

**ACADEMIC BUSINESS: TENSIONS  
BETWEEN ACADEMIC VALUES AND  
CORPORATISATION OF AUSTRALIAN  
HIGHER EDUCATION IN GRADUATE  
SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS**

**VOLUME 1**

**Suzanne Erina Ryan**

**Academic Business: Tensions between academic values and corporatisation of Australian higher education in graduate schools of business**

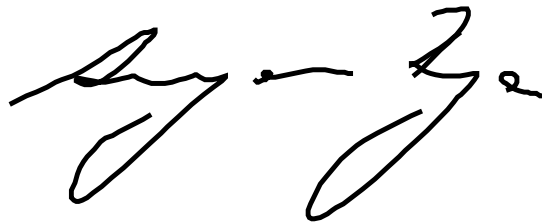
Suzanne Erina Ryan

A dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy at The University of Sydney

2009

## CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

This thesis contains no material which has been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any university, or any material previously published unless due reference to that material is made. Co-authors of published papers that contribute to the thesis have provided certification as to the extent and nature of my contribution.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Suzanne Erina Ryan'. The signature is fluid and cursive, with a large initial 'S' and 'E'.

Suzanne Erina Ryan

April, 2009

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I acknowledge first and foremost my supervisor, James Guthrie, who invited me to resume this research, continually motivated me with his enthusiasm for my topic, opened up opportunities, and overall provided me with the confidence to complete the work. I cannot thank him enough for the time and effort he contributed to the thesis and to my own development as a researcher. I further acknowledge the contribution of my co-supervisor, Ruth Neumann, for starting me on this journey and introducing me to the world of higher education policy and ideals. My appreciation also extends to Fiona Crawford for her help and to Gobind Sandhu for constantly reminding me the priority was the Phd.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

### Volume One

Table of Tables .....	8
Table of Figures.....	9
List of Abbreviations .....	10
Abstract.....	11
Chapter One: Thesis Overview.....	13
1.1 Introduction.....	13
1.2 Thesis aims and contribution.....	14
1.3 Research Approach.....	16
1.4 Organisation of Thesis .....	18
Chapter Two: Literature Review .....	23
2.1 Introduction.....	23
2.2 The ‘Idea of a University’ .....	27
2.3 Corporatisation and Higher Education .....	32
2.4 Globalisation and higher education .....	37
2.5 Impacts on values, cultures and identities .....	49
2.6 Australian Studies on Impacts of Corporatisation .....	60
2.7 Management Education and Business Schools.....	71
2.8 Chapter Summary and Gaps in the Literature.....	82
Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework- Middle Range Thinking .....	85
3.1 Introduction.....	85
3.2 Critical Theory, Habermas and the language of communicative action. ....	86
3.3 Middle Range Thinking and a Model of Organisational Change.....	95
3.4 Organisational Change Model applied to AHES .....	107
3.5 Proposed Framework for Research .....	116
Chapter Four: Research Design and Method .....	121

4.1 Introduction.....	121
4.2 MRT and Method .....	122
4.3 Research Design .....	124
4.4 Research Methods.....	127
4.5 Criteria of Soundness .....	145
4.6 Research Limitations .....	148
4.7 Chapter Summary .....	155
Chapter Five: Overview of Papers .....	156
5.1 Introduction.....	156
5.2 Paper One: Australian Higher Education Transformed: From central coordination to control.....	158
5.3 Paper Two: Management Education in Australia: Relevance Lost? .....	159
5.4 Paper Three: Collegial Entrepreneurialism: Australian Graduate Schools of Business .....	161
5.5 Paper Four: Australian Business Schools: More than 'commercial enterprise'?.....	162
5.6 Paper Five: Interdisciplinarity and Management Education: Australian Graduate Schools of Business .....	163
5.7 Paper Six: Lifeworld Change in an Australian Graduate School of Business: The Bill Stories. ....	165
5.8 Chapter Summary .....	166
Chapter Six: Conclusion .....	168
6.1 Introduction.....	168
6.2 Motivation.....	169
6.3 Findings and Contribution.....	170
6.4 Implications .....	176
References.....	180
Appendices.....	202
Volume Two	
Co-author Attestations .....	4

**Papers**

Paper 1 .....	8
Paper 2 .....	18
Paper 3 .....	53
Paper 4 .....	82
Paper 5 .....	108
Paper 6 .....	<b>131</b>

## TABLE OF TABLES

<b>TABLE NO.</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	
Table 1.1	Linkages between Research Aims, Papers and Chapters.....	21
Table 3.1	Functions of action oriented towards mutual understanding .....	90
Table 3.2	Relationships between nature of disturbances, absorbing groups and possible outcomes .....	105
Table 3.3	Evidence of Change by Steering Media in AHES .....	111
Table 4.1	Research Phases .....	121
Table 4.2	Research Design Framework .....	124
Table 4.3	Details of Respondent Academics in 2002/2003 .....	133
Table 4.4	Employment Locations of Participants in 2008-07-20 .....	134
Table 4.5	Summary of Major Codes after Coding Down .....	140
Table 4.6	Summary of Themes and Meta-themes .....	142
Table 4.7	Verification Procedures (Adapted from Creswell, 1998) .....	147



## TABLE OF FIGURES

<b>FIGURE NO.</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	
Figure 1	Literature Review Map .....	26
Table 2.2	Summary of Empirical Research on Australian Higher Education 1977-2007	62
Figure 3.1	The Four Sociological Paradigms (adapted from Burrell and Morgan, 1979, 22) .....	87
Figure 3.2	Habermas' Conception of Societal Development (Adapted from Laughlin, 1987, 488) .....	89
Figure 3.3	Regulative Change .....	93
Figure 3.4	Constitutive Change (Colonisation).....	94
Figure 3.5	Relationships between Societal, System and Sub-system Models .....	98
Figure 3.6	A Model of Organisations.....	100
Figure 3.7	First Order Change: Rebuttal .....	101
Figure 3.8	First Order Change: Reorientation.....	102
Figure 3.9	Second Order Change: Colonisation.....	102
Figure 3.10	Second Order Change: Evolution .....	103
Figure 3.11	Australian Higher Education System.....	109
Figure 3.12	University Change Pre and Post 1985 .....	114
Figure 3.13	Proposed Theoretical Framework .....	118
Figure 5.1	Schematic Representation of Paper Type and Interrelationships .....	157

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AGSB .....	Australian Graduate School of Business
AHES .....	Australian Higher Education System
AUQA.....	Australian Universities Quality Agency
DEETYA.....	Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs
DEEWR .....	Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations
DEST.....	Department of Education, Science and Training
GSB.....	Graduate School of Business
MRT .....	Middle Range Thinking

## **Abstract**

This thesis explores the impact of institutional changes in the Australian Higher Education Sector (AHES) on academics in entrepreneurial graduate schools of business. It addresses questions about the causes, nature and effects of change, and ultimately, the impact on the values and lives of 21 academics at two points in time, 2002-3 and 2008. In addition to reviewing literature, qualitative methods of document analysis and interviews provide the data for the research. The framework for the analysis of data is based on Laughlin's (1991) 'skeletal' theory of organisation change which adapts concepts from Habermas' (1984; 87) theory of societal change. The impacts of change are viewed from the perspective of organisation participants, the academics. For the majority of these academics, the findings of the research indicate that, in the face of loss of ownership and the imposition of modernisation practices, they maintained their belief in academic values but withdrew from active engagement with their school and institution.

The thesis is presented in six chapters and six papers. With the exception of Chapter One, which introduces the thesis and its contributions, and Chapter Six, which summarises and concludes the work, the four chapters in between provide background detail on the literature; the theoretical approach; the research design and method; and the findings. The six papers complement the chapters by presenting the outcomes of the research at various stages. They are ordered in such a way as to offer general overviews of the Australian Higher Education Sector (Paper One) and business schools (Paper Two) before providing more specific focus on the impacts of modernisation practices (Paper Three); effects of change on academic identity (Paper Four); and the role of disciplinarity on academic values and identity (Paper Five). Research results from the first period of research, 2002-3, are reported in Papers Three, Four and Five. Paper Six is the final paper. It provides a comparison of results for both periods with an analysis of change and its impacts using Laughlin's (1991) framework for organisation change.

Chapter Six concludes the thesis with suggested implications for policy and further research. In relation to policy, it is suggested that current government intentions to shift higher education institutions from economic to social institutions will be dependent on the ability of institutions to unravel ten years of modernisation practices aimed at controlling rather than supporting academic endeavour. Arising from this is a challenge to business schools to develop value propositions that better reflect their role as part of a social institution and not an institutional 'cash cow'. Further research is suggested in two areas: first, in understanding the lifeworld perspectives of academic executives and heads of school about their role in absorbing or facilitating change; and second, in understanding how business schools are able to develop and implement appropriate value propositions.

Overall this thesis is a response to Henkel's (2005, p. 166) call for further empirical research into academics' lives "to test the strength of values and identity in different institutional settings". It does this by addressing several gaps in the literature on higher education, specifically Australian higher education. The production of a qualitative and longitudinal study within a theoretical framework contributes to overcoming the paucity of research employing these methods or applying theoretical interpretations of data within higher education. Additionally, the thesis makes a contribution to the under-researched areas of academic values and value change generally, and Australian business schools, specifically by focusing on the values of Australian business school academics in times of change.

# CHAPTER ONE: THESIS OVERVIEW

## 1.1 Introduction

As this thesis is prepared, Australia awaits the outcomes of a major review (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent and Seales, 2008) of the Australian Higher Education Sector (AHES) that has been the subject of much policy and public debate. Information gleaned from submissions and media reports suggests that the sector is hoping for change that will reverse some of the previous reforms instigated by successive governments. Australian universities have undergone unprecedented change in the face of challenges from globalisation and government policy reforms. The universities have embraced these challenges, recognising that to remain as they were was not an option. Whether they have been able “to redefine themselves to operate successfully at the forefront of change” (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1998, p. 208) is a more contentious issue.

In the past twenty years, the AHES has changed from a social institution to a major export industry, displaying all the characteristics of a corporation. Large scale surveys of academics during this period have consistently reported a general unhappiness among academics as a consequence of the execution of government policies by university managements. Although there is no shortage of literature on the conflict between academic values and the commodification and corporatisation of higher education, the rhetoric outweighs the empirics. The purpose of this thesis is to explore the impacts of institutional implementation of government policy on academics in small entrepreneurial units, graduate schools of business (GSB). The motivation for the research arises firstly from the relative lack of qualitative and longitudinal data on change in the AHES generally and in business schools in particular, and secondly from the need to influence institutional policy with evidence rather than opinion.

There are two broad outcomes to this research. The first is an overview of the AHES and business schools and education; and the second is a specific focus on the impact of change on GSB academics. The former is based primarily on documentary analysis to understand changes in the AHES and the issues confronting business schools generally as

a result of these changes. The latter combines the contexts of the AHES and business schools, with empirical research to focus on academics at the School level. Specifically, a longitudinal and qualitative case study of academics working in GSB provides empirical evidence to assess the impact of sector and institutional change on academics and their values. The results of the research are presented in six papers that have been published, are awaiting publication, or are being prepared for publication after presentation at a conference.

This Chapter outlines in section 1.2 the aims and contribution of the thesis and in section 1.3 provides an overview of the research design, including research participants, method and analysis. The Chapter concludes with section 1.4, by explaining the organisation of the thesis that links the six papers with the following five chapters forming a coherent account of organisational change and the subsequent tensions between academic values and corporatisation of the AHES.

## **1.2 Thesis aims and contribution**

In view of the controversies, both practical and academic, surrounding change in higher education throughout the world and in Australia, the general purpose of the thesis is to evaluate change in the AHES from the perspective of the organisational participants, the academics, with specific focus on their life and values. The four specific aims are:

1. To analyse changes in the AHES;
2. To analyse the role of business schools and issues in business education arising from changes in the AHES;
3. To analyse the impact of change on the lives and values of GSB academics with a focus on three specific issues:
  - 3.1. the effects of modernisation and entrepreneurial practices;
  - 3.2. the impact of change on individual identity; and
  - 3.3. the role of disciplinarity and value formation; and
4. To evaluate the types of contemporary change in the AHES and the responses to it by GSB academics.

There are several areas within the literature on organisational change in higher education that are under researched or under theorised and to which this thesis makes a contribution. The following gaps in the literature were identified from the review of literature in Chapter Two. First, in relation to method, research on academic life in Australia has been largely based on quantitative surveys at a single point in time. There are few qualitative case studies and even less longitudinal research. Second, theoretical approaches to empirical work on higher education change are sparse. Slaughter and Leslie's (1997) extensive study of academic capitalism is a rare example of research employing a theoretical approach in its design and interpretation. In line with the general positivist approach to research in higher education, most research tends to be descriptive without an explicit theoretical framework. This thesis attempts to add flesh to Laughlin's (1991) 'skeletal' theory of organisational change by adopting a Middle Range Thinking (MRT) (Laughlin, 1995; 2004) approach to the design and interpretation of the research. Third, there is a paucity of studies whose content is focused on the values of academics, specifically business school academics. With the exception of Henkel's (2000; 2005a; 2005b) work, only a small number of studies have a direct focus on academic values. Of the research concerned directly with the impacts of corporatisation on academics, few studies directly address the question of value change or address it in a way that focuses on the "collective experience and inter-relationships" of academics within their lifeworlds (Tight, 2003, p. 166). Although there is growing attention being given to entrepreneurial academic units (Clark, 1998; Slaughter and Leslie, 1997; De Zilwa, 2007), there are even fewer, if any, studies that focus on the values of academics engaged in the most commercialised and globalised of academic teaching activities, such as graduate schools of business. In Australia, there is little empirical research at all on business schools and business education in relation to organisational change.

Overall this thesis is a response to Henkel's (2005b, p. 166) call for further empirical research into academic lives, working practices and relationships "to test the strength of values and identity in different institutional settings". It does so in a way that examines

change from a theoretical perspective based on qualitative method in a longitudinal case study of academics in an entrepreneurial unit.

### **1.3 Research Approach**

Choice of approach in research is fundamental to its focus, method and interpretation of results (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Laughlin, 1995; 2004). Given the researcher's personal interest in higher education and the business schools within it, along with her personal views on ontology and epistemology, a critical approach was deemed most appropriate. The principles of Laughlin's (1995; 2004) Middle Range Thinking (MRT) are well suited to analyse processes and impacts of value change in organisations and societies. The approach dictates both recognition of an external reality and the subjectivity of the researcher as assumptions underpinning the choice of method. "Generalisations about reality are possible, even though not guaranteed to exist ... these will always be 'skeletal' requiring empirical detail to make them meaningful" (Laughlin, 1995, p. 81). For Laughlin, existing theory can only ever provide 'skeletal' understanding, it must be fleshed out by empirics using methods, invariably qualitative methods, to allow latitude on the part of both researcher and researched.

Critical theory, specifically Habermasian theory as interpreted and adapted to organisational change processes by Laughlin (1991; 1997) and further developed by Broadbent and Laughlin (1998) is employed as the 'skeletal' theoretical framework for the research. It has as its focus the understanding and assessment of major cultural, social and personal values or 'lifeworld' changes in organisations brought about by 'steering media' such as policy makers and administrators using 'steering mechanisms' such as rules and budgets. The question is always whether the steering media (e.g., policy makers, university administrators) through the use of steering mechanisms create change in their own interests to subvert the lifeworld through colonisation, or, they direct change to enhance lifeworlds, creating evolutionary change.



This research consists of a longitudinal study of academics in three autonomous GSB over two periods, 2002-3 and 2008. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 21 academics in late 2002 and early 2003. In 2008, the same 21 academics were sent a copy of the findings from the first period in the form of stories, the 'Bill Stories' (see Appendix One), representing the average responses from earlier interviews. Respondents were asked to verify by email, telephone or interview the stories in terms of how well the stories accorded with their recollections of that time and what, if anything, had changed since 2002-3 and why. Among the 19 respondents participating in the follow-up study, there was strong agreement that the stories reflected their situation at the time. All respondents were able to identify with 'Bill', although there were minor variations associated with different business schools.

The original participants were 21 full-time academics employed at three autonomous GSB, representing approximately 25 per cent of the total academic populations for the three schools. The names of potential respondents, suggested by a senior academic contact in each school, covered the range of disciplines offered and, as much as possible reflected the age, academic ranking and gender composition of the school population. Interview transcripts were initially coded according to 19 issues arising from the literature and from interviews. These codes were further expanded to 139 codes that amalgamated into eight themes and two meta-themes, personal and social world. Each meta-theme was developed into a story about 'Bill', the story of an average graduate school of business academic that represented the most common responses within each of the themes. The use of the male gender simply reflects that the majority of respondents were male.

The research is necessarily limited in scope and method. The scope of the research was limited by a condition of ethics approval that prohibited any potential identification of schools, including any comparison of schools. This in turn limited the identification of some important differences between schools that might affect values and attitudes. No attempt is made to compare or contrast the three schools, and background information on

each school is limited. Academics from all schools are viewed as the one sample from a hypothetical autonomous Australian graduate school of business, 'AGSB'. The method suffers the usual limitations of qualitative studies, including small sample size and possible subjectivity in interpretation of interview data. Because the verification process was five years after the first interviews, reliance on memory is a further limitation.

#### **1.4 Organisation of Thesis**

The six papers<sup>1</sup> that complement this thesis represent the outcomes of the research, while the chapters within the thesis provide detailed background and explanation for the papers. The papers are referred to throughout the thesis as *Paper One*, *Paper Two* and so on. They are ordered in such a way as to lead from background papers on changes in the AHES and business schools to more specific focus on the impacts of modernisation and entrepreneurship practices on the AGSB, the effects of change on the identity of AGSB academics, and the role of disciplinarity in identity formation among AGSB academics. The final paper reports the results of the longitudinal research of AGSB academics, indicating implications for both policy and future research.

A brief summary of the focus of each paper by number follows. **Paper One** (Ryan, Guthrie and Neumann, 2008a) addresses the changes in the AHES since 1972. It suggests that the government led reforms came in four waves, the most recent being in 2003. The response by universities to each of these waves has been compliance and a shift in governance models from collegial, to market, to that of a corporation. The paper gives emphasis to the impacts of the third and fourth waves, which facilitated a move away from government coordination of the AHES to one of highly centralised control of the sector. **Paper Two** (Ryan, 2008a) discusses the debates surrounding business schools and business education, in particular, their role as institutional 'cash cows' and the impending threats to reputation posed by reliance on international student markets, the emergence of private competitors, lessening quality and a proposed national research

---

<sup>1</sup> As required by the University of Sydney's 'Theses Containing Publications' requirements, the co-authors of the papers have provided a signed statement outlining and attesting to my contribution.

assessment framework. Contemporary debate themes from business schools in the USA and UK are used to draw out lessons for Australian business schools in relation to competition, research, teaching and purpose.

The following three papers, Papers Three, Four and Five, investigate specific issues affecting academic values and change by incorporating empirical results from the 2002-3 interviews. **Paper Three** (Ryan and Guthrie, forthcoming) uses data from the 2002-3 interviews. It examines the perceptions of Australian academics about their work and the impacts of modernisation in the commercialised environment of autonomous GSB. The reported experience of dealing with three consequences of modernisation, 'hard' managerialism, academic consumerism and fragmentation of work, provides insight into whether collegiality and the maintenance of academic values can exist within an entrepreneurial academic unit. Results indicate that, with the exception of authoritarian leadership, overt manifestations of modernisation are not threatening to 'collegial entrepreneurialism' (Clark, 1998). **Paper Four** (Ryan, 2008b) uses the identity theory of Laclau and Mouffe (1985), as adapted to organisations and applied to business schools by Bridgman (2005), to examine identity within Australian business schools. Bridgman identified three competing identities among business school academics: the 'academic department', the 'professional school' and the 'commercial enterprise'. Using literature on business schools and education from *Paper Two*, the paper incorporates the results from the 2002-3 interviews to test the three identities in relation to Australian business academics. Although pressures from external government policies and internal institutional priorities have resulted in business schools becoming 'cash cows', appearing to privilege the 'commercial enterprise' discourse, the paper concludes that the values and identities of individual academics remain firmly aligned with the 'professional school' and 'academic department'. Likewise **Paper Five** (Ryan, Neumann and Guthrie, 2008) builds on management education issues from *Paper Two* in following up the notion of academic identity discussed in Paper Four but in the context of the discipline. The paper explores the dilemmas faced by multidisciplinary business schools torn between wanting to be recognised as professional with a convergence of disciplines but sensitive to the specialised disciplinary priorities emanating from journals, rankings and

institutional reward systems. A decade after Knights and Willmott (1997) addressed the issue of interdisciplinarity in management education with a pessimistic conclusion, *Paper Six* revisits this work and concludes that, although there are signs of interdisciplinarity emerging in the AGSB, the forces against it are stronger than ever.

The final paper, **Paper Six** (Ryan, Guthrie and Neumann, 2008b), is the conclusion of the research covering both periods, 2002-3 and 2008. It uses stories of 'Bill', the average AGSB academic in 2002-3, to demonstrate the types and effects of organisation change as institutions implemented government policies. In 2002-3, the pathway of change created by primarily the second, and to a lesser extent, the third wave of government reforms was evolutionary. Bill was an engaged academic, but the signs of change to come were already there. By 2008, after the fourth wave of reform, Bill had either left the AGSB or withdrawn from it in an effort to avoid the colonisation. Overall this paper highlights the positive and negative effects arising from institutional implementation of government policies, in particular the role of academic unit autonomy and size in relation to individual academic commitment.

The Chapters in the thesis support the papers with greater detail and discussion of the literature, approach and method. **Chapter Two** provides and updates additional background literature on: the 'idea of a university'; the globalisation and corporatisation of the AHES; academic values, cultures, identity and resistance; specific studies on the impacts on academics of corporatisation of the AHES; and lastly, business schools and business education. It complements all the papers by offering further literature. **Chapter Three** provides an overview of the theoretical approach adopted in the research. This chapter examines the language and theory of Habermasian critical theory before discussing Laughlin's (1995; 2004) MRT approach to research and his development of a skeletal theory of organisational change. Studies of the AHES that employ an MRT or critical theory approach are discussed. Laughlin's approach is adapted to the AHES and the questions relevant to this thesis. Chapter Three supplies necessary background understanding to the interpretation of results in Paper Six. **Chapter Four** is an explanation of the research design and method. The chapter begins with a justification

for the use of MRT in the design of the research followed by the research design. The sample, research methods and analysis are discussed in detail. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the research. Chapter Four enhances the necessarily abbreviated explanations of method in *Papers Three, Four Five and Six*. **Chapter Five** represents the findings of the research contained in each of the six papers. Hence the Chapter is a summary of the six papers indicating the contribution of each. **Chapter Six** is a brief conclusion to the thesis. It summarises the work and reflects on the findings and their implications for policy and further research.

Table 1.1 below links the aims of the thesis to the relevant chapters and papers. Findings for each of the four aims are contained in the papers, all of which are supported by various chapters.

**Table 1.1 Links between Research Aims, Papers and Chapters**

<b>Aim One: To analyse changes in the AHES</b>	
Paper One: Ryan, S., Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2008a), "The Case of Australian Higher Education: Performance, Markets and Government Control", in C. Mazza, P. Quattrone and A. Riccaboni (eds), <i>European Universities in Transition: Issues, Models and Cases</i> , Edward Elgar, London, 171-187.	
Chapter Two updates and adds substantially to the research and literature on higher education in general and AHES in particular.	
Chapter Three includes literature on the AHES carried out within a similar theoretical framework to that used in the current research.	
<b>Aim Two: To analyse the role of business schools and issues in business education arising from changes in the AHES</b>	
Paper Two: Ryan, S. (2008a) "Management Education in Australia: Relevance lost?" Paper submitted to <i>British Journal of Management</i> .	
Chapter Two contributes an overview of additional research on Australian Business Schools in relation to values and culture.	
<b>Aim Three: To analyse the impact of change on the lives and values of graduate business school academics with a focus on three specific issues:</b>	
<b>3.1.</b>	<b>effects of modernisation and entrepreneurial practices;</b>
<b>3.2.</b>	<b>impact of change on individual identity; and</b>

<b>3.3.</b>	<b>role of disciplinarity and value formation.</b>
3.1	Paper Three: Ryan, S. and Guthrie, J. (forthcoming) Collegial Entrepreneurialism: Australian Graduate Schools of Business, Paper accepted for publication in <i>Public Management Review</i> .
3.2	Paper Four: Ryan, S., Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2008b) Australian Business Schools: More Than 'Commercial Enterprise'? Paper submitted to <i>Organisational Studies</i> .
Chapter Two provides additional literature on modernisation and research into business schools.	
3.3	Paper Five: Ryan, S. Neumann, R. and Guthrie, J. (2008) Interdisciplinarity in Management Education: Australian Graduate Schools of Business, paper presented at the <i>Irish Academy of Management Conference (IAM)</i> , Dublin, Ireland, September, 3-5.
Chapter Two provides additional literature and research on disciplinarity and academic values.	
<b>Aim Four: To evaluate the types of change in the AHES and responses to it by AGSB academics</b>	
Paper Six: Ryan, S., Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2008b) "Lifeworld Changes in an Australian Graduate School of Business: The Bill Stories", paper presented at 22nd Annual Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) Conference. University of Auckland Business School, Auckland, New Zealand, 2-5 December, 2008.	
Chapter Two provides additional references on resistance to change among academics.	
Chapter Three provides greater detail on MRT and Laughlin's (1991) skeletal theory of organisational change.	
Chapter Four provides greater explanation of the method used for the research.	

## Chapter Two: Literature Review

*A great idea (university) must change in order to remain  
the same*

*(Newman, cited in Nybom, 2003, p.150)*

### 2.1 Introduction

Over the past decade or so, a series of books, seminar proceedings and government inquiries have been published across the Western world, variously entitled ‘The University in Ruins’ (Readings, 1996); ‘Universities on the Brink’ (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1998); ‘Why Universities Matter’ (Coady, 2000); ‘Universities in Crisis’ (Senate Committee, 2001); ‘The New Idea of a University’ (Maskell and Robinson, 2001); ‘Higher Education at the Crossroads’ (Nelson, 2002); ‘Universities in the Marketplace’ (Bok, 2003); ‘Off Course: From Public Place to Marketplace at Melbourne University’ (Cain and Hewitt, 2004); ‘Killing Thinking: The Death of the Universities’ (Evans, 2004); and ‘University Inc.: The Corporate Corruption of American Higher Education’ (Washburn, 2005). Although it is not new for universities to feel under attack, the current ‘crisis’ in Western universities is underlain by a new phenomenon, increasing global economic imperatives. The ‘crisis’ has spawned not only books and contributions to scholarly journals across all disciplines, but regular articles and reports in the public media. In this latter regard, Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) argue that prior criticism of universities was restricted to academics, not politicians nor the press. So what has happened to bring universities out of the ‘ivory tower’ and onto the front pages of tabloids? Essentially the opportunities and demands of globalisation and technology innovation have led governments to turn their nations into ‘knowledge economies’. The very words ‘knowledge economy’ bring universities, as producers and transmitters of knowledge, to the forefront of a global political and economic arena. Government attempts to steer universities from social to economic institutions have had far-reaching consequences, beginning with the ‘massification’ of higher education and evolving into corporatisation and commodification. Despite highly divergent attitudes towards the processes and outcomes involved in reform agendas, both critics and supporters agree that the change has been radical and the very essence of a university is under challenge.

The 'idea of a university' is a phrase first used by Cardinal Newman in 1852 to explain the meaning of an English university (Pelikan, 1992). Although the phrase is attributed to Cardinal Newman, much of what is considered to be the idea of a modern university was laid by Wilhem von Humboldt in the establishment of the Berlin University in 1810 (Nybom, 2003). The 'idea of a university' embodies both Newman's words and core values such as institutional autonomy and academic freedom of intellectual inquiry (Miller, 2000) as well as the functions of acquisition, preservation and transmission of knowledge provided by von Humboldt. Together these values and purposes represented the lifeworld of a university as understood by academics, students and the community (Krucken, 2003). Regardless of the many changes that have occurred within universities and their environments in the one and a half centuries since Newman stated the fundamental values contained in the 'idea of a university', they have remained generally intact, at least among academics (Pelikan, 1992; Coaldrake and Stedman, 1998, Krucken, 2003).

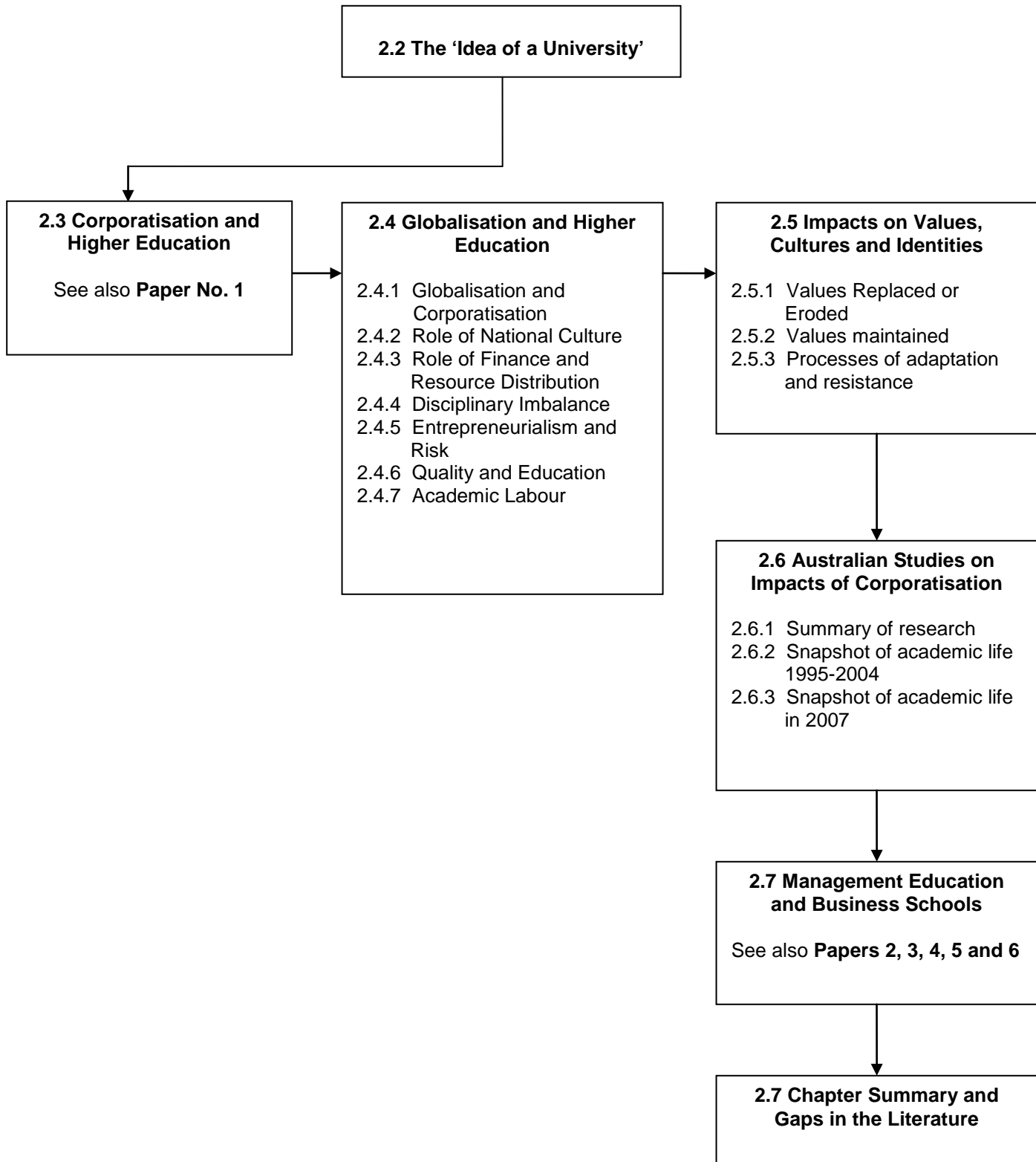
More recently, the traditional role of universities has been challenged by globalisation, commodification and corporatisation of higher education. These factors have prompted changes to university structures, funding arrangements, administrative processes and academic relationships throughout Western nations. A review of the literature on whether these changes are simply evolutionary and necessary to bring universities in line with a changed environment in order to preserve the 'idea of a university' or whether they represent substantive changes to the 'idea of a university' is the broad concern of this chapter and thesis. Specifically, the thesis addresses the impacts of reform on academic values because, as custodians of traditional values, it is only at the level of the academic, individually and collectively, that the question of impact can be understood. Although similar reforms have occurred throughout the Western world, the primary focus of this literature review is on the AHES and its academics.

