, competitive advantage of organizations is best optimised through focus on the needs of current and potential customers, and that one central philosophy of organizational effectiveness is the act of putting the customer at the heart of the organization. In this context, the customer is seen as the final arbiter of product and service quality (EFQM 1999). Sytsma (2000) suggests that the major tenet of total quality management or continuous quality improvement is the emphasis on the customer because the customer defines what quality is in a product or service. Therefore, at the functional level, putting the customer at the core of the organization allows management to establish vital links between customer orientation and profitability. In order for an organization to remain competitive, it is not enough to be aware of customer needs but translating the knowledge about customer into profitable, enduring relationships, which require flexible, creative, and dynamic approach across all organization function. At its symbolic level, the philosophy implies that quality service depends on total commitment to customer. This commitment is necessary for coordinating organizational activities and allocating resources across function, recognizing that the most efficient means for increasing customer values, and developing long term vision in the face of rapidly changing market demands (Sviokla and Shapiro 1993). Support is also in Lele and Seth (1987) who pointed to the idea that the customer is the key to gaining an unbeatable advantage in the management of organization.

Other findings common to Nigerian and Finnish participants concerning leadership roles in the university management show that these leaders encourage as well as engage their institutions in collaborating with enterprises and interest groups. Theoretical support is lent by Barnett's (2000) idea of "strategy of engagement" in when he advised that in an age of super-complexity, the university has to engage with multiple communities because of the reason that there are many other producers or definers of knowledge in wider society. Barnett concludes that the university, if it is to survive, will have to engage with newly emerging rules of knowledge production. University leaders should encourage their institutions to form alliance with industry, with professional bodies and with consultants in order to maintain their market share of knowledge creation.

They also encourage dissemination of information and feedback, ensuring quality performance in teaching, research and other services as well as staff education and training. As regards staff education and training, this is one of the ways of thinking and doing things; ways of acquiring new skills, knowledge and attitudes. It follows that developing academic staff by education training is a central theme that relates to change in practice. All organizations including universities provides effective development programmes for staff to prevent skills obsolescence through the acquisition of multiple skills during their careers. Scholars like Dubin has dealt with several current phenomena, which make professional skills develop-

ment essential: rapid creation of knowledge, complexity of knowledge, technological innovation and global competition (Ruohotie and Grimmett 1996).

8.1.4 Staff Education and Training

Staff education and training is a also a means of professional updating, which deals with all developmental functions, directed at the maintenance and enhancement of one's professional competence. Beairsto (1997) claims that professional growth, as suggested by Nigerian and Finnish respondents, supports the idea that staff education and training is an important task of university leadership, and development for staff is generally considered to be essential organizational success. He argues that leaders who are bent on improvement of staff are likely to contribute, directly or indirectly, to staff development. In the university setting, this reflects to what leaders can do to provide teachers with the motivation and opportunity for further learning in the context of academic improvement process. For this to happen, 'transformational form of leadership (Burns 1978) is needed. Transformational leadership has been discussed earlier in the theoretical section. Suffice it to say that transformational leadership fosters in employees the capacity to make sense of what they do, and through an understanding of their work, orient themselves towards reflecting on the limits they face and how those aspects that constrain their range of choice might be overcome. Kautto-Koivula's (1997) study of Nokia's Technology Education and Training Programme concerning its experience in staff training and education clearly demonstrates the need to offer staff better opportunity to educate and develop themselves.

8.1.5 Quality Services

For quality performance in services, the findings show that a university leader ensures quality in teaching, research and other services of which the university renders to society. Universities remain centrally providers of education for school leavers in form of teaching as well as research as centres for the creation of new knowledge. For university institutions to attain quality in their teaching-learning-research contexts, institutional leaders have to rely on creating and sustaining a rich and conducive academic environment in which their students, teachers and researchers can thrive, learn and grow. Research has shown that academic leaders should have a close understanding of the activities within the university, and even of its potential activities, and should work to promote that stability of the environment. The analysis of Santos and colleagues' study show that the academic organization of the university should become more organic and take into consideration the different organizational requirements of the central university activities. These leaders should develop a support structure to provide complementary and administrative functions, as well as an intermediate management level between the rector and the departments (Santos et al. 1998).

From the preceding discussion, the findings have shown that there are multifaceted roles that university leaders play in effecting quality management in the university. Some of these approaches in leadership roles consist of day-to-day operational excellence in how to create a well-run university institution. On the

other hand, some leaders adopt strategic roles, which consists of the vision, mission and strategy to organization success. These roles relate to roles to which leaders engage themselves with the task of providing the strategic direction and leadership in modern corporate management.

The information contained in the data show that there are differences in the way and approaches university leaders in Nigeria and Finland go about their roles. Looking at Finnish data, the perceived roles of these leaders are more innovative and strategic. They employ extensive use of quality systems in their roles to boost their own management culture and promote quality management, on the one hand, and enhance their international competitiveness, on the other. It is hoped that Nigeria will be advantaged if they focus their mind on international trends in university management strategies.

8.2 Research Question 2: Organization of Staff Development

This research question deals with organization of staff development in Nigerian and Finnish universities. The research question has two sections. The first part of the question simply asked respondents to identify how they organize staff development in their respective university institutions. In the second part of the question, they were also asked about the processes that are in place in the process of developing their academic staff. This question was aimed at identifying how the goal of professional development of teaching staff can be achieved in the university. Table 8.2a displays the information obtained from the first part of the question for Nigeria and Finland.

Table 8.2a Illustrating staff development techniques

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Workshops, seminars, conference	10	Training at Administrative unit ("Palveluyksikko" in Finnish)	8
2	In-service training programme	8	Staff education[77] (pedagogical, computer).	2
3	Learning on the job	2	Development projects	2
4	Linkage programmes with home and overseas institutions	2	Incentive through salary level	1
5	Sabbatical leave system	1	Sabbatical year system	1
6	Training at Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON)	1	Electronic book-keeping	1
			Job satisfaction	1
			Staff and Faculty mobility	1
			Empowerment	1
			Systematic continuous education	1

[77] In Finland there is the continuing education company called 'Joko Executive Education Ltd'. that organizes business training, especially in business schools.

A look at the table reveals that university institutions in the two countries organize staff development for their staff. It also shows some areas where universities in the two countries organizing staff development in similar ways. For instance, the data show that in both Nigeria and Finland, staff development is organized in administrative units. For Nigeria it is the Administrative Staff College (ASCON) and for Finland, it is what the respondents referred to in Finnish as "palveluyksiko." Although leaders in the two countries identify the training units, over half of the Finnish respondents points at the administrative units as crucial to their staff development. For Nigerian respondents, more emphasis is placed on in-service training (8 points), workshops, seminars and conferences (10) points) as important staff training techniques.

Similarly, areas of differences can be found on the table. For instance, staff education in form of pedagogical and computer training are identified by Finnish leaders. Also in Finland Continuing Education Company referred to by respondents is called "Joko Executive Education Ltd." organizes business training for staff. Also, Development projects, systematic continuous education and electronic bookkeeping identified by Finnish respondents, are not mentioned by Nigerian respondents. In Nigerian case on the other hand, in-service training and learning on the job, among others mentioned by Nigerian informants were not present in the Finnish data.

In the second part of the question, respondents were required to list the processes in which staff development is carried out. The responses are shown on table 8.2b

Table 8.2b Processes of staff development

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Fellowships at home or abroad	2	Training: IT, Pedagogical, Language	4
2	Empowerment for improved performance	2	Staff participation in EFQM	3
3	Induction course at ASCON	2	Teaching courses in the university	2
4	Promotion	1	Student and staff participation in decision-making in the university boards	1
5	Allowance: overtime, housing, entertainment	1	Retraining through e-mails	1
6			New processes of teacher training (in pipeline)	1
7			Compensation policies to retain staff	1

On the table, it is shown that while Finnish respondents listed the following processes of staff development: training staff on information technology, retraining of staff through e-mails and making staff take part in European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) training, Nigerian respondents list fellowships, induction courses, promotion and allowances, overtime and housing incentives as staff development techniques. Making academic staff participate in EFQM suggests one good aspect of staff development. EFQM can offer a wide range of services to organizations in general and universities in particular in seeking to identify and learn from good management practices. On the basis of the information on this

table, one can see that there is a great difference between how leaders in the two countries organize staff development. On the one hand, data from Finland have emphasis on new trends in innovations while Nigerian leaders lay emphasis on some kinds of simple and less costly training methods.

8.2.1 Comparative Analysis of Nigerian and Finnish Data on Staff Development

In this section comparison will be made of responses by Nigerian and Finnish leaders concerning information on organization of staff development in the university. While in the process of further data analysis similarities and differences were found between the two countries as seen in table 8.2b. A cursory look at the information given by Nigerian respondents also workshops, seminars, conferences, are mentioned as the different ways university academic staffs are developed in Nigeria. Within universities, traditional approaches to quality management have focused on individual levels (Trow 1994), for example through promotion. Recent developments in some institutions are putting increasing emphasis on the same individual through staff development. However, the main emphasis of the new approach is on collective activities of workshops, seminars and conferences to support quality whether at institutional, faculty, or departmental and programmes levels.

While analysing the results on tables, 8.2a and 8.2b in combination, another analysis level was reached, which shows common characteristics shared by both Nigeria and Finland. The table also shows the specific characteristics unique to the individual countries. This level of analysis is shown on table 8.2c.

Table 8.2c Staff development techniques and process in place

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Workshops, seminars, conferences * Allowances for overtime, housing, entertainment * In-service training	* Training at administrative unit * Sabbatical system * Empowerment * Compensation policies * Systematic continuous education * Staff education * Linkage programmes with national and international institutions	* Electronic book-keeping * Job satisfaction * Development projects * Teaching course in the university * New processes of teacher training * Staff and student participation in decision-making in the university * Staff participation in EFQM

8.2.2 Responses from Nigerian University Leaders

Nigerian respondents mentioned in-service training programme, workshops, seminars and conferences many times. The next items that appear higher on the frequency table were linkage programmes with home and overseas institutions, learning on the job, fellowships at home and abroad, and empowerment for improved performance. This process provides a valuable channel of communication between

staff and encourages academics to review their own contribution to the quality of university teaching. This means that these leaders attach great importance to those techniques, which would not cost much for the university. Workshops, seminars and conferences allow university staff the opportunity to discuss their own professional needs and development in research, teaching and administration with colleagues elsewhere on regular basis. Duke (1992) likens staff development as a tool for increased quality, efficiency and growth, in its contribution to high quality professional development and performance resulting in career advancement.

Sabbatical leave system, promotion, allowance and training at administrative unit were identified, but they scored low on the frequency table. The outcomes show that Nigeria employs the least costly techniques of staff development because of the bad economic situation confronting the universities. For instance, the respondents identified learning on the job as one technique of staff development. This implies that skills development are carried out and perfected through practice on the job without taking the pains of rigorous training. However, staff development through sabbatical leave system entails giving any due particular staff the opportunity to work in another environment outside his or her home institutions for a year and return to the original workplace with new knowledge.

8.2.3 Responses from Finnish University Leaders

Finnish respondents also identified a number of techniques for staff development in Finnish universities. In the first place, 'electronic book-keeping' is mentioned as a system of staff development. Furthermore, staff development on the part of the Finnish respondents includes ensuring staff job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is related to workers' superior performance. Modern organizations, job satisfaction for staff takes the course of making staff feels satisfied in their work. One way of doing this is to provide the necessary rewards and incentives that enhance job performance. It is only when the staffs in the university are satisfied in their work that quality teaching can be ensured, which in turn can raises the level of student learning. Theory supports the relationship of workers' job satisfaction to their performance as discussed in somewhere in the study and does not need further elaboration.

Other means of staff development in Finnish universities are the use of development projects, teaching course in the university, new processes of teacher training, and staff and student participation in decision-making in the university. As regards student and staff participation in decision-making in the university, this may suggest that democratic values and principles are available in the campus in which students and staff learn from the freedom to make decisions in matters that concern them. For development projects, Finnish universities take part in development projects that enable staff to learn new innovative ideas in effecting new technical solutions to problems facing society. For instance, one example of development project is that relating to local wastewater pollution sources, which were carried out between National Technology Centre and University of Jyväskylä Department of Biological and Environmental Sciences.

Staff development also extends to participation of staff in EFQM. In recent years since the development of the European Foundation for Quality Manage-

ment, Finnish universities have been training their staff in the use of the EFQM Excellence Model in the improvement of university services, from leadership improvement to overall university development. Given the fact that EFQM model is a systematic process in strategic planning and development of education and staff, self-evaluation procedure would be achieved through the process. The idea of making university staff to participate in EFQM suggests the move to direct university institutions towards the vision of high quality by continuous improvement in educational skills. In this way the university institution will become a centre of know-how. In addition, the institution will take strategic steps in curriculum, quality and personnel development. Academic staff in Finnish universities participates in EFQM because of its importance in quality and quality development. As Westlund (2001) observed, the EFQM Excellence Model is used by many larger European Corporates to measure and manage their quality development process, and as statistical requirement for 'best practice' measurement.

Apart from what has been discussed concerning the staff development techniques in each university that took part in the study, there are techniques of staff development that are common to both countries. The findings of the study show that respondents in both countries mentioned about seven different techniques of staff development. In both countries training in administrative units is a key process in staff development. In Nigeria this training unit is referred to as the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON). For Finnish respondents, similar administrative unit was referred to as 'palveluyksiko', which is Finnish equivalent to service unit.

Sabbatical leave system was another staff development technique shared by the two countries. The essence of this system is for staff to take off a year leave off his or her original workplace to serve in another work station for one year and come back with new ideas and insights concerning his duty, probably for research. Furthermore, staff development techniques mentioned by respondents from both countries are continuous education in terms of staff education and training. Continuous education has been important in order to avoid knowledge obsolesce. Continuous education plays key roles of advancing knowledge and skills of staff for them to play new roles. It prepares staff for development needs as well as for better teaching and research.

Systematic continuous education and staff education are other kinds of staff development identified by university leaders in both countries. These are ways in which staff can be empowered to perform well in teaching and research roles. As universities are faced with accelerating changes in their environment, teachers need to improve their skills in the acquisition and management of new knowledge. The aim is that staff working in the university will have the knowledge and skills needed for pedagogic purposes and for teachers to have teaching skills. The importance of staff receiving further education and training is necessary in the sense that an institution's competitiveness in a global or national setting depends on the expertise of its staff. If the competence of staff is continually maintained and developed, they will gain a lasting motivation. This importance of staff education and training is supported by Kautto-Koivul's (1997) study of Nokia's Technology Education and Training Programmes concerning its experiences in staff training and education. The result of the study that in 1986 Nokia realized that in order to

cope with ever-increasing global competition it had to offer its employees better opportunities to develop and educate themselves while remaining in full-time employment, as a means of providing long-term training and education, which were highly motivating. Hence staff education and training do not only mean upgrading an individual teacher's professional skills, but must serve the whole institution.

Linkage programmes with national and international institutions as a form of staff development in both countries, is another finding of this study. This finding suggests that faculty members generally share their scientific knowledge with groups of international colleagues. This sharing implies a natural need for international knowledge transfer and exchange. In general, the process of knowledge transfer is one of the core activities of the university, involving geographically mobile faculty members who introduce specific knowledge directly and personally into receiving institutions. Such knowledge transfer can be accomplished through faculty members who accept appointments, take sabbatical leaves, work as visiting professors, researchers, etc. Knowledge transfer in linkage programmes can also be in form of 'non-human carrier' for example through electronic multimedia, curriculum mobility, or journals, without the physical presence of the knowledge holder of the sending institution.

The overall finding has shown that both Nigeria and Finland view staff development as central theme that relates to change in practice. This suggests that the respondents in the two countries see staff development among the clutch of institutional innovations thrust upon the university; a tool for increased quality, efficiency and output and associated with high quality professional performance resulting to career advancement. However, empirical findings show that Finland has more innovative techniques of staff development than Nigeria. Finland looks at staff development from its long-term effects on the staff. In their staff training techniques, Finnish university leaders take both individual and institutional needs as crucial. Information from them suggests that staff development can assist in strategic development. In this framework, staff development was broadly conceived to initiate and sustain change. Also, attach much importance in job satisfaction of staff and they train the staff in the new process of teacher training.

On the part of Nigerian respondents, they look at the short-term techniques of staff development. For instance, workshops, seminars and the like are good in themselves but they are not enough to impart new knowledge and skills in the staff to enhance teaching and research qualities. Nigeria is supposed to grow beyond these short-term techniques and take lead from the Finnish techniques in improving the quality of academic staff.

8.3 Research Question 3: University Interest Groups/Stakeholders

Information concerning who constitute the interest groups or stakeholders of the university, the nature of linkages the university has with the interest groups and how those interest groups are related with universities in their every day work are sought in this research objective. Tables, 8.3a, 8.3b and 8.4c show the results obtained from these questions. In table 8.3a, the largest interest groups of Nigerian universities as identified by the respondents are staff unions. Other interest groups

of Nigerian universities include parents and guardians, students and Ministry of Education. For the Finnish respondents, the largest identified interest group is the Ministry of Education as seen from the Finnish data. Others are students and parents, Ministry of trade and industry, regional organizations and municipalities, local academic and artistic communities, and national and international partner universities. The responses are arranged from highest to lowest responses.

Table 8.3a University interest groups in Nigeria and Finland

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Staff Unions	15	Ministry of Education	10
2	Government/Min. of Education	5	Students & parents	6
3	Students	4	Ministry of Trade, Industry & Commerce	5
4	Parents/guardians	4	Local, Academic & artistic communities e.g. Art & design cities	5
5	Nigerian Society	3	Regional organizations & municipalities	5
6	Student unions	3	International & national Partner Universities	5
7	Business Community	3	Polytechnics	3
8	Alumni	3	Academy of Finland	2
9	International Academic community	2	Research Foundation e.g. SIITRA, TEKES, etc.	2
10	Religious bodies	2	Companies	2
11	University administration	1	Parliament	1
12			Alumni	1
13			Administrative staff	1
14			Companies	1
15			Lutheran Church	1
16			European Union	1
17			Funders	1
18			Student Union	1
19			Teaching staff	1

The table shows varieties of stakeholders for both Nigerian and Finnish universities. From the perspectives of Nigerian respondents, interest groups/stakeholders such as staff unions, government/Ministry of Education, students, parents/guardians, society, student unions, business community and alumni are placed high on the table because of being more often mentioned. One other interest group, such as university administration is placed low on the table due to infrequency of mention.

Information from Finland identified Ministry of Education, students and parents, national and international partner universities among others score high on the table. Ministry of Education was mentioned by more than half of the respondents. Other interest groups such as parliament, companies, Lutheran Church, student unions and teaching staff among others are mentioned though these scored low numbers in numbers of mention.

A follow up question-sought information about the nature of these linkages universities have with their interest groups. The responses are shown on table

8.3b. Nigerian respondents identified exchange of information/communication, interdependent relationship, dialogue, meetings and news bulletins. For Finnish respondents, the nature of linkages between Finnish universities and interest groups include cooperation, interaction and communication between universities and interest groups. Striking information one can identify from the table is that university leaders in the two countries liase with the interest groups in order to mobilize funding from them. As Nigerian data shows, universities link themselves with the interest groups so that they identify with them and "sell" the institutions to the interest groups and willing their good will and support." This idea is shown in the Finnish data in from of university people holding discussions and meetings with the interest groups. This is probably aimed at helping the institutions to work together in terms of research cooperation, planning future researches and planning new continuous education. The overall intension of this kind of cooperation is for general institutional development and survival.

Table 8.3b Nature of linkages between universities and interest groups for Nigeria and Finland

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Interdependent relationship	6	Cooperation & interaction	6
2	Communication/information	5	Communication	4
3	News bulletins	5	Feedback from leadership	1
4	Dialogue	4	Word of mouth marketing	1
5	Meetings	4	Funding	
6	Competition & conflict	2	Competition	1
7	Visits	1	Conflict	1
8	Identification with and "selling" of institutions to the interest groups and willing their goodwill and support	1	Overlapping	1
9	Endowments	1	Fairs	1
10	Funding	1	Discussions & Meetings	1
11			Research Cooperation	1
12			Planning future research	1
13			Planning new continuous education	1

This table reveals the nature of linkages between universities and interest groups in the two countries. According to Nigerian respondents, their universities maintain interdependent relationships with the interest groups. Communicating information through news bulletins, dialogues and meetings also link the universities and their interest groups. Respondents mentioned these linkage mechanisms frequently. However, universities are linked with their stakeholders in terms of visits, endowments and funding but these are not so much mentioned by respondents. For Finnish respondents, the table shows a high score for cooperation and interaction and communication as scoring 6 and 4 each. Feedback and leadership, word of mouth marketing, funding, discussions and meetings, research cooperation planning future research and planning new continuous education are also mentioned as

other ways of linking with their interest groups, though these were not frequently mentioned by respondents as each scored 1 as the number of mentions. What the table reveal is that there are many different ways universities can relate with their stakeholders.

However, one of the best ways a university can relate with its stakeholder should have to be for resource mobilization. Organizations undertake external relations activities because they need a good climate of opinion in which to flourish. Institutions must convince others that they are doing good job. Beyond this, institutions have a responsibility to external stakeholders to tell them what they are doing; which cannot be discharged satisfactorily through formal publications and annual reports. Albrighton and Thomas (2001) argues that effective external relations will provide benefits fro every aspects of an institution's work. According to Albrighton and Thomas, external relations can help to recruit better students and staff. It can increase the generation of research income, and improve the success rate of fundraising initiatives. There will be higher morale amongst staff, which will become better motivated.

In the last section of the question, respondents were asked to give examples of their everyday linkages with their interest groups. Table 8.3c shows the responses from Nigerian and Finnish leaders. Information from Nigeria respondents show meetings, endowments and support, and information about what goes on in the university, donations for physical development, and cooperation with scores of 3 and 2 respectively, are examples of everyday linkages between Nigerian universities and their stakeholders. Other instances of everyday linkages include admissions, job and service offerings to contractors, host community, informed teaching and learning facilities, funding and research information, exchange programmes external examinations and occasional visits, which score lower in the table are examples of everyday linkages between universities and stakeholders.

On the part of Finland, respondents identified such examples as discussions on work management, communication with donors by application letters and meetings were identified as examples of everyday linkages. While these everyday routine linkages are frequently mentioned with higher numbers by respondents, promotion of paperless office with partners, seminars on how to work together, public relations through information technology (IT), organization of research projects and student evaluations are among Finnish responses though not very often mentioned.

Table 8.3c Results of examples of everyday linkages for Nigeria and Finland

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Meetings	3	Discussions on how to manage own work	4
2	Endowments, & support	3	Communication with donors by application letters	2
3	Information on what's going on in the university		Meetings	2
4	Donations for physical de velopment	2	Promoting paperless office with partners	1
5	Cooperation	2	Seminars on how to work together	1
6	Admissions	1	Public relations through IT (Information Technology)	1
7	Monitoring sensitiveness and mood of the groups on daily and continuing basis	1	Organizing research Projects	1
8	Job & service offerings to contractors, host community, informed teaching and learning facilities	1	Student evaluations	1
9	Funding and research information	1		
10	Exchange programmes	1		
11	External examinations	1		
12	Occasional visits	1		

8.4 Research Question 4: Resource Mobilization in Time of Budgetary Decline for Higher Education

In this part of the study, information was sought from university leaders in Nigeria and Finland to state how they mobilize the resources for the running of their universities. In order to obtain such information, the following question was posed to university leaders in the two countries: "In a situation of budgetary decline for higher education when universities are expected to 'do more with less' resources, how does your university mobilize the funding for carrying out its activities'? The objective of this study was to seek information from the university leaders concerning how they mobilize the financial resources for running their universities. The results of this question are shown on table 8.4 below.

It has been observed that decline in university funding in recent years has induced universities to search more vigorously for alternative sources of funding. This has made universities become increasingly dependent upon non-government sources of income. Greater financial independence could give the institutions greater freedom to find private sources of finance, which would enrich the education provided by the universities. In the theoretical part of this study, Burton Clark supports the view that for universities to fashion new change-oriented behaviour, they generally require great financial resources, which would come from different sources or what he called "a diversified funding base" (Clark 1998).

Table 8.4a Resource Mobilization Strategies in the Universities

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Tuition fee	15	Research project funding	4
2	Subventions from Government/NUC	12	External funding (Donations)	4
3	Endowment fund launching for fundraising	6	Private companies' research	4
4	Outreach programmes (sandwich, distance learning, continuing education programmes, remedial courses	6	Naming classrooms after companies that pay for them	4
5	Alumni benefactions	5	Rationalization	4
6	Service fees	4	State	3
7	Consultancy fees	4	Increased graduation rate	1
8	University entrepreneurship ventures	4	Savings	1
9	Bookshops	1	Knowledge sales (CD-databases)	1
10	Pilot projects	1	University own companies	1
11	Operating university guest houses	1	Foundations	1
12	Rationalization	1	Working 'more with less'	1
13	Publishing	1		

8.4.1 Analysis of Nigerian Data

The empirical findings that appear on the table above reveal some innovative techniques for maintaining financial stability in the university. As the numbers shows on the table, these techniques scored the highest numbers and almost all Nigerian respondents mentioned tuition fees (15) and subventions from government/National Universities Commission (NUC) (12) as resource mobilization strategies. These are followed by endowment funds for fundraising, outreach programmes in form of sandwich programmes, distance learning, continuing education programmes and remedial courses, which were identified by over half of the respondents scored higher on the table. Alumni benefaction, service fees, consultancy fees and university entrepreneurship ventures have 5, 4, 4, 4 scores respectively. Less often mentioned techniques and which scored only 1 point each as number of mention include bookshops, pilot projects, and operation of university guesthouses, rationalization and publishing. It is interesting to note that high scores of tuition fees and subventions from government shows that that Nigerian universities depend very heavily on government subventions and tuition. Wood and Meek (1997) have the opinion in support of this policy response; that universities should mobilize their resources through non-governmental sources of funding for higher education.

It is not surprising that tuition fee scored high on the table because in many countries of the world, many universities rely on student fees to defray substantial cost of university education. Evidence from other countries, particularly in developing countries, suggests that tuition fee is a major resource mobilization measure in the university. A study by Onokerhoraye and Nwoye (1995) found tuition fee as

an innovative technique for resource mobilization in the university. The justification for payment of tuition in the university has been discussed elsewhere in the study. A recent study by Department of Education and Science (DES) (Johnes and Taylor 1990), released a consultative document, which stresses that higher education institutions should obtain a greater proportion of their income from student fees [...]. This finding has its support from our discussion on academic reform (see section 8.4) that stresses greater reliance on tuition fees as effective tool for improving the match between services provided by higher education system and the needs of its users and funders (cf Howarth 1991).

In the university sector, funding is one of the most important non-material resources. "Getting funding right and most other things will fall in place" is a popular cliche' among managers of Nigerian Universities. Smith has endorsed the global pervasiveness of this view (Okebukola 2002). As regards government subventions to universities, it is important to point out that in Nigerian the government retains full responsibility for university education in the country. A major source of recurrent and capital funds for public universities is the government. On the average government in federal or state levels receive over 60% of both recurrent and capital costs of running the university. While federal universities has about 80 per cent of their recurrent cost and more than 70 per cent of their capital bills picked up by the federal government, state universities have not been as lucky. They get less than 10 % of funds required to cover capital expenses and barely 25% for overhead (Okebukola 2002). However, in all cases, federal and state level of government funding has declined.