This chapter proceeds as follows: The first three sections provide background and debates on changes occurring in universities. Section 2.2 explores the concepts and controversies



encapsulated in the phrase the ‘idea of a university’. Section 2.3 covers the debates surrounding the corporatisation of higher education with a brief overview of the AHES. Section 2.4 examines globalisation both as a driver and consequence of reform. Section 2.5 provides an overview of the impacts of corporatisation on academics. Section 2.6 summarises key empirical studies in Australia. Section 2.7 focuses on the growth in management education and business schools in Australia as direct outcomes of corporatisation and globalisation. Section 2.8 summarises the chapter pointing to gaps in the literature in relation to the impact of corporatisation on graduate schools of business. Several of the sections in the literature review are complemented by papers on specific areas, which are summarised in Chapter 5 of the thesis and attached to the thesis. Figure 1 outlines this Chapter and links the various sections within it.

**Figure 1 Literature Review Map**



## 2.2 The ‘Idea of a University’

This section introduces the ‘idea of a university’ as a fundamental but unwritten understanding of what a university represents. Whether there is only one idea and whether that idea has remained unchanged is examined, especially in the light of major reforms in the past two decades. The semantic shift from ‘university’ to ‘higher education industry’ is explored in terms of whether the shift has meant a change from universities as public social institutions to private economic institutions. The section concludes with observations on the role of mission statements in defining the ‘idea of a university’.

Newman’s ‘idea of a university’ is a way of capturing the elusive definitional concepts that set universities apart from other social institutions. The simple phrase ‘acquisition, preservation and transmission of knowledge’ is insufficient to denote the deeper cultural values that attach to these functions and differentiate a university from other educational institutions (Marceau, 2000). Notions such as ‘freedom of intellectual inquiry’ and ‘academic autonomy’ have been central to the acquisition function; ‘custodian of national culture’ to the preservation function; and ‘reciprocity of relationship’ to the transmission function (Brett, 2000). The freedom extends to both teaching and research. Underlying these notions was a commitment to the ideal of truth, the value of knowledge as an end in itself and a contribution to citizenship (Kinnear, 2001). These ideals and notions did not have to be written down as the values were well understood by academics, students and the community (Molony, 2000) and encapsulated in the meaning of the word, ‘university’.

In establishing the University of Berlin, von Humboldt put forth an idea for a lasting social institution based on, *inter alia*, the unity of research and teaching, the primacy of research, and the maintenance of the university as a core obligation of the state (Nybom, 2003). Central to von Humboldt’s idea was the imperative that knowledge generation could only prosper if located outside and above the political world (Nybom, 2003). Von Humboldt’s conception of a university as a place where the functions of research and

teaching were combined within the one institution became the hallmark of the modern western university, albeit well over a century after von Humboldt's University of Berlin set the example (Davis, 2006). Since the adoption of von Humboldt's model, tensions between teaching and research inevitably developed. Concerned that research had come to dominate the academic profession at the expense of teaching and broader academic tasks, Boyer (1990, p. 16) proposed an expanded role for scholarship that goes beyond the teaching and research debate to define scholarship, and through it, the functions of scholars, as having four separate but related aspects: "the scholarship of discovery; the scholarship of integration; the scholarship of application; and the scholarship of teaching". This definition is based on an academic's freedom to step back and reflect on research projects, social problems and pedagogy. The 'ivory tower' image of universities was grounded in the necessity to step back or stand apart from society to maintain autonomy and allow a space protected from the pressures of the world to build new ideals (Gaita, 2000).

Although these notions provide greater richness to understanding the distinctiveness of a university, it is more useful to interpret these as 'ideals' rather than 'ideas' as the nature of these values is such that they are striven for rather than attained (Coady, 2000). Universities were never totally free nor pure, their history, like most social institutions, "abounds in corruption, unjustified privilege, mediocrity and venality" (Coady, 2000, p. 5). In reviewing the history and development of Australian universities, Macintyre and Marginson (2000) highlight that while freedom of inquiry was passionately espoused and fought for, it was rarely ever present. Recurrent financial problems and external pressures in one form or another have always tested the independence and values of Australian universities which, until the past two decades, proved resilient to pressures on autonomy.

Not everyone agrees that there was ever a single ideal of a university. Gilbert (2000, p. 35) goes as far as to suggest that to even consider that there was "a single immutable idea of a university, is poor history and dangerous ideology". In a similar vein, but a more considered examination of the 'idea of a university', Rochford (2006) argues that neither

in legal nor historical terms has there ever been one accepted idea of a university. She claims that the definition of a university has always depended on the purpose attached to it by varying administrative, legal and political interests. Universities wanting “to assert a particular role or function, must do so with the moral force of their own conviction” (Rochford, 2006, p. 150). Rochford concludes that the ‘idea of a university’ is a rhetorical device used to create a perception of crisis and a need for change. Although questioning the existence of a single idea of a university, neither Gilbert nor Rochford deny the importance of essential features, such as academic autonomy, contained in the traditional idea. This differs from Sharrock (2007), who calls for a new ‘theory of business’ for universities based on new ideas and values. Sharrock argues that both Newman’s and von Humboldt’s concepts of the university must give way to other ideals that match the reality of global knowledge economies. For Sharrock (2007, p. 4), the long held values of collegiality, democracy and academic freedom have become “alibis to prop up outdated norms and untenable assumptions”, thus blocking the development of a modern university.

Most literature on the ‘idea of a university’ takes the traditional idea for granted, with the debate centring on whether external pressures arising from globalisation and government responses to it are threats to, or saviours of, the ‘idea of a university’. Some argue that the values or ‘defining characteristics’ of a university can only survive if universities are willing to accommodate a changed world environment and be independently resourced in doing so (Clark, 1998; Gilbert, 2001; Gallagher, 2001; Davis, 2006). Others argue that the means chosen to respond to the new environment are destroying the very basis of what a university is meant to be (see for instance, Slaughter and Leslie, 1997; Vidovich and Currie, 1998; Craig, Clarke and Amernic, 1999; Coady, 2000; Currie and Vidovich, 2000; Gaita, 2000; Molony, 2000; Miller, 2000; Kinnear, 2001; Maskell and Robinson, 2001; Parker, 2002; Bok, 2003; Deem, 2004; Gumpert, 2005).

An important noticeable change in the literature on the ‘idea of a university’, has been the gradual disappearance of the word ‘university’ and its gradual replacement with the expressions, ‘higher education institution’; ‘tertiary education system’; ‘higher education

system' and finally 'higher education sector or industry'. The words in themselves denote a weakening of the uniqueness of the university and its position in society. Teichler (2005) explains the international shift to the use of 'higher education system' occurring in the 1960s and 1970s, when governments sought to combine various post secondary educational institutions under one administrative authority. Once a university has become part of a system, the primary discourse easily changes to that of administering and funding a 'system' and from there the 'system' more easily becomes an economic 'sector' until eventually the word, 'industry', indicates a change from a social to an economic institution (Duke, 2004).

The university as part of an industry must measure itself in business rather than academic terms (Gumport, 2005). The only way an individual university can avoid being a subsidiary of the system or industry is to "buy its way right out of its society and geography [to become] a 'world class global' institution" (Duke, 2004, p. 309). But not even 'world class' institutions are free from the threat of commercialisation. Bok (2003, p. 207), in reference to Ivy League universities in the USA, argues that commercialisation changes the character of the university "in ways that threaten its freedom, sap its effectiveness, and lower its standing in society".

In Australia, the change in semantics was cast in law through various government policies, discussion papers and ministerial announcements. The expression 'tertiary education system' was replaced with 'higher education system' when it officially appeared in 1988 with the introduction of the Unified National System that merged 18 existing universities with 45 advanced colleges of education (polytechnics) into 36 public and two private universities (Davis, 2006). The ministerial rhetoric that accompanied and justified the change was couched in terms of the traditional 'idea of a university' as a social institution, not an industry (Dawkins, 1988). It was not many years later that such rhetoric would be viewed as utopian (Duke, 2004) as the financial impacts of 'massification' were felt and government reduced funding, encouraging institutions to seek private revenues. When higher education institutions appeared successful in their efforts to increase revenue, primarily through fee paying students, the higher education

system quickly became the higher education 'sector' culminating in its status as a major export 'industry' as early as 1999 (Davis, Olsen and Bohm, 2000). References to 'university' and 'higher education institutions' were replaced with 'higher education provider' in the *Higher Education Support Act* (2003) and, in 2006, government protocols redefined the term 'university' so that teaching only institutions could use the name 'university' (Sharrock, 2007).

By 2007, there was little doubt that the Australian Government viewed higher education in clearly economic terms. The fact that higher education had become Australia's third largest export industry worth over \$12.5 billion in 2007 was evidence of success of Government reforms in higher education (IDP, 2008). To date, the current Australian Government under Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, has not developed a clear policy for higher education, apart from the Minister's preference that any new policy should promote a national higher education *system* rather than individual institutions (Gillard, 2008).

With the shift from education to economic institution, the once simple but unwritten 'idea of a university' has been updated with individual mission statements to signify diversity between institutions (Goldney, 2008, p.32). However, there is evidence to suggest that conformity, rather than diversity, among institutions has been the outcome. Marginson (1999; 2001) argues that similarity in mission statements is the inevitable outcome of institutions facing similar internal and external pressures. The use of mission statements suggests dependency on the prevailing economic system and, in particular, the university's accountability to those who pay for it (Weber, 1996). A survey of mission statements on university websites (Richter and Buttery, 2005, p. 14) found that the "basic tenet regarding the purpose and activity of universities has not changed, other than expanded boundaries". Goldney (2008) observes that, while the coats of arms and grand Latin mottos still grace the halls, letterheads and advertisements of universities, catchy tag lines are now used to summarise mission statements as a means of publicly signifying institutional differences. In his analysis of Australian universities' tag lines, Goldney (2008) exposes not only a limited number of words and sentiments attached to these tag

lines, but that the expressions used were either meaningless such as ‘Dream Large’ or reflective of the universal ‘idea of a university’ such as ‘inspiring’ and ‘innovative’. Perhaps it is hard to escape the original idea of a university, a university is a university.

Gilbert (2000, p. 31) states that “Universities are confronting a higher education revolution that is likely to be swifter and more intrusive than anything they have faced before. The very ‘idea of a university’ seems fragile in such circumstances”. In the absence of a single ‘idea of a university’, Gilbert (2000) contends there remain issues about which universities must never compromise without compromising their integrity. These include institutional autonomy to discharge responsibilities and intellectual freedom for academics to criticise established orders. Gilbert views the greatest threat to institutional autonomy and academic freedom in the last century to have come from government intervention. More pessimistically Duke (2004, p. 310) concludes that the current ‘idea of a university’ in Australia is “imposed corporatist managerialism”.

Before addressing the question of whether or not academic values have changed or are being changed, there is a need to examine more closely the relationship between the ‘idea of a university’ and the corporatisation and globalisation of higher education.

### **2.3 Corporatisation and Higher Education<sup>2</sup>**

The general thesis of change in western universities is that technology advancements strengthened a general move to globalisation in which knowledge was a key competitive advantage (Petty and Guthrie, 2000). In response to this, governments opened up their higher education sectors to the masses (Becher and Parry, 2005). The subsequent public cost and administrative complexity led to reduced public funding, which in turn was compensated by deregulation and corporatisation to promote entrepreneurship while at the same time increasing government controls over policy and reducing the public funding contribution. With corporatisation came the rise of managerialism,

---

<sup>2</sup> See **Paper No 1** for a more detailed analysis of changes in the AHES.



commodification, market competition and increased globalism (Meek and Wood, 1998; Marginson and Considine, 2000; Parker, 2002; Olssen and Peters, 2005). This section provides an overview of the processes of corporatisation within the universities while the following section 2.4 addresses issues of globalisation, both as an antecedent and consequence of corporatisation.

The rise of international knowledge based economies has been “articulated and pursued through growth in the service sector [and] the identification of human resources and their expertise as a commodity offering strategic advantage” (Burns and Yazfidar cited in Parker, 2002, p. 605). Thus universities were among the first sectors to be targeted as a means to harness knowledge as a commodity. Simultaneously, there was a world redefinition of public services whereby the “economic value of producing profit and operating efficiently are subordinated to social and political values and ideas of accountability, responsibility, and transparency are assuming a direct, fiduciary significance” (Rochford, 2006, p.155). The redefinition included the introduction of modernisation practices such as reduction in public expenditure and commercialisation of public goods. In short, the result was the corporatisation of public services (Broadbent and Guthrie, 2008), including higher education (Neumann and Guthrie, 2004).

For the higher education sector, the changes brought about by corporatisation are evidenced by the emergence of the following:

- *managerialism* including centralisation of governance and merging of academic units (Marginson and Considine, 2000; Deem, 2004; Parker, 2002; Saunders, 2006); increased power imbalance between management and academics (Meek and Wood, 1997; Saunders, 2006); use of strategic planning mechanisms (Deem, 2004; Gumpport; 2005); use of quantifying measures of ‘quality’ for teaching and research (Polster and Newson, 1998; Parker, Guthrie and Gray, 1998; Singh, 2002; Neumann and Guthrie, 2004); and, decline in collegiality (Marginson and Considine, 2000; Bok, 2003; Deem, 2004; Saunders, 2006);
- *entrepreneurship* as evidenced by growth in fee-paying students, growth of private research centres, and growth in strategic alliances both with the private sector and

with other universities (Senate Committee, 2001; Marginson and Considine, 2000; De Zilwa, 2005);

- *marketisation* of education as evidenced by: competition between institutions (Gallagher, 2001; Marginson and Considine, 2000); change in the role of student from learner to customer (Pritchard, 1998; Brett, 2000; Marginson and Considine, 2000; Singh, 2002); decline in non-market disciplines and growth in market driven disciplines like management, commerce and business (Macintyre, 2001; O’Kane, 2001; Bok, 2003; Neumann and Guthrie, 2004; Gumpert, 2005); and
- *internationalisation* as evidenced by: education becoming Australia’s third largest export industry (first largest in services exports) and earning over \$12.5 billion in 2007 (IDP, 2008); growth in numbers of international students; growth in off-shore programs; and growth in international collaboration in research and teaching (Marginson, 2007).

These developments have led to tensions between viewing education as a public or a private good, a national social institution or a profitable industry, and between viewing universities as public sector institutions or steering them toward financial independence (Marginson, 2001; Senate Committee, 2001). Debate on the impacts of corporatisation has centred on whether corporatisation of education is a means to a better end or simply an end in itself. Proponents of the former view focus on the global demand for knowledge combined with the ‘digital revolution’ as drivers of necessary change in university education and values (Global Alliance Ltd, 1997; Gilbert, 2000; 2001; Davis, 2006; Sharrock, 2007). For instance, Gilbert (2001, p. 10) states that “such a convergence of demand growth and supply-side innovation means only one thing. Higher education is ripe for its own, long delayed industrial revolution” in which commercialisation of education is simply a means of financing the revolution. Institutional autonomy, including freedom from government intervention, is a means of protecting traditional values and such autonomy requires access to independent funding resources (Clark, 1998; Gilbert, 2000; Davis, 2006). Not to engage in market strategies means total reliance on government funds which are also competitive, risky and ultimately an “alibi for failure” (Sharrock, 2007, p. 9).

However, marketisation is only one aspect of corporatisation, managerialism is a more pervasive consequence. Sharrock (2007, p. 11) defends the need for university managers to be proactive in using their authority to make decisions, direct academics and create change as the only way to overcome the inertia of “laissez faire work norms” and avoid “collegial stalemates” with academic staff. Similarly, Chipman (2000) views the shift from a form of governance whose accountability was ‘inwards and downwards’ to ‘outwards and upwards’, with a consequent strengthening of the senior executive, as the necessary means of affecting reforms required by ‘massification’, deregulation and internationalisation of the higher education system. Chipman (2000) argues that the only alternative to a ‘managed’ university is an ‘unmanaged’ university and such an institution is unsustainable. According to Sharrock, (2004, p. 276) the problem lies with the critics, not the university:

The university has [not] succumbed to market fundamentalism, or abandoned its public mission, it’s that the [critics] subscribe to an old-fashioned, monopoly-oriented, public sector fundamentalism that is inadequate to the tasks and resource requirements now facing the Australian university sector.

Critics of corporatisation argue that it has become an end in itself, where the “commercialisation of universities, the commodification of knowledge, the proletarianisation of academics, all ... reflect a view in which the intrinsic rewards of knowledge are belied, belittled and, in the end, mocked” (Hamilton, 2001, p. 9). Gumport (2005) suggests that once the corporate model becomes the root metaphor for a university, there is little room for longer term social goals to be realised. Concepts such as creativity and citizenship are not amenable to cost benefit analysis and the university ceases to be a social institution. The commodification of knowledge, in line with the demands of being a knowledge economy, inevitably leads to some knowledge being privileged over other knowledge based on its exchange value with a subsequent devaluing of scholarship and thought (Evans, 2004). This process is seen in the growth and decline of particular disciplines and academic departments, which constrains teaching and research and “perhaps even thinking” (Gumport, 2005, p. 127). Potential for constraint of thought is taken further by Kelsey (1998, p. 60) who refers to ‘consensus

mongering' as the hallmark of neo-liberalism, subjugating free thought and radical ideas and resulting in an "intellectual closure, an absence of questioning". The excesses of managerialism, although initiated by government, were readily adopted by university leaders, and, in doing so, the university itself has displaced institutional discourse with industry discourse and its subsequent impacts on academics, knowledge and education (Gumport, 2005). Further, Gumport (2005, p. 116) warns that while adaptation to external pressures is necessary for survival, the "wholesale adaptation could reduce higher education to a mere sector of the economy, therefore subsuming the discourse about higher education's future within a logic of economic rationality" to the detriment of the traditional 'idea of a university'.

From the public and internal debates about universities, it is indeed understandable why some might believe that a 'wholesale adaptation' has occurred. Since the corporatisation of higher education, media and internal university discussions focus almost exclusively on money and resource allocation to the detriment of the role and function of a university. Universities publicly lobby and argue "in politically acceptable terms of utility, cost and efficiency", relying on the global economic contest and contributions to the knowledge economy, to win public sympathy and government resources (Duke, 2004, p. 608). Within universities, much discourse involves competition for resources or resource based decision making. Schools and departments feel aggrieved to see the revenue they generate being diverted to non-academic pursuits controlled by senior managers (Parker, 2002) and their own academic decisions being circumscribed by financial rather than pedagogical considerations (Bok, 2003; Deem, 2004). Rochford (2006) suggests that the emphasis on money is logical, as government funding is a powerful controlling mechanism, even for rich universities. Reductions in government funding place universities in the unenviable and paradoxical position of "attempting to extract both cost savings and increased revenues out of a static or shrinking set of resources (Parker, 2002, p. 607). The result has been a general demoralisation among academics causing "immense collateral damage to the quality, reputation and competitiveness" of higher education (Gilbert, 2000, p. 31). Gilbert views this state as a temporary and expected reaction to change. In the longer term, the debate must change focus because "unless

driven by profound commitment to core academic values and principles, a rich university might be of only marginally greater value than a profitable circus” (Gilbert, 2000, p. 36). But, the questions remain as to who has the responsibility for leading this change and how is commitment preserved in the interim?

Academics themselves are accused of having disengaged from the debate or become ‘impotent’ in being unable to articulate the value of the university in anything but utilitarian terms (Rochford, 2006). This is a curious situation for a group that prides itself on valuing free speech, social critique and articulation. Reasons given for the disengagement of academics include: debasement of the language used to communicate values (Rochford, 2006); increased pressures to focus on more isolationist and self-centred tasks that are measured and rewarded (Parker, 2002; Bok, 2003); an inclination to reflect on loss rather than solutions (Parker, 2002) and complacency along with a retreat into unheeded “echo chambers of critique” (Sharrock, 2007, p. 9). Duke (2004) argues that academic disengagement stems from the process of change. Lack of passion for money making, habits of dependency on government and general risk aversion encouraged by ‘compulsive bureaucratic scrutiny’ are among the reasons given by Duke (2004, p. 604). Reforms in higher education may have been driven by government and university managers, however, the implementation has been carried out through academic labour (Gray, Guthrie and Parker, 2002) and this is nowhere more obvious than in the effects of globalisation on higher education.

## **2.4 Globalisation and higher education**

Globalisation has been both a driver and a consequence of corporatisation of higher education. Marginson and Considine (2000, p. 47) define globalisation as referring to “the growing impact of world systems of finance and economic life, transport, communications and media, language and symbols. It is as much about the cross-global movement of people and ideas as about markets and money”. This section addresses the phenomena of globalisation and corporatisation and their impacts on higher education,

including: national culture; finance and resource distribution; disciplinary imbalance; entrepreneurialism and risk; quality; and academic labour. Although general issues in higher education are addressed, the focus is on Australian higher education.

#### *2.4.1 Globalisation and Corporatisation*

This sub-section firstly summarises the thesis put forward by Olssen and Peters (2005) to explain the links between globalisation and corporatisation of public sectors through the spread of neoliberalism and the subsequent rise of the knowledge economy and its impacts on higher education. Second, the role of internationalised higher education in the spread of globalisation is outlined, followed by discussion of the implications and debates concerning higher education and globalisation.

In an examination of the economic consequences of globalisation on higher education in Western nations, Olssen and Peters (2005) advance the following thesis. Globalisation was hastened by advances in technology that brought the world closer together in terms of information, communication and travel. Neoliberalism is simply explained as being an economic philosophy whereby the state takes a proactive role in facilitating a free market economy. Neoliberalism was not a necessary component of globalisation, but quickly became the dominant discourse in global economic relations “as a consequence of super-power sponsorship” (p. 314) through organisations such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the OECD. Its dominance was accompanied by financial globalisation and deregulation based on technologies “allowing shifts of financial reserves within seconds” (p. 314).

Neoliberalism translated into a general movement by Western states to reform their economies to be more market oriented and their public services into being more business-like. An important underpinning of globalisation propagated by the world economic agencies was the importance of knowledge as capital. This “shift to a knowledge economy involves a fundamental rethinking of the traditional relationships between education, learning and work, focusing on the need for a coalition between education and industry” (p. 331). In accepting Neoliberalism and the logic of the knowledge economy,

nation states acted quickly to steer their knowledge sectors, particularly universities, into corporate structures and develop competitive market environments. Together globalisation and Neoliberalism have pressured universities to behave like a business on the assumption that this will make them “more efficient in providing education and research services in large quantities, more competitive in the outside marketplace, and better able to secure outside funding” (Bleiklie, 2005, p. 202). In an age of knowledge capitalism, Olssen and Peters (2005, p. 340) conclude that nation states will further reduce their contribution to education as they further “privatise the means of knowledge production and experiment with ways of designing and promoting a permeable interface between knowledge businesses and public education”. Such actions will only serve to intensify the debate over the meaning and value of knowledge and its ownership (Olssen and Peters, 2005).

The impacts of globalisation on higher education have not been one way. Universities themselves have been as much agents of global change as they have victims of global forces (Marginson and Considine, 2000). Corporatist reforms to higher education were swift and far reaching, especially in Australia (see **Paper No 1**) with globalisation providing an important means of responding to and enacting corporatist government policies. Australia and the UK were the first to ‘catch the wave’ of Asian demand for English language education, the demand itself having been created by globalisation. Competitively, Australia’s success outstripped the UK and USA because of its relatively weak currency, its proximity to Asia and strong government intervention (Marginson, 2002). In relation to this last factor, Marginson (2002, pp. 36-37) summarises the key actions by successive Australian governments over two decades to transform Australian higher education into the nation’s leading export service industry, commencing in the late 1980s:

- setting tuition charges high enough to ensure full-cost recovery and, later, deregulating the foreign student fee schedules and allowing institutions to determine their own prices;
- changing the rules to allow universities to retain their earnings without penalty;

- allowing universities to enroll as many foreign students as they wished (while continuing to plan and limit the number of government funded local students, who pay deferred tuition);
- reducing the level of public funding of universities and so forcing the search for alternatives;
- encouraging the emergence of a more entrepreneurial style of management through a variety of statements, schemes and incentives; and
- coordinating recruitment in Southeast Asia, mobilising Australian embassies to help in this effort; developing standardised degree structures and nomenclature and, later funding a national program of quality assurance.

Testimony to the success of international education is seen in Table 2.1, International Student Statistics for Australian Universities.

**Table 2.1 International Student Statistics for Australian Universities**

	<b>1996</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>% Increase</b>
Total Student Enrolment	634,094	1,029,846	62%
% International Students	8% (50,728)	27% (278,058)	448%
% of International students studying offshore	18.3% (9,283)	31.5% (87,588)	844%
% of Total Income from International Students Fees	6.6%	15%	389%

Adapted from DEST (2006), DEEWR (2008) and NTEU (2007).

The above statistics demonstrate not only the growth in international students, but their financial contribution to the AHES. The increase in transnational or offshore programs is especially noticeable. Offshore programs increased from less than 20 in 1991 to 1,009 in 2001 with 70 per cent located in Singapore, Hong Kong and Malaysia (AV-CC, 2001). Since 2005, several universities have withdrawn from offshore teaching ventures, citing issues of profitability and quality (Davis and Harcourt, 2007). The percentage of offshore students fell from 33 per cent of all international students to 31.5 per cent between 2006 and 2007 (DEEWR, 2008). Government funding of the Australian



Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) to audit offshore programs no doubt also contributed to their decline (AUQA, 2006).

The rush to internationalise by Australian universities has had the twin effects of reinforcing key aspects of corporatisation, marketisation, commodification and managerialism, as well as further contributing to globalisation. For example, the trade in international education was globally valued at \$30USD billion in 1999 (Larsen and Vincent- Lancrin, 2002). On the one hand, the efforts to internationalise have quickly advanced the entrepreneurial and commercial skills of university managers (Poole, 1999; 2000; Pratt and Poole, 1999; Teichler, 1999; Davis and Harcourt, 2007) and firmly positioned Australian higher education in the global market (Marginson, 2007). On the other hand, globalisation has facilitated the pursuit of knowledge through communication and transport revolutions making global travel and international communication part of academic life (Gilbert, 2000). In addition to revenue generation, the academic quest for knowledge, and hence the traditional purpose of the university have been well served by globalisation through teaching and research (Marginson and Considine, 2000), as has Australia's overall global capacity (Marginson, 2007).

The following sub-sections explore a number of issues relating to the processes of internationalisation including: undermining of national culture; displacement of academic goals with a focus on income production and investment in non academic endeavours; creation of an imbalance among disciplines; exposure to financial risk; damage to quality of education; and demoralisation of academic labour.

#### *2.4.2 Role of National Culture*

Concerning the first issue, national culture, several authors argue that globalisation undermines the core role of universities which is the formation and transmission of national culture (Readings, 1996; Currie and Newson, 1998; Vidovich and Currie, 1998). Universities are becoming 'transnational bureaucratic corporations', whose logic is corporate rather than cultural and turning the 'university into ruins' (Readings, 1996). In their report on the future of Australian education, the Global Alliance (1997) advised that

the international university market will ultimately dominate and any attempt to cling to social or cultural objectives in education will fail. There are some who point to the ascendancy of postmodernism and its role in the rejection of national culture (Sharrock, 2007; Saunders, 2006).

There is also evidence that the internationalisation of higher education has had little effect on national culture. Although cross-cultural integration is proffered as a benefit of internationalisation, enhancement of cultural exchange in Australia has met with limited success as international and domestic students fail to mix with each other (Smart, Volet and Ang, 2000; Marginson, 2007). International education has “yet to challenge deeply rooted assumptions about cultural homogeneity” (Marginson, 2002, p. 42). Engagement with foreign languages has dropped, with almost 60 per cent of foreign languages having ceased to be offered in Australian universities in the decade 1997 to 2006 (Lebihan, 2008). Australian academics were initially cynical of early attempts to recruit international students, however this has gradually changed. Marginson (2002) observes that a shift in focus from blatantly commercial marketing of Australian higher education to more educationally focused strategies by Australian universities has reduced antagonism toward internationalisation by academics as they are more motivated by the cultural experience than the economics of internationalisation (Marginson, 2002).

#### *2.4.3 Finance and resource distribution*

The second issue focuses on the changes in finances and resource distribution. In a cross country analysis of internationalisation strategies in Canada, Europe, United States and Australia, Knight and de Wit (1997) note an increased concern over the prevalence of financial motive behind internationalisation, leading to unease over the degree to which the export of education contributes to the quality of education. Financial incentives were the driving force behind the international boom in higher education and, despite resistance from faculty, the success of entrepreneurial leaders in attracting international fees allowed student fees to substitute for core government funding. Ironically, the success became an excuse for even further reductions in government expenditure (Marginson, 2002, p. 38). The presence of financial motive in internationalisation is

particularly obvious in the development of offshore (transnational) programs. A survey by Davis, Olsen and Bohm (2000) of 35 Australian universities offering offshore programs found that two thirds of the universities described their long term interest in developing offshore courses as high, although the most common rationale for the increased development was to generate income (Davis et al., 2000). In relation to research, Saunders (2006, p. 12) observes that “universities are now incomparably more concerned with research money than with the research *per se*”; a good researcher is one who brings in money, regardless of the quality of output, or who publishes very regularly, regardless of whether research based or not.

Further criticism concerns the distribution of resources. Income generated by international student fees is accused of being invested into the ‘costs of doing business’ rather than reinvested into teaching and learning (Marginson, 2002; Sharrock, 2007). For instance, universities spend over 10 per cent of their total revenues on marketing and recruitment (Olsen in Marginson, 2007). Little of the fee revenue is used to cross subsidise teaching and learning activities, nor improve research capacity (Marginson, 2007). The consequence of increasing student numbers but not resources has been substantial increases in staff-student ratios and decreases in the quality of education. A focus on fee paying students, both international and domestic postgraduates, has also resulted in disciplinary imbalances.

#### *2.4.4 Disciplinary imbalance*

The third issue relates to the disciplinary imbalance created by the influx of international students. International student preferences were toward enrolment in vocationally based business and information technology courses so these faculties accounted for over 66 per cent of international enrolments throughout the 1990s, thus skewing the distribution of load and funds (Marginson, 2002). While business programs have continued to increase to 51 per cent of international enrolments in 2007, enrolments in Information Technology have significantly declined to 9 per cent of international enrolments in 2007 (DEEWR, 2008). Enrolment patterns and fee distribution affected academics attitudes to internationalisation, as some faculties appeared to grow rich and others poor (Marginson,

2002; Guthrie and Neumann, 2007). Marginson (2002) argues that the impact on disciplines may ultimately imperil Australia's ability to compete in the key knowledge economies of science.