Beside governmental financial lifelines, it was also indicated by Nigerian respondents that resource mobilization in the university takes the forms of endowment fund launching for fundraising, service fees, publishing, and alumni benefactions. Also, operation of university guest houses, outreach programmes in the form of sandwich programmes, distance learning, remedial courses and continuing education programmes are among the techniques of mobilizing resources in Nigerian universities. Some of these findings suggest the influence of the marketplace on the direction of higher education towards commercial ventures that increasingly link universities to for-profit ventures, as manifestations of capital's penetration of the network of higher education. One idea gained from Slaughter and Leslie's (1997) study is that universities should receive increasing revenue from market-like activities. As budget restrictions have accelerated the process of increased dependence of universities on the market, William (1984) writes that the main advantage of the market is the incentive it provides for universities and colleges to respond to changing economic and social circumstances. Marginson's (1997) study on reforms in Australian higher education show that most systems now utilize markets as a tool of organization and management, for enhancing institutional financial autonomy, competitive allocation, contract planning, and income from commercial sources and student fees.

8.4.2 Analysis of Finnish Data

In Finland universities mobilize financial resources through research project funding, external funding such as donations (referring to private and public funding of research), rationalization, private companies research and naming classrooms after companies that pay for them. Finnish informants, with scores of 4 each, often mention these research mobilization techniques. These techniques are followed by state subventions with score 3. Furthermore, increased graduation rate, savings from other services, foundations, knowledge sales (CD-databases), university own companies constitute resource mobilization strategies in Finnish universities, though with low scores of 1 each. Although the respondents mentioned "rationalization" but this strategy is not a resource mobilization strategy, but a cost saving mechanism. Also, external funding in form of donations as a kind of resource mobilization techniques is not a long-term but a short-term gift. However, donations are not known in Finland as a major resource mobilization technique because nobody in Finland is willing to donate large sum of money to the university. Therefore, this may be taken to be industrial cooperation. These findings from the Finnish data are consistent with Clark's (1998) work on 'diversified funding base' as one of the pathways of organizational transformation. Also the works of many researchers, for example Watson 1992; Onokerhoraye and Nwoye 1995; Yeguo and Yukun 2000, Alewell 2990 subscribe to funding higher education through other means.

Another interesting outcome of this study is that Finnish university leaders have learned to work 'more with less' resources. "Doing more with less", suggests that universities mostly learn to cope with available financial resources within their reach. This suggests that though money is a crucial input in the university, it is not a solution to all problems facing institutions of higher learning. This suggests Bonvillian's (1996) study, which argues that for universities to function well, they must develop the ability to "accomplish more with less." Furthermore, the demand for effective institutional management of the university calls for doing more with less as a way of thinking. The remedy to problems facing institutions of higher education in general and universities in particular is for them to develop links with external constituencies, both private and public organizations to generate the resources for its activities within the context of limited resources and develop the ability to become more cost effective as supported by Scott (1989).

A further result that accrued from Finnish data is that Finnish university leaders seem to put emphasis on cost-saving measures than mobilization of financial resources. This point of view can be ascertained when one takes cursory look at table 8.4 where majority of resource mobilization measures characteristic for Finland identified such words as "rationalization", "increased graduation rate", "savings" and "working more with less."

8.4.3 Analysis of Nigerian and Finnish Responses

Despite the differences that exist between the two countries regarding resource mobilization techniques, study participants from both countries hold the same view of the importance of the role of the state in university funding. Not only that they

mentioned the state as one of the resource mobilization measures in the university, donations from individuals or organizations, and endowment funds are mentioned as a way in which financial resources can be mobilized for the university. Furthermore, study participants from both countries indicated knowledge sales such as bookshops (as used in Nigeria) and bookshop and CD-databases (as used in Finland). Also, both leaders mention consultancy services for private companies research, pilot research projects, and university entrepreneurial ventures. Mention was made of universities owning companies, or university entrepreneurial ventures. Our theory supports this technique, which was referred to as "Corporatization of the Universities", in which universities are expected to raise revenue by entering into business enterprise or by holding investment portfolios as discussed in section 6.3.3 (cf. Reading 1996; Bostock 1997). Some of these findings are shown on table 8.4 below.

Table 8.4b Resource mobilization measures

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Endowment fund launching for fund raising * Service fee * Alumni benefactions * Publishing * Operating University guest houses * Outreach programmes (Sandwich, distance learning, continuing education programmes, remedial courses, etc). * Tuition fees	* State * Pilot research projects * Donations * Knowledge sales (bookshop, CD-databases) * Endowment funds * Consultancy for private companies research * University entrepreneurship ventures	* External funding (Donations) * Naming classrooms after companies that pay for them * Rationalization * Increased graduation rate * Savings * Foundations * Working 'more with less'

A look at this table will shown that although Nigerian and Finnish university leaders have similar ways of looking at resource mobilization in the university, there are still other areas where each can be of use to the other. In the first place, alumni benefaction mentioned by Nigerian respondents is absent in the Finnish data. Furthermore, issues such as remedial courses for students who fall below the required standards for higher education, should also be instituted in Finnish universities as one way of raising money for the university. On the part of Nigerian leaders, one good practice worthy of emulation is the question of "doing more with less." These Findings have shown that there are marked differences and similarities in the ways Nigeria and Finland responded to the questions. It can be generally seen that Nigeria has not really moved away from traditional methods of doing things. Unlike Finland where innovative approaches have been the routine for tackling issues in globalizing political economy, Nigeria has not been following the trends in other parts of the world. There is the need for Nigeria to follow the changing global trends, and try to learn to 'do more with less', that is, they should demonstrate maximum outputs from their allocated financial inputs. Higher education should not depend too far heavily on public funds as Nigerian data shows, but greater

efforts are needed to raise private funds through applied research, consultancy and continuing education. Greater selectivity is needed by Nigerian universities in the allocation of funding so that more resources are concentrated in the centres of excellence. At the same time, they need to be more cost-conscious and should manage their resources more efficiently and effectively. Hoff (1999) has pointed out that a clearly articulated strategic plan, sound financial management and allocation of resources will provide educational leaders with the appropriate responses to the external and internal pressures apparent in the universities today.

Given the constrained position of government finance in the world today, it is not surprising that there are pressures within universities to enlarge the amount of private-sector funding of university activities. Universities should be encouraged to develop 'corporate partnerships' with whom to engage in research, and to encourage academics to seek actively to turn the results of their research into products that can bring in much needed money. This is one aspect of Finnish 'good practice' worthy of emulation by Nigeria. In Finland resource mobilization is a part of new public management that takes part in a broader context of management by results.

8.5 Research Question 5: Educational Processes

''Process' is one of the criteria of the European foundation for quality management (EFQM) Excellence Model. I modified the process to be educational processes, which include teaching learning and research, as three among the important 'businesses' of the university. These three processes are central to institutional mission, in which teaching and learning are at the core of any education institution's activity and reason for that institution's being. Therefore the main objective of the study sought from these educational processes was to inquiry from the participants in the study in both countries to express in their own words how they perceive the quality of each of the educational processes and how the processes can be improved. The main outcomes of the study that emerged from responses of Nigerian and Finnish participants are discussed in the sections below. The section begins with a discussion of quality research, followed by quality teaching and then quality learning, and ways to improve these processes.

8.5.1 Quality Research Programme

In attempt to obtain information on the perceptions of university leadership concerning quality research programmes, Nigeria and Finnish university leaders were asked to describe what they think to be 'quality research programme' and how research can be improved in the university. The aim of the question was to obtain information on 'best practice' in engaging in research. The information obtained from Nigerian and Finnish University leaders on what quality research is, is displayed on table 8.5a.

Table 8.5a Descriptions of quality research program

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Action research intended to solve problems facing society	4	Can compete for funding	3
2	Research relevant to felt needs and demands	2	Research carried out at doctoral programmes aimed at providing skills and capabilities for student to carry out scientific research	3
3	Research that helps university, industry, community, government, maintain good quality	2	Research that meets high international research level	3
4	Research empirically carried out	1	Research in much demand by companies	2
5	High level publication in reputable journals	1	Research done in co-operation with other universities nationally and internationally	2
6	Research designed to use modern equipment	1	Research that has areas of emphasis and concrete results	2
7	Research that is original, innovative, and well structured	1	Research relevant to postgraduate studies	1
8	Research that yields veritable, acceptable results	1		
9	Bearing relevance to academic environment in terms of its contribution to teaching and learning	1		

Table 8.5a shows responses from Nigerian and Finnish respondents concerning how they view quality research programmes. The table has two columns: on the left side are responses from Nigerian respondents while information from Finnish respondents are placed on the right side of the table. And all the responses are arranged from high to low according to the number of mentions of each item. Analysis will begin with perceptions of Nigerian respondents.

8.5.2 Analysis of Nigerian and Finnish Respondents' Perspectives

Nigerian respondents view quality research from different perspectives as information on table 8.5a shows. Each of these definitions of quality research looked at research from its relevance in solving societal problems, its impact on educational development and on reputation through publications. As regards the impact of research on society as the most frequent response, the first definition sees quality research as "action research intended to solve problems facing society and one that is relevant to the felt needs and demands" are identified by Nigerian respondents. Furthermore, respondents defined quality research programmes from their relevance to educational development. According to these definitions, quality research programmes help educational institutions, industrial sectors and policy makers maintain good quality in the services they provide to society, and at the same time such type of research bears relevance to academic environment in terms of its contribution to teaching and learning.

Another view of quality research advanced by Nigerian informants has to do with research that was published in an international journal, how innovative, original and how structured such research has been, followed by whether such research was carried out empirically and the type of equipment used in the research. According to these views, research must have "high-level publication in international journals", it must be "empirically carried out", "designed to use modern equipment", must be "original, innovative and well structured" and must "yield veritable and acceptable results." Although it cannot be totally accepted that the quality of research depends on such a research being published in reputable international journal, Penington's (1998) study supports the idea that one of the most critical issue for monitoring the outcomes of research is that of careful evaluation of materials submitted for publication in learned journal, where experts in the particular discipline make considered judgement of the research before acceptance for publication.

From the Finnish respondents' perspectives, one of the most often mentioned responses has to do with competition for funding. These study participants view quality research as one that can compete for funding in the research market. They also believe that research done in co-operation with other universities either locally or internationally is a quality one. Scoring high on the table of frequency of mention are the view that "research carried out at the doctoral level and aimed at providing skills and capabilities for students to carry out scientific research, meeting high international research level as well as being in high demand by companies.

8.5.3 'Best Practices' in Defining Quality Research Programmes

Although quality research programmes have been identified by Nigerian and Finnish university leaders in different forms; as measures contributing significantly to quality development, one good way to define quality research should be as one that has the capacity to solve the problems of society. On the one hand, research should be perceived as an aid to wealth creation, strategic linkages between universities and private research companies would result in mutual advantage and national benefits. It would be of benefit that collaborative projects with universities within industry can offer attractive training venue for postgraduate students and can also create interesting employment opportunities for recent graduates. In this context, students have a better sense of appreciation of the relevance of research through having opportunities to link and apply theoretical knowledge to real world problems. At a regional level, these initiatives can bring some good results such as providing part-time working experience and employment for students, joint student projects, and staff exchange between university and industry.

Over the decade the question of how research impacts social development and economic success in particular has attracted growing public interest in western industrial countries. In Finland the importance of research and developing the science system has long been recognized, and only quite recently has the country been portrayed as a major international force in research and development around high technology. In reviewing the state and quality of research in Finland, Husso et al.'s (2000) work supports our findings from respondents from the two coun-

tries. According to these researchers state that apart from the traditional view that research plays a key role in the production and accumulation of new knowledge in the formation of rational world view, in society's self-assessment as well as in increasing our knowledge and understanding of different phenomena, universities and scientific research have thus established the institutional foundation for civilization, curiosity and new knowledge. Research also produces results and impacts in society; in the sense that it helps to promote both scientific as well as social, technological and economic development.

Also, with regard to impacts of research on societal problems, research capacities of the universities are expected to be for the purposes of societal improvement. In Tjeldvoll's (1998) study on Norway concerning the use of research in the service of society, it was indicated that clients in the Oslo region express strong expectations about using the research capacities of the University of Oslo for their purposes. For example, for internationally-oriented businesses, for the Oslo Municipality Government's economic development work, and for the Norwegian Environment Protection Organization. Nevertheless, the desire to find better solutions to practical problems facing society may be an important motivating factor for research and that research can contribute substantially to the accumulation of material wealth in society as well as improving the quality of life.

The role of research in overall innovation system was found in a report published by the Academy of Finland. It was reported that in recent years many countries are adopting the centre of excellence concept as part of their science policies. The Finnish Programme for Centres of Excellence in Research 2002–2007 states that in the 1990s, Finland launched teams of research projects as systematic effort to develop creative, internationally competitive research and training environments within the network of universities such as universities of Helsinki, Jyväskylä, Turku, Tampere, Kuopio, National Public Health Institute, etc. In general terms the centre of excellence, consisting of 16 different collaborating centres for the six year period 2002–2007, is aimed at raising the level and quality in Finnish science and at improving its international competitiveness, visibility and esteem. The centre of excellence strategy is designed to support all disciplines from the natural science and engineering to the humanities and social sciences. Another key objective is to promote interdisciplinary research. This theoretical finding lends support to the establishment of cooperation in research with other institutions is important in defining quality research (Academy of Finland 2000).

However, a further analysis of the findings shows differences and similarities found from Nigerian and Finnish data. Table 8.5a shows the results. These findings from both Nigerian and Finnish data concerning how one should look at quality research programme are consistence with theoretical findings from the work of researchers like Barnett 1990; Carter 1980; Bowen and Schuster 1986; Jones and Taylor 1990; Neuman 1993; Kember and Gow 1992; Moses 1990; Vidal and Quintanilla 2000. These researches show a common shared characteristics that quality research has a contribution to make either to the society as a process of social change, to quality of teaching, teaching infrastructures and curriculum, discovery and advancement of knowledge. In essence, quality research must be viewed from its application to new situations and problems facing society. Numerous scientific

studies as well as in various Commission reports have shown that research has a clear impact on economic success, welfare, competitiveness, and innovativeness. On the strength of this evidence there has been growing support for the view that research represents a major strategic resource with respect to industrial, economic and social development (Academic of Finland 2000).

Table 8.5b Similarities and differences in Nigerian and Finnish perceptions of quality research programmes

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Research relevant to felt needs and demands * Action research intended to solve problems facing society * Research that helps university, industry, community, & government, maintain good quality * Research that is original, innovative and well structured	* Research relevance to education development * Research that meets international acceptability * Research that yields acceptable results * Research relevant to academic environment in terms of its contribution to teaching and learning * Research that demands high level publication in reputable journal	* Research able to compete fot funding * Research done in cooperation with other universities nationally and internationally * Research in high demand by companies

In the second part of the questions, respondents were also required to identify how research can be qualitatively improved in the university. The findings to this question are presented below on table 8.6b. In response to this research question, Nigerian respondents pointed out that one of the ways of improving research in the university is to make a proper utilization of research grants given out by the state, industry and various funds and foundations. One of the ways of achieving this research improvement strategy is for government to prevent universities from behaving in some undesirable way, but making institutions to show some kind of accountability to avoid the wastage of research funds. In support of this kind of proposal, Derek Bok argues that many of the current accounting requirements seek to prevent professors from using some of the research funds from one grant to support graduate instruction or research under some other governmentally supported project. He further posits that public officials avoid unauthorised shifts of this kind, but have to ensure that each federal dollar is used only in the precise programme for which it was specifically authorized (Bok 1982, 55–56).

Other ways of improving the quality of research mentioned by Nigerian respondents, though these scored low on the table, include the provision of modern tools and techniques, funding researchers for learned conferences abroad, identification of research needs of institutions and society, researches following set goals, employment of quality researcher as crucial to improvement of research, and by monitoring and evaluation. Some of these findings suggest the process of creating an environment that will allow research to reach the international forefront and at supporting the main areas of strength in research. Furthermore, universities' re-

search infrastructure must develop favourably and physical research environment must be improved considerably and core facilities for research must represent state of the art. On the other hand, in all fields of research, research infrastructures must be constantly renewed and rapidly updated.

Other interesting findings came from Finnish data. Finnish participants in the study consider the improvement of research quality from the human, environmental and collaborative aspects. On the one hand, the human side of research quality places the improvement of research on the "quality doctoral staff and students." who engage in research activities. Research should be seen as systematic human endeavour intended to produce a level of impersonal knowledge, standing outside individuals. In its environmental aspect, research quality can be improved by providing good environment where research activities should be conducted.

Table 8.5c Ways of improving research from Nigerian and Finnish Perspectives

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Proper utilization of research grants	3	Quality doctoral staff and students	6
2	Provision of modern tools and techniques	1	Professorial regulation- competence of international level	3
3	Funding for learned conference at home and abroad	1	International co-operation	3
4	Identification of the research needs of institution, and society	1	Facilities provision: development of library and information services – CD rooms databases, internet, etc.	3
5	Research that follows set goals	1	Ability to compete for funds	3
6	Employment of quality researchers	1	Encouraging multi-disciplinary team approach	1
7	By monitoring and evaluation	1	Provision of good research environment	1
			Crediting system for publication	1
			Attendance to conferences	1

Such environment may include adequate facilities and funding. Furthermore, encouraging multi-disciplinary approach is a means of improving the quality of research. The call for multi-disciplinary approach means that researchers from different academic disciplines can pool their intellectual resources together. This suggests that researchers in the university co-operatively have a responsibility to assist in keeping alive the research tradition; not only that through research they are brought to the frontiers of knowledge, it is by their research performance that academics take on their professional identity and are judged by their peers (Barnett 1990).

By further analysing the data, a comparison table emerged, which shows unique characteristics for Nigeria and Finland and common characteristics as table 8.5c shows. Although the table shows different approaches to research improvement both from Nigerian and Finnish perspectives, and has equally shown that Finland has more possibilities in techniques of research improvement despite what it shares

in common with Nigerian. But it is important to add that one of the ways to improve research is the ability to identify the "right topics" and to conduct such a research in scientifically right way.

Table 8.5d Unique and Common Characteristics for how to improve the quality of research programme for Nigeria and Finland

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Identification of research needs of institutions and society * Research must follow set goals	* Provision of adequate funding * Attendance to learned conferences at home and abroad * Provision of adequate research facilities, tools and techniques * Monitoring and evaluation of research: Professorial regulation of research * Employment of quality researchers	* Quality of doctoral staff and students * International cooperation in research * Provision of good research environment * Encouraging multi-disciplinary team approach * Crediting systems for publication

One further good way of raising the profile and performance of research is to import researchers with established track record into the research environment. This initiative can result in a flow of academic staff to the universities, who either view this kind of move as an opportunity to do something different and challenging, or as a way to achieve promotion not available at their institutions. Furthermore, a study carried out by Patrick and Stanley (1998) supports the view that other variables that influence research quality in an institution of higher education are the number of articles in academic journal, total external research income, postgraduate research students and staff

A lesson to be learned from this study concerning how to improve the quality of research is to identify "best practices" from the responses. Some best practices mentioned by participants from both countries include adequate funding of research, conducive, research environment, and professorial regulation of research. Since both countries indicated their awareness of the same improvement practices of research quality, they should as well share from this lesson of experience in their quest for continuous improvement efforts. Nigeria should learn from Finland how to improve the quality of research they carry out in their universities. For instance, Nigerian university leaders should learn from Finnish leaders how to adequately fund research through various mechanisms, compete for research funds at an unprecedented level, and how to forge international strategic alliance for most effective exploitation of know-how.

8.6 Quality Teaching

Quality teaching constitutes one of the educational processes in the modified EFQM Excellence Model. In this part of the question, respondents were simply asked to

identify how they would define quality teaching and a follow up question, which required them to also identify how they improve teaching in the university. These questions were meant to obtain leadership perceptions on the improvement of teaching in the university. The second table portrays the innovative measures involved in improving teaching as perceived by leaders in the two countries. The responses offer a broad range of strategies for achieving the climate and support needed for effective teaching in the university especially spelling out the special roles of university leaders in fostering high quality teaching. Responses for Nigeria and Finland are shown on table 8.6a

Table 8.6a University leadership perceptions on quality teaching

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Teaching that is carried out within the curriculum context	4	Teaching that challenges students to think deeply, reflectively, and constructively about topic (s) at hand	3
2	Teaching that brings attitudinal change on the students, and which elicits positive response/feedback	2	Up to date lecture content	2
3	Teaching that conforms to needs and ideals, and especially adapted to suit students in their learning environment	1	High level and innovative teaching	2
4	Teaching that scores high in evaluation of teaching effectiveness	1	New teaching methods	2
5	Teaching that meets the aspiration of the institution	1	Use of adequate facilities for teaching	2
6	Teaching that is result-oriented; teaching that ensures impartation of knowledge in teaching-learning process	1	High level and innovative teaching	2
7	Teaching carried out by highly qualified teacher in their areas of specialization	1	Teaching that stimulates students	1
			Assessment of student skills	1
8			When students learn to learn and do	1
9			Drop out rate	1
10			Well organized student counselling	1
11			Well designed and arranged study programmes	1
12			Teaching time	1
13			Using latest technology	1

8.6.1 Quality Teaching From Nigerian and Finnish Respondents' Perspectives

Looking at table 8.7a Nigerian respondents defined quality teaching in terms of its basis within the curricular content, followed by " teaching that brings attitudinal change on the student and which elicits positive response/feedback" These findings are in accord with the findings from studies by Perry (1994); Felder and Brent 1996); Samuelowicz and Bain (1992); Martin and Ball (1991). These definitions scored 4 and 2 respectively on the table. Other findings show quality teaching as one that scores high in the evaluation of teaching effectiveness, one that meets the aspiration of the institution, being result-oriented by ensuring an impartation of knowledge in teaching-learning process, and teaching that was carried out by highly qualified teachers in their areas of specialization. These are lent support by works of Bauer et al. (1999) and Rautopuro and Väisänen (2001).

On the part of Finnish respondents, quality teaching was viewed from teaching effects on the students, the content of teaching, level of teaching innovation and methods and facilities used in the teaching-learning encounter. These are areas where many respondents mentioned more than once. As regards teaching effects on the students, Finnish respondents defined quality teaching as one that challenges students to think deeply, reflectively and constructively about the topic at hand. Finnish respondents further defined quality teaching in terms of methods used in imparting knowledge and the level of innovative methods and the use of adequate facilities. Among less often mentioned definitions of definitions of quality teaching include "teaching that stimulates students' assessment of study skills, teaching that was carried out with the latest technology, well designed and arranged study programmes, and teaching carried out by high level innovative methods." Rautopuro and Väisänen (2001) give theoretical support to this finding.

In further analysis, the data were organized according to areas of differences and similarities as shown on table 8.6b.

Table 8.6b Unique and Common Characteristics of leadership perceptions on quality teaching

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Teaching that conforms to needs and ideals, and especially adapted to suit students in their learning environment * Teaching that brings attitudinal change on the students, and which elicits positive response/feedback * Teaching that is carried out within the curriculum content * Teaching that meets the aspiration of the institution * Teaching that is result-oriented; teaching that ensures impartation of knowledge in teaching-learning process * Teaching carried out by highly qualified teacher in their areas of specialization	* Teaching that scores high in evaluation of teaching effectiveness, and helps student to learn and do * Teaching tailored to the intellectual needs of students	* Teaching that employed new teaching methods * Teaching that made use of adequate facilities * Teaching that stimulates the student * Teaching that involves high level innovative techniques * Teaching that follows up to date lecture content * Teaching that followed well organized student counselling * Teaching that follows well designed and arranged study programmes * Teaching that challenges students to think deeply, reflectively, and constructively about topic(s) at hand * Teaching with enough teaching time * Teaching that has less dropout rate

As this table shows, university leaders in both countries perceive quality teaching as an important aspect of quality improvement in the university. Respondents in the two countries see quality teaching from the point of view of its score on the evaluation table. For them teaching must be based on innovation techniques to merit being called quality teaching. The finding suggests that teaching methods used by teachers must foster active long-term engagement with learning tasks. However, one of the best ways of looking at quality in teaching is the education of students. Therefore, quality teaching must be encourage deep approaches to learning. According to Leslie Wagner (1982), the largest task of higher education institutions is the teaching of students. The scope of this type of teaching ranges from training in specific vocational skills to the provision of opportunities for self-development in a wide range of general analytical and creative activities. In this line of thinking considerable attention should be devoted to the improvement of teaching and learning, particularly through the use of appropriate educational resources (Brockland and McGill 1998). A study concerning quality care in the improvement of higher education (Barnett 1992) supports the view that higher education is essentially a process of student development. There is therefore the responsibility of the leader at the institutional level for maintain and enhance the quality of teaching learning process.

8.6.2 Improvement of Teaching

In a follow up question, respondents were required to identify how they improve the quality of teaching in the university. The objective this part of the question was to examine the various issues surrounding teaching improvement by university leaders. It also the aim of this part of the study was to examine the ways leaders can breath new life into teaching by promoting teaching quality. It is assumed that for teaching to be made result-oriented, leadership must champion its promotion. Leadership in the university must introduce and promote appropriate institutional policies and practices through concrete actions that might be taken to support a higher priority for teaching. Some innovative measures identified from empirical data concerning the improvement of teaching are shown on table 8.6b.

Table 8.6c Innovative measures for teaching improvement

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Provision of teaching facilities and equipment	7	Systematic feedback from students	6
2	Seminars, tutorials, demonstrations, personal counselling, group discussion	3	Development programmes for every course	3
3	Recruitment of qualified and committed staff	3	Improvement of study units and degrees	2
4	Assessment	2	Hypermedia-based teaching	2
5	Maintenance of conducive teaching atmosphere	2	General improvement in teaching quality	1
6	Payment of deserved remunerations	1	Visual university (air- learning)	1
7	Improved allocation of research work	1	Use of expert groups to develop new ideas for teaching	1
8	Staff exchange with overseas university institutions	1	Distance learning	
9	Teachers to local conferences	1	Pedagogical training for staff	1
10	Sabbatical research leave for staff to work in other areas and bring back new ideas and knowledge	1	Conducive teaching environment	1

As the information on the table shows for Nigerian and Finnish participants, there are varieties of ways teaching can be improved in the university. I will first discuss teaching improvement from the point of view of Nigerian respondents.

8.6.3 Teaching Improvement from Nigerian Respondents' Perspectives

Some of the ways most often mentioned by Nigerian respondents for improving teaching are provision of teaching facilities and equipment, maintenance of conducive, teaching atmosphere, recruitment of qualified and committed staff. These findings suggest that academic leaders have important supportive roles to play in

improvement of teaching. As regards the improvement of teaching through the provision of teaching facilities. Seldin's (1990) study on ways of improving teaching suggested some of the approaches, which concur with these empirical findings. However, the information suggests that university authorities in Nigeria are aware of the importance and relevance of facilities to the pursuit of knowledge and academic excellence.