#### *2.4.5 Entrepreneurialism and Risk*

The fourth issue concerns the entrepreneurial behaviour of universities and the subsequent risks to finance and reputation. Reliance on fees from international students to compensate for decreases in government funding raises questions about the entrepreneurial ability of Australian universities and the stability of this income source. In real terms, the proportion of government funding to Australian universities in the decade 1996 to 2005 decreased from 57 per cent to 39 per cent of total revenue (DEST cited in NTEU, 2007). In the same period, other sources of income, apart from government grants and domestic student contributions, increased by 150 per cent in real terms to offset the decline in government contributions. The primary source of these new funds was international student fees (NTEU, 2007). The change in sources of funding has been used as evidence of "entrepreneurial spirit that has come to mark Australian universities" (Schreuder, 2005, p. 42) but not everyone agrees. De Zilwa (2005) argues that this is not the case on two grounds. First, the motive was to compensate for deficits in government funding rather than make profit, and second, the change in funding sources was not accompanied by changes to entrepreneurial cultures, structures, and management processes. Change in culture, structure and management has been driven by cost minimisation and centralised bureaucratisation, neither of which is associated with entrepreneurialism.

There are other factors that inhibit a university's 'entrepreneurial spirit'. Traditional cultural resistance, public regulation and accountability are viewed as barriers to purer forms of entrepreneurialism (De Zilwa, 2005; Davis, 2006). These barriers constrain the success of competing in international markets, for research as well as teaching, and result in universities mimicking each others' strategies to increase revenue by concentrating on international student markets, either in Australia or offshore (transnational programs). While Australia has been successful in these markets, there are significant financial and

reputational risks associated with being overly dependent on them (Cervini, 2006; Rout, 2008). De Zilwa (2005) lists the risks as follows: (1) market dynamics can easily change with economic circumstances such as increased competition, regulation, currency fluctuations and health scares; (2) a renegotiation of the General Agreement on Trade in Services could remove barriers to allow greater access to Asian student markets by foreign universities and private providers as well as into Australia; (3) today's offshore partners to Australian universities may become tomorrow's competitors; and (4) borderless online providers could penetrate Australian markets.

The degree of reliance on international student income is unevenly spread between Australian universities with the newer, and poorer, universities being more dependent and thus more exposed to the risk (De Zilwa, 2005). For example, Central Queensland University received over 50 per cent of its total income from international students, making it the most financially reliant in Australia. When the university suffered a 25 per cent downturn in, mainly onshore, international enrolments in 2007, the University was forced to shed over 200 administration jobs and consider shedding academic positions if the decline continued (Healy, 2007).

Entrepreneurial risk-taking in higher education is exemplified in the many offshore ventures undertaken by Australian universities. Offshore programs grew from 25 programs in 1991 to a high of almost 1600 in 2003 since when the number of programs has declined to 1002 in 2007 (Universities Australia, 2007). Apart from problems with financial viability, the decline is explained by breakdowns in relationships between Australian universities and their offshore partners caused by a lack of trust, commitment and communication (Heffernan and Poole, 2004). Seventy per cent of the programs are in Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong and, most recently, China.

Establishing programs offshore, either in partnership with private providers or alone, is particularly high risk in terms of viability and quality, as well as adding more teaching periods to the academic calendar (Pratt and Poole, 1999; 2000; Poole, 2000; Parker, 2002; Heffernan and Poole, 2004; Slattery, 2006). Hailed as one of the Australian higher

education sector's 'worst business failures' (O'Keefe, 2007), the University of New South Wales, one of the largest universities in Australia, closed its campus in Singapore after only one semester of operation and a \$17AUD million investment, its Vice Chancellor citing lack of student enrolment making it an 'unsustainable financial burden' (Koh, 2007; Davis and Harcourt, 2007). The reaction to this by other Australian universities was to fear for their own reputations in the Asian market (O'Keefe, 2007). Another large Australian university and the most globalised, Monash University, is reported as losing \$18AUD million in two years on its South African campus, although its Vice Chancellor justified the loss as a necessary investment in contributing to the development of South Africa and building international research links (Slattery, 2006).

The Chairman of the AUQA, also a former Vice Chancellor, views university engagement in offshore programs as a "significant capacity builder for universities", especially in the areas of teaching, technology, course design, compressed learning, and long term relationships between international students and Australia (Schreuder, 2005, p. 42). However, Schreuder also cautions that the quality of education in offshore programs is a risk to the reputation of Australian universities.

#### *2.4.6 Quality of education*

The fifth issue is the effect of internationalisation on the quality of education. While the monetary benefits from international entrepreneurial activities might exist for Australian universities, the same activities have created their own costs and problems, particularly in regard to educational quality, academic morale and quality of work life (Pratt and Poole, 1999). At worst, "institutions take marginal students and collaborate in migration-driven enrolment in which the program is irrelevant and scholarship is devalued. This corrodes the intrinsic purpose and core values that distinguish a university" (Marginson, 2007, p. 9).

Illustrations of lessening quality are seen in regular media revelations about soft marking, plagiarism, grade inflation, and language problems and decreasing academic content (Birrell, 2006). The rapid growth in vocationally oriented masters programs, especially

in business, has outstripped research programs and led to accusation of ‘dumbing down’ Australian education (Marginson, 2002; Saunders, 2006). Offshore teaching programs in their current form contribute to the separation of a teaching and research nexus central to von Humboldt’s ‘idea of a university’ (Sharrock, 2007) Based on the results of their international study of internationalisation strategies employed by universities, Knight and de Wit (1997) warn that if the primary goal of internationalisation is extending and improving the quality of education, and not simply the development of export markets, then universities must find a better balance between income-generating motives and academic benefits. A similar warning was given a decade later by Marginson (2007).

#### *2.4.7 Academic labour*

The sixth issue concerns the impact on academics. In a review of over 1000 articles to determine key determinants of success in fee-paying graduate studies for tertiary education institutions, Orr (2000) found that commercial success was most dependent on the quality of the academics and their relationships with students and yet it was in this area that universities gave least attention. In a survey of universities with offshore programs, Davis, Olsen and Bohm (2000) reported the positive impacts of offshore programs to include improved profile and increased/diversified income, while the major negative impact of offshore programs was staff overload (Davis et al., 2000). Inherent in the Davis et al. (2000) survey results is a conflict between universities wanting to make money and maintain reputation while stretching their academic staff, the heart of the educational ‘product’ and hence reputation. This point is further underlined in a study of international strategic alliances among 22 Australian universities, where the universities ranked financial resources and access to markets as the two most important contributions made by off-shore partners while qualifications and quality were the main contributions made by the Australian university to the alliance (Saffu and Mamman, 1999).

Unless offshore programs are well managed and academics well rewarded, academics teaching in these programs complain of the risk to quality and reputation as well as increased workloads, decreasing morale and a growing antagonism toward international entrepreneurialism (Poole, 2000). In his research on Australian university offshore

programs, Poole (2000) found that most programs were low cost, high volume and concentrated in a limited range of business areas relying on a small number of academics to teach or supervise casuals. Among the well managed offshore programs, academic staff enjoyed the cultural experience of being offshore along with the informal networking with colleagues. However, these same academics expressed concern that the balance between offshore and onshore was moving in a wrong direction (Poole, 2000). A survey by the NTEU (2004) of academics teaching offshore confirmed Poole's findings, stressing the academics' frustration over issues of quality and that few universities had employed additional full-time academics to cope with the increased workload arising from offshore programs so further increasing and intensifying academic work. The NTEU survey further reported that for those with long-term experience working offshore, the initial fun factor wears off because of its intrusion into family and work life. Despite the negatives, the NTEU survey demonstrated that academics viewed offshore teaching as providing personal and professional opportunities in relation to broadening experience and opening up new contexts for teaching, research and consultancies.

In an exploration of academic capitalism across three continents, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) found higher stress levels among academics at the more entrepreneurial universities. Over a decade ago, a study by Global Alliance for the Australian Government reported that the Australian academic labour market was already one of the most productive in the world; however, the capacity to generate sufficient external income to maintain salary levels was marginal for almost 50 per cent of universities (Global Alliance, 1997; Allport, 1998). This productivity is clearly demonstrated in the following statistics: student enrolments between 1996 and 2007 increased by 62 per cent, while the number of full-time equivalent academics increased by 17 per cent (DEEWR, 2008). The official statistics hide the increasing number of casual academics by accounting only for 'equivalent full-time' academics.

Marginson (2002) warned that Australia's position in international education is not as robust as the statistics might indicate as it rests on a narrow range of disciplines with students from a small number of Asian countries and it contributes little to research



reputation. While it has contributed to the national economic wealth it has failed to contribute to the national character of higher education. Since Marginson gave this warning, at least the range of countries from which Australia recruits has broadened. Students now come to Australia from over 200 countries. Enrolments from the nations that dominated in the earlier days, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong, have declined as these countries have increased their own educational capacity. In descending order, the traditional source countries have been replaced by China, India, South Korea, Thailand and the United States (Maslen, 2006). Regardless of change in nationality, as noted earlier, there has been little change in the range of disciplines preferred by international students, preferences having increased in Business, but declined in Information Technology programs. Business students alone accounted for 51 per cent of all international student enrolments in 2007.

Further challenges are ahead. For more than a decade, there have been predictions that future higher education institutions will be based on low cost, high volume throughput via the Internet, and, when the costs of research and face-to face teaching are stripped from the teaching function, tuition becomes more cost competitive (Global Alliance, 1997; Davis, 2006; Sharrock, 2007). A newer challenge comes from private providers of higher education, both offshore and onshore, with niche markets targeting disciplines requiring minimal infrastructure (Davis, 2006; Sharrock, 2007). Academics are already described as suffering from ‘change fatigue’ (Duke, 2004) and it would appear that the pace will not abate in the near future. The next section deals with the impacts of corporatisation and globalisation on academic values, identities and cultures.

## **2.5 Impacts of corporatisation and globalisation on values, cultures and identities<sup>3</sup>**

---

<sup>3</sup> See **Paper No 3** for an analysis of managerialism and entrepreneurialism in Australian business schools. Also, see **Paper No 4** for discussion of corporatisation impacts on identities of business academics.

Defining academic values proves an elusive but informative pursuit. Values are defined as stable evaluative beliefs that guide an individual's actions in terms of what is good and bad, right and wrong (McShane and Travaglione, 2007). Values clearly belong to individuals but often are attributed to groups, organisations and nationalities in the form of 'shared values' (McShane and Travaglione, 2007). The notion of shared values is the cornerstone of organisational 'culture' which is defined as "the basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation ... and that define an organisation's view of itself and its environment" (Schein, 1985, p. 6). In the absence of being able to see or know what such assumptions and beliefs might be, visible artefacts such as language, tradition and ritual become symbolic of the organisation's culture (McShane and Travaglione, 2007). Thus when the literature refers to 'academic values', it is referring to academic culture, a 'common set of assumptions or beliefs' about the university, even a myth, as Krucken (2003) suggests. Most commonly, these shared values concern academic freedom and institutional autonomy, although other values and beliefs flow from this.

Apart from academic freedom and institutional autonomy, other 'academic values' include: disinterested pursuit of truth or knowledge; free inquiry; freedom of expression; critical thinking; liberal education; service to humanity; and preparation for citizenship. In recognition of the mystification surrounding academic values and a concern for the role of citizenship, the Centre for Academic Integrity (CAI), a Centre sponsored by leading North American universities, attempted to distill various value expressions and to propagate them as common values for both individuals and institutions. This was achieved through a charter for 'academic integrity' based on five values: honesty; trust, respect; fairness; and responsibility (CAI, 1999). Each value is described in terms of behaviours and attitudes with respect to other people and to knowledge acquisition.

Although 'shared assumptions and beliefs' constitute an organisation's culture, the visible artifacts are meant to reflect and reinforce the culture. The visible artifacts of academic culture reside in its traditions, language, titles, degrees and rites of passage for

both academics and students. Many of these artifacts date back to the medieval university with strong links to religion, which instilled in the university a sense of moral purpose and value, a sacred ideology (Dill, 1982; Tasker and Packham, 1993). The strength of a culture or belief system is taken for granted until tested in times of conflict and change. In such times, the belief systems become more explicit and priority is given to ideology (Dill, 1982). However, the academic culture is not unitary. Belief systems develop and operate on at least three levels; the institution, the profession and the discipline (Clark, 1987).

Universities are made up of “small worlds, different worlds” (Clark, 1987). Academic identities, including values and behaviour, are primarily formed and sustained by the discipline, and then, the higher education institution (Henkel, 2005a). The discipline is the major cognitive and social influence (Becher, 1989). However, some disciplines have more definite epistemic boundaries than others, which are more permeable, resulting in differences in the values they attach to teaching and research, how they teach and research and their definition of reward (Becher, 1989). The institution affects identity in terms of recruitment, promotions, rewards, evaluation and the organisation of work. Both discipline and institutional influences are exercised at the department level to mould academic identity (Henkel, 2005a). However, the research of Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) demonstrates that early socialisation is not permanent and values and beliefs change over time depending on personal and institutional circumstances.

In addition to discipline and institution, Maasen and Stensaker (2005) argue that the national higher education system and the general academic profession also influence academic identity. Regardless of disciplinary differences, the profession holds to the general belief in academic freedom, a belief normally endorsed by the higher education system, or social institution. Without an inherent idea embodied in the social institution Habermas (1987, p. 41), the institution is no longer viable, “it will petrify into something merely mechanical, like a soulless organism reduced to dead matter”. Academic work is based on the assumption that it is advanced “though the creativity and originality of

individuals given the freedom” to do so (Henkel, 2005b, pp. 149-150). Any challenge to this freedom is a threat to academic culture and identity and to the social institution. The belief in academic freedom acts as “both a motivation and a necessary condition of the advancement of knowledge [and] is a powerful force in academic cultures” (Henkel, 2005b, p. 151).

The following sub-sections explore the impacts of corporatisation and globalisation on academic values and identities. Section 2.5.1 discusses the arguments in support of academic values having been eroded or replaced by business values, particularly through the breakdown of disciplines. Section 2.5.2 provides evidence that corporatisation has not affected academic values nor the role of the higher education system as the institution in unwittingly protecting the disciplines. Section 2.5.3 reviews the ways in which academics resist or adapt to corporatisation to protect values.

### *2.5.1 Values replaced or eroded?*

At the extreme are those who believe academic values have all but disappeared because academic freedom has disappeared with the onslaught of corporatisation and commodification. This position is typified by Saunders (2006, p.11) in his statement that:

the net effect of [managerialism] is a system which rewards obedience, conformity and quiescence, and punishes non-compliance, eccentricity and dissent. Above all it breeds fear, cowardice, cynicism and sycophancy – this is a sector of society which has traditionally lauded outspokenness, idealism and independent thought, and, more than most, tolerated the expression of controversial, unusual or unpopular ideas.

In relation to commodification of knowledge, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) use case studies of universities in the USA, Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom to examine the responses of academics and university managers to the opportunities and pressures for revenue generation. They conclude that, as universities become more incorporated into industry, their ethos shifts from the welfare of their students to a concern for the economic bottom line. This in turn undercuts the tacit social contract that allows universities to be treated as unique autonomous institutions as they shift from full public funding to partial dependence on market sources of income. Slaughter and Leslie (1997)

further note that the greatest cultural transformations among academics are in those disciplines and institutions closest to the market such as business and commerce.

Some support for Slaughter and Leslie's observations is given in an empirical study by Sanderson and Watters (2006) on the effects of corporatisation initiatives on the culture of a single faculty in one Australian university. Based on the assumption that universities must find a balance between two opposite cultural paradigms, the 'corporate-collegial' and the 'corporate-mercantile', the study uses a competing values framework to describe culture. The research instrument tested for four ideal culture types: collegial; creative; bureaucratic; and efficient and productive. Results confirm overwhelmingly that the efficient and productive model, at the extreme, a 'sweat shop', was the most commonly described culture. Far less common were descriptions of the culture, in order, as bureaucratic, creative or collegial. Despite a number of methodological problems with this study, such as a response rate of 5 per cent and no benchmark for before the reforms occurred, the authors conclude that the culture fits with that of an organisation focused on its need for revenue for survival. Observations by Parker (2002, pp. 612-613) accord with these findings:

core values now include financial viability, vocational relevance, industry relationships, market share, public profile, and customer/client responsiveness ... scholarship, knowledge development and transmission, and critical inquiry have been transformed from fundamental core values of the university lifeworld into exploitable intellectual capital for the pursuit of the 'new' enterprise university.

A breakdown of the disciplines, the basic unit of socialisation into academic culture, is commonly attributed to a weakening and displacement of academic values and culture. Discipline groups have been undermined by a number of managerialist actions including: merging of disciplinary groups, departments and programs into large schools (Di Napoli cited in Henkel, 2005b; Gumport, 2005; Henkel, 2005a); differential valuing and resourcing of disciplines based on financial as well as reputational returns (Gumport, 2005; Henkel, 2005a; 2005b); emphasis on interdisciplinary groupings (Hostaker and Vabo, 2005); and increased reliance on casual academics whose presence "erodes

institutional memory and weakens faculty voice” (Gumport, 2005, p. 115). However, Dill (1982, p. 311), while acknowledging the impact of growth in higher education as damaging academic culture, points to the disciplines themselves as eroding culture through “promoting an orientation toward individual, discipline-based careers” whereby individuals become “socially and psychologically independent” of the institution and the profession. Despite such practices, there is also evidence that basic academic values and allegiances to discipline or profession remain intact.

### *2.5.2 Values and disciplines maintained*

Although the basic framework of academic identity, discipline and institution, may appear undermined, this is not necessarily so because identities may become more fluid and individual, as institutional counter forces act to protect the disciplines (Henkel, 2005b). First, according to Henkel (2005b, pp. 153-154) changes to disciplinary based departments have meant:

the mutually reinforcing discipline-enterprise dyad has given way to a world of multiple interconnections, fluid structures and unstable relationships [whereby] these trends could mean a clear shift from relatively stable and embedded identities to more fluid, varied and distinctive identities and to the idea of identity development as a more individual project.

Second, counter forces within the institutions that reinforce the primacy of disciplines, in particular recruitment and reward systems based on national research assessment exercises as in the UK, are organised around disciplines, which have led to “stronger disciplinary research groups and cultures thus developing a more firmly rooted collective identity in their discipline” (Henkel, 2005b, p. 155).

In support, but critical, of the power of these counter forces, the Research Director of the Australian Council of the Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences, the body representing academics most critical of reforms to higher education, released a paper, directed at the Government and universities, making the case for interdisciplinarity and applied research (Howard, 2008). Howard argues that interdisciplinary research is disappearing because of barriers such as: reward structures; research funding systems; administrative units; and

government withdrawal from research consultancies for applied research. “Academic institutions still recruit faculty largely on the basis of their depth of knowledge and expertise in single disciplines ... there is suspicion and resentment if a specialist in one area shows interest in another specialist area” (Howard, 2008, p. 10). Institutional reward and promotion systems are biased toward publications in disciplinary journals and winning research grants from a limited number of research funding bodies rather than interdisciplinary work on contracts for issue-oriented research defined by end users. Additionally, the organising principle of universities remains based on academic disciplines, albeit in broad groupings of disciplines, and this works against interdisciplinary research.

Although threats from interdisciplinary research may not be strong in Australia and the UK, in Europe Hostaker and Vabo (2005) claim that interdisciplinarity is a favoured process under managerialism and one that challenges the continuation of the discipline. However, the evidence does not necessarily support this view. For example, Nowotny, Scott and Gibbons (2001) suggest that interdisciplinary work organisation, rather than diluting identification as an academic, can strengthen disciplinary identity or create multiple identities. Marton’s (2005) research on multidisciplinary research teams in Sweden finds that researchers are motivated and stimulated by interdisciplinary environments, but were also concerned that this form of research was instrumental, of a lesser quality and might eventually be privileged over other more basic research.

On a related issue, Becher and Parry (2005) point to the rise of ‘communities of practice’, a mix of vocational and professional fields of study, such as Business and Applied Health. These academic units outnumber traditional disciplinary groupings and are characterised by Mode 2 knowledge production which is interdisciplinary and applied (Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott and Trow, 1994). Communities of practice represent those academic units in applied fields whose knowledge reference lies more in practice than in pure single disciplinary knowledge such as physics or mathematics. The spread of communities of practice in universities began with the end of the binary systems when colleges of advanced education or polytechnics became

universities, bringing with them their inherently vocational orientation (see also Deem, 2004 and Saunders, 2006). This practice orientation was reinforced by neoliberalist reforms as well as student demand. However, Becher and Parry (2005) argue that the essence of the disciplines remains strong as practice knowledge is still reliant on the traditional disciplines for underlying ideas and theories. “This gives rise to a symbiotic relationship in which professional groupings need academic knowledge while disciplines need the subsidies such groupings can provide” (Becher and Parry, 2005, p. 141). Becher and Parry suggest the existence of the disciplines will continue while ever their scholarly journals keep open the traffic of ideas and their associations lend mutual support and defence of reputation. The continuing strength of the disciplines is supported by Henkel’s (2005b) research on academic identity and values that consistently shows that academics are not divided between academic and business values, despite changes to their environments. As long as research activity is maintained, it is possible to retain a sense of disciplinary identity even when departmental structures have been removed. “Disciplines retain substantial power in the organisation and production of new knowledge and in the identities (values, self definition and self esteem) of academics” (Henkel, 2005b, p. 156).

In addition to the discipline and the institution, the national higher education system and the academic profession are identified as contributors to academic identity and values (Bleiklie, 2005). For centuries in Europe and for a lesser time in countries like Australia and North America, the academic community formed guilds to protect and promote their profession (Dill, 1982). The guilds functioned to foster a shared identity and articulate the professions’ commitment to academic freedom and the associated need for tenure (Dill, 1982). A survey of the values of Australian business school academics, an identified ‘community of practice’ (Becher and Parry, 2005), found the expressed values of these academics were the same as other academics in more traditional discipline groups and were the same across all institutions (Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003). A re-analysis of the data of Bellamy et al. (2003) by Watty, Bellamy and Morley (2008) compared differences between accounting academics and other disciplines or fields of study in business. The comparison found accounting academics, although similar to their



colleagues in most aspects, were less inclined than other academics to rate autonomy and research as important reasons for becoming an academic, although they became important factors in wanting to remain in academe. The explanation, *inter alia*, lies in accounting academics being older and more likely to have come to academe from a career in industry than other business academics. It is suggested that industry experience is inclined to make academics more appreciative of their autonomy and work than others without industry experience (Watty et al., 2008). Both these studies suggest that the profession, rather than the strength of the discipline or the culture of the institution, has a major influence on the values and identity of academics.

Sharrock (2007, p. 4) questions whether the issues at risk are core values and purposes of a university, “or just customary habits and assumptions. Adaptive change will look like progress for some and decline for others”. The following sub-section discusses how academics adapt to, or resist, managerialist changes.

### *2.5.3 Processes of adaptation and resistance*

When academic culture is weak and shared beliefs about the university are seriously threatened “the result can be destructive conflicts between faculties, loss of personal morale and personal alienation” (Dill, 1982, p. 304). To avoid the destruction of culture, academics will first adapt and/or resist. Academics can be persuaded to accept new organisational values and organisational identities if they understand them as perpetuating what had previously given meaning “and a sense of distinctiveness to their working environment (and so feed into their own sense of identity)” (Henkel, 2005b, p. 159). This process is explained by Bleiklie (2005, p. 200) as a process of sedimentation “whereby new ideals are layered on top of existing ones” in a form of organic growth that absorbs new values without shedding the old. He argues that institutional and individual autonomy previously sustained each other so that institutional autonomy was necessary to “allow the maturation and promotion of values”. Institutional autonomy is not found in specific administrative arrangements, but in how the institution functions to protect its values. In the past, the focus was internal and the collegial body was the means of functioning, including negotiating conflicts between individual and institutional

autonomy. Once the institution begins to serve the needs of external stakeholders, both institutional and individual autonomy are circumscribed by the needs of others and value shifts occur. Because new values are not clearly articulated, the change cannot be said to have been radical, rather it has occurred through a process of sedimentation, the speed of which affects various groups within the university differently.

Some evidence for Bleiklie's concept of sedimentation as a response to change by discipline and academic unit is demonstrated in De Zilwa's (2007) study of the impact of academic unit culture on adaptive change to external and internal pressures by Australian academics. De Zilwa (2007) interviewed 95 staff from four academic units in each of four Australian universities. The four academic units represented hard pure (for example, physics), hard applied (for example, engineering) and soft applied (for example, psychology) disciplines as well as one hybrid (for example, business) unit. Members within each unit shared the same values and goals but identified themselves as belonging to different subcultures within the units. De Zilwa found all 16 units had adapted in some way to external pressure, however, those units most pro-active in their adaptation had changed their modes of operation and developed new markets in teaching and research. The units with minimal adaptation were least likely to change their operating processes and relied on student fees alone. All units were conscious of the conflicts arising from the university's drive for revenue and the unit's desire to maintain quality and standards and there was a general lack of trust between the university administrators and the units. The most pro-active academic units in adapting to change displayed heterogeneous cultures that allowed "intellectual fervour, innovation, flexibility [and] risk-taking" (De Zilwa, 2007, p. 571). These units were also most aligned to the university goals, although their natural markets for research and teaching facilitated this alignment. Units that were least able to adapt were those with strongly homogeneous organisational cultures and values but lacking in "their university executive managers' zeal for marketisation and entrepreneurialism" (De Zilwa, 2007, p. 571). Results from De Zilwa's study suggest that those in the interdisciplinary units or in the professional fields found adaptation easier than those in the more traditional discipline-based units which were more likely to ignore or resist change.

Academics, more than professional groups outside academe, could be expected to reflect on their situation, take a view and take action if necessary (Trowler, 1998). However, Anderson's (2008) study of academic resistance to managerialism in Australian universities suggests that academic resistance is weak, relying mainly on individual withdrawal, but effective in protecting values and identity. The study was based on interviews with 30 academics in ten universities covering 23 disciplines. Respondents were angered by managerial discourse and practices but generally refused to engage with them, preferring to complain to trusted colleagues, or refusing or avoiding participation in managerial directives. At best, academics would minimise their involvement, complying with the letter, but not the spirit, of particular requirements. Student evaluation processes and performance appraisals were frequently mentioned as examples of minimal compliance. Subversive participation in performance appraisals often involved the cooperation of supervisors who themselves saw the process as a 'joke' (Benmore cited in Anderson, 2008) The few times academics voiced their complaints publicly to senior academic managers, their experience was one of having embarrassed colleagues or feeling "dismissed and erased and reminded of their disempowerment" (Anderson, 2008, p. 259). Anderson concludes that the resistance, although individual, was not only sufficient to prevent managerialism from becoming embedded, but the forms of resistance were framed by an understanding of academic culture and values. "Academic discursive resistance involved attempts to limit the process of colonisation implicit in the managerial project" (Anderson, 2008, p. 267).

Bleiklie (2005, p. 209) concludes his paper on the impacts of emerging knowledge regimes with the observation that "academic capitalism has had a stronger impact on ideology and discourse than on the way in which universities are operated". Similarly, Krucken's (2003) investigation of change among German universities found the general pace of university reform was well behind the political rhetoric and 'best practice' case studies. Krucken argues that the 'idea of a university was an 'organisational myth' divorced from the reality of organisational life. Despite the idea not being a reality, it was a myth that lay at the heart of every academic and university, providing "meaning

through reference to a commonly shared identity” and creating boundaries against external influences (Krucken, 2003, p. 327). The extent to which this may hold true among Australian academics is the focus of the next section, which summarises Australian empirical studies in this area and locates an under-researched, but important gap, the impact of corporatisation on the values of academics engaged in entrepreneurial teaching ventures.

## **2.6 Australian Studies on Impacts of Corporatisation**

While rhetoric on the impacts of corporatisation within the AHES is abundant, empirical research is less so. Between 1977 and 2007, at least 15 major studies of Australian academics were undertaken, the majority in the decade 1995-2004. This decade is important because it follows the first three waves of higher education reform, broadly defined as ‘massification’, marketisation and accountability, thus capturing changes in the nature of academic work brought about by increasing demands from corporatisation on academics (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1998). The most recent studies of Australian academics were undertaken in 2007, providing insight into the effects of the fourth wave of reforms with its emphasis on still greater compliance. These two periods broadly coincide with the first and second data collection stages for this thesis, thus allowing comparisons with these studies. All but one of the studies (Winter, Taylor and Sarros, 2000) collected large scale aggregate data across a number of universities, and all but one (Vidovich and Currie, 1998) employed quantitative survey methods. Although three of the studies were longitudinal in the sense of repeating a similar study, only one of these (Winefield et al., 2008) included respondents from the original study. The studies provide sketches of the state of Australian academic life at specific points in time.

### *2.6.1 Summary of Research*

A summary of the research is found in Table 2.2. The summary is organised according to time period, method and findings. The findings are grouped together under key foci of the research including: autonomy and academic freedom; management and

accountability; job satisfaction, organisational commitment and morale; workload; stress; teaching and research; and entrepreneurship. (A more detailed account of each study is found in Appendix Two.) Table 2.2 is followed by two snapshots of 'typical' academic life in the decade 1995-2004 and more recently in 2007 based on the collective findings of these studies.