Perry's (1991) work concerning teaching improvement suggests that the necessary conditions for improving teaching quality include the existence of appropriate accommodation, furniture and equipment for teaching as well as the backup of good library, learning resources and facilities, (see also Blackstone 1991). However, in relation to theoretical and observational evidence, most universities in Nigeria lack teaching and learning infrastructure. Writing about the standard of Nigerian university education, Segun Adesina, a professor of education and executive director of the Nigerian Educational Research Council, has this to make in his "Cracks in the Ivory Tower":

> [...] nearly all the universities in Nigeria lack learning and teaching facilities. Many of them do not have laboratories, though they teach science subjects. The Federal University of Technology, Owerri, graduated its first set of technology graduates without necessary facilities. Whether or not the universities are being well funded, one factor that stands out like a sore thumb was the dehumanising conditions under which the students learn. The waste of funds by the authorities is one of the factors that create the unhealthy environment in which students are forced to live and learn (Newswatch, January 18, 1988).

Furthermore, Nigeria respondents mentioned that subjecting teaching staff to seminar sessions, tutorial, demonstrations and group discussion are other ways of steering teaching towards the correct strategic direction. This kind of arrangement can impact on both students and institution as a whole, and thus brings with it shifts in approaches to teaching and learning and subsequent changes in the practices of academic staff. These construed programmes of staff development give academics not only information but also time to explore and discuss the possibilities of knowledge to support teaching. Ultimately such development programmes should facilitate the academic staff as agents who will realize and extend the possibilities of knowledge dissemination.

Another area of concern for teaching improvement is "payment of deserved remunerations" to academic staff. This finding has implications for motivation and benefits to academic staff. Pink's (1999) study, concerning electronic learning and its implication for academic staff suggests supporting stance to this finding by asserting that "a system of "rewards" or motivational factors for successful innovation teaching have proven crucial to a number of innovatory approaches in teaching. Nigerian respondents further mentioned recruitment of qualified staff, keeping conducive teaching atmosphere and sabbatical research leave, where staff work in other areas and bring back new ideas and knowledge to "mother" institutions.

8.6.4 Improving Teaching from Finnish Respondents' Perspectives

The findings from Finland also show different possibilities of improving teaching quality. For example, a cursory look at table 8.6b show that the highest number of mention made by Finnish leaders concerns the improvement of teaching through "systematic feedback from students." This suggests that development of evaluation is important since educational institutions are increasingly competing with others in terms of performance. Institutions, which can mostly convincingly demonstrate a high level of performance is deemed successful institutions. In order to detect areas of improvement in the teaching-learning process, evaluation of courses important in order to obtain feedback from the students. Matti Lappalainen has viewed evaluation as "a passport to better teaching and learning" (Lappalainen 1999). Lappalainen further gives reasons why evaluation or assessment has become key concepts in educational debate. One of these relates to the findings of educational psychology pointing to the significance of assessment and feedback in learning process. He however argued that it is important that assessment and feedback should not be concentrated only after the course is over, but also take place at the beginning and during the course. He concludes that research has not focused only on theoretical questions, but has also proposed practical tools: the learning process can be fostered by using logbooks, small-group discussion, and focused free writing. These and similar methods can both stimulate learning for the students, and at the same time provide feedback for the teacher.

Another area of concern for improving teaching has to do with the use of "hypermedia-based teaching." Training of teachers in new technologies represent, and are used to create new social values and meaning to the teachers. Therefore, a support unit in learning technology is not just a technical or even an academic service but an agent to effect cultural change within an institution. The same finding suggests that Finnish respondents recognize the need for the use of technology and, more importantly, the understanding of how learning can be facilitated by the opportunities technology can afford. This demonstrates an example of good practice how technology can become a positive element in teachers' professional lives that will enhance the pedagogical strategies of teaching staff (Pink 1999).

Additionally, a favourable teaching environment, pedagogical training for staff and use of expert groups in developing new ideas for teaching, are mentioned as ways to improve teaching. These empirical findings are supported by a variety of studies undertaken by some researchers who pointed out that reinforcement of teaching quality depends on the quality of inputs (e.g. maintenance of quality of equipment, computing facilities and the library in form of equipment and supplies), availability of qualified teachers and the like (Rautopuro and Väisänen 2001; Raaheim 1997; Perry 1991; Green 1990, Bauer et al. 1999; Blackstone 1991; Seldin 1990).

Furthermore, the findings from Finland show that improvement of teaching in the university comprises of general improvement of teaching quality. For examples, Finnish university leaders mentioned that they improve teaching by develop-

ing programmes by every course as well as pedagogical training of staff. These teaching improvement techniques call for expertise in teaching methods and an understanding of the distinctive requirements of different subject and course settings. The finding suggests the requirement that the quality of teachers have to be considered, and ensured through rigorous recruitment, appointment and promotion policies. In this sense, Brown and Sommerland (1992) support the view that staff development can satisfy the development needs of individuals who are the institution's key human resources. Research has shown that the largest task of higher education institutions is the teaching of students, which scope ranges from training in specific vocational skills to the provision of opportunities for self-development in a wide range of general analytical and creative activities (Wagner 1982). Therefore, considerable attention should be devoted to the improvement of teaching and learning through the use of appropriate educational resources as incentive in order to promote efficiency and quality in higher education. In relation to motivation to teach, it is part of the role of leadership to inspire teachers to motivate students in their learning.

However, a further analysis of the data shows similarities and differences in the way respondents in the two countries view teaching improvement. For instance, both indicated that they use student assessment and feedback, maintenance of conducive, teaching environment and use of expert groups in developing new ideas for teaching in their respective universities (see table 8.6d below for details).

Table 8.6d Unique and Common Characteristics in Innovative measures for teaching improvement

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Seminars, tutorials, demonstrations, personal counselling, group discussion * Provision of teaching facilities and equipment * Payment of deserved remunerations * Recruitment of qualified and committed staff *Improved allocation of research work * Staff exchange with overseas university institutions * Teachers attending conferences * Sabbatical research leave for staff	* Student assessment and feedback * Maintenance of conducive teaching environment * Use of expert groups to develop new ideas for teaching * Conducive teaching environment	* Development programmes for every course * Distance learning * General improvement in teaching quality * Hyper-media teaching * Improvement of study units and degrees * Pedagogical training of staff

A cursory look at information contained in the table, patterns of responses in both countries reveal that Nigerian leaders' responses in measures of teaching improvement are more rudimentary than that of Finland. The responses from Finnish participants sound more scientific than that of Nigeria. The responses appeared as they are may be an indication of differences in the level of development in both countries. As a developed country Finland has attained high level of institutional development for over two centuries as against Nigerian system that has only existed for less than century.

Since my research is looking for 'best practice' in university management, I would think that Nigeria would be in better position to move from their traditional approach to teaching improvement to more scientific way as practiced in Finland. In the same way, Finland has to recognize the human aspect of doing things rather than from the point of view of technology. How would the world look like if human contribution to improvement should be overlooked?

8.7 Quality Learning

The last issue chosen for consideration in the research question concerning educational process is quality learning. In this part of the research question, respondents were asked to identify how they should describe quality learning and how learning could be improved in the university. The objective of this question is two fold; one was to understand how quality learning should be understood. The second objective was to sharpen our focus on how student learning in the university could be improved. Overall, one needs to admit that it is important that maintaining quality in the face of increased student numbers and dwindling resources in higher education institutions. However, in order to obtain information on these issues, the questions of quality and quality improvement were posed to university leadership in both Nigeria and Finland. Now I will deal with the first part of the question, which simply asks 'what is quality learning' and do you evaluate it? The responses to this question are shown on table 8.7a.

Table 8.7a Leadership perceptions on quality learning

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	No.
1	Did students inculcate and internalise the values and contents that are taught them and make them part of their personality	3	Students having the ability to make things like the teacher Quality of study programmes Learning that is critical, reflective, and constructive, that promotes the development of expertise -something above "trivial pursuit specialty."	4 2 2
2	Application of acquired knowledge	2		
3	Learning that compares favourably with that imparted elsewhere in comparable situation	1	Employability of students Learning that leaves a definitive mark on the learner's mind and changes the student's structure of knowledge in some means	2 2
4	Learning that meets the desire and aspiration of the individual and society	1	Learning that makes students able to learn things internally, apply what they have learned, and use their knowledge to create new knowledge and innovation Students reaching learning targets	2 1
5	Competence and output of the individual in a given task	1		
6	When approved curriculum is taught to students	1		
7	Learning that enhances attitudinal change on the part of the student	1		
8	Learning that serves students to operate better in their environment	1		

The table shows the various ways in which Nigerian and Finnish respondents view quality learning. I will at this point examine the sets of responses from country specific, beginning with Nigeria.

8.7.1 Perceptions of Quality Learning from the Nigerian Respondents' Point of View

The most often given definitions of quality learning by Nigerian participants is that "students should inculcate and internalise the values and contents of studies that were taught them and make them part of their personality. This finding is consistence with a stance taken in the theory concerning what Holloway (Wilson 1981) referred to as "transformation of internal representations", in which learning enables students think critically and reflexively in order to cope with change. Other studies (see Corder et al. 1999; Harvey and Knight 1996) subscribe to this kind of definition.

The second often mentioned definition of quality learning is that in which students are able to apply their acquired knowledge. This response was followed by another important information, though mentioned less often by respondents. This

response views quality learning as that, which compares favourably with learning imparted elsewhere in comparable situations. This suggests that for learning to be judged quality, such learning must have been subjected to quality assessments by outside scholarly judgements. Quality learning should be comparable internationally and at the same time meets individual and societal aspirations. Such learning that meets individual and societal aspirations implies one of the purposes of higher education from where higher order intellectual capacities are fostered in students. In learning situations students should be able to acquire the intellectual and practical capacities that allow them form and substantiate independent though and action in a coherent and articulate fashion. In this sense, higher education develops in the students general qualities of a personal and societal kind as well as those of an intellectual type. Consistent with the discussion by Barnett (1999) concerning quality learning as comprising "thought and action." Quality learning is also learning in which students gain competence over given tasks as well as enhancing attitudinal change in them. These findings also have their support from Corder et al. (1999) who viewed quality learning from its transformative impact, which attributes involve cognitive or intellectual change and transformation of the student as a person. However, this transformation effect can occur when the learning environment is conducive for deep learning to take place, or when the learning environment offers adequate support for the learner as discussed in the theory part of this study.

Furthermore, not only that quality learning develops individual's competence in a given task, or the type of learning Nightingale and O'Neil (1994) characterized as the development of "higher order intellectual capacities in students", such learning should enhance attitudinal change on the part of the learner, and serves students to operate better in their environment. These results show that although quality learning can be defined in several ways, the most striking definitions lay emphasis on its impact on students. Literature has lent support to these aspects of definitions in which learning is viewed as bringing about desired change in cognitive and affective behaviour, learning as transformation of internal representations and empowerment (Watson and stage 1999; Wilson 1981; Corder et al. 1999; Harvey and Knight 1996).

As regards how learning is evaluated by the leaders, Nigerian respondents pointed out such issues as the transforming effects such learning has on society, or the values learning has given to society. This response was followed feedback an institution gets from student evaluation through assignments examinations, the extent to which students were exposed to workshops and seminar institutes, looking at the environment in which the learning occurred as well as conditions under which it was acquired.

8.7.2 Quality Learning from Finnish Respondents' Perspectives

For Finnish respondents quality learning is seen as emanating from quality study programmes, which are cognitively constructive as well as the development of expertise. This finding demonstrates that students in learning situation display "deep approach to learning" or a "meaning orientation" in so far as they acknowl-

edge the more abstract forms of learning, which are demanded in higher education, or what Cliff (1998) referred to as "deep-level learning." The perception of learning that takes root from quality study programmes, which are constructive and resulting to the development of expertise, involves learning in terms of applying knowledge based on understanding. Leaders in this category saw learning in terms of application of knowledge as the main feature of learning. The ability to apply such knowledge seems to base on understanding and presents a deep view of learning. Learning thus means acquiring and maintaining knowledge all the time and not only remembering it for a period of time. Eklund-Myrskog's (1998) study on students' conceptions of learning supports this finding in which 70 % of students saw learning mainly in terms of understanding.

A further analysis of the data on the table reveals that Finnish respondents view quality learning on "ability of students to make things like the teacher. Although this response shows a higher number of mentions by Finnish respondents, students can not be expected to do things like the teacher, they can however, do well and excel in their studies but it will not be possible that they will do things exactly like the teacher. It is important that when students learn, such a learning promotes the development of expertise, how students have used their acquired knowledge to create new knowledge and innovation, and the effects of learning on learner's mind and the extent to which student's structure of knowledge changes.

In terms of how these leaders evaluate quality learning, it was found that Finnish leaders employ criteria of evaluation of student attainment and their progress in determining quality learning. This means that levels of students in reflective, critical and constructive thinking in defining problems and solving them, are taken into consideration. Also, external agencies, or external assessors are employed when determining the quality of student learning. In addition, Finnish university leader evaluate learning of students by the use of European Quality Award Excellence Model (EFQM). As part of this strategy, the University of Helsinki carried out a comprehensive evaluation of the quality of its education for the year 2001-2003. One of the purposes of this evaluation was to develop learning as well as teaching on the basis of the evaluation. Although this evaluation did not make use of EFQM Model, this type of evaluation can still be seen as part of quality evaluation culture aimed at disseminating information about teaching and learning processes. Use of external agencies, assessment of learners' attitudes and evaluation questionnaires on quality learning, are ways these leaders evaluate learning in the university.

While I have looked at the data from the totality of how each country views learning quality and evaluation, I will further present the areas where the two countries have similarities and differences. Table 8.7b below displays areas of differences and similarities.

Table 8.7b Unique and Common Characteristics of leadership views on quality learning

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Learning that compares favourably with that imparted elsewhere in comparable situation * Learning that meets the desires and aspirations of the individual and society * Learning from which students gain competence and yields output from a given task * Learning that enhances attitudinal change in students	* Learning that makes students able to learn things internally, apply what they have learned, and use their knowledge to create new knowledge and innovation * Learning that leads to employability of students, and to operate better in the environment * Learning that leads to learning targets	* Learning from quality study programmes * Learning that is critical, reflective and constructive; learning that promotes the development of expertise-something above "trivial pursuit of specialty" * Students develop the ability to make things like the teacher * Learning that leaves a definitive mark on the learner's mind and changes the students' structure of knowledge in some means * Students reaching learning targets

The table shows characteristics for each country, which make it differ from the other and areas where the two countries are similar in their responses. It can be seen from the table that Nigeria and Finland have each, on their own right various ways of looking at quality learning. The important lesson can learn from the information exhibited by the two countries is that no matter how each viewed quality learning, learning must always have impact on the students who will later in life make their own impact on the society.

As regards how university leaders in the two countries evaluate quality learning, the responses are shown on table 8.7c below

The second part of the question sought information on leadership perceived criteria for evaluating quality learning. The results to this question are shown on table (8.9l), indicating common characteristics between Nigeria and Finland and differences between the two countries.

Table 8.7c Comparison of how leaders evaluate quality learning

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* A check on how deep the learning had been * A check of the environment under which learning was acquired * A check on how high or low was the quality of teaching * Ability of learners to excel on their skills * Check how exposed learners were to workshops, seminars, institutes * Feedback from learning evaluation of students * Transforming effects of learning to society (learning values to society) * Ability of students to defend their learning to show their worthiness of the degree * Evaluation through assignments and examinations	* Assessment through student behaviour and attitude * Assessment of learning quality through teaching evaluation	* Learning evaluated by use of European Quality award Excellence Model (EFQM) * Use of external agency evaluations * Levels of students in reflective, critical, and constructive thinking in defining problems and solving them (evaluation of student attainment and their progress) * Evaluation questionnaire on quality of learning

As the table shows, in both countries, quality learning is evaluated through assessment of student's behaviour, attitude and teaching evaluations. At individual country level, one of the important findings of the study is Nigeria has more ways of evaluating learning in the university as evidenced on the table. Also there are differences in how each country evaluates learning. The findings show that there are no uniform ways of evaluating quality learning. Management practices regarding evaluation of quality learning differ from one country to another and across the two countries. Overall, the distribution of answers is large as the table shows.

A typical example from the table shows that in Finland, the use of quality management model (EFQM) as an evaluation tool is a case in point. There is no mention of such model by Nigerian respondents; which means that there is the need for them to develop this kind of model that enhance their management of the universities. It does not mean that the mechanisms for evaluating learning in Nigerian universities are not good, but it all means that what we see in Nigeria is not enough to bring about innovations in university management. The differences between the two countries may be as a result of management culture in each of the universities. Therefore, to meet the challenges of institutional development, innovative strategies are needed for the overall institutional development in terms of leadership, academic staff and students.

The last part of the question, I needed to determine the kind of processes and organizational support that are in place to ensure quality learning. The information obtained from this question for Nigeria and Finland is shown on the table (8.7c).

Table 8.7d Processes and organizational support for ensuring quality learning

S/n.	Nigeria	No.	Finland	Freq
1	Field trips	3	Feedback systems	3
	Seminars	3	Counselling and tutoring	3
3	Workshops	3	Making IT available to students	3
4	Managing and Monitoring teaching and research activities as well as faculty productivity	3	Well equipped modern learning centre	3
5	Student Exchange programmes	2	Development work in the virtual university project whose goal is to improve learning quality	1
6	Internships	2	Provision of quality handbook in most departments. Innovations in learning-establishment of centre of innovative education to assist teachers	1
7	Proper funding of university	2	Innovations in learning-establishment of centre of innovative education to assist teachers Feedback systems	1
8	Academic Programme Planning	1	Making student take part in decision affecting their studies	1
9	Summer institutes	1	Providing adequate facilities for learning	1
10	Symposia	1	Academic administration	1
11	Curriculum development	1	Quality competitions between universities and courses	1
12	Sound administrative structure, conducive social, academic, physical and psychological environment	1		
13	Encouraging learners to involve themselves in what they want to be in future	1		
14	Improved infrastructure	1		
15	Employing competent staff	1		

This table presents the different ways in which the quality of student learning can be improved and the type of organizational support available in their universities. In order words, the objective of this part of the study was to ascertain how these leaders support learning in their university organizations. As the table shows, responses from Nigeria and Finnish study participants are presented. The analysis begins with perceptions of Nigerian university leaders.

8.7.3 Improvement of Learning from Nigerian and Finnish Respondents

The most frequently mentioned ways of improving the quality of learning are through exposure of academic or teaching staff to field trips, seminars, workshops and symposia in order to make them teach well. Although these strategies for improving teaching to enhance learning quality do not in essence provide enough

skills to the staff, still they are important elements in adding competencies to the staff. However, these constitute training procedures that emphasize the elaborate skills essential to deep approach to learning identified and supported by Entwistle 1987). They also mentioned that managing and monitoring teaching are some of the other ways in which learning can be improved. Some of the respondents mentioned that exchange programmes, curriculum development, academic programme planning, monitoring teaching and research activities including faculty productivity, are some of the organizational support available in Nigerian universities. Furthermore, it was indicated that universities should be properly funded in order for it to support quality learning. Sound administrative structure, conducive social, academic physical and psychological environments must be available for quality learning to take place. Nightingale and O'Neil (1994) support this funding when they argue that one of the conditions necessary for high quality learning is when the environment offers adequate support for the learner. To these respondents, libraries, laboratories and classrooms are obviously necessary part of the environment of the institutions. Finally, improvement in infrastructure and employment of competent teaching staff are some of the further ways in which university leadership employ to support learning improvement.

Organizational support in the Finnish data can take the form of encouraging learners to involve themselves in what they want to be in future through counselling and tutoring. The importance of counselling in supporting learning of students has given support to this finding. Accordingly, Vehviläinen (1999) argues that counselling empowers students as well as supports students' self-directness. In this direction, Counsellors in the university act as co-experts and facilitators of learning, but not as possessors of authoritative knowledge. At the same time, counselling activities are expected to produce results that would improve students' position in the labour market. Also, quoting Mäkeläinen, Vehviläinen (1999) further view counselling as part of a training process and can mean clarifying, advising, enabling, advocating or providing feedback.

According to Finnish respondents, student learning can also be improved through making information technology (IT) available to students. Observation evidence supports this finding because in Finnish universities, computers are made available at the disposal of students for learning. Students have access to internet, databases, etc. Furthermore, these respondents identified "well equipped modern learning centres" as the way of improving learning. Followed to this are the "development work in virtual university projects whose goal is to improve learning", innovations in learning in terms of establishment of centre of innovative education to assist teachers, provision of feedback systems, making students take part in decisions affecting their studies, provision of adequate facilities and quality competitions between universities and courses. Further analysis reveals differences and similarities between the two countries as shown on table 8.7d below.

Table 8.7e Types of organizational support for quality learning

Characteristics for Nigeria	Common characteristics	Characteristics for Finland
* Field trips * Seminars and workshops, symposia * Summer institutes * Student exchange programmes * Curriculum development * Academic programmes planning * Managing and Monitoring teaching and research activities as well as faculty productivity * Internships * Proper funding of Universities * Sound administrative structure, conducive social, academic, physical and psychological environment * Improved infrastructure * Employing competent staff	* Encouraging learners to involve themselves in what they want to be in future through counselling and tutoring	* Innovations in learning-establishment of centres of innovative education.

Generally these kinds of organizational support for improving learning are consistent with many studies that dealt with ways in which learning in educational institutions can be improved (see for instance, Glatthorn and Fox 1996; Trigwell and Posner 1991; Ramsden 1988; Barlow 1997; Thomas and Bain 1982; Entwistle and Tait 1990; Byrne et al. 2002).

Despite the fact that similar techniques of organizational learning support occur in Nigeria and Finland, the quality of learning in the two contexts is not the same. As one can see in the table 8.7d, Nigerian university leaders indicated a variety of support available in their universities. This casts doubt into our minds why the quality of learning in Nigerian universities has been low in recent years. One possible reason might be the type of learning materials that are provided to students, which in turn may influence their learning. The type of learning materials provided by institutions may influence approaches to student learning (Entwistle 1987). In this circumstance, the deteriorated quality of learning in Nigerian universities in recent years, cannot be divorced from the premise that economic crisis that has gripped most African countries including Nigeria led most notably to the curtailment of social expenditure by governments particularly in the areas of education and other social services. The decline in support for the educational sector also resulted in deterioration of educational infrastructure and an obvious decline in the quality of education.

One other reason that affected learning in Nigerian universities is the austerity measures adopted by government of the Republic in the 1980s to cope with the crisis led to reduced financial allocation for university education and reduced foreign exchange for the purchases of educational materials. Thus, ceaseless budget cuts have undermined the quality of university education in the country. Devaluation and soaring prices equally led to sharp decline in real income and fallen pur-

chasing power, driving academics to engage into non- intellectual pursuits in order to survive or to migrate outside Nigeria in search of better life. These observations seem to drive Nigeria behind the rest of the world in the areas of science and technology, and marginalized it from world affairs and trapped the country down in recorded, declined rates of economic growth. As these types of reason have been replicated in a similar Nigerian study (Onokerhoraye and Nwoye's 1995) it appears that this type of situation can encourage surface approaches to learning.

The responses from the two countries reveal that the overarching purpose of university education is to foster higher order learning in students so that their possession of intellectual capabilities allows them to form independent thought and action in articulate fashion as supported by Barnett (1992), who sees quality learning as developing general qualities of a personal and social kind as well as those of intellectual kind (Gibbs 1992; Duke 1992; Jones 1992; Nightingale and O'Neil 1994).

However, saying that one aspect of "good practice" derived from the Finnish data is the attention paid to quality can conclude this analysis. The establishment of centres of educational innovation suggests that Finland has a developed structure for improving the quality of educational services it offers to its citizens. By contrast, in Nigeria there seems to be a gap between policy implementation and outcomes, which has implication for achieving improvement projects. The reason for the greater success of student learning in Finland has been probably its embeddings within a supportive learning context. Otherwise it is not possible to attain quality learning in a less satisfactory learning environment. It is probably the openness and relative freedom from stress characterising the Finnish higher education sector that allows learning interventions to work. Unlike what one can see in Nigeria, the learning environment in Finnish universities encourage students the possibilities of desired meaningful approaches to learning.

9 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the main outcomes of the study, which provide background for institutional development policy and practice. The chapter discusses the relationship between theory and practice in the production of this thesis. As I indicated elsewhere, the main research question, which this study attempted to investigate, was the problems of university management. The study was aimed at bringing about practical improvement, innovation change or development of management practice, and leaders' better understanding of their practices. The study addressed the problems of how to achieve effective change, and to demonstrate that quality improvement practice is organizational change 'best practice'. This quality improvement research conducted in Nigerian and Finnish Universities had the same main aim as that of Zuber-Skerritt's (1996) idea, "to build learning organizations with culture of innovation and change."

9.2 General Discussion

9.2.1 The Research Process

The study started with a number of challenges:

To understand how quality can be improved in the management of university by exploring the following phenomena:

- Leadership role in the process
- Techniques of staff development in the university
- Measures of resource mobilization in the university
- Quality improvement of educational processes of teaching, learning and research.

The main research question was:
How would university leadership in Nigerian and Finland describe their role as university leaders, improve the academic staff in the university, mobilize the financial resources to carry on the university educational processes of teaching, learning and research.

The cornerstone of the study is quality improvement in university management. Quality can be in all aspects of university management and can be assured by continuous improvements. Improvement of efficiency in service can result from focusing not only on achieving present performance targets, but more importantly, by breaking through existing performance levels to new, higher levels. This requires effective leadership, or the type of leadership referred in literature as transformational leadership (Burns 1978), whose responsibility it is to manage the university enterprise. Effective leaders are thoroughly knowledgeable about their work and understand the environment and complexities with which their work must contend.

As a qualitative study, an attempt was made to examine university leadership perceptions in quality improvement in university management. The use of qualitative technique was to obtain broader responses on 'best practices' in university management. The design and the problems of the study were based on the 'enablers' criteria of the quality model developed by the European Foundation for Quality Management; called the EFQM (Excellence Model), from which also the questionnaire was constructed.

While conducting this study, there are some overall objectives, which I aimed to achieve. In the first place it was aimed at investigating the management styles of university leadership in improving the quality of university management. It is also a study that analysed leadership roles in theory and what actually happens in practice in university management. Furthermore, the study attempted to check whether private sector principles could be applied to university context. In addition to these, the study was aimed at enabling Nigerian and Finnish university institutions to identify 'best practices' available and learn from each other. The results of the study have shown that there are numerous areas in which the institutions could learn from each other if there would be the opportunity to establish institution collaboration between the two countries.

The study was carried out in both Nigerian and Finnish Universities so that the data generated from the two countries will provide a benchmarking data for improving practice. My fieldwork in Nigeria started in January 2002. In Nigeria, the study was conducted in six universities in four states of Nigeria. In the course of the data collection in Nigeria, the researcher was present in Nigeria and visited all the six universities where the questionnaires were personally distributed to all the respondents who took part in the study. Fieldwork in Nigeria took the researcher two and half months to administer and retrieve data from respondents there. The reason why the fieldwork in Nigeria lasted longer than expected was that many of my respondents were busy attending to other matters relation to their work. Some of the respondents were sometimes away from the campus and took sometime for them to return to work. However, at the end of the two and a half months I stayed in Nigeria, fifteen questionnaires were retrieved from Nigerian university leaders who took part in the study.

As I indicated in chapter 7.2, data collection in Finland started in March 2001, and was done by means of email questionnaire to all university leaders in twenty universities. The questionnaire was sent through a common email address, which was automatically distributed to all the leaders in the twenty universities in Finland. By the end of the year 2001, I received fifteen responses from Finnish respondents through email.