**Table 2.2 Summary of Empirical Research on Australian Higher Education 1977-2007**

ISSUE	FINDINGS	STUDIES
<b>PERIOD OF RESEARCH</b>		
Period of Research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The 15 studies cover the period 1991 to 2007</li> <li>• 12 of the 15 studies referred to occurred in the decade 1995-2004</li> <li>• One study (1991) occurred before 1995, in 1991</li> <li>• Two studies (2006-07) occurred after 2004</li> </ul>	<p>Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008b); Langford (2008)</p>
<b>METHOD</b>		
Method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All but one use large scale quantitative survey questionnaires</li> <li>• One qualitative survey</li> <li>• One longitudinal survey with some of the same respondents</li> <li>• Three involved longitudinal studies of the same universities not the same respondents</li> </ul>	<p>Vidovich and Currie (1998)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p> <p>McInnis (2000a; 2000b); Langford (2008); Coates et al. (2008b)</p>
Samples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All but one include several or all universities.</li> <li>• One study only is a single university case study</li> </ul>	<p>Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000)</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All but one study include all academics, some include general staff as well.</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2005)</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One study is restricted to social scientists</li> </ul>	
<b>FINDINGS</b>		
Autonomy Academic Freedom	<p>Change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Academic freedom in teaching and research exists but is decreasing</li> <li>• No change to academic freedom</li> </ul>	<p>NTEU (2000); McInnis (2000a; 2000b); Harman (2000); Kayrooz et al. (2002); Anderson et al. (2002); Langford (2008).</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p>
Management and Accountability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase in accountability and assurance measures</li> </ul>	<p>Vidovich and Currie (1998); McInnis (2000b); Winter et al. (2000); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002); Coates et al. (2008a); Langford (2008).</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• University management is 'top down'</li> </ul>	<p>Meek and Wood (1997); Harman (2000); Anderson et al. (2002); Coates et al. (2008a)</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Distrust of, dissatisfaction with, and perceived ineffectiveness of leadership</li> </ul>	<p>Meek and Wood (1997); McInnis (2000b); NTEU (2000); Harman (2000; 2005); Winefield et al. (2002; 2008); Anderson et al. (2002); Coates et al. (2008a); Langford (2008)</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General support for Head of Department</li> </ul>	<p>Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002); Winefield et al. (2002); Langford (2008).</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decline in collegial decision-making</li> </ul>	<p>Vidovich and Currie (1989); Winter et al. (2000); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002); Kayrooz et al. (2001); Anderson et al. (2002); Coates et al. (2008a); Langford (2008)</p>

<p>Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Morale</p>	<p>Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 61% satisfied or above – lower than other non-university organisations or as measured previously</li> <li>• 55% satisfied or above</li> <li>• 25% high or very high job satisfaction</li> <li>• 55% high or very high job satisfaction</li> <li>• 77-78% higher than most organisations</li> <li>• The more senior the academic the more satisfied</li> <li>• The more senior the academic the least satisfied</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2000 – in 1977 study); Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>NTEU (2000); McInnis (2000b – in 1993 study)</p> <p>Harman (2005)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p> <p>Langford (2008) (includes general staff)</p> <p>Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996)</p> <p>McInnis (2000b)</p>
	<p>Change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job satisfaction has decreased</li> <li>• Job satisfaction has remained the same</li> <li>• Job satisfaction has increased</li> </ul>	<p>McInnis (2000a: 2000b); Harman (2000); Anderson et al. (2002)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p> <p>Langford (2008) (includes general staff)</p>
	<p>Organisational Commitment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong emotional commitment to the institution but high levels of negativity toward administration.</li> <li>• 52% felt committed to their institution</li> <li>• The strongest predictor of commitment was trust in senior staff</li> <li>• Organisational commitment increased</li> </ul>	<p>Winter and Sarros (2001;2002)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Langford (2008) (all includes general staff); Winefield et al. (2008)</p>



	<p>Morale</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low</li> </ul>	<p>Meek and Wood (1997); NTEU (2000); Winter et al. (2000)</p>
	<p>Other</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High satisfaction with personal job involvement but low satisfaction with external influenced</li> <li>• 33% reported high job involvement</li> <li>• Increases in job involvement</li> <li>• Colleagues were the greatest source of job satisfaction</li> <li>• The most common strategy to protect academic freedom was building networks with colleagues</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2000); McInnis (2000b); Winter et al. (2000); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002).</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Kayrooz et al. (2001)</p>
Workload	<p>Hours</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Average of 49-50 hours per week</li> <li>• 66% work over 50 hours per week</li> <li>• 40% work over 50 hours per week</li> <li>• 30% work over 55 hours per week</li> </ul>	<p>McInnis (2000a; 2000b); Harman (2000); Harman (2006); Coates et al. (2008a).</p> <p>NTEU (2000)</p> <p>McInnis (2000b)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p>
	<p>Change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Workload has increased</li> <li>• Pressure from workload has not increased</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2000); McInnes (2000b); NTEU (2000); Kayrooz et al. (2001); Langford (2008)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p>
	<p>Causes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Time pressure</li> <li>• More administrative work</li> </ul>	<p>Winter et al. (2000); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002).</p> <p>Harman (2000); NTEU (2000); McInnis</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fewer academics</li> </ul>	<p>(2000a; 2000b); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002); Kayrooz et al. (2001); Anderson et al. (2002); Harman (2005)</p> <p>Winter and Sarros (2001;2002)</p>
	<p>Work allocation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More administrative work</li> <li>• Research time has increased</li> <li>• Research time has decreased</li> <li>• Teaching time has increased</li> <li>• Teaching time has remained the same</li> <li>• Teaching time has decreased</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2000); NTEU (2000b); McInnis (2000); Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002); Kayrooz et al. (2001); Anderson et al. (2002); Harman (2005)</p> <p>Harman (2000); McInnis (2000b); Langford (2008)</p> <p>Kayrooz et al. (2001)</p> <p>NTEU (2000)</p> <p>Langford (2008)</p> <p>Harman (2000b); McInnis (2000a; 2000b)</p>
Stress	<p>Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 62% reported constant stress</li> <li>• 56% reported constant stress</li> <li>• 50% reported constant stress</li> <li>• High rates of stress</li> </ul>	<p>NTEU (2000)</p> <p>McInnis (2000b)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p> <p>Winter et al. (2000)</p>
	<p>Change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 82% report increase in stress</li> <li>• General increases in stress reported</li> </ul>	<p>NTEU (2000); Anderson et al. (2002)</p> <p>McInnis (2000); Anderson et al. (2002);</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No change in stress levels from earlier study</li> </ul>	<p>Winefield et al. (2002); Langford (2008)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008) (same academics in a longitudinal study)</p>
	<p>Causes (apart from workload which is common to all)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job security</li> <li>• Salary</li> <li>• Morale</li> <li>• Work conditions</li> <li>• Insufficient recognition and reward.</li> <li>• Work-life conflict increased</li> <li>• Work-life balance the same</li> <li>• Insufficient resources</li> <li>• Poor management practices;</li> <li>• Value conflicts</li> <li>• Unrealistic performance expectations</li> </ul>	<p>McInnis (2000); Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Harman (2000b); McInnis (2000)</p> <p>NTEU (2000); Winter et al. (2000)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p> <p>McInnes (2000b); Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2008)</p> <p>Langford (2008) (includes general staff)</p> <p>Harman (2000); Winefield et al. (2002); Coates et al. (2008a)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>Winter and Sarros (2001;2002)</p> <p>Winter et al. (2000)</p>
	<p>Other</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 50% of staff at risk of psychological illness</li> <li>• Mid-career academics, especially Levels C, are most overworked and stressed.</li> </ul>	<p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p> <p>McInnis (2000a; 2000b)</p> <p>Winefield et al. (2002)</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutional differences in stress were best predicted by financial health of the institution</li> </ul>	Winefield et al. (2002)
Research-Teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The proportion of academics committed to research increased from 35% in 1999 to 41% in 1999</li> <li>• More academics interested in research (95%) rather than teaching (82%)</li> <li>• 93% express a preference for research over teaching</li> <li>• In 1999, 91% saw reward systems favouring research over teaching</li> <li>• 77% thought the pressure to publish had increased</li> <li>• There is pressure to publish but this is a threat to quality of research</li> </ul>	<p>McInnis (2000a; 2000b)</p> <p>Harman (2005)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p> <p>McInnis (2000a: 2000b)</p> <p>Anderson et al. (2002)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p>
Entrepreneurship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 50% viewed increased competition as positive</li> <li>• Over 50% involved in entrepreneurial activities and found them exciting</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial activities have increased</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial activities have decreased or least mentioned activity</li> <li>• Research is applied, multidisciplinary, international and not geared to commercialisation</li> </ul>	<p>Harman (2000)</p> <p>Harman (2000)</p> <p>Harman (2000); McInnis (2000b); Anderson et al.(2002)</p> <p>Winter and Sarros (2001;2002); Langford (2008)</p> <p>Coates et al. (2008a)</p>
Other	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General staff had lower workloads and greater job satisfaction than academics.</li> </ul>	Langford (2008)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 61% agreed with the need for mission statements and strategic planning</li> </ul>	Harman (2000)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 55% thought enterprise bargaining had increased industrial tensions</li> </ul>	Harman (2000)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 60% reported a decrease in discipline size since 1996</li> </ul>	NTEU (2000)

Across Australian universities, in the decade 1995-2004 when 80 per cent of the studies were carried out, the evidence in Table 2.2 presents a consistent picture of increasingly dissatisfied academics, feeling the brunt of changes to the wider AHES, especially in relation to workload and distrust of management. A general profile of Australian academics and their work in this decade is now provided based on the research findings in Table 2.2.

### *2.6.2 Snapshot of Academic Life 1995-2004*

Disillusionment with senior university managers was clearly evident. Management was described as 'top down' with subsequent reductions in collegial governance mechanisms. Academics distrusted management and were dissatisfied with what they perceived as ineffective leadership, with the exception of the heads of departments for whom there was general support. Accountability and quality assurance measures had increased considerably over the decade with a corresponding decrease in administrative support for academics and significant increase in time spent on administrative tasks.

Workload and hours of work had increased to the point where the average hours of work were between 49 and 50 hours per week. The proportion of time spent on teaching and teaching related activities was less despite greater student numbers and the majority of academics no longer preferred teaching over research as they had a decade before. On the other hand more time was spent on research as almost all the academics understood the reward systems as strongly favouring research over teaching. Workload pressures created high levels of reported stress in addition to concerns over job security, low salaries and insufficient resources. Although time spent on entrepreneurial activities had increased for a significant minority of academics, pressure from these activities were not obvious, in fact those engaged in them appeared to enjoy it. A majority of academics supported a greater emphasis on missions and strategic planning.

Not surprisingly, general satisfaction with the environment was low, however, personal involvement with work was high despite concerns that academic freedom was increasingly under threat at that time. Overall job satisfaction was falling from what it

had been before 1995 as was organisational commitment and morale. Satisfaction derived from colleagues remained high and was increasing. Harman (2005 p. 93) summarises these contradictions in academic life as “common elements ..... in the struggle between the ideal and the possible ...[academics] are making the best of a university environment they do not particularly like in order to pursue personal academic and professional agendas”

More recent studies (Coates et al., 2008a; Langford, 2008) indicate that further change had occurred by 2007. Although there are only two recent studies on which to base a picture of more current academic life, the study of Coates et al. (2008a) was extensive and part of an international research project replicating an earlier study carried out in 1991 by the Carnegie Foundation. Thus it has strong credibility. The findings of Langford (2008) are less credible as they are based on the results of consulting projects, but the results are similar to Coates et al. (2008a).

### *2.6.3 Snapshot of Academic Life in 2007*

By 2007, Australian academics were feeling more settled in their changed environment. Although their dissatisfaction with senior management remained, there was greater acceptance of its effectiveness. The pressures from government accountability and assurance measures continued to increase but the hours of work, workloads and stress levels remained the same or decreased. The preference for research over teaching had further increased as had the pressure to publish, however academics were beginning to worry that research quality was being sacrificed for quantity. Threats to academic freedom had not eventuated and this remained the most important aspect of their work. Entrepreneurial activities were either fewer or not worthy of mention. Overall, their levels of job satisfaction either had increased or remained the same while organisational commitment had increased. Colleagues remained the main source of job satisfaction and had increased in importance.

Key themes arising from the above research findings include: academic values; leadership; managerialism; workload and type; loyalty, entrepreneurialism and

relationships. These themes were used in developing the initial interview guides and guides for analyses in the current research project. The distinct time periods for the studies provide sector wide comparisons that correspond in points of time with the more specific study of graduate school of business academics in 2002-03 and 2008.

## **2.7 Management Education and Business Schools<sup>4</sup>**

Business schools in Australia are largely the creation of the second wave of higher education reform, the period of fee deregulation and international markets. The global business school industry has been described as “one of the great (economic) success stories of the past 50 years” (Viten, 2000, p. 183). Fee-paying education, in which management education is well represented, is “one of the fastest growth industries in the world, a global industry and one from which many industrialised countries such as Australia, have been well positioned to benefit.” (Orr, 2000, p. 54). Deregulation and globalisation have had a major impact on management education, both its popularity and its content. The scarcity of English language tertiary education in the biggest developing market of the world, Asia, created a demand for English language education generally, and postgraduate business education in particular (Marginson, 2002). Business schools have led the way in attracting international students and in the development of transnational education through offshore programs. Postgraduate management education, the MBA especially, has made graduate business schools leaders in customer focused education (McCarthy and Puffer, 1999) because of its competitive market of well informed, mature aged, fee-paying students (Dill, 1997). The remainder of this section discusses first, the history of business schools and education, and second, empirical work and commentary on Australian business schools and their academics.

---

<sup>4</sup> See **Paper No.2** for a fuller analysis of issues affecting management education and business schools, both internationally and in Australia.

### *2.71. History of Business Education and Business Schools*

Business education and the graduate business school are essentially products of the United States of America where business education had its birth in 1881 and from where the major influences affecting business education throughout the world have arisen (Hedro, Sahlin-Andersson and Wedlin, 2006). A cursory examination of the history of business education shows its continual flexibility in response to multiple demands from practitioners, students, new student markets, academic critics, media, technological change and economic trends. Within the academic world, business education has been torn between the need to be relevant to business and the need to be rigorous in academic terms. This section provides a brief summary of the history of business education, especially the Master of Business Administration (MBA), in the USA and its export into Europe and Australia. The section ends with an overview of recent global developments in business education.

#### *Business Education in USA*

Understanding the history of business education in the USA provides the basis for understanding current issues in Australian business schools and their role within higher education. Indeed, Ross-Smith, Clegg and Agius (2004) argue that Australian business education, especially through the MBA, is not only a direct adaptation of the North American model, but the model has remained intact for over 60 years. This sub-section firstly describes the professional beginnings of business education in the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century until 1959 when a major swing against professionalism occurred. Khurana (2007) refers to the period as the ‘professionalisation project’, a project that was undermined by overzealous embracing of ‘academic’ priorities. By the late 1980s, a series of events,



including the introduction of media rankings and internationalisation, ensnared business schools in ongoing struggles between theory, practice and pragmatism, leaving them without a clear moral foundation (Khurana, 2007). The remainder of the section outlines what occurred during and after the ‘professionalisation’ project up to the most recent global developments in business education.

### *The ‘professionalisation project’*

A grant of \$100,000 by a wealthy businessman, Joseph Wharton, to the University of Pennsylvania in 1881 created the first business school in a university. Wharton's motive was "to bestow on business education the same prominence that law and medical schools had given their respective professions" (Mast, 2002, p. 3). It was not without protests from existing academics, outraged that commercial subjects would be allowed on a university campus, that the Wharton School of Finance and Economy was created. Over the next 20 years another seven American universities opened undergraduate business programs, all of which were sponsored by philanthropic businessmen attempting to legitimise business through the establishment of professional business schools (Khurana, 2007). Whether business education generally was a USA invention is arguable (Spender, 2007), however the MBA and the ‘graduate school of business’ are unquestionably products of the USA (Hedro et al., 2006). The first MBA was offered in 1900 at the Amos Tuck School at Dartmouth College and the first exclusively graduate school of business, Harvard Business School, opened in 1907 (Khurana, 2007).

Early business programs sought to integrate practice and theory by employing academics from the social sciences such as economists, sociologists, psychologists and political scientists to work with business practitioners to develop courses and text books. At Harvard, the early MBA tried to meet both theoretical and practical considerations with a "hodgepodge of economics, history, accounting and law" interspersed with "more practical and specialised offerings in banking, corporate finance and railway and insurance operations" (Mast, 2002, p. 5). By 1919, there were sufficient numbers of business schools to warrant the establishment of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) as a forum to discuss curricula and provide accreditation to assure quality in business education (Julian and Ofori-Dankwa, 2006).

### *The 'academic project'*

Rapid growth of the MBA occurred after World War I with the advent of a strong economy and veterans seeking further education to establish careers. This led to almost every major university in the USA offering a business program (Mast, 2002). However, the programs were susceptible to the demands of job markets and students so that content became increasingly specialised with more and more practitioners teaching courses. A shortage of academics led to further practitioners being recruited so by the late 1950s, business schools were subject to strong criticism for their lack of academic rigour (Mast, 2002). This criticism culminated in the Ford Foundation funding a comprehensive report into business education in the USA (Gordon and Howell, 1959) and the Carnegie Foundation funding a similar report (Pierson, 1959). The reports, known as the Foundation Reports, argued that "business school core courses were too descriptive, not

sufficiently analytical, and lacking a focus in managerial problem solving" (Mast, 2002, p. 11). Additionally, the reports charged that most teaching staff were under qualified or not qualified at all, and research, where it existed, was generally neither rigorous nor relevant. The Foundations Reports heralded in the era of the 'academic project'.

Implementation of the Foundation Reports, as they were known, was hastened by large grants from the Ford Foundation with the intention of promoting 'best practice' in business education (Friga, Bettis and Sullivan, 2003). Between 1954 and 1966, the Ford Foundation spent \$35 million on business education reforms in the USA (Zimmerman, 2001). The impacts on business education of the Foundation Reports lasted for the next 25 years, during which business school academics became more focused on their specialised fields of study, more research oriented and incorporated more quantitative disciplines into the core of the curriculum (Khurana, 2007). It was in this period that business academics enthusiastically seized upon scientific paradigms as the benchmark methodology for research and teaching (Trieschmann et al., 2000; Khurana, 2007). The swing toward building academic reputation and away from practice lasted until the late 1980s when it was judged to have gone too far (Porter and McKibbin, 1988; Leavitt, 1989).

#### *The 'balance project'*

By the 1980s, despite business education having become the largest and most financially successful field of study in higher education, business schools were being accused of being out of touch with practice, their research too theoretical and their teaching content and methods inappropriate (Leavitt, 1989). Once again reports into the state of business education were carried out, this time by the business schools' own accrediting body, the

AACSB (Porter and McKibbin, 1988) and the Graduate Management Admission Council. These reports attempted to restore a balance between theory and practice, between the 'professionalisation' and 'academic' projects.

The AACSB report (Porter and McKibbin, 1988) concluded that: the curricula lacked integration across disciplines and lacked international and skill foci; faculty were too narrowly educated in a particular discipline; faculty research was aimed at academic colleagues in the same discipline and was irrelevant to practitioners; leadership skills were ignored; and finally, that faculty did not interact sufficiently with practitioners. As a result of the reports, business schools revised their curricula by: introducing team-based activities to encourage leadership skills; giving greater emphasis to teaching; engaging in more applied research; and developing executive business programs (Mast, 2002). Despite the changes in teaching methods, the changes in content were minor and the overall structure of programs remained the same with quantitative courses and research dominating (Friga, Bettis and Sullivan, 2003). The consequences of the earlier Foundation Reports were not easily reversed and business schools today, arguably, retain similar structure and program content to those of the 1950s (Mintzberg, 2004). In part, the limited impact of the 1988 reports can be attributed to the introduction of business school rankings which appeared in the same year and brought with them the commencement of the 'commercialisation project'.

*The 'commercialisation project'*

A major impetus for change in business schools came from the introduction of business school rankings by the media publication 'Business Week' magazine in 1988. These rankings gave voice to the opinion of graduates and their employers so that "the attention of business schools, therefore, shifted from critics internal to the university to the external constituencies of potential students, corporate recruiters and executive education consumers" (Lockhart and Stablein, 2002, p. 192). While MBA rankings by media may have forced business schools to be more responsive to business and students, they have also been the subject of criticism within the academy. Rankings are accused of being 'beauty contests', where image is more important than substance (Gioia and Corley, 2002), encouraging schools to redirect resources away from program investment into image management, and so fostering the concept of 'student as customer' with further redirection of resources and behaviour into 'making students happy' (Gioia and Corley, 2002; Pfeffer and Fong, 2002). Engagement with rankings has been at the expense of more substantive reflection of academic considerations leading to a confusion in school purpose (Trieschmann et al., 2000; Gioia and Corley, 2002; Pfeffer and Fong, 2004; Khurana, 2007).

#### *Migration of the MBA outside the USA*

The influence of the American experience, chiefly the elite business school model, was highly visible in the establishment of the first schools outside the USA (Hedro, Sahlin-Andersson and Wedlin, 2006; Byrt, 1989). Almost sixty years after the first MBA commenced in the USA, the post World War Two period provided the impetus for the exportation of the MBA into other Western countries, notably the United Kingdom,

Australia and Europe. The earliest MBAs outside the USA commenced in Europe in 1957, Australia in 1963 and in the United Kingdom in 1965. The timing of the MBA export is important in that by replicating the elite USA Schools, these new schools bypassed the 'professionalisation project', directly inheriting the 'academic project'. However, this helped make business schools more acceptable to their institutions, which were initially opposed to the introduction of business education, convinced that the university was no place for business training (Mast, 2002; Byrt, 1989). These arguments slowly lost sway to the booming post war recommencement of international trade in the 1950s and the financial inducements of the Ford Foundation to establish business schools outside of the USA (Hedro et al. 2006; Starkey and Tiratsoo, 2007). As the influence of American business spread, the demand for higher level business skills increased and the MBA, as the world's most global degree (Mintzberg, 2004, Starkey, Hatchuel and Tempest, 2004), was a vehicle to meet the demand (Hedro et al., 2006). Spurred on by economic growth, market deregulation and rapid globalisation, especially the rise of the Asian economy, business education expanded rapidly in the 1980s and 1990s, leading many Western universities to export their business programs to Asia (Mast, 2002; Friga et al., Hedro et al., 2006). By the mid 1990s, business schools throughout the world were caught up with competition and the 'commercialisation project'.

### *Contemporary developments*

Throughout the 1990s, business schools globally were affected not only by pressure from rankings, but by an increasingly competitive and internationalised student market in business education. Developments in business education in the past two decades have

included: the recruitment of international students; the appearance of corporate and private commercial institutions delivering management programs; the growth of on-line education; and the creation of alliances with international universities, especially in Asia (Friga et al., 2003; Thomas, 2007; Starkey and Tiratsoo, 2007). Within this more globalised and competitive context, the tension between theory, practice and business pragmatism heightened. The fact that business schools have become businesses in themselves with bigger and better resources and higher salaries, has not always endeared them to their less fortunate university colleagues, but it has allowed them to remain abreast of the forces of technology, globalisation and stakeholder diversity (Mast, 2002). But, even in the USA, not all business schools have benefited from their revenues. For many, especially the public universities, business schools are perceived as a ‘cash cow’ from which their institutions take surplus earnings to subsidise other programs (Macfarlane, 1995; Friga et al., 2003; Starkey and Tiratsoo, 2007) or other non academic public relations activities (Zimmerman, 2001). Many of these of themes are common to Australian business as discussed in the following sub-section.

### *2.7.2 Australian Business Schools*

The rise of business schools generally, including Australia, has not always sat easily within the more traditional disciplines. They are perceived by some as “the embodiment of capitalist market values” (Macfarlane, 1995, p. 7), the mere existence of a business school within a university is a threat to academic freedom because the links between business faculties and business itself are too close (O’Hear, 1988). O’Hear accuses the management discipline of not being a real discipline, but borrowing from other disciplines to meet a market demand. The consequence of being identified “as a rather distasteful symbol of the marketplace” has been for business faculties to justify their

existence not in academic terms but as the “institution’s cash cow” (Macfarlane, 1995, p. 7).

Indeed, a comprehensive report on business education in Australia (Cecez-Kecmanovic, et al., 2002) highlights the business faculty not only as a ‘cash cow’, but underfunded from lack of resources and ailing from overproduction. The study, which concentrated mainly on undergraduate business programs, described business schools as understaffed and under resourced. Although Australian business schools are responsible for much of the financial ‘success’ of their universities by attracting the bulk of full-fee paying students (both international and postgraduate coursework students) the success has not come without sacrifice (See **Paper No 2**). Overworked business academics, supported by an increasingly large cadre of casually employed academics, teach a diverse range of students in non-traditional hours, in multi-locations and modes to produce revenues to subsidise the wider university while having to forgo time and opportunity for research and other scholarly engagement (Cecez-Kecmanovic et al., 2002; DEST, 2007). A follow-up study of business education, but less comprehensive, in 2007 acknowledges that high staff-student ratios, large numbers of casualised staff, increased academic workloads and resource deficiencies remain key challenges for Australian business schools (Freedman, Hancock, Simpson and Sykes, 2008).

Despite the bleak picture depicted by Cecez-Kecmanovic et al. (2002), studies by McInnis (2000a) and Winter, Taylor, and Sarros (2000) reveal business academics to be more satisfied and with lesser workloads than other academic faculty groups. Although no explanation is given for this, it may be that these studies were carried out in the mid 1990s, prior to the full impact of internationalisation or, it may just be the nature of business academics. Other academics may consider their business colleagues as being from another ‘tribe’. Evidence from a survey of business academics by Bellamy, Morley and Watty (2003) demonstrates that the values of business academics are similar to those held in the traditional disciplines, including academic freedom in teaching and research. Business academics had a greater affinity with academic work compared to practice or extrinsic rewards. The Bellamy et al. study was carried out around the same time as



Cecez-Kecmanovic et al. (2002), and concludes that the pattern of responses to its survey by Australian business academics is “consistent with a body of staff that is disillusioned and has low morale” (Bellamy et al., 2003, p. 21).

A closer examination of the findings by Bellamy et al. provides some insight into the values and priorities of business school academics in 2002. Bellamy et al., (2003) investigated the relative importance business academics gave to various factors regarding becoming and remaining academics, and conditions perceived as conducive to ideal work satisfaction. A questionnaire was used to collect data for a sample of over 1300 responding business academics from 38 Australian universities. With the minor exception of accounting academics, the reasons for becoming an academic were the same as those for remaining an academic. Autonomy and flexibility, both in work and time, were afforded highest priority followed by an interest in teaching and research respectively. Having become an academic, teaching was afforded a lower priority than research, when considering remaining an academic. Administration and salary were given the lowest ratings for both wanting to become an academic and wanting to remain an academic. The ideal conditions for academic work were the same as the reasons for remaining an academic except that relationships with colleagues was accorded the second highest priority after autonomy. Overall, 71 per cent of business academics were satisfied with their own work, but not their work environment and conditions. Most considered their research and administration contributions were not valued.

The few major studies focusing exclusively on Australian business academics largely reflect the state and attitudes of those teaching in large undergraduate business faculties. Information on GSB academics at that time is not available. However, there are a few indications that, prior to the fourth wave of government reforms in late 2003, GSB were faring better than most, including their undergraduate business faculties, in the commercialised environment. MBA programs were not only among the most successful income earning programs within Australia and other Western countries, but MBA, and more recently DBA programs, were the most common offshore programs in Asia (Davis, Olsen and Bohm, 2000). GSB academics appeared to be profiting both financially and in

job satisfaction from this success. O’Kane (2001) described GSB academics as being highly motivated with a strong allegiance to a small organisation and enjoying the commercial aspects of their work, including higher than normal remuneration packages. However, in addition to extra income and job satisfaction, their work also involved substantial pressures from expectations to generate revenue and fulfill their obligations as academics, “to teach diverse audiences ...; to improve their institutions’ research profiles, and to demonstrate the real world relevance of the material they teach ... these challenges often pull in contradictory directions” (Macfarlane, 1995, p. 5).

Business schools, specifically graduate business schools, may be described as part of the ‘entrepreneurial periphery’ within their institutions (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997). Business schools are not only the creations of market reforms to higher education, but they are important forerunners in the globalisation and commercialisation of higher education. They provide a litmus test for the impacts of corporatisation generally on the lives and values of academics.

## **2.8 Chapter Summary and Gaps in the Literature**

This chapter has provided background to the ‘crisis’ or change occurring in universities commencing with an exploration of the phrase the ‘idea of a university’ and followed by a discussion of the factors that led to and affected reforms in higher education from 1972 to 2008, globalisation and corporatisation. The general impacts of change were outlined and attention given to Australian empirical studies on the effects of corporatisation on academic lives. The review concluded with a brief overview of the history of business education, Australian business schools and their academics. The literature covered falls broadly into two camps: the rhetoric and the reality. The former advocating either doom or salvation as the outcome of increasing corporatisation of higher education, and the latter informing their work with empirical studies of those directly involved in university life. Although the literature and research are wide-ranging, there are gaps, both in method and knowledge, and a need, as always, for further research.

The research on Australian academic life is predominantly the result of large scale surveys, with few case studies and minimal use of qualitative methods. Despite an emphasis on studying change, a minority of studies employ a longitudinal approach in research design, only one study (Winefield et al., 2008) involving follow-up surveys with the same sample of participants. A further gap in the research on academic lives relates to the paucity of theoretical frameworks employed to explain reactions and change. With the exception of Slaughter and Leslie (1997), who employ a resource dependency approach, the remainder of the research is descriptive, without an explicit theoretical framework. Of the research concerned directly with the impacts of corporatisation on academics, few studies directly address the question of value change or address it in a way that focuses on the “collective experience and inter-relationships” of academics within their lifeworlds (Tight, 2003, p. 166). Likewise there are only a small number of studies about academics engaged in commercial endeavours and none that focus exclusively on the values of academics engaged in the most commercialised and globalised of academic activities, GSB academics, those to whom O’Kane (2001, p. 23) refers as “enjoying the commercial aspects of their work”. In summary, “further empirical study of academic lives, working practices and relationships is needed to test the strength of values and identity in different institutional settings” (Henkel, 2005b, p. 163).

Internationally, universities have been experiencing unprecedented challenges in the face of globalisation and commercialisation. Australian universities have embraced these challenges, recognising that to remain as they were was not an option, but whether they have been able “to redefine themselves to operate successfully at the forefront of change” (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1998, 208) is a more contentious issue.

Some areas of universities, such as GSB, appeared to be operating successfully at the forefront of this change, but questions of whether their operations were ‘successful’ in terms of being able to maintain the ‘idea of a university’, and if so, whether the success is sustainable in the longer term have not been examined. Given the imbalance of negative

over positive views in the debates over the corporatisation of universities, these questions provide important insight for future academic ideals within the wider university community. If the values of business academics have changed, then is this a sign of the future for traditional academic values or is there something sufficiently different about these academics or their circumstances that makes them an exception? If their ‘idea of a university’ has not changed, then how have academics managed the conflicts between money making and protecting values? If the globalised graduate business school is the model of the future, then an understanding of how and what changes, if any, have affected core academic values will contribute to the debate on the future of universities.

If changes have occurred, then the debate would be further informed by determining whether the responses to change are positive in the sense of maintaining or enhancing academic values within a changed environment, or are negative in terms of diminishing the essence of the ‘idea of a university’. Thus, the broad questions addressed in this thesis in relation to GSB academics are:

1. *What is the nature and extent of impacts from government policies aimed at corporatising and globalising the AHES on the values and lives of business academics? and*
2. *To what extent do responses to these impacts constitute positive or negative adaptation to change?*

To answer these questions, a theoretical approach based on Laughlin’s (1991) adaptation of Habermas’ critical theory to a ‘skeletal’ theory of organisational change is employed. As an approach to research in higher education, critical theory offers “some of the most challenging ... pieces of research” (Tight, 2003, p.9). The theoretical approach and the theory is discussed and developed in the following Chapter Three, resulting in a further refinement of the research questions.

## Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework

### 3.1 Introduction

The nature of the subjects of this thesis, values, corporatisation and change, lend themselves to the application of critical theory which is directly concerned with these issues. Critical theory is reflective,

opening doors to new possibilities by exploring unexamined assumptions and comparing these with the resonance of lived experience .... [it] has much to offer those seeking to understand where reform in an organisation is possible and makes them sensitive to the tyranny of the confining nature of some forms of logic (Carr, 2000, pp. 216-217).

There are two reasons why Habermas' critical theory is especially suited to an analysis of higher education. First, higher education is a social system that has been subjected to environmental disturbances by changes brought upon it by the political and economic steering systems using the mechanisms of 'bureaucratisation' and 'monetarisation'. Second, the university is, in essence, a place of reflection, critique and communication, in short "an enchanted space ... where the arts of communication can be ... learned, exercised and developed" (Kemmis, 1998, p. 301). The same notions of "reciprocity, trust, shared knowledge and reasoned arguments" underlie both Habermasian notions of communicative action (Burrell, 1994, p. 8) and the 'idea of a university' in the sense of how knowledge is acquired and transmitted.

This chapter commences in Section 3.2 with a brief summary of the place of critical theory relevant to other research paradigms; the theories of Jurgen Habermas relating to societal change and communicative action; and, an explanation of the concepts and language used by Habermas. Section 3.3 introduces Laughlin's (1995; 2004) Middle Range Thinking (MRT) approach and details his development of a skeletal theory of organisational change (Laughlin, 1991). Section 3.4 discusses means for evaluating organisational change based on the multiple works of Laughlin and Broadbent. In Section 3.5, Laughlin's model of organisational change is applied to changes in the AHES, supported by evidence from research and literature. The final Section 3.6

presents a framework based on the skeletal theory of organisational change to assess the impacts of changes in the AHES on GSB academics. The chapter concludes with further research questions arising from the framework.