9.3 Discussion and Summary of the Major Findings

In this section four major analyses are presented. The first consists of a discussion of the roles of leadership in university management (as data in table 8.9a shows). The analysis of these roles was categorized under quality improvement in the university. The second discussion was on how leadership develop the academic staff in the university. The third discussion centred on techniques of resource mobiliza-

tion in the university. This is followed by analysis of process improvement dealing with the three core processes of the university education comprising research, teaching and learning.

The discussion of the main findings follows the main research objectives of the study. These objectives were met by reviewing related literature in the field of leadership and university management, and the empirical work I carried out on university management and institution development in both Nigeria and Finland. In the tables, what make up the common characteristics appeared in the columns for Nigeria and Finland, and these were drawn from the Nigerian and Finnish columns. The outcomes of the study constitute a large amount of data, which cannot be reported in full. This selection was necessary because space and time did not permit full discussion of all the findings. Therefore, prioritisation was necessary, for it will enable me deal deeply with the selected items. Wolcott, for example, argues that the real challenge for qualitative researchers is deciding what not to include in their reports. The researcher must rank the outcomes primarily on the basis of their relevance and significance (Ary et al 2002). The outcomes of this research objectives fall within the general theme of leadership and university management.

The study has investigated and discussed management styles of university leadership in Nigerian and Finland in improving the quality of university management. It also analysed theoretically and empirically the essential roles of university leadership. My aim in the study was to identify 'best practice' so that organizational learning might take place between Nigeria and Finland. The research questions were designed from the criteria of the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model.

As the empirical study has shown, leaders in the study play different management roles in improving the quality of university management. Some of these finding as the informants pointed out are that they encourage overall institutional development through the development of quality systems for quality improvement. For instance, some role characteristics that are common to Nigeria and Finland are focus on people, collaboration with enterprises and stakeholders. On the other hand, Nigeria respondents mentioned their roles as that of implementing regulations governing academic programmes. For the Finnish participants, some of their management roles include research initiation and development, facility development, etc. These leadership roles are consistent with the roles identified in the literature concerning the roles of university leaders, and they reinforce current trend in bringing about quality improvement in higher education.

In the area of academic staff development, the study has shown that staff development is a part of university culture, even a natural accompaniment to scholarship and competence in research. However, there are differences on how different universities go about their staff training and development. For instance, Nigerian data showed those staff development techniques that cost less money to undertake such as workshops, seminars and conferences. These staff development techniques are good in themselves but they are not enough to enable academic staff to gain deeper insight of activities governing their academic activities.

Finnish data revealed more comprehensive staff development techniques that are capable of offering academic staff the opportunity for development. Job satis-

faction, engaging in development projects, international linkages and staff participation in quality management training, are those aspects of staff training and development that can contribute meaningfully in adding to the changing behaviour of individual academic staff. These are part of systematic process in strategic planning and development of education and staff in line with the anticipated needs, as well as personal development programmes to ensure up-to-date skills of teachers; and especially where new teaching methods require support and training for teaching staff. It is in this context that leadership in Nigerian universities should take a cue in quality development and strategic initiatives.

Evidence from the wealth of research concerning perceptions of resource mobilization in the university has shown that quality work cannot be sustained in the long-term in the university without investment of resources in consolidating 'good practice' and innovation. As has been discussed in the literature, different resource mobilization measures constitute the panacea for the survival of university institutions, for example, the use of market-like related policies and collaboration with public and private sector enterprises. It was also noted that availability of necessary resources to support total quality management is an important issue in university organizations. The findings of the study are therefore consistent with various possibilities for financial diversification in higher education (see Onokerhoraye and Nwoye 1995). The findings prove that the financial base of universities can be greatly strengthened by mobilising a greater share of necessary resources from diverse means. Although Nigeria and Finland have shown various alternatives in funding university institutions, gaps still exist in quality improvement in university management in the two countries. Nigeria university leaders should learn to offer quality services 'more with less' resources as we found in Finland. Thus, university leaders have to learn that one can do a quality work in the environment of scarce resources; hence the axiom "more with less money."

In terms of information in the data from Nigeria and Finland, both groups differed significantly on how they view educational processes in terms of quality in teaching, learning and research, and how these processes can be improvement in the university. Basing our information from theory, literature concerning quality teaching in the university provided valuable contributions to the larger picture of conceptions of quality teaching. Quality teaching may be one that encourages and supports students' active learning, or one that facilitates social reform conception of seeking a better society (cf Pratt 1992; Bruce and Gerber 1995; Samuelowicz and Bain 1992). Thus, quality teaching was described in literature in terms of the results to be obtained or goals to be attained in teaching processes, either from producing well-trained students to descriptions of what students should master when they leave the university (see Bauer et al. 1999). Therefore, these theoretical findings support our empirical findings that view quality teaching in terms of behavioural and attitudinal change in students as seen from Nigerian data while information from Finnish data views quality teaching technological innovation to get quality results.

Furthermore, findings with regard to how to improve teaching quality offer interesting insight. While common measures of teaching improvement such as student assessment and feedback, and producing conducive, teaching environment are among the common characteristics for Nigeria and Finland, individual charac-

teristics also exist. All these findings show that university institutions and their leaders have special responsibility towards the quality of teaching. Therefore, the quality of teaching be judged from its focus on improving the learning of students.

In terms of quality learning, evidence in literature showed variety of perceptions of what constitutes quality learning; from the acquisition of new knowledge, development of thinking skills, developing competences to changing personal attitudes and participative pedagogical experience (cf Bruce and Gerber 1995). These theoretical findings support the findings of this study, which brought to fore variety of conceptions of quality learning by both Nigerian and Finnish study participants. These findings fall with 'surface' and 'deep' approaches to learning.

Regarding how to improve the quality of student learning, the findings go in line with literature suggestions that learning can be improved through the provision of improved teaching methods, the implementation of the quality criteria for example, EFQM. However, although information on table 8.9 m shows that Nigeria has more types of organizational support for quality learning does not mean that Finland has no such organizational support of learning. The scantiness of information on the part of Finnish respondents may be as result of insufficient understanding of the question. Whatever may be the case, quality learning should be judged from its impact on students' development and progress in their studies and their acquired competencies to serve the society in which they live.

Also from the findings concerning quality research and its improvement, the results show different conceptions of quality research and how to improve the quality of research. The results also show differences and similarities between how Nigerian and Finnish university leaders view quality research and how leaders in the two countries can improve research. For Nigerian respondents quality research can contribute to solving problems facing society, it can also help University, government and industry maintain good quality. On the part of Finnish respondents, quality research should be able to compete for funding, must be done in cooperation with universities nationally and internationally and such research must have high demand by companies. These findings are consistent with theoretical findings that suggest that research is useful to the modern state, born by a coincidence of social interests: of academic community, of industry and of the state (cf Barnett 1990). Theory also supports the views raised from the empirical data that research can be improved through a variety of means in order to merit being deemed quality. Therefore, the quality of research should be seen from its impact on society. University teaching staff should have the academic freedom to teach and research what they consider valid knowledge and must apply their findings to management and university priority areas. Universities, as expert organizations, can be managed and administrators must also have leadership roles.

Overall, my conclusion in this part of the study is that in the university, leadership plays a crucial role in sustaining and enhancing the quality of management within the institution. Leadership should be concerned with 'educational development', which embraces a range of quality assurance functions such as academic staff development and training, resource mobilization, and improvement of educational processes of teaching, learning and research. Within these functions are embedded four-cornered strategies for approaching change in the national contexts for higher

education with which individual institutions must contend. These areas of educational development correspond to diversity (structure), technology (mode of delivery), internationalisation (feature) and finance (resourcing of the different national systems of higher education). Although these issues fall outside the scope of this study, they constitute aspects of change in higher education, which may be coped with by individual adaptation, collective action and "scientific management" and planning. I will treat some of these strategies in turn in the following paragraphs.

Diversity. The expansion of higher education has brought with it diversity. Today non-university sectors and institutions have been created in many parts of the world through upgrading and merging of existing ones. These non-university institutions continue to play a part in the development of mass higher education. However, diversity in higher education is not limited to types of institutions; it also extends to courses in new subject areas geared towards new kinds of labour market need, delivered by new forms of technology, leading in some cases to new types and levels of academic award, have produced an enormous growth in programme delivery.

Linked to diversity of institutions and delivery is a greater diversity of student body. Many students today enter higher education from a wider range of social and educational backgrounds, possess a wider range of expectations and motivations, and face a wider range of destinations, which previous generations of students did not face. In many countries students are older and some are much more older and they bring with them a wider range of life experiences, quite possibly combing higher education with and/or raising a family. A greater diversity of the student body requires innovations and adaptation in teaching, learning and assessment methods as well as new kinds of support services concerned with counselling, work placement and career advice.

Technology. Increasing diversity of delivery has to be added to diversity of institutions and programmes. Today more especially in developed, industrialized countries, there are more use of new technologies and other forms of making higher education available. In a desire to achieve quality in education, teaching and learning are aided by modern technology, which serves as a tool for accomplishing tasks, or what we can call the process of solving problems by scientific means. New technologies further improve social cohesion, equal opportunities and quality of life. The use of modern technology in learning prepares students as competent, active and constructive partners in the establishment and shaping of higher education area for example in Europe. The use of modern technologies in the context of higher education includes open and distant learning, work-based learning, computer-assisted learning etc. However, these new forms pose questions for the traditional conceptions of higher education.

Internationalisation. The growth of international activities within higher education institutions takes place either ad hoc (reactive) or strategic (proactive). In higher education internationalisation can be understood as "a long-term strategic policy for the establishment of overseas links for the purposes of student mobility, staff development, and curriculum innovation (Rudzki 1995, 421-441). A redefini-

tion of internationalisation leads to one, which defines "the feature of all universities, encompassing organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility, for the purposes of achieving excellence in teaching and research" (Ibid.). In line with the core objectives of the Bologna Declaration in promoting and strengthening the important European dimensions of higher education, internationalisation serves as a reference for long-term structural reforms and as an agenda for change in the whole of European dimension of higher education.

By rooting the process of internationalisation in the historical continuum by stating its *a priori* nature within what is understood by the university as *universitas*-the whole (world). With such understanding, the concept of national university becomes a contradiction, since all universities must be international if they are to claim legitimacy for the knowledge they convey as being truly at the forefront of thinking and knowledge production and dissemination.

Finance. Finance is another core area in the development of higher education. One of the sets of choices in higher education concerns the issue of funding, whether by the state or others. Financial stability and good financial management underpin the success of a university's core business of education and research. Financial stability makes a key contribution to successful academic work. Nothing can be so destructive of academic's ability to innovate or the maintenance of good moral as the financial crisis. On the other hand, academic progress whether in education or research can be significantly enhanced when financial conditions in a university are relatively stable. This is because academic work is bound to suffer in conditions of financial instability (Shattock 2003).

It is impossible nowadays for universities to maintain national, if not international competitiveness, by relying on state funding alone. With a fall in the unit of funding from the state since the late 1980s, universities globally have found that funding has fallen far behind the growth of student numbers. This condition, among others, has increasingly encouraged universities to look to non-state sources of funding to make up the shortfalls. Non-governmental revenues supplement governmental revenues by shifting the burden of higher education costs from general taxpayer or general public to parents and students especially, but also to philanthropists and to purchases of university services (Bruce et al 1998). Many of these reforms in university funding are in line with what Clerk (1998) identified as the development of "diversified income base" as one of the key characteristics of his model of university development. Clark's vision of expanded funding of the university has to do with the part of philosophy in which significant external investment or the capacity of an individual academic to create a mixed funding base.

The discussion above emphasized the critical worldwide issues that permeate management in the university as a self-evidently "good thing" -for students, for staff and for university development. In a world that is changing ever more rapidly, universities need to adapt if they are to avoid stagnation, decline and eventual extinction. In such circumstances, the necessity for universities to diversify, internationalise, apply modern technologies in their activates of education and research, and in improved financial management, become an imperative with consequent need for strategic planning to achieve excellence.

9.4 Conclusions

9.4.1 Towards Improving Quality in University Management

This study has used a quality model provided by the European Foundation for Quality Management, (EFQM) Excellence Model as a framework that brings together many approaches to achieving sustainable excellence in organizations. The study covered a lot of territory, from both theory and empirical, viewing leadership from management by processes and facts. The common thought that was gleaned from all these perspectives is that leadership plays important roles in the performance of organizations including university institutions. The findings reveal that basic roles of university leaders run similar across the two setting in which this study took place. Analysis of both literature and empirical findings showed that leader's role in improving efficiency and effectiveness in the university is crucial in the present changing academic context. Having thus examined leadership from these perspectives, I came up with a mini model, which I called a "Model of University Quality Management" shown in figure 9.1.

The model has four process levels. The first level consists of input into the university in form of quality leadership comprising transformational, visionary and developmental, leadership. Linking leadership and management by processes, excellent universities have leaders who set and communicate a clear direction for their university. In doing so they unite and motivate other leaders to inspire their people. They establish values, ethics, culture and a governance structure for the university that provides a unique identity and attractiveness to interest groups. Leaders at all levels within these universities constantly drive and inspire others towards excellence and in so doing display both role model behaviour and performance. These leaders lead by example, recognize their stakeholders and working with them on joint improvement activity. During times of turbulence leaders display a constancy of purpose readiness that inspires the confidence and commitment of their stakeholders. At the same time these leaders demonstrate the capability to adapt and realign the direction of their university in the light of a fast moving and constantly changing external environment, and in so doing carry their people with them.