### **3.2 Critical Theory, Habermas and the language of communicative action.**

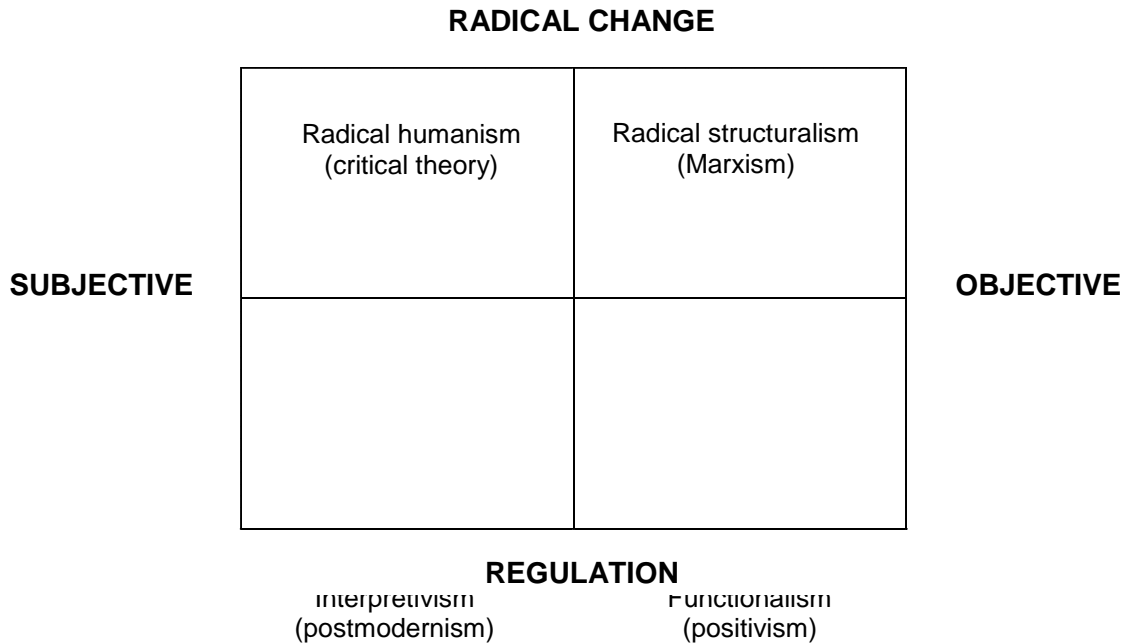
This section begins by positioning critical theory within the four broad paradigms of social research, then provides a brief overview of the critical theory of Habermas, concentrating on the theory of societal change and communicative action and the conceptual language used in these theories.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) propose four paradigms for use in sociological research: functionalist, interpretivist, radical humanist and radical structuralist. Each paradigm has two dimensions, *subjective-objective* and *regulation-change*. First, the *subjective-objective* dimension is based on a combination of assumptions regarding ontology or the nature of reality, epistemology or the nature of knowledge and the researcher's relationship with the research (Creswell, 1998), human nature and methodology. Subjectivists hold that there is no external reality (nominalism), that knowledge is essentially relative to the individual and inseparable from the researcher, that human nature is controlled by free will (voluntarism) and methodologies must necessarily 'get inside' the subject (ideographic). On the other hand, objectivists believe in an external reality, that knowledge is based on the discovery of laws and relationships (positivism) that are apart from the researcher, that human nature is determined by the environment (determinism) and that methodologies must be based on "systematic protocol and technique" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 6).

The second dimension, *regulation-change*, relates to assumptions about the nature of order and conflict in society. Regulationists assume order as the dominant force within society and so are concerned with the status quo, consensus and social cohesion. Change theorists on the other hand, assume conflict is the dominant force and are concerned with the modes of domination, contradiction, deprivation and emancipation. Each paradigm

shapes not only what is investigated, but the questions asked, the methods employed and how the data is interpreted (Cooper, 2001). See Figure 3.1 below for the segregation of each paradigm according to the dimensions.

**Figure 3.1 The Four Sociological Paradigms (adapted from Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 22)**



*Critical Theory and Habermas*

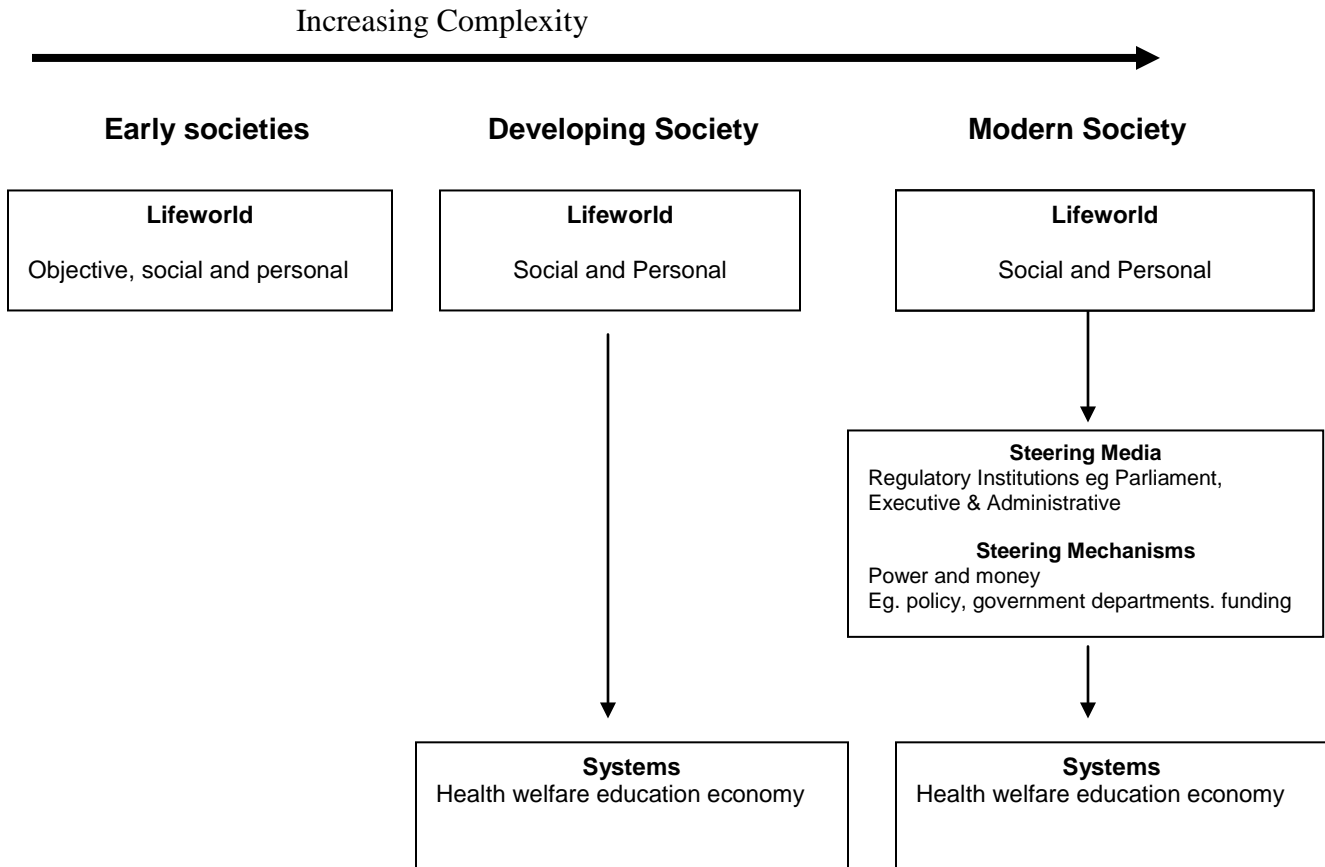
What Burrell and Morgan (1979) call the ‘radical humanist’ approach is more often referred to as ‘critical theory’, emanating predominantly from German philosophers within the Frankfurt School (eg. Horkheimer, Adorno, Marcuse and Habermas). Although, there are several variations of critical theory within this School, they share the perspective that truth and reality are open to individual interpretation and hence manipulation (Crotty, 1998) and that the task of the critical theorist is to understand societal and institutional conditions by critiquing the status quo in a search for transformation (Laughlin, 1987). In particular, Habermas (1984; 1987) seeks to ‘reconstruct not deconstruct’ realities employing communicative action to emancipate actors from distorted states (Burrell, 1994, p. 4). In his *Theory of Communicative Action* (1984), Habermas combines *systems theory* with *theories of social action* to give insight

into both the nature of social systems and the experience of the individual or lifeworld (Kemmis, 1998). Habermasian critical theory asks the question “how can we make decisions on how to act in a world where traditional myths, both moral and political, have lost their force and where commonsense approaches to conflict resolution have been undermined by market and administrative structures” (Pusey, cited in Burrell, 1994, p. 5).

Habermas conceives society as constituted by three ‘lifeworlds’ – the objective, social and personal – which, over time, have differentiated so that the objective lifeworld becomes separate and tangibly expressed in ‘systems’ such as the economy (see Figure 3.1). Systems are guided and given meaning by the social lifeworld until they become so complex that ‘steering media’ are required to guide the systems to align with the lifeworlds (Laughlin, 1987). Increasing differentiation between lifeworld and system is made possible as language develops to articulate the differences. Because systems are based on instrumental reason, as against practical and affective reason that guide the social and personal lifeworld respectively, the language decentration that facilitated differentiation, eventually allows the system to dominate the lifeworld (Laughlin, 1987; Power and Laughlin, 1992). Possibilities for communication between system and lifeworld decline as the steering media take on a life of their own and employ the mechanisms of ‘bureaucratisation’ and ‘monetarisation’ to steer and thus ‘colonise’ the lifeworld (Burrell, 1994). In response to colonisation, the lifeworld may either defend itself reactively or proactively reestablish its superiority. The latter action is the goal of Habermas’ critical theory, whereby through communicative action and ideal speech situations, the distinct natures of the system and lifeworld can be understood and rebalanced (Laughlin, 1987). This process of societal development, including the differentiation of lifeworlds and emergence of steering media, is graphically illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.



**Figure 3.2 Habermas' Conception of Societal Development**  
 (Adapted from Laughlin, 1987, p. 488)



### 3.2.1 The language of communicative action

This section provides definitions and explanations for the language and concepts used in Habermas' Theory of Communicative Action (Habermas, 1984; 1987): lifeworld; systems; steering media and mechanisms; internal colonisation; and communicative action.

#### (i) Lifeworld

The lifeworld is a concept through which culture, social order and individual identity are secured (Kemmis, 1998). Habermas conceived the lifeworld as made up of three components: culture, society and person, which interact to produce a 'discursively agreed

set of explicit or implicit assumptions that come from an accumulated understanding of insights into our world, our social relations and ourselves” (Laughlin, 2007, p. 276). The lifeworld is the “domain of everyday experience” (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 121) where the “unmediated certainty of tacit and unquestioned knowledge” predominates (Laughlin and Power, 1996, p. 450). The three components of the lifeworld may be viewed as lifeworlds in themselves, each with a different perspective of reality: culture has an external and objective reality; society a social and intersubjective reality, and person a personal and subjective reality (Laughlin, 1987). Ideally, the three interact through communicative action to achieve mutual understanding, consensus and commitment. Table 3.1 illustrates how the three components or lifeworlds interact to achieve mutual understanding.

**Table 3.1 Functions of action oriented towards mutual understanding (Habermas, 1987, p.44).**

<b>Structural components: Reproduction processes:</b>	<b>Culture</b>	<b>Society</b>	<b>Personality</b>
Cultural reproduction	Transmission, critique, acquisition of cultural knowledge	Renewal of knowledge effective for legitimation	Reproduction of knowledge relevant to child-rearing, education
Social integration	Immunisation of a central stock of value orientations	Coordination of actions via intersubjectively recognised validity claims	Reproduction of patterns of social membership
Socialisation	Enculturation	Internalisation of values	Formation of identity

Under circumstances of extreme complexity, the lifeworld becomes uncoupled whereby external reality (culture) dominates via systems and steering media.

(ii) Systems

Systems refer to organisational and institutional structures and their functioning (Kemmis, 1998, p. 275). Power and Laughlin (1992, p. 121) describe systems as “functionally definable arenas of action”, such as economic and political-legal systems that “emerge from the lifeworlds as a result of functional and cognitive differentiation” when it is no longer possible to “secure collective social anchoring” without transferring

the responsibility for coordination from individuals to social systems (Kemmis, 1998) as illustrated in Figure 3.2. Ideally, the values of the lifeworld are tangibly expressed in systems which, although concerned with objective reality, are given meaning by social reality. However, because systems operate on rational-purposive actions, they may take on their own “autonomous logic ... which can be positive or negative” (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 121). When this occurs, and systems can no longer be guided by social reality alone, steering media and mechanisms are developed to ‘steer’ systems in keeping with the social reality of the lifeworld (Laughlin, 1987, p. 487).

### (iii) Steering media and steering mechanisms

As society becomes even more complex it requires institutions to ‘steer’ the systems so they accord with the lifeworld. The systems themselves develop steering media of “sufficient power and stability to provide their own specialist discourses capable of regulating exchange and interaction” (Kemmis, 1998, p. 279). These institutions, the ‘steering media’, employ ‘steering mechanisms’ such as administrative arrangements (the process of ‘bureaucratisation’ or ‘juridification’) and money (‘monetarisation’) to steer the system through regulation. For example, the constitutional state simply regulates “the conversion of communicative power into administrative power” for the purpose of steering various sub-systems (Power and Laughlin, 1996, p. 454) and the legal system acts as a mechanism both to steer the media and be used by the media to steer the system (Power and Laughlin, 1996, p. 456). Once the steering media have achieved autonomy, their functional rationality expands over wider and wider domains through the processes of ‘bureaucratisation’ and ‘monetarisation’ (Kemmis, 1998, p. 279).

As the link between lifeworld and system, systems should receive guidance from the lifeworld via steering media that are controlled by the lifeworld. However, when the imperatives of economic and political-legal systems dislodge internal communicative action, the relationship between system and lifeworld becomes distorted, unbalanced and reversed whereby steering mechanisms in the form of power and money guide lifeworlds and systems, using instrumental rather than social reason (Kemmis, 1998). The process by which the lifeworld is dominated by steering media and systems, is referred to as the

*internal colonisation of lifeworld* (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 122). The role of money as a steering mechanism mediating the relationship between the system and lifeworld provides the sharpest illustration of internal colonisation. “Money encodes information and releases agents from the burden of communication” (Power and Laughlin, 1996, p. 458) because individuals and groups increasingly identify themselves in terms of the system (Kemmis, 1998). Habermas suggests *communicative action* is the means by which people can understand the colonisation process and act against it.

#### (iv) Communicative action

*Communicative action* is a form of action “oriented towards mutual understanding and unforced consensus” (Kemmis, 1998, p. 271). Communicative action is based on notions of reciprocity, trust, and shared knowledge and reasoned arguments (Burrell, 1994, p. 8). Such action can only occur in an *ideal speech situation* that requires speech acts to be subjected to validity claims to truth (accuracy), justice (in the sense of morality appropriate to the circumstances), sincerity and comprehensibility. Although rarely explicit, these validity claims lie at the heart of the communication process (Power and Laughlin, 1992). The ideal speech situation occurs when implicit truth claims are allowed to be questioned and justified (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 123). Communicative action in an ideal speech situation allows participants to test for themselves the validity of claims made outside their lifeworlds (Kemmis, 1998). Participants will not commit to a substantive claim until it is “underwritten by communicative action” (Kemmis, 1998, p. 277).

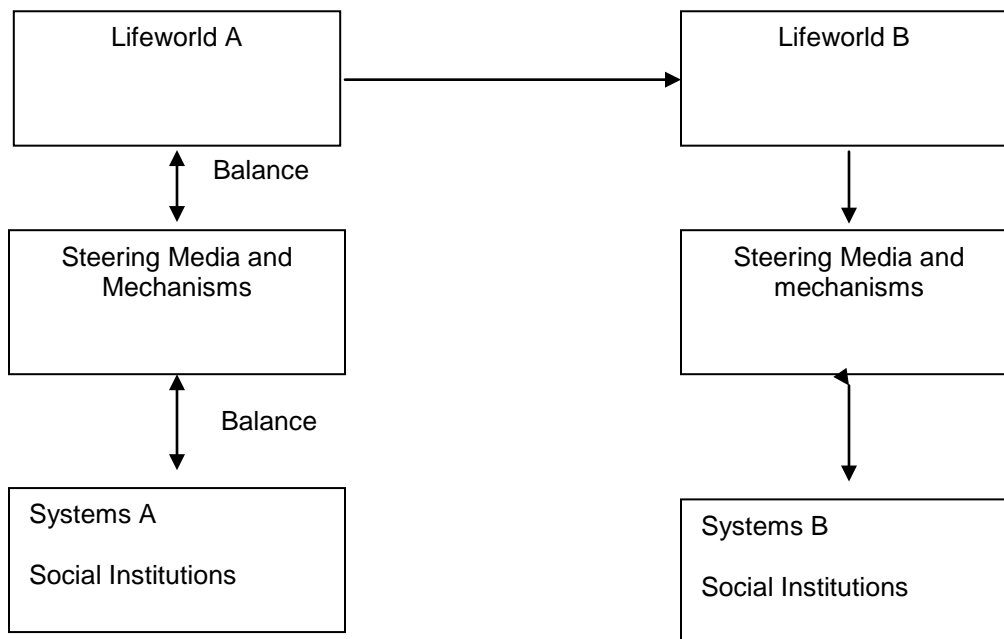
The lifeworld is a primary communicative resource that may be colonised by the “functional dictates of system and subsystem when narrow instrumental imperatives systematically distort communication” (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 124). In an ideal sense, steering media provide the communicative mechanism, based on communicative action, to facilitate system maintenance and/or adaptability” (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 124). However, communication is open to corruption when the “functional rationality of steering media and systems displace or distort the communicative rationality necessary to the symbolic reproduction of lifeworlds” (Kemmis, 1998, p. 274). When this occurs

the possibilities for debate decline (Burrell, 1994) and the requirement for mutual understanding is “more or less suspended” and, if sufficiently severe, the system of reproduction is placed under strain, a strain evidenced in various crises that create both system and lifeworld change (Kemmis, 1998, p. 277).

### 3.2.2 Habermas’ Model of Societal Change

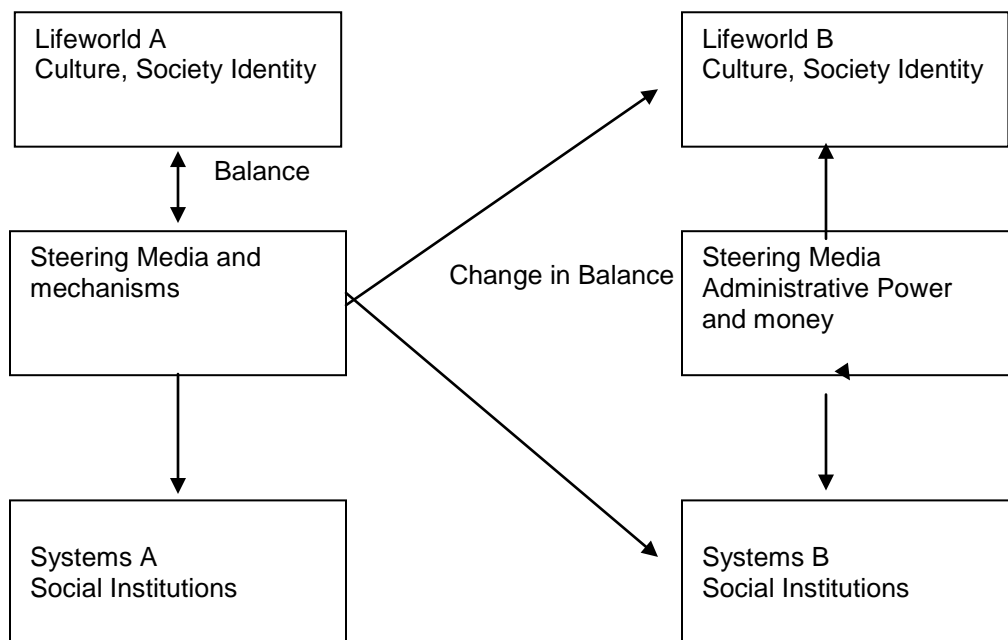
Habermas envisaged two forms of societal change, one regulative and positive, and the other constitutive and negative. Regulative change occurs when steering mechanisms require change that is “amenable to substantive justification” because it is “freedom guaranteeing” (Habermas, 1987, pp. 365-366). Regulative steering and change supplements the lifeworld and systems (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 126), allowing both to adapt to changed environments. Figure 3.3 illustrates how regulative change occurs when the change initiated by the steering media has the assent of the lifeworld and the change, from lifeworld A to lifeworld B and from Systems A to Systems B, occurs at the level of the lifeworld.

**Figure 3.3 Regulative Change** (Adapted from Broadbent, Laughlin and Read, 1991, p. 5)



Alternatively, constitutive change occurs when the steering media take on a life of their own, divorced from the lifeworld, and the change is “legitimized only through procedure” and is “freedom reducing” (Habermas, 1987, p. 367). Constitutive steering and change result in the colonisation of the lifeworld and systems, the steering media having expanded to constitute the lifeworld rather than mediate on its behalf (Power and Laughlin, 1992). It is also possible for regulative steering and change to ultimately become constitutive and colonising, for example when the systems of economy and state become more complex and penetrate further into the lifeworld (Power and Laughlin, 1992). Power and Laughlin (1996, p. 445) give the example of accounting procedure that begins as a regulative steering medium to manage increasing complexity within systems but ultimately colonises areas of social life “by creating newly internalized facts and vocabularies which potentially undermine the capability of actors to question its self-evident mission”. Through its ability to create a new ontology of economic facts, accounting procedures allow “transformations to be made in the name of efficiency” (Power and Laughlin, 1992, p. 127). Figure 3.4 illustrates the process of colonisation whereby the steering media, not the lifeworld, affect change in both lifeworld and systems.

**Figure 3.4** Constitutive Change (Colonisation) (Adapted from Broadbent et al., 1991, p. 6)



However, change is not inevitable. If the lifeworld has a strong ideology, as may be the case with churches, universities and health systems, it can rebut the steering media (Power and Laughlin, 1992). Such institutions are characterised by a fusion of facticity and validity, a fusion which places ceremonially fixed restriction on communication and screens out challenges to authority. In these contexts, validity retains the force of the factual, a “bewitching authority internally withdrawn from challenge” (Habermas, cited in Power and Laughlin, 1996, p. 459). Both ideology and the strength of communication are important in relation to the ability to rebut constitutive steering.

In developing his theory, Habermas was referring to change at the societal level and so his constructions were necessarily broad. Laughlin (1987; 1995; 2007) and others (for instance, Broadbent et al., 1991; Power and Laughlin, 1992; 1996; Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997; 1998; 2006a; 2006b; Broadbent, Gallop and Laughlin, 2008) revised Habermas’ concepts of societal change to apply at the level of an organisation as discussed in the following sub-section.

### **3.3 Middle Range Thinking and a Model of Organisational Change**

The purpose of this section is to introduce middle range thinking (MRT) as a research approach and also a model of organisational change developed by Laughlin (1991). Laughlin’s model of organisational change forms part of the theoretical foundations of this research.

#### *3.3.1 Middle Range Thinking*

The research approach for this thesis is based on MRT as expressed by Laughlin (1995; 2004). Building on the work of Burrell and Morgan (1979), Laughlin develops an approach to understanding options in adopting a particular approach to research. He stresses the importance of making choices based on the researcher’s assumption regarding ontology, human nature, society, epistemology; and methodology. These assumptions may be reduced to three broad choices about theory, methodology and

change. In comparison to other theoretical approaches, Laughlin (1995) places MRT mid way between the extremes of positivism and interpretivism in relation to prior theorisation and methodological choice, and above both of these in relation to its position on the possibilities of change (Laughlin, 1995), hence the term ‘middle range thinking’. The following briefly outlines several features of MRT.

First, in relation to theory, ontological and epistemological assumptions are such that MRT accepts the use of theory as a starting point to identify a focus, language and lens for research, but such theory provides only a ‘skeletal’ understanding of what is being researched. The ‘skeleton’ is fleshed out through empirical engagement within the context of the research. “Generalisations about reality are possible, even though not guaranteed ... these will always be ‘skeletal’ requiring empirical detail to make them meaningful” (Laughlin, 1995, p. 81). There is the possibility that empirical detail may or may not support the original theoretical framework. Where it does fit, the ‘skeleton’ comes alive but where there are differences the “the empirical data provides a basis for extending and/or reforming this framework” (Laughlin, 2004, p. 268). Thus MRT provides for theory development rather than theory testing.

Second and third in the choices required are methodology and approach to change, respectively. Method is secondary to both theory and change outcomes so analysis and communication is not driven and constrained by method. MRT allows a range of methodologies but is most conducive to qualitative methods to provide empirically rich data and engagement with the researched (Laughlin, 2004). Further discussion of MRT and methodology is found in the following Chapter Four. Aside from advocating that research using an MRT approach should be driven by a desire to question and assist in altering the status quo, Laughlin is less specific about the choices for change. He explains change in terms of the researcher’s attitude toward the necessity for change in a particular situation as being, “open to maintaining certain aspects of current functioning but also open to challenging the status quo” ( Laughlin, 1995, p. 68). Thus the researcher requires both an attachment (subjectivity) and an openness of mind (objectivity) to the subject of the research and its eventual outcomes.



Laughlin (2007, p. 277) describes MRT as “conceptually rich with possibilities but needing empirical engagement and empirical detail to become meaningful”. It is an approach that suits both the researcher and the subject of the research in this thesis. It is also the approach that underpins Laughlin’s (1991) development of a model of organisational change encompassing not only the broad concepts of Habermas but those of more traditional organisational theorists such as Greenwood and Hinings (1988), Levy (1986), Miller and Friesen (1984) and Miles and Snow (1978). This model is discussed in the following section.

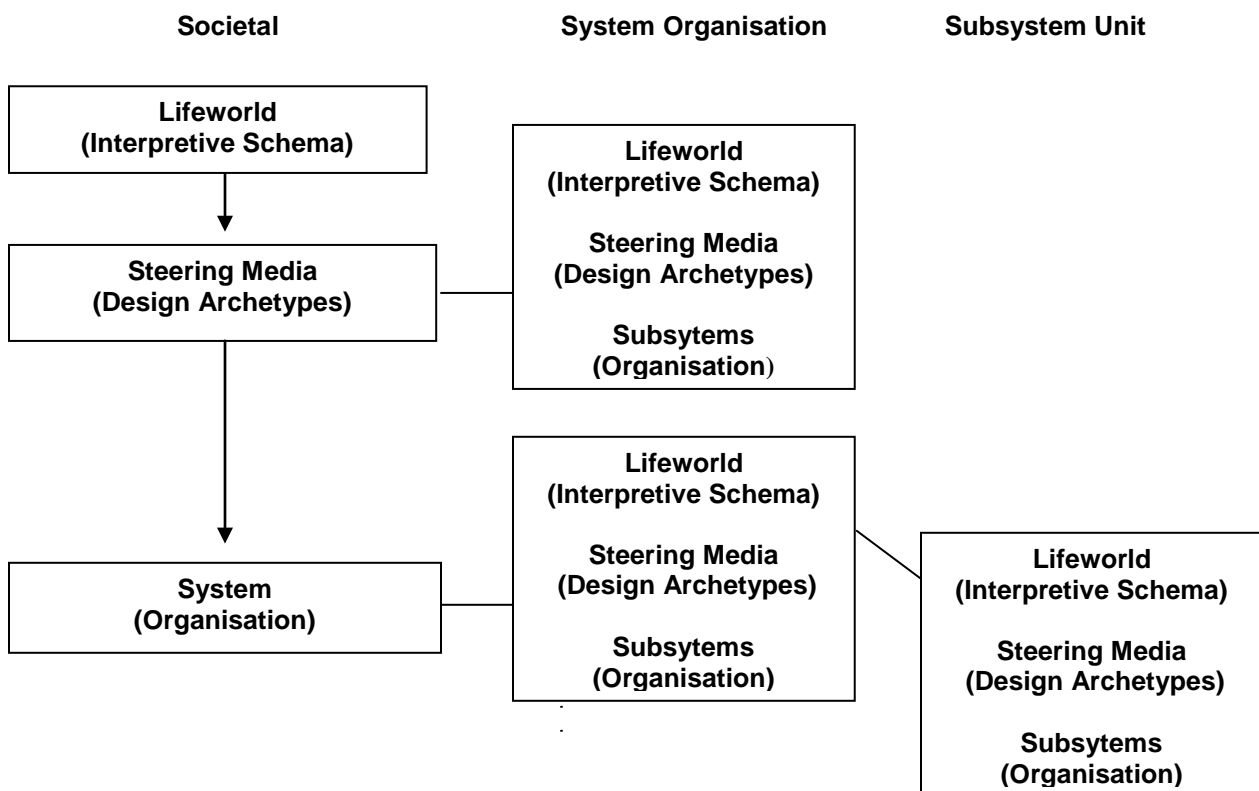
### *3.3.2 Model of organisational change*

Using an MRT approach, Laughlin (1991) applies Habermas’ theory of organisational change in three major ways. First, Laughlin (1991) allows that steering media and systems are themselves an amalgam of lifeworlds, steering media and systems (see, Figure 3.5). Second, Laughlin (1991) clarifies the concepts of steering media, mechanisms and systems as they might apply to organisations (see, Figure 3.6). Third, Laughlin (1991) provides a model of organisational change in which he builds on Habermas’ notion of ‘regulative’ and ‘constitutive’ change. In developing a model of organisational change, Laughlin (1991) borrows from organisational change theorists to provide a language and alternatives for understanding the reaction to environmental ‘disturbances’ by steering media and the mechanisms they use to protect or facilitate change in lifeworld and system (see, Figures 3.7 - 3.10). Each of these three contributions is now discussed, firstly in relation to the concept of an organisation and, secondly, in relation to understanding organisational change.

In relation to organisations, Laughlin (1991) firstly adapts Habermas’ societal theory to the level of an organisation and, secondly, incorporates the language of organisation theory to clarify concepts and processes. First, in relation to an organisation, Laughlin (1991) envisages that both steering media and systems, because they are organisations or collections of organisations, have their own micro structures made up of lifeworld, steering media and subsystem, and that this may further apply to parts within the

organisation or collection of organisations. For example, administrative institutions, such as government departments, act as steering media and each department is an organisation in its own right with its own lifeworld, steering media and sub-system. Likewise a societal system such as the health system consists of different types of organisations, collectively and singularly with their own lifeworlds, steering media and sub-systems. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.5.

**Figure 3.5 Relationships between Societal, System and Sub-system Models**  
(adapted from Laughlin, 1991).



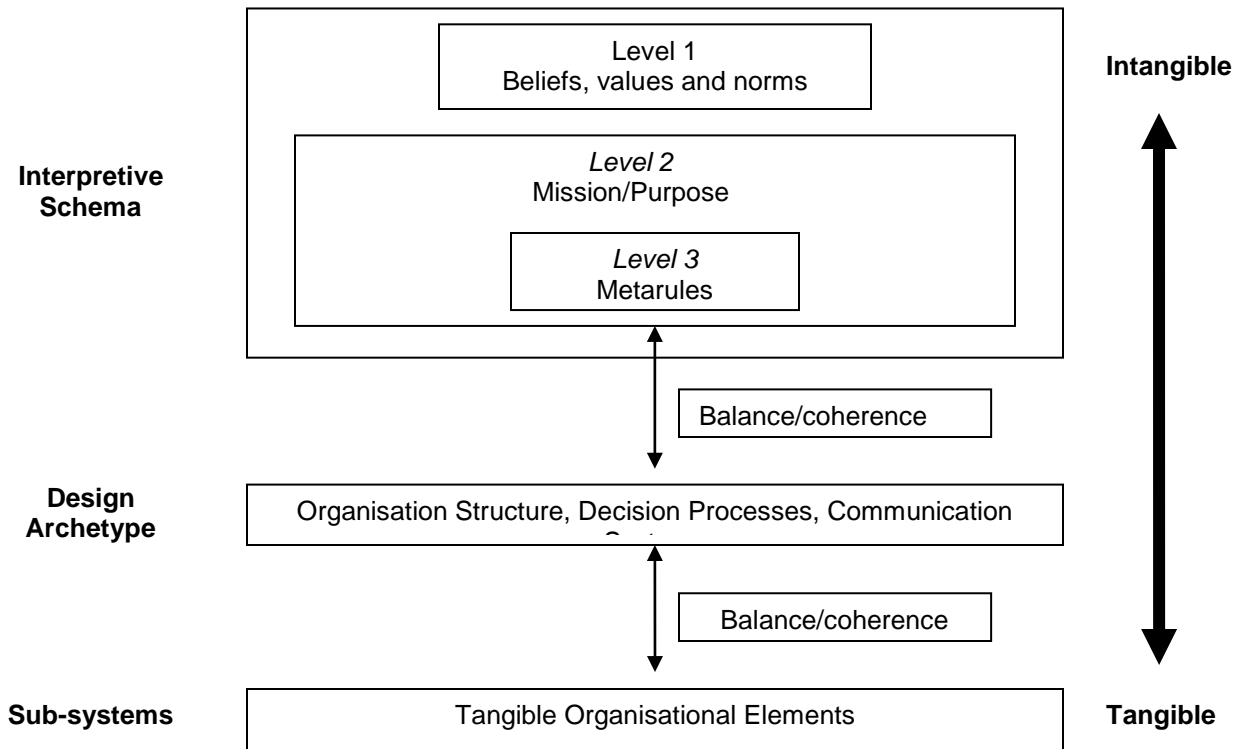
In his second contribution to the adaptation of Habermas' conception of society to the level of an organisation, Laughlin (1991) borrows language from the organisational theorists, especially Greenwood and Hinings (1988), to describe lifeworld, steering media and system and expands on their meaning in more concrete terms (see Figures 3.5 and 3.6). Instead of 'lifeworld', Laughlin uses the term, 'interpretive schema', steering media are termed 'design archetypes' and systems are termed 'sub-systems'. Elements within each section become less tangible as they move from the sub-systems to the interpretive

schema so that subsystems can be understood to consist of agreed upon tangible elements such as people and buildings while the design archetypes and interpretative schema are less tangible and possibly without intersubjective agreement. The design archetypes are defined as "...compositions of structures and (management) systems given coherence and orientation by an underlying set of values and beliefs" (Hinings and Greenwood, cited in Laughlin, 1991, p. 212) and are exemplified in organisational structures and decision making processes. Similar to steering media, their purpose is to guide the sub-systems in expressing the values and beliefs contained in the interpretative schema. Although less tangible than the sub-systems, the design archetypes possess coherent patterns that are commonly understood. Interpretative schema are the least tangible of the elements, their definition being similar to that of the lifeworld, the fundamental assumptions about the world and our place in it. Laughlin (1991, p. 212), based on the work of Levy (1986), divides the interpretative schema into three "uncertain and ill defined levels" nested within each other accordingly. The levels, in descending order are:

- level: beliefs, values and norms (culture);
- mission or purpose; and
- meta-rules.

Laughlin's model for an organisation is illustrated below in Figure 3.6.

**Figure 3.6**                      **Model of an Organisation** (Laughlin, 1991, p. 211)



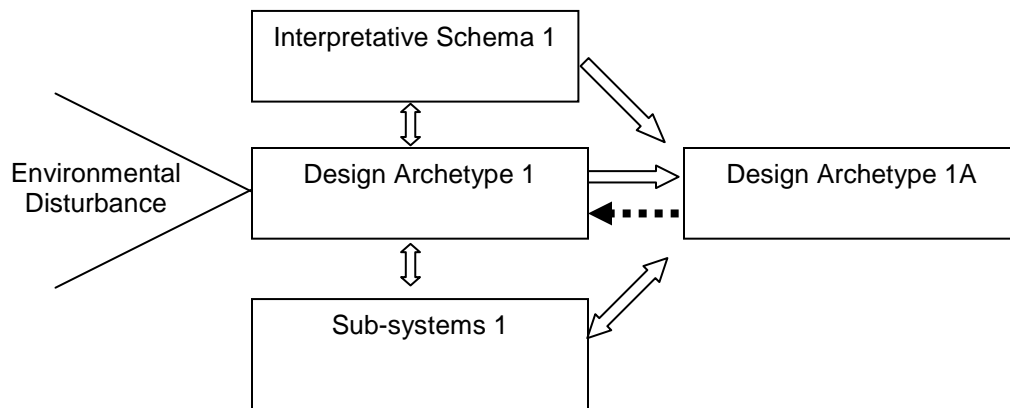
Important principles in Laughlin’s (1991) model of an organisation are the concept of ‘balance’ and the role of ‘environmental disturbance’. The three elements of the organisation – interpretative schema, design archetypes and sub-systems – attempt to attain inertia around a common orientation by maintaining ‘balance’ between the elements. In the event of an environmental disturbance, the balance is interrupted until the elements can find a new level of balance and inertia. If a new balance is not found, the organisation enters an undesirable state of being ‘schizoid’. The concept of balance as a response to environmental disturbance is basic to Laughlin’s (1991) development of an organisational change model.

The third of Laughlin’s contributions concerns understanding organisational change. Extending the work of Greenwood and Hinings (1988), Laughlin (1991) outlines four possible reactions to an environmental disturbance, two of which are considered ‘first

order' changes affecting only superficial, if any, change, and two of which are 'second order' changes producing fundamental change similar to Habermas' notion of constitutive and regulative change. First order changes, rebuttal or reorientation, may affect design archetypes and sub-systems, but not the interpretative schema, while second order changes, colonisation and evolution, affect change in all three organisational elements. Each of the four types of change is illustrated in the Figures 3.7 to 3.10.

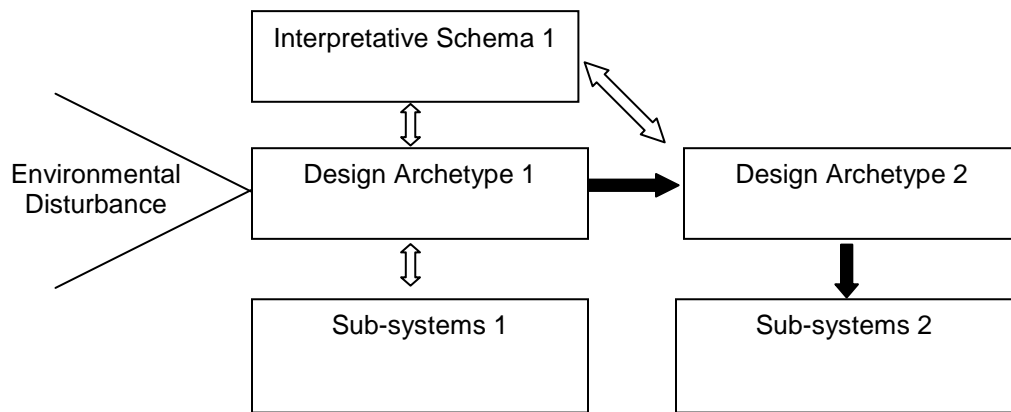
The first response to an environment disturbance is rebuttal, as demonstrated in Figure 3.7. In this process only the design archetype makes some adjustment to the environmental disturbance, effectively rebutting the disturbance and protecting the other elements from change and allowing balance to be maintained. Once rebutted, the design archetype may revert to its original form.

**Figure 3.7 First Order Change: Rebuttal** (Laughlin, 1991, p. 216)



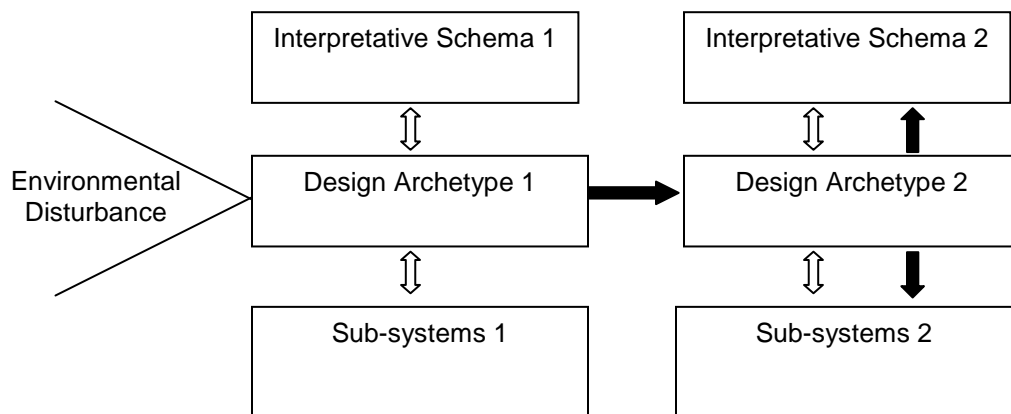
The second response, reorientation (see, Figure 3.8), is similar to rebuttal in affecting the design archetype but not the interpretative schema, however, unlike rebuttal, the reorientation response affects change in the sub-systems. Because the disturbance cannot be rebutted, it is accepted by the design archetype and internalised into the workings of the organisation, but not into the beliefs and values, making it a “transition rather than a transformation” (Laughlin, 1991, p. 218).

**Figure 3.8 First Order Change: Reorientation** (Laughlin, 1991, p. 217)



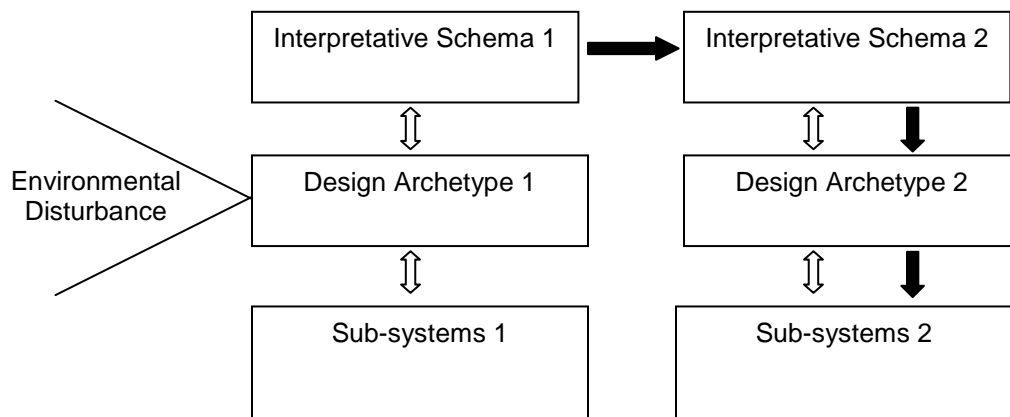
The third possible response to an environmental disturbance is colonisation (see, Figure 3.9). This involves a second order change that affects the interpretative schema. Such change is forced onto the organisation rather than chosen and is closely aligned to Habermas’ concept of constitutive change. The environmental disturbance creates a change in the design archetype leading to change in both sub-systems and the interpretative schema, “formulating a totally new underlying ethos for the organisation as a whole” (Laughlin, 1991 p. 219). This is done without reference to the previous interpretative schema and is transformational in its impact, leading organisational members to either leave or live, “however reluctantly, under a new underlying dominant ethos” (Laughlin, 1991, p. 220).

**Figure 3.9 Second Order Change: Colonisation** (Laughlin, 1991, p. 219)



The fourth alternative in responding to an environmental disturbance is an adaptive response, evolution. Like colonisation it is a second order response and so affects all elements in the organisation, however, unlike colonisation, it is assumed to be chosen and accepted by all organisational members “freely and without coercion” (Laughlin, 1991, p. 220). It is a consensual model of change based on free and open discursive processes and in this way is aligned to Habermas’ concept of regulative change. Unlike earlier change models, the evolution model allows for open discussion and an agreed change in the interpretative schema which is passed through to the design archetypes and sub-systems, allowing balance to be achieved in a new organisational state. The model is illustrated in Figure 3.10.

**Figure 3.10 Second Order Change: Evolution** (Laughlin, 1991, p. 221)



There are several alternative pathways and contingencies for each of the four models of organisational change. Not every disturbance results in a completed pathway of response. There are “multiple stopping points” along each pathway that allow for oscillation, reversion or a schizoid state of change (Laughlin, 1991, p. 218). This is particularly so in the first order change processes, which may be viewed as early stages of colonisation. It is also possible that the early stages are agreed upon until such time as their impacts on the organisation become “unpredictable and seemingly uncontrollable” (Laughlin, 1991, p. 220). Thus reorientation may shift to colonisation without agreement. Laughlin (1991, p. 223) states that reorientation and colonisation are the most

common models of change as they can be empirically established while rebuttal and evolution remain “theoretical possibilities”.

In addition to the models explaining the *how* of organisational change processes, Laughlin (1991) uses the work of Hinings and Greenwood (1988) and Greenwood and Hinings( 1988) to suggest four contingencies, or dynamics, that give insight into the reasons for change: the magnitude of the environmental disturbance; the power dependencies; the organisation’s capability; and the level of commitment to interpretative schema. The greater the magnitude of the disturbance, the greater is the chance of change. The stronger the power of those organisational members committed to a particular response compared to other members wanting an alternative response, the more likely the response will accord with the more powerful group. The more capable the organisation, the more it is able to accept or reject change. And finally, the stronger the commitment or ideology, the greater is the tendency to inertia. In relation to the final contingency, Laughlin (2007) makes a similar argument in the context of the ‘sacred and secular divide’ whereby some organisational values are more important (sacred) than others (secular) that are meant to be enabling of the former. Among certain professions such as clergy, doctors and academics, the divide is especially strong so that any intrusion from the secular into the sacred is always resisted (Laughlin, 2007).

### 3.3.3 *Evaluating Change*

In order to evaluate the type and extent of change, Broadbent et al. (1991) allow that such evaluation may be made based on the perspective of active organisational participants in relation to specific institutions at particular points in time. Judging from an “*organizational system’s viewpoint*”, Broadbent et al. (1991, p. 10) suggest three alternatives: (1) if a particular steering mechanism is viewed by participants as *regulative*, then similar views are likely from a societal perspective; (2) if the mechanisms are viewed as *constitutive*, then they may also be constitutive from a societal perspective; or (3) mechanisms are viewed as *constitutive* by the participants but *regulative* by society. Hence, it may be impossible to make an accurate evaluation of the type of change within a specific organisation or system from the societal perspective.



While this may be a limitation at the higher level of judging change, it does not diminish the legitimacy of the evaluation at the organisational level, at least in relation to the ‘tendency’ to colonisation by a particular design archetype (Broadbent et al., 1991).

An important refinement to understanding the role of the design archetype is provided by Broadbent and Laughlin (1998) in developing the concept of ‘absorption’ as a means of rebutting or reducing the effects of colonising mechanisms. The role of the design archetype is to manage environmental disturbances in such a manner as to protect the core activities of the sub-type. This is achieved by ‘absorbing’ disturbances either through “filtering through creative elements and ‘soaking up’ destructive ones” (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1998, p. 409). These design archetypes or ‘absorbing’ groups are represented by individuals or small groups. Both the nature of the individuals or groups and the nature of the disturbance will determine the degree to which the design archetype will facilitate or rebut colonising disturbances. Table 3.2 summarises the different natures of design archetypes and environmental disturbances that result in nine possible outcomes.

**Table 3.2 Relationships between nature of disturbances, absorbing groups and possible outcomes (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1998, p. 409).**

<b>Nature of perceived disturbance</b>	<b>Fully committed absorbing group</b>	<b>Agnostic absorbing group</b>	<b>Absorbing group with colonising intentions</b>
Intrusive on interpretive schemes but can be managed	Will absorb	Will absorb	Will absorb but might try to colonise
Increasingly intrusive on interpretive schemes and harder to manage	Will do utmost to absorb but group may need strengthening	Will attempt to absorb but may colonise by default	May use disturbance to attempt to colonise
Very intrusive on interpretive schemes and impossible to absorb	Will try to minimise damage	May colonise through inaction	Will deliberately use disturbance to attempt to colonise

The relationships outlined in Table 3.2 provide insight into being able to assess the reasons and processes whereby design archetypes turn from protecting the sub-system to facilitating its colonisation. Essentially if the design archetype is weak or holds colonising intentions, the more intrusive the environmental disturbance and the easier it is for the design archetype to become a ‘coloniser’ rather than an ‘absorber’. Laughlin (2007) refers to ‘absorptions’ as either *proactive* or *reactive*. The former, *proactive absorption*, is a form of rebuttal aimed at preventing the impact of the disturbance, and the latter, *reactive absorption*, is a form of reorientation whereby structural change is allowed without change to the interpretative schema.

Two further additions to developing an evaluative framework based on MRT, are the concepts of *ownership* (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2006b) as a means to discern regulative from constitutive change, and *transactional* and *relational* (Broadbent et al., 2008) as descriptors for interactional processes used by steering media and design archetypes in steering mechanisms. First, a key distinction between regulative and constitutive change relates to the degree of *ownership* experienced by system and organisational participants toward the requirements of the steering media or design archetype. Regulative change is ‘amenable to substantive justification’ and ‘freedom guaranteeing’ which assures *ownership* by stakeholders. Conversely, if steering requirements are seen as ‘constitutive and legitimised through procedure’, “then stakeholder *ownership* is far less assured and it is, therefore, within wider societal perspectives, ‘freedom reducing’” (Broadbent et al., 2008, pp. 47). Hence perceptions of *ownership* by organisational participants may be indicative of regulative change and their absence indicative of constitutive change. Dillard (2002) suggests colonisation and an absence of ownership is evidenced in the disillusionment and apathy of organisational participants.

Second, Broadbent et al., (2008) categorise steering mechanisms as *transactional* or *relational* in their interaction with systems and subsystems. Each of these types is positioned at either end of a continuum so that it is also possible for a mechanism to be an amalgam of both (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2008). Steering mechanisms are

transactional when they closely prescribe desired outcomes, and sometimes the means to achieving them. It is a market exchange based process. Relational approaches by steering mechanisms are less prescriptive of both means and ends, relying on stakeholders' involvement and agreement over time leading to ownership of both means and ends. Relational approaches are necessarily longer term in order to maintain ongoing relationships. "Ownership is less likely when a transactional PMS [performance management system] is in place since the framework has a tendency .... to be 'constitutive and legitimised through procedure' rather than the outcome of a consultative process" (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2006b, p. 43).

The more recent work of Broadbent and Laughlin (2008) applies MRT to higher education, specifically in evaluating the use of performance management systems as a government steering mechanism to achieve change in the UK higher education system. The model of organisational change is applied to the AHES in the following section 3.4.

### **3.4 Organisational Change Model applied to AHES** ▲

Traditionally education has been justified in terms of individual enlightenment, as a means of protecting and promoting a "civil society that is an essential feature of democratic societies" (Senate Committee, 2001, p. 17). If the system has changed so that its purpose is to integrate individuals into political-legal and economic systems, in the interests of those systems, "then justifications of [education] in terms of individual enlightenment begin to sound hollow and illusory" (Kemmis, 1998, p. 270). The frameworks supplied by Laughlin for analysing organisations and organisational change are a basis for understanding the nature and extent of change in the higher education system and to make judgments as to the type and implications of these changes.

The following section explores the AHES and the changes it has undergone using the language and models of Laughlin. The section begins with a description of AHES within the MRT change model (see Figure 3.11), followed by evidence from the literature suggesting a form of colonisation has occurred (see Figure 3.12), at least at the levels of

design archetype and sub-system. Evidence of colonisation derives from university design archetypes taking on the mantle of government imposed political-legal and economic imperatives and using their own steering mechanisms to infiltrate the university organisation.

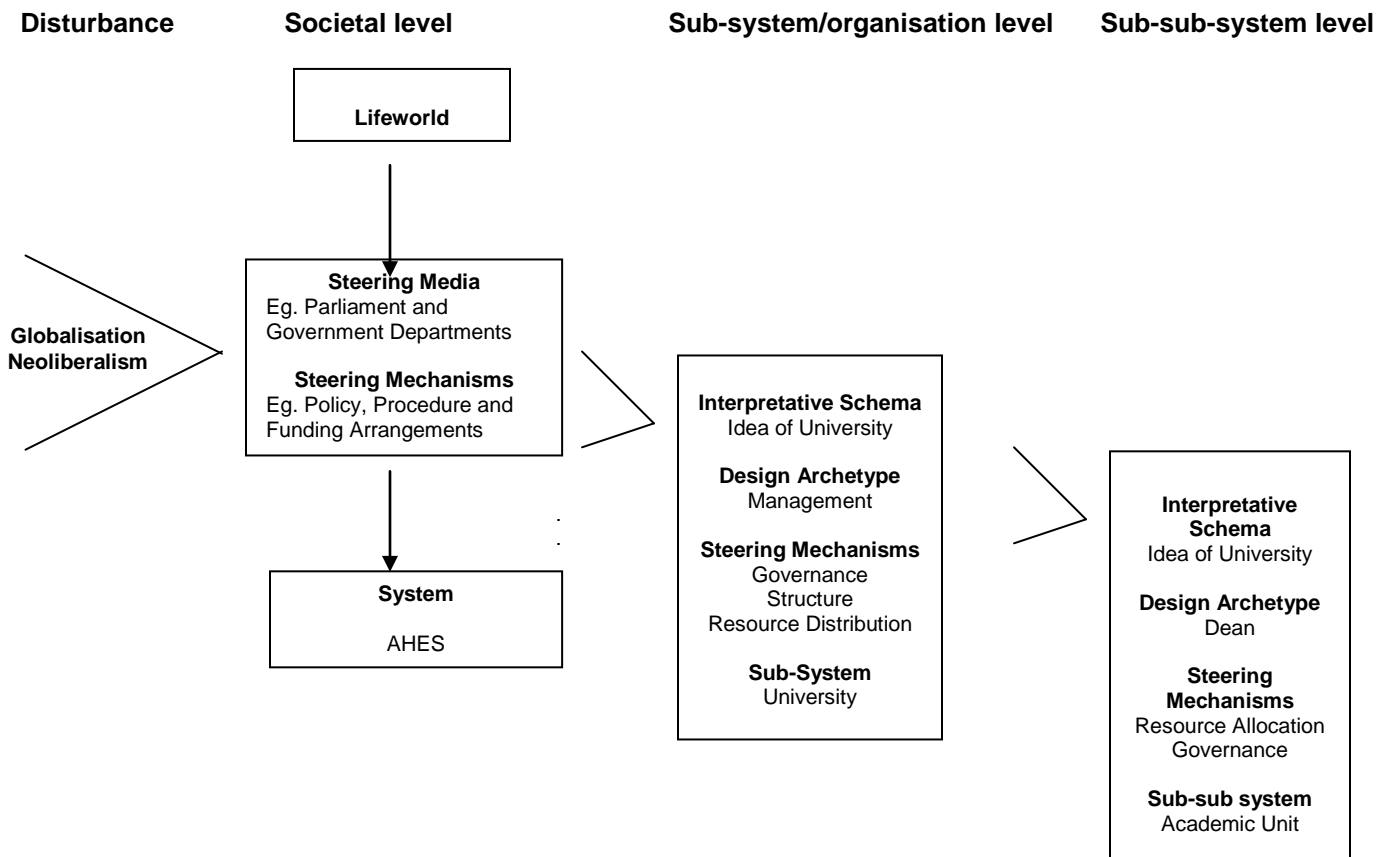
Figure 3.11 simplistically illustrates the process of change in the AHES. As discussed in Chapter 2, the forces of globalisation and neoliberalism represented environmental disturbances to Australian society. These disturbances were accepted by the steering media, Parliament and its executive, which in turn imposed on their own systems, including higher education, steering mechanisms in the form of budgets and performance measurements (e.g., ‘monetarisation’ and bureaucratisation). For instance, “Underfunding plus discretionary payments added up to ultimate influence” over universities (Marginson and Considine, 2000, p. 35). Marginson and Considine (2000, p. 10) observed that universities were ruled by steering mechanisms such as formulae, incentives, targets and plans that are “more amenable to executive-led re-engineering than the deliberations of a council or academic board, and less accessible to counter-strategies of resistance”.

At the organisational level of the university, government steering media presents the environmental disturbance that the design archetype, in the form of senior management, ultimately chose to allow rather than absorb or rebut. As design archetypes, university senior managers mediate external relations and fashion strategies. They “are their own switching station, between the external pressures and the internal changes they want to achieve” (Marginson and Considine, 2000, p. 9). In accepting the influence of the government’s steering media, senior managers used their own mechanisms such as governance, structure and resource allocation (e.g., bureaucratisation and ‘monetarisation’) to create change in its own sub-systems, including academic units. In effect, universities did to their own faculties, schools and departments what the government had done to them (Marginson and Considine, 2000).

At the sub-system level of academic units, the university-imposed steering mechanisms represent the environmental disturbance. The primary design archetypes for the

academic unit are the faculty dean and heads of schools/departments. As with all design archetypes, the people in these positions have choices as to whether they rebut, absorb or pass on demands from the environmental disturbances. At the level of the academic unit, the steering mechanisms available to the design archetypes are mainly in governance and resource allocations. It is at this level, especially the school or department, that responses to environmental disturbances are most varied and under-researched.

**Figure 3.11 Australian Higher Education System**



In the above explanation (Figure 3.11) the influence and response of societal lifeworld to change is not defined. At the societal level, the lifeworld is too difficult to adequately define except in terms of broad national values (which may be a problem in itself). At the level of the university and academic unit, however, it can be assumed that the interpretative schema is more easily articulated in the traditional concepts contained in the ‘idea of a university’, concepts encapsulated in the following extract from the Australian Senate Enquiry into Higher Education, (Senate Committee, 2001, p. 8).

The traditional Western model of liberal university is of an institution primarily concerned with the creation preservation and transmission of knowledge. The creation and transmission of knowledge is seen as essential for both continued scientific and material progress and the protection and promotion of the civil society that is an essential feature of democratic societies. As custodians of both scientific and cultural capital, universities have also served as the critic and conscience of society, a function that has been protected from political interference and the vagaries of the market through the notions of institutional autonomy and academic freedom.

Whether the interpretative schema of the university has substantially changed is questionable, however, there is abundant evidence of changes in the AHES and in the universities' own design archetypes and sub-systems. This evidence for these changes is given in the following sub-section.

#### *3.4.1 Evidence of Change in AHES and Universities*

Descriptions of the steering mechanisms used by government, changes affected by these mechanisms on the system, including changes to the design archetypes of universities and the mechanisms employed by the design archetypes and their impacts on the sub-systems of universities are summarised in Table 3.3 and graphically illustrated in Figure 3.12. Evidence of the steering mechanisms employed by the Australian government and the changes they have affected on the AHES are more fully outlined in **Paper 1**. Evidence of changes to the design archetype, steering mechanisms and sub-systems within universities is based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

**Table 3.3 Evidence of Change by Steering Media in AHES**

<b>Focus</b>	<b>Means</b>	<b>Evidence</b>
<b>Steering media</b>		Australian Government and relevant government departments
<b>Steering Mechanisms</b>		
	Policy	Pursued neoliberal philosophies of user-pays; commercialisation; corporatisation; and privatisation of public sector functions.
		Policy shift from education as a 'public good' to an 'economic instrument'.
		Policy shift from public sector to public and private sector
	Funding	Shift from government funding to financial support with reduced amounts of funding
		Use of performance, productivity, negotiated, incentive and competitive grants to gain compliance
		Introduction of student fees and loans
	Reporting requirements	Ruled by formulae, incentives, targets and plans
<b>System Changes</b>	AHES	
	Financial	
		Revenue raising as a prioritised activity
		Shift from governments to student fees
	Structural	
		Governance structures narrow and more hierarchical
		Additional administrators and administrative units to raise funds and meet government requirements
		Emerging private sector of teaching only higher education
		Growth in contract/casual academics
		Lower entry criteria for students
	Cultural	
		Reduced autonomy of institutions
		Shift from collegial to corporate/bureaucratic
		Competitive
		Entrepreneurial
		Internationalised
		Shift to employee/employer based labour relations
		Shift from student as co-producer of knowledge and culture to student as customer
<b>Design archetypes</b>		Senior Academics/ Executive
<b>Steering Mechanisms</b>		
	Financial	
		Cost cutting (e.g., staff, departmental and program

		closures; postponing maintenance expenditure)
		Devolution of financial responsibility and accountability to faculties and schools
		Revenue generation through full fee-paying students; online delivery; joint research with industry; executive education and training; increased staff-student ratios
		Outsourcing function (eg security, IT)
	Procedural	
		Institutional plans, performance measures and targets
<b>Sub System Changes</b>		
	Structural	
		Move from election to appointment of super deans, faculty deans and heads of department and schools
		Amalgamation of academic units in large multi disciplinary schools and faculties
		Multi-campus both Australia and overseas
		Expansion of the academic calendar to encompass non traditional hours and periods of work
	Cultural	
		Shift from culture of collegiality to managerialism
		Shift of power from academics to administrators
		Reduced academic freedom in teaching, research and speech
		Internal competition between disciplines
		Adoption of corporate and industrial language
		Shift from valuing of research quality to research quantity
		Measurement and audit culture
		Change in academic work to encompass larger classes, more administrative work, greater use of technology
		Withdrawal of academic into more individual but measured and rewarded pursuits.
		Distrust between executive and academics
		Top down communication
		Shift to international students and curricula

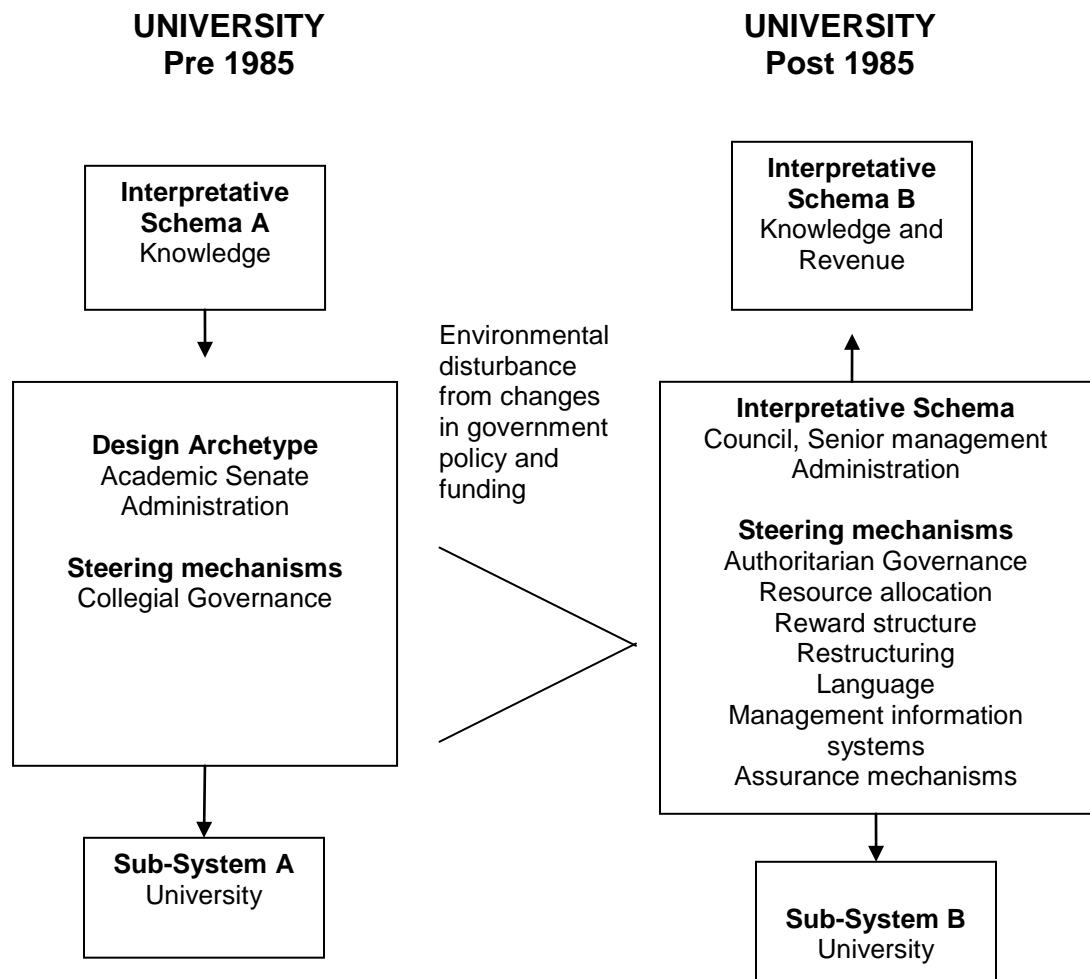
Marginson and Considine's (2000) survey of senior academics and administrators in 17 Australian universities found that Australian universities were no longer governed by a system of collegiality, but defined by strong forms of executive control, led by dominant vice-chancellors and backed by executive groups. These groups act as design archetypes within the university, mediating its external relations and fashioning its strategies. They "interpret the 'outside' factors of government, business, and local and global competition as they see them. They are their own switching station, between the external pressures and the internal changes they want to achieve" (Marginson and Considine, 2000, p. 9). Executive groups employ the same transactional mechanisms as Government used on the



universities to steer change in their own institutions: funding cuts; strategic plans; incentive grants; performance targets; monitoring and accountability procedures.