In the same way, excellent universities have an effective management system based upon, and designed to deliver, the needs and expectations of all stakeholders. The systematic implementation of the policies, strategies, objectives and plans of the university are enabled and assured through a clear and integrated set of processes. These processes are effectively deployed, managed and improved on a day-to-day basis. Decisions are based on factually reliable information relating to current and projected performance, process and systems capability, stakeholder needs, expectations and experiences, and the performance of other universities, including, where appropriate, that of competitors. Risks are identified based on sound performance measures and effectively managed. The university is governed in a highly professional manner, meeting and exceeding all corporate external requirements. Appropriate prevention measures are identified and implemented, inspiring and maintaining high levels of confidence with stakeholders.

The leadership input has a transformation effect on the processes of managing the university such as education, which consists of teaching and learning, and research and service to society; as the core businesses of the university. It is through the processes of research, teaching and learning that staff and students could be understood, as well as understanding society through research as the second process level shows. Furthermore, the third process level outputs of university consisting academic staff, resources and partnerships. In this process level, leadership as an input combines management with processes in developing or improving the professional competencies of academic staff through staff education and training. Empowering leadership to mobilize financial resources as fundraiser as well as creating partnerships with industries and businesses further improves management.

The final process level as figure 9.1 shows is the results, which contains key performance indicators. It is not always easy to get main indicators of leadership and processes, but it is easier to get key performance indicators. For example, in the university, one can know how many doctoral degree or Ph.Ds, Masters degrees etc.

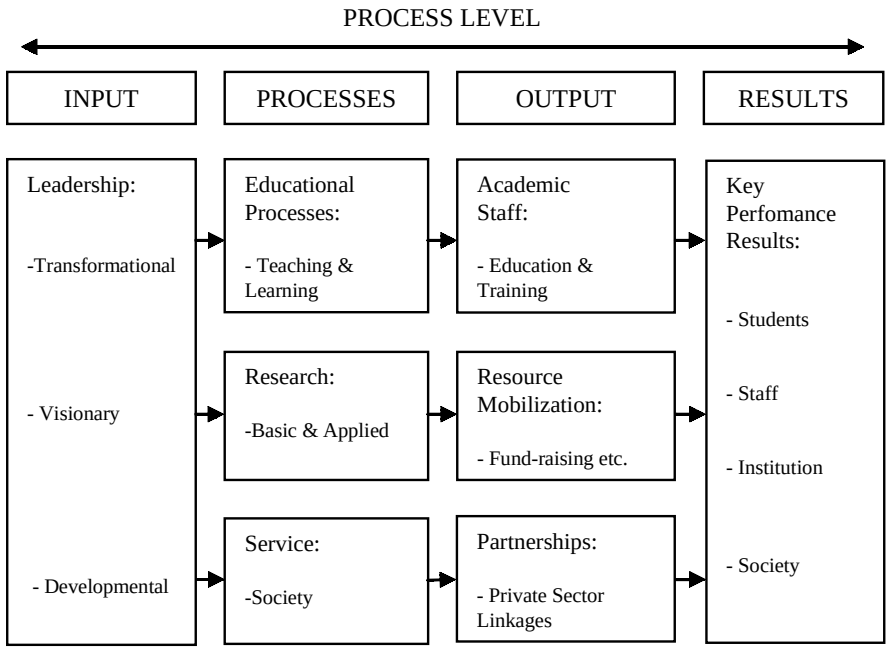

Figure 9.1 A Mini-Model for University Quality Management

Furthermore, quality leadership should be good resource mobilizer by being a strong fund raiser through internal and external means, When leadership input combines management by processes, key performance results are obtained. The quality of inputs combined with processes and outputs results to quality outcomes or key performance results that are measured by key elements such as students, staff, whole institution, and society at large. Here society acts as the main beneficiary/customer of the excellent university institution.

As the findings of this study reveal, this model of university quality management takes as its stand that the challenges facing our present day university institutions require a strong, quality and effective leadership that will adequately confront those challenges. Such quality leadership should be transformational (Burns 1978), which is a broad based perspective that encompasses many facets and dimensions of leadership process. The model, in general describes how leaders can initiate and develop innovations, and carry out significant changes in university organizations as Northouse (2001) noted. On its scientific front, transformational leaders should have powerful impact on the university in ways of improving personal and organizational functioning. They should be in position to transform their institutions by their abilities to do things in better ways.

Also, in order to institute quality management in the university, visionary leadership is needed. Leadership is a creative enterprise, and that leadership "does the right things" as Nanus (1985) proposed, implies a goal, a direction, an objective, a vision, a dream, a path and a reach. A visionary leader in the university organization should help the organization to meet the challenges of rapidly changing environment and should provide the foundation that makes strategic planning easier if I should borrow Wall, Solum and Sobol's (1992) argument. Thus, following Smith's et al argument, university leadership are expected to provide the vision and strategic direction necessary to (re) position their institutions nationally and, in some cases, internationally within a globalise learning community. They must also engage to maximum institutional advantage about how to re-skill the nation, how to reinvigorate and sharpen the competitive capacity of the national economy and how to extend the chances of individual enlightenment and social inclusion. In the universities the task facing those who lead and manage is to ensure that institutions become world-class in all levels of learning and research for sustaining a learning society.

Furthermore, quality leadership in the university institutions should create a compelling vision, which emerges from collective interests of individuals and units within an organization. Such a leader should get other staff in the institution to buy that shared vision and then translate the vision into action. Quality or visionary leaders take people to new place, and such vision gives the leader and the organization a conceptual map for where the organization is headed; it gives meaning and clarifies the organization's identity. A leader creates a climate of trust by generating and sustaining trust, meaning, and success. University leaders should be those who are out front in interpreting and shaping for their organizations the shared meaning that exists within them. In line with Bennis and Nanus's description, transformational leaders develop a vision for the organization, develop commitment and trust among workers, and facilitate organizational learning (Marion and Uhl-Bien 2001).

In the same way, within the uncertainty and ambiguity surrounding our present day university institutions, leaders must have the creative and intuitive ability to draw a mental picture of the organization they wish to build, giving people in the organization an aiming point. Particularly in today's difficult world of cost-cutting and other pressures, there need to be a positive focus on what Gary Hamel (Mayo and Lank 1994) referred to as "strategic intent" to describe the direction set by

leaders. University leadership as developmental leadership, or institution builders (Bargh et al. 2000), should help their institutions achieve excellence by inspiring the entire organization to work together so as to provide best services to the customers. These institution builders should be responsible for the physical transformation of universities as a part of academic innovation. It is leadership that should lay down the infrastructure, policies and guidelines for the different functions of the institution to perform well. One of the central roles as noted in the quality system (EFQM 1999) will be to implement total quality management, with the recognition that leadership serves as "driver" of successful quality systems.

These leadership processes serve as inputs, and have impact on processes and output of the university. For instance, in the university it is the responsibility of the leadership to set up the structures for improving the quality of academic staff through various strategies of academic education and training. The leadership has to be good fundraisers in order to attract the financial resources needed for institutional development and management. They should also develop the appropriate support structures and infrastructures for the proper conduct of research, teaching and learning and other activities in the university. These innovative strategic approaches will bring quality outcomes in which student body, staff, the institution as a whole, and society at large will benefit.

As a part of final concussion, it has been seen from the overall study that Nigeria and Finland showed considerable differences in their quality improvement strategies in university management. We have also seen from the results that Nigeria needs to learn more from new management culture that is being practiced in Finland in the ways they manage their universities. According to the findings, Nigerian University leaders still practice 'old' and traditional ways of managing institutions. The information the leaders present do not show any degree of innovation in university management. This calls for collaboration or co-operation between Nigeria and Finland in the areas of academic and management staff development so that university leaders and academic staff from Nigerian Universities can visit Finland for some time and learn how institutions can be effectively managed.

Another area of importance is collaboration in university management between Nigeria and Finland in the participation of EFQM because it appears that though the model has been used in different countries and in different fields, the model has not been tested in Africa. My study confirmed that Finland showed many examples of 'best practices' due to quality of the country's institutional leadership and management: institutions having good reputations in academic programmes, production of highly qualified students with high motivation, contacts with local industries, well equipped and up-to-date facilities: libraries, laboratories etc.; good and conducive teaching and learning atmosphere, and there is teamwork between students and staff. In general, the matrix of Finnish University organizations seems to work well in contrast to Nigerian system. Therefore, this benchmarking study has set the tone for Universities in Nigeria and Finland to learn from each other's 'best practices'. The study has also proved that using the European Foundation for Quality Management (Excellence Model) enhances institutional management because of the inputs made in this study for quality improvement in Nigerian universities. The study has provided a model of 'good practices of educational learning

opportunities to university managers, especially to Nigerian university leaders when there is less money for effective execution of university missions.

However, some general conclusions can be made basing on the overall findings of this study. In the first place, looking at the challenges facing higher education today, what type of leadership is required to address the challenges? This study has revealed that a new type of leadership in needed in our institutions of higher education in general and universities in particular to enable them respond positively to the changing economic, political and cultural contexts. Today's universities require leaders that are able to initiate, develop, and carry out significant changes in university organizations. This transformation kind of leadership is one that creates a vision that gives the leader and the organization a conceptual map for where the institution is headed; giving meaning and clarification to the institution's identity.

Another conclusion that could be drawn in this study is that although the present study concentrated on a developed and developing country, there is need for more benchmarking among university institutions in developing countries. In doing this, university institutions in developing countries will be in position to identify areas where quality improvements are needed for improving processes of efficiency. Benchmarking practices among university institutions in developing countries will promote a climate of change by helping the institutions set performance goals, manage change, improve processes, allow respective institutions to see "outside the box" and generate an understanding of world-class performance in terms of 'best practices'. Furthermore, more co-operations and collaborations are needed among universities within the developing countries and between developing and developed countries.

Finally, it can be seen that globally, enormous changes have swept higher education in general and universities in particular. In Finnish higher education such changes as the European union standardization schemes, the curricular changes, and the changes in funding, degree offerings and the changing employment scene, make one wonder about the future of higher education. Also on the Nigerian scene, despite the clear importance of investment in university education for economic growth and social development and the appreciation of these by policy makers in the country over the years, the sector is in major crisis. These many notable changes have plunged the university system into a mess: sharp increase in enrolment and emergence of new universities. Perhaps the most notable change however, has been a severe decrease in funding for universities resulting from extended economic stagnation in the country. These changes have adversely affected the quality of teaching and research in the universities; making the institutions to operate on adverse conditions - overcrowding, deteriorating physical facilities, and the lack of resources for salaries and non salary expenditures such as textbooks, educational materials, laboratory materials and maintenance.

The crises situation is regrettable whether they are found in developed or in developing country. Unless we give consideration now to the impact of these changes on universities as institutions we shall be in danger of losing the most important asset universities bring to the modern state. This uncertain future will give the concern that we are facing a matter of serious concern for the future of universities. In

essence, there is the real danger that the financial stringency can make the universities increasingly difficult in meeting the requirements of modern science and technology. Also financial constraints may therefore frustrate desirable expansion in the curricula intended to meet the developmental needs of these countries.

If we do not find ways to re-balance the relationship between universities and the state, we shall find that university dependency and compliance will increases. If the state becomes the only source of structural change in higher education, the revolution will have to sweep through higher education everywhere. However, the key to this dilemma will be to devote more attention and give much higher priority to encouraging institutional diversity as a powerful impact in moulding universities' future.

9.4.2 Further Research

This study's results are significant because its empirical findings have added to current understanding of quality improvement in university management. Although a great deal of cross-national research has been carried out in Finland and other places, it appears that no studies have benchmarked Nigerian and Finnish University leadership in the area of improving institutional quality management using European quality model (EFQM). The major outcome of this is that proactive and innovative leadership of institutions are becoming a feature of new emphasis on management. A further contribution of the findings of this study suggests variations in the management techniques between Nigeria and Finland. Despite this contribution, there is a compelling need for further studies that will continue benchmarking institutions in developing countries against those of developed nations so as to identify the underlying strengths of their development. Such studies should continue to examine the same quality improvement of universities using a combination of multiple sources of data collection. In addition, it is strongly recommended that researchers on quality management should use the methods that concern quality systems; EFQM is regarded as a good tool for managing universities as well as balanced score card (BSC), which is being developing by European management environment.

We can also determine which leadership positions are most suitable when preserving, or changing the status quo. Further research is needed on power relationships and transformative policy. Finally, once this is a study of leadership perceptions of their roles in quality improvement, there is also the need for further research on quality improvement of education environment of teaching and learning from the point of view of teachers and students.

In addition, with the recent trends in national development policies and their increasing concerns for training and qualifications, university leadership should maintain the conditions necessary for higher education institutions to play the role of effective centres for regional as well as national development. Nigerian university leaders should emulate this third process of university management -service to society – as an element of good practice in Finland. This practice entails positioning the university in ways in which it can help promote regional as well as national development, and contribute in making national economies more effec-

tive and conversely, this national focus will help improve its own effectiveness. Having said this, it is clear to see the importance assumed in this context by strategies to diversify the delivery of university education and technological development, aimed at achieving new qualitative balances and providing coherent and specific response to identified national and regional needs and demand as de Gaudemar (1997, 53-64) argues.

Furthermore, data collection in Nigeria proved difficult because higher education administrators in Nigeria were reluctant to participate in the study. This is one of the reasons that created methodological weaknesses such as a very small sample. It will be an interesting venture for future researchers to explore why this was so. Also, although this research did not cover the issue of internationalism, further research should endeavour to tackle this issue as a way of bringing to the fore, the establishment of new source of dialogue between institutions, finding solutions to issues of international dimension, as a long-term agenda for structural change in higher education, and to allow comparability and mobility within the international arena of higher education. This will enable the institutions to work together as a vision of internationalism, and at the same time bringing new opportunities relating to technologies that are improving the ways in which knowledge can be produced, managed, disseminated, assessed, and controlled. This is because we are in a period, which has seen the gap between industrially developed, developing countries and in particular the least developed countries. Finally, the changes facing higher education in both developing and developed countries present the need for further research in an effort to confront those changes. All these issues open a new field of research to African universities.

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