Just as devolution of power to universities with attached targets and monitoring mechanisms (transactional steering) increased the power of government over universities, university management devolved responsibility to faculties in a similar manner that ultimately gives more power to the executive (Marginson and Considine, 2000, p. 11). The devolution of responsibility to faculty and departmental heads to meet targets and objectives set from above, allow senior executives “to throw off the constraints of pastoral responsibility and channel the burden of expectation, and blame for failure, down to their subordinates” (Marginson and Considine, 2000, p. 11). Centralisation of executive control weakens the discipline base of universities as disciplines are regarded by central management as an obstacle to reorganisation and the redeployment of resources (Marginson, 2001). Just as “executive leaders often become overwhelmed by their workload and disconnected from the academic and administrative community they supposedly lead” (Parker, 20002, p. 609), further down the line, heads of departments and schools, traditionally the defenders of the discipline, are crippled by enlarged multi-disciplinary departments; the expectations from those who appointment them and the pressures to meet centrally set targets (Scott, Coates and Anderson, 2008). All these factors combine to lessen the ability of academic managers to absorb change and leave no room to achieve the core purpose of their roles (Coates et al., 2008a, p. xiv). Changes in the AHES are graphically represented in Figure 3.12.

**Figure 3.12 University Change Pre and Post 1985**



Parker (2002, p. 610) analyses change in the AHES and finds that Government steering has created a tension between “the need for universities to strategically position themselves for survival in a highly competitive environment and the need for them to preserve space for inquiry and critique (the very foundation of their ‘distinctive competence’ or ‘competitive advantage’)”. Unable to absorb the changes and manage the tension, Parker (2002) observes that the design archetype (i.e. senior executive) responded to environmental disturbances created by Government steering mechanisms by accepting changes and developing its own mechanisms to steer change within the university. He concludes that the changes in the university sub-systems have been

second order, constitutive changes because they were forced upon academics and created a shift in the interpretative schema of the university. Parker (2002, p. 612) cites the addition of “financial viability, vocational relevance, industry relationships, market share, public profile and customer/client responsiveness”, to the core values of the university as evidence of change in the interpretative schema.

Scholarship, knowledge development and transmission, and critical inquiry have been transformed from fundamental core values of the university lifeworld into exploitable intellectual capital for the pursuit of the ‘new’ enterprise university core values (Parker, 2002, p. 613).

Further, Parker points to the academics themselves as attempting first to rebut change and then to reorient, but failing in both because of the significant colonising effect on the university lifeworld wrought by university design archetypes.

The challenge to articulate, critique and enlighten society about the implications of globalisation and global capital is the role of a university, specifically the business school (Dillard, 2002). “Unfortunately, the colonization of the lifeworld of the university, especially schools .... continues to inhibit, indeed actively thwarts, the academy in carrying out its social responsibility” (Dillard, 2002, p. 622). Dillard (2002) demonstrates how the colonisation of the universities’ interpretative schema by a market mentality devolves down through administrative structures and rules to further colonise the academic unit, in this case, the business school, so that they teach what the market wants. (Dillard, 2002, p. 637) summarises the symptoms and effects of colonisation as follows:

As the colonisation becomes more complete, meaning is replaced by apathy and resignation. The motivation to maintain allegiance is diminished. As the goals and standards of education become established to meet ends outside of education, the education process is deprived of its meaning.

Colonisation or otherwise of the business school, especially the GSB, is the focus of this research. The final section in this chapter presents a framework for evaluating the type of change that has occurred in the perceptions of the organisational participants, business academics.

### **3.5 Proposed Framework for Research**

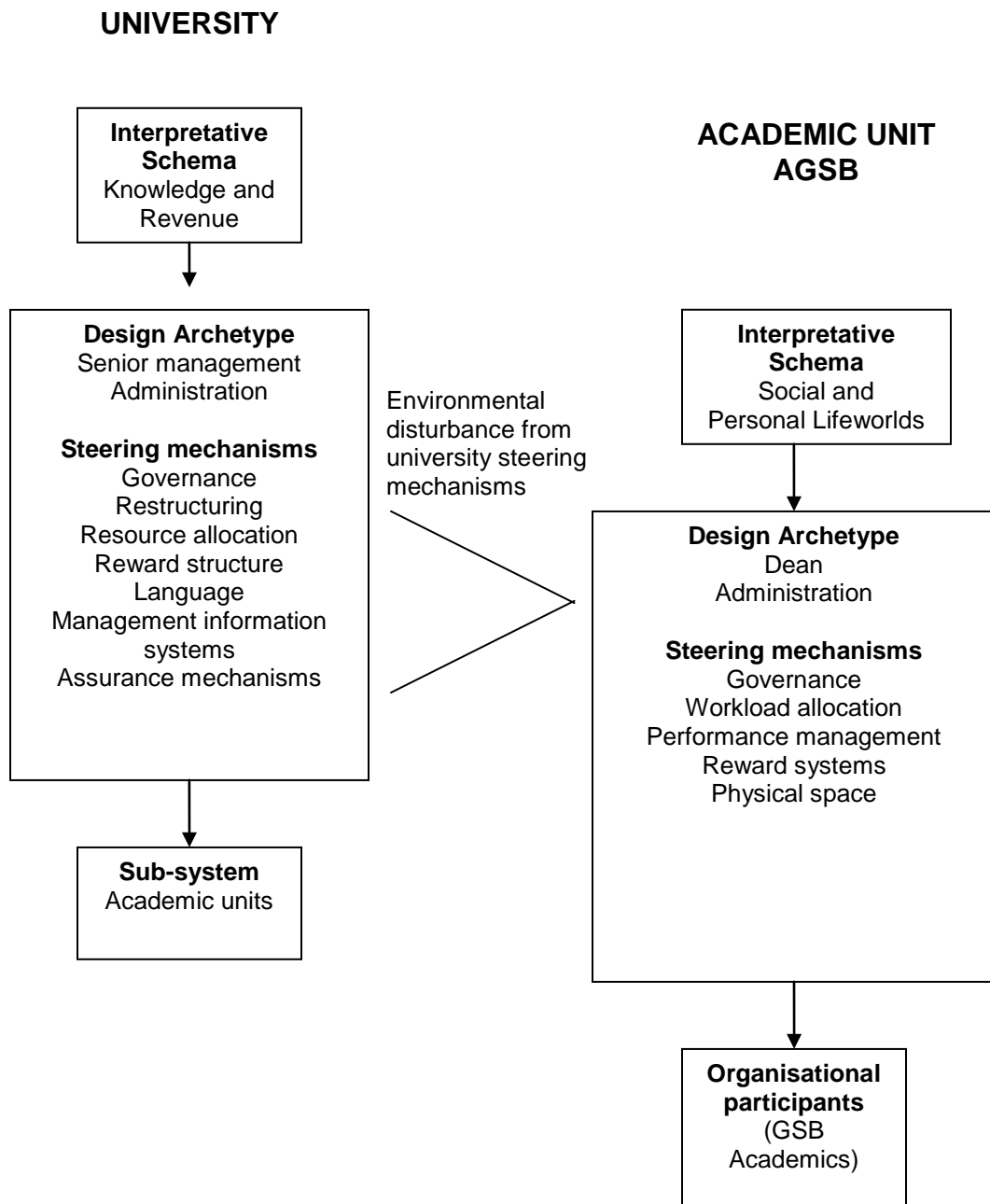
Habermas' critical theory and its adaptation to organisations by Laughlin (1991) provide a framework with which to understand organisational change and its implications. Its operationalisation has been primarily at the level of evaluating steering mechanisms in the health and education sectors (for example, Broadbent et al., 1991; Broadbent and Laughlin, 1998; Kemmis, 1998; Parker, 2002; Broadbent and Laughlin, 2006a; Broadbent et al., 2008). Less research has been focused on the level of organisational participants (for example, Lockett and Webstock, 1999; Broadbent, Jacobs and Laughlin, 2001; Lawrence and Sharma, 2002; Singh, 2002) and, although, higher education systems and sub-systems have been subject to critique (Dillard, 2002; Parker, 2002; Broadbent and Laughlin, 2006a; Broadbent et al., 2008; Broadbent and Laughlin, 2008), this does not appear to have occurred at the level of an academic unit. Hence this research contributes to filling these gaps by ascertaining the type of changes experienced by academics in a graduate school of business at two specific points in time. This final section presents a framework for this research (Figure 3.13) and provides additional questions for the research arising from the framework.

From a broad critical theory perspective, there are two possible explanations for what is occurring in the AHES. First, traditional academic values could be undergoing a process of constitutive colonisation whereby the caretaker of the societal lifeworld, the government, has colonised the values of university administrators to suit its own ends and develop new values. The evidence given in section 3.4 tends to support this view. A second explanation views the process being undertaken by government as a legitimate form of regulative change because of the apparent willingness of university design archetypes to accept rather than absorb the changes.

In line with Broadbent et al.'s, (1991) advice that evaluation of change may be made on the perspective of active organisational participants in relation to specific institutions at particular points in time, and in a particular context, the answer to which of these possible

explanations is more accurate ultimately depends on the perceptions of academics at levels where the institutional interpretative schema are played out and the tensions between academic values and the steering mechanism of ‘corporatisation’ are most apparent. Figure 3.13 illustrates the framework for the research presented in this PhD.

**Figure 3.13 Proposed Theoretical Framework**



The framework in Figure 3.13 assumes that the university has accepted and undergone change in accordance with government steering media and mechanisms and is attempting to pass on the changes to its academic units through a range of steering mechanisms such

as: new governance arrangements; restructured academic units; decentralised resource allocations; reward structures that favour compliance with university goals; a new language that reflects the corporation rather than the public service; management information systems to monitor performance; and accountability and assurance mechanisms. These steering mechanisms directly impact on the academic through its own design archetypes in the form of heads of school or departments and their administrative supports. In turn, these design archetypes make choices about the degree to which they absorb or facilitate changes, using mechanisms such as: governance arrangements; workload allocations; performance management and reward systems; and the use of physical space to divide or unite academics.

Employing the framework illustrated in Figure 3.13 to interpret the experiences and perceptions of individual academics will lead to an evaluation of change type. Specific research questions arising from the above framework and in addition to the questions presented in Chapter Two, include:

1. What role have the GSB design archetypes played in being willing or able to absorb disturbances created by the university's steering mechanisms?
2. If the effects of steering mechanisms have not been absorbed by the design archetypes, how have academics reacted to and perceived specific changes?
3. Based on the reactions and perceptions of academics, how are the changes evaluated in terms of whether they are first or second order and, if the latter, whether they are regulative or colonising?
4. Depending on the answer to question 3, what are the implications for the wider university in relation to evaluating change in its interpretative schema?

Investigations into the above questions address whether the strength of the government and university steering media and design archetypes has been sufficient to change the

lifeworlds of those who constitute the higher education system and thus indicate change in the lifeworld of universities. The contexts and methods for responding to these and earlier questions posed at the conclusion of Chapter Two are presented in the following Chapter Four.



## Chapter Four: Research Design and Method

### 4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research is to discover the nature and extent of the impacts of government policies to corporatise the AHES on the professional values and behaviours of business academics. As discussed in Chapter 3, the research approach follows that of MRT (Laughlin, 1995; 2004) and is based on examining Habermas' three elements of system, steering media and lifeworlds of participants.

The research covers three phases and three time periods, outlined in Table 4.1 below. The first phase concerns gathering background to changes in the AHES and the roles of steering media and mechanisms such as legislation and regulations in creating these changes in the period 1995-2002. It also includes drawing together information on business schools. The second phase addresses the lifeworlds of academics, specifically exploring the impact of system changes on academics employed in three GSB in 2002 and 2003. The third phase covers changes in the AHES between 2003 and 2008 and changes experienced by the business schools and the research participants.

**Table 4.1 Research Phases**

Phase	Period	Description
One	1995-2002	History and description of changes in AHES (system) and description and analysis of the role of government policy and funding (steering media) in creating change. History and analysis of business schools.
Two	2002-3	Description and analysis of the impact of system changes on the lifeworlds of GSB academics.
Three	2003-8	Description and analysis of further changes in AHES, business schools and their subsequent impact on GSB academics, including verification and updates from original participants of observations from Phase Two.

The chapter commences in Section 4.2 with a discussion and justification for adopting a particular approach to the research. This is followed by Section 4.3 with an outline of the research design that combines the three phases of the research with the three elements of systems/sub-systems, steering media and lifeworld. Section 4.4 addresses the research methods employed: historical analysis; document analysis; case study; participant observation; and verification. Sections 4.5 and 4.6, discuss the criteria of soundness and limitations of the research methods respectively, and Section 4.7 summarises the Chapter.

## **4.2 MRT and Method**

A strength of MRT is that it links theory and practice without predetermining the outcome from the theory. Laughlin (1991) applies MRT to his development of a ‘skeletal’ theory of organisational change. While the theory provides both a theoretical framework and language for research (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2004), it needs to be fleshed out by empirical detail in order to be meaningful. Initially the theory frames the empirics but ultimately the empirics are the basis for reflecting on the theory and making change, “hence there is reflexivity in the use of the framework” (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2004, p. 152). MRT does not prescribe method directly, but provides a strong indication as to the types of, predominantly qualitative, methods that might be used such as document analysis, historical analysis, participant observation and interviewing and interpretivist methods.

Although MRT does not dictate the type of methods required to research, unlike functionalist or interpretivist paradigms, it clearly lends itself to a triangulation of methods (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1996). The advantage of triangulation is its recognition that ‘reality’ is affected by the actions of all participants including the researcher so that “each method reveals slightly different facets of the same symbolic reality” (Berg, 2001, p. 4). Hence historical and document analysis are normally employed in the descriptions and analyses of *systems* and *steering media*, while observation and interviewing techniques are used in addition to historical and document analyses to understand *lifeworlds*.

A case for the use of multimethod research in examining lifeworlds is made by Mingers (1997a; 1997b). His argument stems from Habermasian critical theory providing a multidimensional view of an issue through its conception of the three *lifeworlds*: material (objective), social and personal. Such a view requires the use of multimethods or triangulation. Mingers (1997b) provides a framework that clarifies Habermas' three worlds into four steps in the research process: *appreciation*; *analysis*; *assessment* and *action*. Each of these four steps is applied to each of the three worlds enabling the researcher to link *lifeworlds*, steps and methods.

The application of Mingers' four steps to each of the three Habermasian *lifeworlds* results in the following processes, which are used as a guide for analysis in the second phase of the research. Researching the material lifeworld requires *appreciation* of the physical circumstances, *analysis* of underlying causal structures, *assessment* of alternative physical and structural arrangements and *action* to select and implement the best alternatives. Social lifeworld research requires *appreciation* of social practices and power relations, *analysis* of distortions, conflicts and interests, *assessment* of ways of altering existing structures and *action* to generate empowerment and enlightenment. The third lifeworld, the personal, requires *appreciation* of individual beliefs, meanings and emotions, *analysis* of differing perceptions and personal rationality, *assessment* of alternative conceptualisations and constructions and *action* to generate accommodation and consensus. For the purposes of this research, the final action step for each *lifeworld* is enunciated in the implications arising from the research.

For each lifeworld and each step there is a particular method most appropriate for collecting the data or organising the event. For example, the material lifeworld is external and so observed rather than experienced, its explanation therefore lends itself to more positivist methods of data collection and analysis. The social lifeworld is one in which we participate through shared understandings of language, behaviour and resources; its exploration requires more interpretivist methods. The personal lifeworld is experienced subjectively and is also open to interpretivist methods (Mingers, 1997a). To

adequately deal with all three lifeworlds, it is necessary to employ different research methods. The following section outlines the design of the research.

### 4.3 Research Design

Mingers' (1997b) conceptualisation of a research intervention in the above terms provides a research framework where the lifeworlds of the key actors and institutions might be understood and strategies generated. Table 4.2 highlights a research design that combines the phases under study, the three elements of MRT and Mingers' steps for researching lifeworlds and includes the specific methods employed for each phase and element.

**Table 4.2 Research Design Framework**

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Element</b>	<b>Minger's Steps</b>	<b>Methods</b>
<b>One</b> 1995 – 2002	<b>System/Sub-system</b> AHES GSB		Historical and document analysis of primary and secondary sources i.e. official statistics, speeches, media, research, commentary, research and literature.
	<b>Steering Media and Mechanisms</b> Legislation Funding Mechanisms Policies Management Directives		Historical and document analysis of primary and secondary sources, official statistics, legislative documents and statutory instruments, policy documents, commentary, media, research and literature.
<b>Two</b> 2002 – 2003	<b>Lifeworlds</b> Values and actions of academics		Case Study
		<b>Material</b> <i>Appreciation of physical circumstances of GSB</i>	Historical Analysis Document Analysis – websites, media, secondary sources, research, literature, interview data and participant observation.

		<b>Material</b> <i>Analysis</i> of underlying causal structure	Historical and document analyses, interview data.
		<b>Material</b> <i>Assessment</i> of alternative physical and structural arrangements.	Comparison of structures, documentation and interview transcripts.
		<b>Social</b> <i>Appreciation</i> of social practices and power relations	Analysis of primary research and literature. Analysis of interview transcripts.
		<b>Social</b> <i>Analysis</i> of distortions, conflicts and interests	Analysis of interview transcripts. Document analysis. Commentary
		<b>Social</b> <i>Assessment</i> of ways of altering existing structures to generate empowerment and enlightenment.	Interpretation of interview transcripts and literature.
		<b>Personal</b> <i>Appreciation</i> of individual beliefs, meanings and emotions.	Interview analysis and literature.
		<b>Personal</b> <i>Analysis</i> of differing perceptions and personal rationality	Interview analysis. Comparison with other primary research.
		<b>Personal</b> <i>Assessment</i> of alternative conceptualisations and constructions	Interview analysis and comparison with other primary research.
<b>Three</b> 2003-8	<b>System/Sub-system</b> AHES		Document analysis of primary and secondary sources i.e. official statistics, speeches,

	GSB		media, research, commentary, research and literature.
	<b>Steering Media and Mechanisms</b> Legislation Funding Mechanisms Policies Management Directives		Historical and document analysis of primary and secondary sources, official statistics, legislative documents and statutory instruments, policy documents, commentary, media, research and literature.
	<b>Lifeworlds</b> GSB academics	Material	Commentary, media, documentation analysis, observation.
		Social and Personal	Return to original academics to verify currency of analysis and record changes in lifeworlds.

As illustrated in Table 4.2, each of the three time periods or phases of the research examines elements of the systems and subsystems that allow greater capture of required information and analysis in a systematic way. The system is the AHES, represented by universities, and the sub-system is the GSB. Phase One is predominantly concerned with the context and covers system and steering media but not *lifeworlds*. Phase Two is exclusively concerned with the *lifeworlds* of the research participants and applies three of Mingers' four steps (*appreciation; analysis; and assessment*) to each of the three *lifeworlds* (material; social and personal). The fourth step suggested by Mingers, *action*, is not appropriate to the research project but may be realised to some extent through publications and seminars post thesis completion. The final phase, Phase Three, covers all elements of the AHES and organisation (system/sub-system; *steering media and mechanisms*; and *lifeworlds* of the participants) in order to update information on system changes and changes to the *lifeworlds* of the participants, or at least their response to the changes around them. The following section discusses the research methods for each phase, element and step summarised in Table 4.2

## **4.4 Research Methods**

This section describes in more detail the specific methods employed in each of the three phases of the research. Phase One was primarily concerned with documenting historical changes to the AHES and the relevant steering media and mechanisms and so historical analysis, document analysis and review of previous research were used. Phase Two was based on case study research and involved in depth interviews, transcript analysis and observation in addition to document analysis. The focus of Phase Three was again on documenting changes and verifying information from the case study participants in view of changes in the AHES generally as well as in their own situations. The remainder of this section describes the main methods employed in the research: 4.4.1 historical analysis; 4.4.2 document analysis; 4.4.3 case study; 4.4.4 participant and direct observation; and 4.4.5 verification.

### *4.4.1 Historical Analysis*

In order to better understand both systems and steering media, it is necessary to appreciate the historical context in which they have developed and the previous impacts the steering media has had on the system. Hence research into the history of higher education generally, including its place in society, provides an appreciation of the social value attached to education. An overview of developments within the AHES specifically is an essential background for understanding current features of the system as well as the impact of past attempts by steering media to change the system. A history of GSB sheds light on the contradictions and conflicts that continue to manifest themselves within a university context and potentially make them more vulnerable to system change brought about by steering media. Essentially, historical research provides explanations for current circumstances rather than simply being “a superficial search for artifacts” (Walker, 2004, p. 9).

There are various approaches to historical research, the choice of approach reflecting the ideology and preferences of the individual researcher, but ultimately the aim must be to explain rather than describe. Theoretical perspectives, such as Critical Theory, allows the historical researcher analytical frameworks to suggest questions, organise information,

and provide coherence in forming conclusions (Walker, 2004). Conversely, “understanding the history of the situation can help discern the nature of the lifeworld” (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2004, p. 154). The approach in this research was to rely mainly on secondary sources providing historical accounts and commentary on the role of higher education and its development.

#### *4.4.2 Document Analysis*

Closely related to historical analysis is the use of document analysis. Phases Two and Three of this research are highly reliant on document analysis. Document analysis is the systematic exploration of written documents where the contents of the documents rather than the style or design are of interest. However, documents are also socially produced artifacts based on “certain ideas, theories or commonly accepted, taken for granted principles” (MacDonald, 2005, p. 196), which implies they may be correct but are not objective. For example, official statistics are accepted as correct, but their objectivity is questionable once governments change the collection criteria. MacDonald (2005) suggests four criteria for evaluating documents: authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning. Whereas authenticity and credibility go to the source and author of the document respectively, representativeness and meaning, especially beyond the literal meaning, require a more subjective judgment, often based on knowledge of the source and author. An evaluation of the document is not an objective process but one of being clear and transparent about the context and nature of the document being used.

Documents used to explain the AHES include official statistics, primary research by others, university policy and publicity documents, newspapers, scholarly commentary and debate, and stakeholder opinions such as academic union and vice-chancellor commentaries. Steering media are largely composed of documents such as legislative instruments, speeches, policy and procedure documents. Documentation for uncovering the material lifeworld is similar to that used to understand the system, but at the level of a GSB, while primary research employing surveys or interviews of academics is an important background for the social lifeworld.



#### 4.4.3 Participant and Direct Observation

Broadbent and Laughlin (2004, p. 154) view observation as an important method for MRT researchers:

Current contextual information such as evidence about the nature of the surroundings or the way in which an organisation is ordered, and the behaviour and treatment of its members or customers provides information about the taken for granted views of the organisational members.

Participant and direct observation is a method for gaining first hand understanding of the physical circumstances or material lifeworld of participants, in addition to gaining insights into their social worlds. As a method, participant observation is normally on a continuum from two extreme types: *overt* where the researcher is an outsider allowed 'in' to observe, or *covert*, where the researcher is an accepted member of the group but whose role as a researcher is not known to other members (Lapsley, 2004; Jorgensen, 1989). However, in this research, the researcher was an insider or 'part of the group' in terms of being a GSB academic and GSB student, but was in no way a 'covert' investigator. The role was more akin to being an 'inside observer'.

The observations made by the researcher concern GSB in relation to their physical surroundings, nature and the treatment of students and marketing practices, all of which differentiate GSB as more elite than most academic units in a university. These factors are important in not only differentiating GSB, but giving insight into the values of the schools generally and a context for understanding the meanings of the academic participants in the research. Additionally, these factors are rarely written about but taken for granted in any discussion of GSB.

Being an 'inside observer' overcomes the difficulties associated with being perceived as a 'voyeur' or 'informant' or of having only a 'partial picture' of the subject because the researcher has a different background (Lapsley, 2004, p. 179). On the other hand, being an 'insider' can lead to its own biases and assumptions that require the researcher to engage in 'self critical reflexivity' (McSweeney, 2004, p. 223). Because participant and direct observation was a minor method within this research, information gathered by this

means is restricted to generally non contestable descriptive items such as physical facilities, class sizes, student services, dress, and marketing materials. Such items do not require the observer to engage in an “extensive search for counterfactuals” (McSweeney, 2004, p. 222) as would be the case in action research or other projects more reliant on participant observation.

#### *4.4.4 Case Study: AGSB*

Phases Two and Three of the research are based on a longitudinal case study of academics in three GSB. An intensive case study complies with an MRT approach and allows Laughlin’s (1991) ‘skeletal’ theory of organisational change to be fleshed out with rich empirical detail. The ability of a case study to “capture situational data and perspectives” (Parker, 1994, p. 226) is appropriate to this study given the focus on individual values and perceptions. Importantly a longitudinal case study is essential if organisational change is to be the focus of the research. According to Scapens (1990, p. 268) a case study involves:

locating structures in both time and space ... it provides organisational participants with a system of relevance which they can use to make sense of their day-to-day activities ... it locates practice in its historical, economic, social and organisational contexts.

For this research, academics employed in three ‘autonomous’ GSB in 2002-3 were selected as the focus of the case study as they represented academic units at the leading edge of commercialisation within the AHES. Although almost every Australian university offered an MBA at that time, the academic unit through which it was offered differed. In 2002, there were an estimated 17 autonomous GSB<sup>5</sup>, ‘autonomous’ meaning essentially a profit centre within the university that offers exclusively postgraduate degrees to fee-paying students. Of the 17, three were a faculty in their own right, the remainder with schools within a larger business faculty. MBAs offered by the other 19

---

<sup>5</sup> Curtin University; University of Western Australian; University of South Australia; Adelaide University; Monash University; University of Melbourne; Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology; Swinebourne University; University of Western Sydney; University of New South Wales; and Macquarie University; Wollongong University; University of Newcastle; Southern Cross University; Griffith University; Queensland University of Technology; and Deakin University.

Australian universities were either done through a general business faculty or school or a 'graduate school' in name only as part of a larger business school also responsible for undergraduate teaching.

As outlined in the literature review and supplementary papers, business faculties and GSB are the most likely of university school and faculties to be offering transnational programs and have the highest number of international and fee-paying postgraduate students in their courses. Graduate business programs are commonly viewed as a 'cash cow' for the university (Macfarlane, 1995; Starkey and Tiratsoo, 2007). The impact of engagement in commercialised education on the values and behaviours of academics employed in GSB is a potential indicator of the general impact of corporatisation of the AHES on academic values.

### *Sample and Sampling*

In order to access academics in a manageable, but meaningful way, purposive sampling was used to select three autonomous graduate schools of business and academics within each school. Purposive sampling is appropriate for small scale samples using in-depth interviewing techniques to generate understanding of social processes and actions (Arber, 2005). Three autonomous GSB formed the 'case study' for the second phase of the research. The three schools were selected on the bases of being 'autonomous', geographically accessible to the researcher and willing to participate in the study. All full-time academics in one school and a sample of academics from the other two schools were interviewed. Sample selection of academics was made on the basis of recommendations from a senior academic with regard to the researcher's request for a certain number of academics broadly reflecting the range of the disciplines offered, academic rank, and age and gender composition of the school. All academics had to be employed full-time and have taught in transnational programs.

A single case study consisting of academics from three GSB was a pragmatic decision. In attempting to gain access for the research, two schools refused to be the sole focus of a study for reasons of commercial sensitivity, the researcher being employed in one of the

GSB, but studying in another. Ethics and access approvals (See Appendix Three) to conduct the research were conditional upon assurances of individual and institutional confidentiality and anonymity. It was therefore easier to conform to these assurances using more than one school. No attempt is made to compare or contrast the three schools and specific background information on each school is necessarily limited. Although there are differences between the schools in operations and culture, the focus for this research is firmly on the academics as a group not comparisons between schools, thus academics from all schools are viewed as the one sample.

The three schools are reasonably representative of the estimated 17 autonomous GSB that existed in 2002. All schools are reliant on private or non-government income, predominantly student fees, with additional income from executive training and consulting. The three schools offer MBA programs in Asia and academics teach at multiple sites. Academics receive salary loading and/or have opportunities to augment their salaries through additional teaching, executive training and consulting. Additionally, all three schools had undergone a change of dean or director in the 12 months prior to the interviews and were in a state of flux.

The choice of academics selected for interview was a compromise between achieving diversity to reflect the disciplines, levels, ages and genders of those employed in a GSB and the pragmatics of limiting size to a manageable number. As the schools ranged in academic staff numbers from 37 to nine, proportional or strictly stratified samples were not realistic. Instead eight academics in the smallest school were interviewed and an attempt was made to find eight academics from each of the other two schools. The names of eight academics invited to participate in the study by each of the larger schools were suggested by the dean or a senior academic contact within the relevant school, taking into account the researcher's need for diversity and availability. All respondents taught in transnational programs in Singapore, Malaysia or Hong Kong. Only five of the eight academics recommended in one school were able or willing to be interviewed.

In late 2002 and the first half of 2003, 21 academics were interviewed, eight from two schools and five from a third school. The 21 represented approximately 25 per cent of the combined academic populations of the three schools. An approximate profile of the sample is a 45 year old Australian born male who had worked for eight years outside academe before obtaining a PhD and becoming a full-time academic whereupon he would have worked for three other universities prior to taking up his current position as Senior Lecturer or Professor in the GSB prior to the date of interview. A detailed summary of the 2003/2003 respondents' background is contained in Table 4.3 below.

**Table 4.3 Details of Respondent Academics in 2002/2003**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Detail</b>	<b>No. (21)</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Position</b>	Professor	6	29
	Associate Professor	1	5
	Senior Lecturer	6	29
	Lecturer	8	38
<b>Gender</b>	Female	6	29
	Male	15	71
<b>Place of Birth</b>	Australia	13	62
	Not Australia	8	38
<b>Age</b>	Range	26 – 59	
	Mean	45	
	Median	45	
<b>Current Field of Study</b>	HRM/OB/IR	6	29
	Marketing	4	19
	Accounting/Finance	4	19
	Quantitative fields	4	19
	Strategy	3	14
	<b>Original Discipline</b>	Accounting/Finance	6
	Marketing/Management	4	19
	Maths/Statistics	3	14
	Sociology	2	10
	Psychology	2	10
	Economics	2	10
	Health related	2	10
<b>Career</b>	Academic only	7	33
	Outside experience	14	66
<b>Academic Career</b>	Worked at other institutions	17	81
	Only at current school	4	19
<b>Years in Academe</b>	Range	1-35	
	Mean	16	
	Median	17	
<b>Years in GSB</b>	Mean	6	
	Median	7	

By 2008, the number of autonomous GSB nationally had dropped from 17 to five. By 2008, only one of the three schools included in this research was an autonomous GSB, the other two having been merged with large undergraduate business schools. Most of the original participants also had encountered changes in their careers so that only three of the original 21 academic were working in the same autonomous GSB in 2008, although a further three remained teaching in their GSB but within a larger faculty. All but one (whose whereabouts were unknown) or the original participants were contacted in 2008 for a follow-up study. Nineteen of the 20 original participants contacted in 2008 participated in the follow-up and verification process. Table 4.3 summarises the location of the 20 participants able to be located in 2008.

**Table 4.4      Employment Locations of Participants in 2008-07-20**

LOCATION	NO.
Same autonomous GSB	3
Business school in same university teaching in a non-autonomous GBS	3
Business school in same university but not connected with the GBS	3
Business school at another university	6
Same university but not in business school	1
Employed outside a university but teaching part-time in a GSB	3
Retired	1
Unknown	1
TOTAL	21

*Instrument*

As the research involves individual values and perceptions, qualitative methods in the form of unstructured interviews were employed to obtain richer data and more fully comprehend the subjects and their meanings while also maximising reliability (Yin, 1994, pp. 41-5). An interview guide, rather than a strict interview schedule, with open-ended questions was used to allow the interviewee responses to determine the course of the interview (Simmons, 2005), thus allowing complex issues to be more fully explored. This form of interviewing is likened to a ‘guided conversation’ (Lofland and Lofland,

1994) where the interviewer is free to decide the order of topics and phraseology of questions depending on the interviewee. An interviewer may join in the conversation by offering his or her own opinion (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). While a disadvantage of non-directive interviewing is the potential difficulty in coding and comparing (Simmons 2005), the depth and richness of insight and detail respectively gained from this method of interviewing outweighs any disadvantage. The object is to elicit information on personal value issues rather than to determine frequencies of predetermined concepts (Lofland and Lofland, 1994).

An interview guide consisting of five open-ended questions with prompts under each question was used to encourage open and reflective responses and allow respondents to cover the major themes in their own words (see Appendix Four). The original themes were derived from the literature as reviewed in Chapter Two and included: career, academic life, values, time management and priorities, culture, governance, pecuniary rewards, transnational teaching and professional desires. Several additional themes were introduced after hearing from earlier respondents, for example, comparison to teaching undergraduates and relationship with students. The interview guide acted as a prompt only to ensure all themes were covered. Questions were not always presented in the same order, the order depending on responses to initial questions. For example, the first question asked participants to talk about their background and if the response touched on other themes in the interview guide, then these were explored during the response to the first question.

In Phase Three in 2008, original participants were sent three stories based on the original interview transcripts that summarised the profile, social lifeworld and personal lifeworld of a hypothetical academic, Bill. Participants were asked to read the stories and respond to two broad questions: (1) how realistically do the stories reflect their views and circumstances as remembered five years ago? (2) has there been a change in views and/or circumstances in the past five years, and if so, what and why? The stories and the questions are in Appendix One.

### *Data Collection*

To prevent interviewees providing ‘stock’ or superficial responses in an open-ended interview, the interviewer must establish a rapport that encourages the interviewee to frankly express underlying attitudes and values (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). Issues such as the initial approach, location of interview, timing of interviews, characteristics of the interviewer and phraseology of questions are important in developing a rapport during the interview.

Potential respondents in Phase One were invited via email to participate in the study and to suggest a time and date for interview. Detailed information concerning the researcher, the study and ethics approvals was attached to the email. All but one of the interviews were conducted in the respondents’ office as this was a comfortable, familiar and convenient location. One interview was held in a quiet coffee shop at the interviewee’s request. Although the interviews were scheduled for one hour and the interviewer reminded interviewees of the time, the interviews ranged in duration from one hour to three hours, with the average interview lasting just under two hours. In no case was it difficult to stimulate conversation, possibly because the participants were talking about themselves and their lives. Interviewer characteristics can affect interviewee response. The more in common the interviewer has with the interviewee, the more likely the interviewee to feel at ease and be more expressive (Sudman and Bradburn, 1974). Despite concerns of commercial sensitivities and competitiveness between GSB by the senior management of two schools, the fact that the researcher was herself a GSB academic familiar with the language and issues of a GSB, was possibly an advantage in developing an open relationship with the participants.

In an effort to make respondents feel comfortable and able to talk freely, the phraseology of key questions was deliberately very open and non-threatening to elicit as much information but also allow for further exploration and clarification if required. The opening question simply invited the participant to talk about their career in academe. If topics were not covered in general questions, the interviewer would prompt the participant at an appropriate place in the conversation. Not all topics were addressed



equally, depending on the interest of the participant, but all topics were covered. The interviews were essentially a free flowing conversation using prompts when necessary and repeating statements to clarify information.

Respondents were asked for permission to tape record the interviews. Recording not only ensures nothing is missed and allows the researcher to consider different interpretations, but also frees the interviewer to concentrate more fully on the interview (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). All but three interviews were recorded with an electronic device with the permission of participants. Two participants did not want their interviews recorded and one recording suffered a technical failure. Notes taken during and immediately after interviews supplemented the tape recordings. Verbatim transcriptions from the recordings were made as soon as possible after the interviews by the researcher. In the three cases where a recorded interview was not available, a selective transcription based on the interviewer's notes was made. Although time consuming, transcribing the recordings provided an opportunity to review the interview and consider different aspects. Ideally, the transcripts should have been returned to the participant for checking and follow-up interview, however, the time involved in gaining responses to the transcripts from the first group of interviewees made continued follow up of this type too impractical.

The interviews were conducted over an eight month period between December 2002 and June 2003. The period for data collection was prolonged because of unexpected difficulties encountered in obtaining the necessary access approvals and making appointments with respondents who were frequently overseas.

The Phase Three follow-up and verification process occurred between July and December, 2008. Twenty original participants were emailed a covering letter, information sheet and the three stories and invited to respond in one of three ways outlined above. Participants were invited to respond in writing or by interview, either by phone (because of the distance of some respondents) or in a face-to-face interview. Of the 19 who accepted the invitation and responded, 13 were interviewed face-to-face, four by

telephone and three chose to provide written responses. No response was forthcoming from the twentieth participant at the time of finalising the thesis. The interviews took an average of 45 minutes and were recorded in the researcher's notes rather than on tape. The interviews were less structured as the participants were encouraged to respond in their own words to the stories. Occasionally the researcher asked for clarification if a point was not understood.

### *Data Analysis*

The analysis of interview transcripts was based on content analysis in which: “the analytical challenge is the identification of thematically similar segments of text, both within and between interviews” (Fielding and Thomas, 2005, p. 137). Most commonly, text analysis of interviews is carried out by coding of themes from either inside or outside the text. Semantically meaningful units such as words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs are identified and either grouped under an imposed theme, ‘coding down’, or generate a new theme, ‘coding up’ (Fielding, 2005). Themes are coded for one interview and then compared and contrasted with subsequent interviews. New themes that emerge from subsequent interviews are checked in the earlier interviews (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). Strauss (1987) advocates a three stage process for coding. The first stage, ‘open’ coding, pulls the text apart by breaking it into codes and the second stage, ‘axial’ coding, brings the text together through finding relationships between the codes and merging them into themes and sub-themes. The final stage of the coding process is ‘selective’ coding where upon the researcher selects cases or examples from the text to illustrate themes in the form of quotations for the final publication of results. These three phases are not dissimilar to the three processes suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) for analysing and interpreting qualitative data: data reduction, development of ‘core’ codes, and data interpretation. The main difference is in the third process whereby Miles and Huberman place greater emphasis on interpretation of the data through the five steps of: summarising; formulating description; storyline construction; contextualisation; and application of an interpretative lens. Selective coding forms part of Miles and Huberman’s third step of storyline construction.

During the first stage of analysis, open coding or data reduction, tape recordings were replayed and interview notes and transcripts re-read. A 'coding down' process was used initially based on codes taken *a priori* from the prompts in the interview guide, which in turn were based on themes in the literature. Other relevant issues identified during the interviews and supplemented by the researcher's notes and thoughts immediately after interviews were also used for 'coding down'. This resulted in 19 codes, of which three had sub-codes. These codes are summarised in Table 4.5. These codes were initially applied to the text using the computer assisted qualitative data analysis software, N-Vivo, to identify and highlight text passages according to code, with some passages having more than one code. Further reading of both the multiple coded and non-highlighted text along with thorough manual reading of the transcripts allowed a further 137 sub-codes to be 'coded up' from the transcripts. While coding concentrated on finding and grouping common issues in the text, it was also important to detect contradictions and omissions between and among the individual transcripts. This could only be done by carefully scrutinising each transcript manually. Contradictions between participants and individual omissions on relevant issues were recorded and kept aside from the coding process. At the completion of the first stage, open coding had produced 137 sub-codes representing issues worthy of further analysis (see, Appendix Five for summary of codes and sub-codes).

Table 4.5 Summary of Major Codes after Coding Down

<b>Code Number</b>	<b>Code Name</b>
1.0	One becoming an academic
2.0	On being an academic
3.0	On valued aspects of academic life
4.0	On observed changes in academe
5.0 5.1	On the ideal academic life On desired changes to current academic life
6.0	On values
7.0	On loyalty
8.0	On the best aspects of working in a GSB
9.0	On the worst aspects of working in a GSB
10.0	On working in a GSB compared to working in a Faculty
11.0	On teaching and research
12.0	On disciplinaryity
13.0	On governance
14.0	On reward and remuneration
15.0	On quality assurance
16.0	On students
17.0 17.1 17.2 17.3 17.4	On internationalisation On the best aspects On the worst aspects On relationships with students On teaching style
18.0	On GSB culture
19.0	On leadership

The second stage of analysis, axial coding or development of ‘core codes’, required a careful reading of all text grouped under each code so that broad themes could be

identified. During this stage, the 19 initial codes with sub-codes were collapsed into eight themes by merging overlapping codes and pulling together codes that were closely related or shared a common theme or pattern. It was at this stage of the analysis that the key issues arising from the research emerged (O'Dwyer, 2004). Codes that did not fit any of the broader themes were recorded and set aside for use in the third stage of analysis. The final eight themes were equally divided into two meta-themes: School and Identity to represent the social and personal interpretative schema respectively.

An overview of the meta-themes and themes is given in Table 4.6 below. The open coding was initially done immediately after the completion of all interviews in 2003 and then revisited in 2007-08 when the axial coding was carried out prior to the follow-up and verification process during July –October 2008.

**Table 4.6 Summary of Themes and Meta-themes**

<b>META- THEME</b>	<b>THEME</b>	<b>CODES</b>	<b>AREAS</b>
<b>The School<sup>6</sup> (Social Lifeworld)</b>	Culture	2.0; 4.0; 8.0; 9.0; 10.0; 16.0; 17.0; 18.0.	School Sub-group Vis-à-vis other groups
	Governance	4.0; 5.0; 7.0; 8.0; 9.0; 10.0; 12.0; 13.0; 15.0; 17.0; 18.0;19.0.	Institution School Administrators Managerialism/Collegiality
	Leadership	7.0; 9.0; 13.0; 18.0; 19.0	Institution School Discipline
	Entrepreneurship	1.0; 4.0; 7.0; 8.0; 9.0; 11.0; 12.0; 14.0; 16.0; 17.0	University School Individual Student consumerism Offshore teaching
<b>Identity<sup>7</sup> (Personal Lifeworld)</b>	Values	.0; 2.0; 3.0; 5.0; 6.0; 7.0; 8.0; 11.0; 14.0; 16.0; 17.0	Institutional Discipline Professional Personal
	Work attitudes	1.0; 2.0; 3.0; 5.0; 8.0; 10.0; 11.0; 12.0; 17.0.	Teaching and research consulting and administration
	Relationships	4.0; 5.0 7.0; 8.0; 9.0; 10.0; 12.0; 13.0; 16.0; 17.0; 18.0	Students, colleagues and administrators
	Academic lifestyle	1.0; 2.0; 3.0; 4.0; 5.0; 8.0; 9.0; 14.0; 15.0; 17.0; 18.0	Time Priorities

<sup>6</sup> Perceptions of The School represent the Social lifeworld/interpretative schema because the information is taken from the face value of content of transcripts i.e. description of facts as perceived by the participant (for example, governance is collegial or not).

<sup>7</sup> Identity represents the personal lifeworld or interpretative schema of the participants. Descriptions and interpretations of identity are based on what the participants say about themselves (for example, a preference for collegiality or not).

For the third and final stage of the analysis, when themes had been settled and a focus found for the interpretation of the data, the five steps outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994) were adopted using stories to interpret and report the data. The first step, a summary outline of the major themes, sub-themes, ‘non-conforming’ codes and individual exceptions was drafted. The second step then expanded the draft into more detailed descriptive stories that linked the themes and ‘non-conforming’ codes and individual exceptions under the two broad lifeworld/interpretative schema meta-themes of ‘School’ and ‘Identity’. O’Dwyer (2004, p. 401) refers to this second step as “allowing the craft-like elements of the analysis to come to the fore” as the storyline is developed.

Instead of following Strauss’ (1987) final stage of ‘selective’ coding and limiting the interpretation to the selection of examples from the text to illustrate themes in the form of quotations, the themes and codes were developed into a story about the life of an ‘average’ AGSB academic. This form of narrative analysis in reporting qualitative data has been adopted from sociology and used by education researchers (for example, Polkinghorne; 1995 and Barone, 2001) as a way to “enhance meanings [and] to broaden and deepen ongoing conversations about education policy and practice” (Baron and Eisner, 2006, p. 102). The success of this form of data reporting relies on four important consequences arising from the storytelling: illuminating effect; generativity; incisiveness; and generalisability (Barone and Eisner, 2006). *Illuminating effect* refers to the story’s ability to reveal what has previous been unnoticed by making “vivid the subtle but significant” so awareness of what the research is addressing is increased (Barone and Eisner, 2006, p. 102). *Generativity* refers to the story’s ability to stimulate new questions. *Incisiveness* refers to the story’s ability to go to the heart of the matter and focus the reader’s attention on salient issues. And lastly, *generalisability* refers to the story’s ability to allow the reader to make connections not previously made by allowing readers to identify with the story and its context. These four criteria fit well within Habermas’ notion of communication action and help facilitate Mingers’ (1997a; 1997b)

fourth step of *action* in the research process. The stories arising from the first period of data collection are found in Appendix One.

These stories were sent to the original participants for verification and follow-up in 2008. Responses to the verification and follow-up phase of the research were treated a little differently. Step One was followed more loosely with greater emphasis on comparing with the 2002/03 responses rather than developing new codes. Because the original participants had followed diverse paths by the follow-up period, Step Two was limited to description rather than story development. The results of the follow-up interviews and feedback are presented in comparison with the earlier data in Appendix Six.

The third step, taken after the follow-up responses, combined the two ‘stories’ enriching the storyline with deeper description by identifying quotations that exemplify or contradict themes and allow the reader to hear the participants’ voices. This fits with Strauss’ (1987) concept of ‘selective coding’. The fourth step was contextualising the stories, giving them both time and location using data from document and historical analyses and observation. In the process of writing up the fourth step, some new insights arose that led to small revisions of the overall story (O’Dwyer, 2004). Outcomes of the fourth step are seen in **Papers Three and Five**.

The fifth and final step of the analysis was to apply a theoretical lens to the interpretation of the story, being careful not to fit the facts of the story to the lens. Balance is required when using the lens to make interpretive links and conclusions within the story without comprising the independence and reality of the situation. McSweeney (2004, p. 222) warns that “research in which doubt is not exercised is not independent”. The story itself is a protection against the use of overly predetermined theory as the story, not the theory, should be paramount (O’Dwyer, 2004). In order to provide balance and doubt, contradictions and exceptions were sought out throughout the analysis process and included in the stories. The outcomes of the fifth step are represented in **Paper Six** as the analysis of the research findings.



#### 4.4.5 Verification

Much of the focus in the interviews is on uncovering personal meanings and tacit knowledge. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) conceive tacit knowledge as unarticulated and unformulated. Hence, there is always the risk of misinterpreting or omitting important individual tacit knowledge. Despite qualitative methods generally being concerned with “what we know but cannot say” (Maykut and Moorehouse, 1994, p. 31), it is important that interpretations be verified with respondents.

Broadbent and Laughlin (2004) suggest a three stage research process for MRT. Stage One, formation of critical theorems, is the period of data gathering and analysis by the researcher. Stage Two, the process of enlightenment, requires the researcher to share his/her analysis with the organisational members to “gather their perceptions of the insights gained and to update and enrich the understandings by the inclusions of their views” (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2004, p. 155). In Stage Three, selection of strategies, the organisation members take responsibility for understanding of their own organisation and for developing solutions to any perceived problems.

Data gathered, analysed, compiled and interpreted represents Stage One of the suggested three stage process in MRT. Stage Two is the verification process which, for this research, entailed sending the stories to the original participants for comment in relation to their agreement or otherwise and in relation to whether their own views had changed since the previous interviews five years before. This process represents the verification process as well as a process of enlightenment. Stage Three, the selection of strategies, can only be partially realised through insights that arise from the analysis and are communicated through publications and seminars. It is ultimately up to the participants and their business school colleagues in the AHES to take action. This is a necessary limitation of the research, which is further discussed in the final section of this Chapter.

### 4.5 Criteria of Soundness

The key criteria for research soundness are *reliability* and *validity*. *Reliability* comes from experimental research in which it is important to find the same results if the same

methods are repeated in a similar study. Given the importance of time and context to qualitative research, absolute reliability can never be achieved. Scapens (1990) questions whether reliability is even relevant to qualitative research as it assumes an objective reality that is absent in most qualitative research. However, Yin (1994) suggests that careful documentation of research procedures and explanations of context will reduce problems of reliability by allowing another researcher to fully understand the procedures and contexts of the original research.

The relevance of *validity* to qualitative research is subject to greater debate. Applications of the four types of validity (i.e. construct, internal, external and contextual) to qualitative methods are not equal in their relevance. Qualitative methods are often criticised for the absence of *construct validity*. Yin (1994) suggests such criticism may be countered through the use of multiple sources of evidence; the establishment of a chain of evidence and having key informants review draft materials. *Internal validity* should apply wherever explanatory research is used to infer causality, however, it cannot apply as rigorously nor in the same way as it does to quantitative methods. The best that can be done to establish internal validity is engage in pattern matching and continuous explanation building (Yin, 1994). *External validity* or generalisability is also restricted in qualitative research as each situation is different. Again, Yin (1994) suggests the key to external validity is to make the methodology replicable by making it explicit. *Contextual validity* is viewed by Scapens (1990) as the only true validity applicable to qualitative research because context is a vital element within most forms of qualitative research.

Cresswell (1998) summarises the debate on the relevance of *validity* to qualitative research as a continuum from those who insist that the use and application of positivist criteria legitimates qualitative research methods in the eyes of the broader research community to those who believe such criteria are irrelevant distractions to the pursuit of understanding in good research. The more moderate voices in this debate argue for the need to translate concepts of validity and reliability into concepts and standards more appropriate to qualitative research. The synthesis drawn from this debate by Cresswell concludes that *verification* is a more appropriate term for qualitative research than

*validity* and it has procedural implications that can be assessed by the researcher (Creswell, 1998, p. 201).

Procedures suggested by Creswell for use in verifying qualitative research are distilled from the seminal writings of other qualitative researchers (eg. Le Compte and Goetz, 1982; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Howe and Eisenhardt, 1990; Eisner, 1991; Wolcott, 1990; and Lincoln, 1995). Creswell (1998, pp. 201-3) argues that researchers should engage with at least two of the eight verification procedures he describes. The eight verification procedures are summarised in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7 Verification Procedures (Adapted from Creswell, 1998)**

NO.	VERIFICATION PROCESS
1	Prolonged engagement, relationship building and persistent observation
2	Triangulation or the use of multiple sources and methods to corroborate evidence
3	Peer review and debriefing
4	Negative case analysis or reworking hypotheses based on disconfirming evidence
5	Clarifying researcher bias including transparency of the researcher's past experience and likely biases
6	Member checks or verification of findings by participants
7	Detailed description of contexts and participants
8	External audits of the process and outcomes of the research

Six of the eight verification procedures were used for this research. Only the fourth and eighth procedure, negative case analysis and external audit respectively, were omitted. The former was not carried out because it was not appropriate to the research and the latter because of the potential costs involved. Threats to reliability were lessened through detailed descriptions of context and research process in accordance with Yin's (1994) advice. Threats to validity were minimised using six verification procedures suggested by Creswell (1998). As the researcher was engaged in the field both as an academic and a researcher over the period of seven years, the first procedure of prolonged engagement

and persistent observation was met. Triangulation of data, the second procedure, was built into the research design by the use of documents, observation and interviews as the primary research methods to corroborate evidence. The third procedure, peer review and debriefing, occurred with two PhD supervisors over the full time period and, to a more limited extent, at conferences. Researcher bias, the fifth procedure, was dealt with transparently both with participants and within the research documentation. The verification process, as outlined above, should satisfy the sixth procedure, member checks, and the seventh procedure, detailed description of context and participants, were done within the limits of access constraints determined by the ethics approvals and which are explained in the next section.

## **4.6 Research Limitations**

Five limitations to the thesis research have been identified. These are outlined and discussed in the following sub-sections: 4.6.1 the nature of the project itself; 4.6.2 access and ethics; 4.6.3 method; 4.6.4 the role of researcher; and 4.6.5 the verification process and adherence to MRT methodology. Some of the limitations are also strengths as the following discussion of limitations demonstrates.

### *4.6.1 The Nature of the Project*

The nature of this project imposed several limitations on the research and its outcomes. The project took place over seven years during which there was continual significant change to the AHES, so that the impacts on academics' values varied over the period. The three periods into which the project was divided was arbitrary, based around the central period of 2002-3 when the academics were interviewed. A majority (70 per cent) of the academics interviewed in 2002-3 had changed positions by 2008 and the GSB in which they worked had also changed. Finally, a PhD thesis by publication necessarily restricts the depth of the research. Although each of these poses a limitation to the research, they are also strengths.

Changes within the AHES in the period 2001 to 2008, while significant in themselves, were also embedded in previous policy changes as well as a more globalised change in education systems. The analysis of the changes is necessarily restricted to Australia with limited acknowledgement of more international trends in higher education. Controversial issues arising from changes in the early years of the research period had been absorbed into the system by the end of the period and were thus no longer of such importance. For example, transnational education was relatively new and restricted to mainly business degrees in 2001-3. By 2008, transnational education had been adopted by every university including faculties other than business, hence its impact on academic values was lessened. Although, this was a limitation, it is also significant that this form of 'colonisation' was able to be observed over the period.

The division of the project into three arbitrary periods was not intended at the commencement of the research but came about as the duration of the research period extended. The effect of this was to limit the depth of carrying out a 'snapshot' in time, 2002-3, but it also opened up the possibility to interpret the 'snapshot' from both before and after perspectives. This leads to the other necessary limitation of using three periods, in which the changes to the lifeworlds, material, social and personal, of the academics interviewed in 2002-3 are not fully explored within the verification process. This is an important limitation as the material and hence social, and personal, lifeworlds, did change considerably in the final research period, 2003-8.

#### *4.6.2 Access and Ethics*<sup>8</sup>

Prior to the research commencing, the original intention was to concentrate on one GSB as an in-depth case study using another school as a pilot for developing and refining interview protocols. Unfortunately access to both of these schools was problematic and ultimately resulted in an unavoidable limitation to the overall project. The intended case study school refused to be a single case study and voiced concerned that the researcher's

---

<sup>8</sup> Ethics Approval for the respective universities was granted in 2002 and 2008. Further information is provided in Appendix 3 but ethics approval for one university was not included as it identified the case study institution, which has been assured anonymity.

employment at another GSB was a potential conflict of interest. Access to other than public documentation was refused on the basis of commercial sensitivities. Similarly, access to the intended pilot study school was initially refused on the grounds of inter-school competition and the potential for negative comparisons between the schools. Access to both schools was eventually obtained but only after separate ethics approvals on the condition of complete anonymity of the school. Additionally, the intended case study school made it a condition of access that at least two other schools be included in the research and only a sample of academics be interviewed. There were no access nor ethics issues with the third school, which accepted the ethics approvals from the other two schools.

At the time, these issues and conditions of access were seen as a major limitation to the research design as the ability to carry out an in-depth study of one school and so develop deeper understanding of the lifeworlds of the academics was not possible. Ethics approvals restricted the research to the identification of generalities common to all three schools, thus limiting the description of specific contexts that are normally important for such research. With the benefit of hindsight, the use of three schools, combined with the extended research period, allowed the researcher to observe more general trends across the three schools, especially in the changes that occurred in the third phase of the research. Hence the trade off for the limitation of depth was greater generalisation. Ethics approval for contact with the participants in 2008 was less problematic.

#### *4.6.3 Method Limitations*

Limitations on method include the restricted sample of academics within each school and restrictions on the overall sample, the historical and document analysis and the data collection, both instrument and time of interviews. Each of these limitations is now discussed in more detail.

First, limitations with the sample include its size, representativeness, ethics restrictions and response rate in the verification stage. Both the size and representativeness of the sample of academic interviews pose limitations on the research. Within each school it

would have been ideal to interview the full population of academics. This would have overcome any issues with representativeness as well as provided more data and helped offset the limitations imposed on exploring individual school contexts. Although all but one member of the academic staff employed in one school, the smallest school, was interviewed, the outcome of access and ethics negotiations in another school meant only a sample of academics could be interviewed. In order to gain an evenly distributed sample, it was decided to use the number of academics in the smallest school, eight, as the number to be interviewed in each of the two larger schools. The reality of lining up interviews with academics frequently traveling to conferences and to teach overseas and at different locations, meant that the expected two months for interviewing was extended to eight months and, even then, only five academics could be contacted and interviewed at one school.

Second, a lesser limitation with the sample was its representativeness within the two schools where only a sample of academics was interviewed. The dean or senior academic in each of these schools was asked to provide a list of names that would broadly cover the disciplines, gender and age distribution of the total staff. Although, not totally accurate, the lists and subsequent interviews were generally reflective of the staff profiles for each of the schools, particularly given the difficulties in arranging interviews.

A third limitation of the sample and sampling process was imposed by the restrictions of the ethics approval as discussed earlier. This resulted in the participating academics from each school having to be combined into the one sample to avoid identification and any comparisons that may have led to identification of a particular school. Limiting the researchers' ability to compare the samples between the schools meant that any specific context that may help understand the data and thus the lifeworlds of a particular group of academics had to be omitted. While this was a definite limitation, the instances of specific context difference providing insight into the data were very few and not of major consequence within the broad themes employed.

A fourth limitation concerns the timing of the 2008 verification process. The verification process occurred five years after the first period of interviews, so that participants were relying on more distant memories to verify the data. Although the verifications were unanimous in their confirmation of the stories of their lifeworld in 2002 and 2003, their memories may be affected by time and current circumstances. More immediate confirmation of the original transcripts with additional or clarifying questions would have increased the accuracy. However, experience from several initial transcripts that were returned for confirmation convinced the researcher not to pursue the practice because of the time taken for participants to return the confirmations and the minimalist nature of the return comments.

Fifth, the instrument and data collection were necessary limitations to being able to more closely understand the lifeworlds of the participants. Without the benefit of a full ethnographic study or an action research situation where the researcher remains close to the researched over a period of time, the type of instrument and data collection method used in this study must be necessarily limited as a means of fully comprehending lifeworlds. Despite positivists' concerns that non-standardised instruments are a threat to validity, an unstructured interview is more appropriate an instrument than a structured instrument for gathering data relating to personal lifeworlds, as individual nuances can be elicited, truthfulness of response is enhanced, and immediate clarifications can be made (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). Nevertheless, the pressure on the researcher to keep focus on the interview and cover all areas in a limited time, makes it possible to overlook important clues as well as miss what is not being said. The depth is inevitably compromised by the limited time and contact. Within these limitations, the researcher worked to the best of her ability, using data from other sources and direct observation and experience, to understand the personal lifeworlds of the participants.

#### *4.6.4 Role of researcher*

The role of the researcher is both a limitation and a strength of this research. The researcher was employed as an academic in a GSB. This raises the possible limitation of not only bias of analysis and interpretation but interviewer bias. For the positivist,



researcher bias is a threat to both validity and reliability. However, for non positivists, every individual and therefore interpreter and interviewer must have bias by virtue of their individuality (Fielding and Thomas, 2005). The issue for non-positivist researchers is not about bias per se, as this is taken as given, but about being transparent and self-reflective so there is no pretension to objectivity but an effort to bring forth the voice of the researched within the constraints of the relationship between researcher and researched (McSweeney, 2004).

Related to researcher bias is the issue of the researcher's analytical stance, in this case the adoption of MRT as the lens through which information is gathered, analysed and interpreted. McSweeney (2004) warns of the dangers of self serving bias when adopting a particular ideological approach. When this occurs the data is massaged to fit the approach so that the outcome is obvious from the beginning. The advantage of MRT in overcoming this criticism is that it allows for researcher subjectivity and does not have a predetermined outcome. The evaluation as to whether values have changed in a positive or negative sense is open to interpretation based on the evidence.

From an MRT perspective, mutual trust between interviewer and interviewee is an overriding concern. The issue of trust between the researcher and the actors is critical if meaningful data on personal and social worlds is to be gained. In this regard, the researcher's position at another university may have inhibited the participants as the place and position of the researcher's employment was made clear in introductory emails and at the commencement of each interview. On the other hand, sharing similar worlds with the participant is likely to enhance trust, as well as minimise the need to explain terminology and background. Notwithstanding the concerns of senior management in relation to potential conflict of interest, there appeared no signs of hesitation by participants to openly discuss their careers and values. All interviews could be described as relaxed and open with the researcher following Merton's (cited in Fielding and Thomas, 2005) seminal advice for non-standard interviewing: minimal direction from the interviewer, full explanations from the interviewee and elucidation of the value laden implications of the response through the interview process.

In sum, the researcher's personal involvement with the topic has potential limitations and strengths. While the researcher has over 25 years personal experience as a student and academic in management education, substantial self examination and reflection was required to ensure bias was minimised and/or made explicit in the interpretation of data and in drawing conclusions from the analysis. One of the attractions of using MRT for this study was that "in the end, research involves a pedagogy of personal and social transformation" (Cresswell, 1998, p. 82).

#### *4.6.5 Verification procedures and adherence to theoretical framework*

The nature of MRT research means that reciprocity between researcher and researched is built into the research design throughout the three stages of formation of critical theorems, enlightenment and development of strategies (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2004). The stages of enlightenment and action, in particular, require the involvement of the actors in understanding and refining the analysis and in developing and selecting strategies (Laughlin, 1987; Mingers, 1997b). The stage of enlightenment for this study was contained in the verification and follow-up process where engagement with the participants was necessarily limited to verifying and updating their situations and attitudes after a period of five years. Hence the level of engagement and reciprocity between researcher and researched was restricted to two events, the interview and the verification follow-up activity.

The third and final stage of a MRT research design, development of strategies, is based on the previous two stages and occurs when the researcher hands over to the participants the responsibility for developing the strategies. There is no role for the researcher apart from that of external advisor, a role outside the research process. The final diversity of location and employment of the participants in this research were not conducive, nor possibly appropriate, to an organised third stage of research. Hence reciprocity between researcher and participants was limited to the first and second stages of the research design for MRT.

## **4.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has detailed the research methods, including their relationship to the MRT methodology, their soundness and their limitations. The research covered three periods and the design was adapted from MRT methodology, examining the three elements of a society or organisation (system/subsystem; steering media/design archetype; and lifeworld/interpretative schema). To more fully understand the three lifeworlds (material; social and personal), Mingers' (1997b) approach to studying lifeworlds by dividing them into discrete steps (appreciation, analysis, assessment and action) was adopted.

In line with MRT, the methods employed were essentially qualitative, involving historical research, document analysis and interviewing. A main focus of the research is change in lifeworlds or interpretative schema of a sample of GSB academics in response to changes in the AHES over a five period between Phases Two and Three of the research. Coding and story development were used to analyse, interpret and verify the responses of the participating academics. The outcomes of the research, especially the first two periods, are found in the six papers summarised in the following Chapter Five.

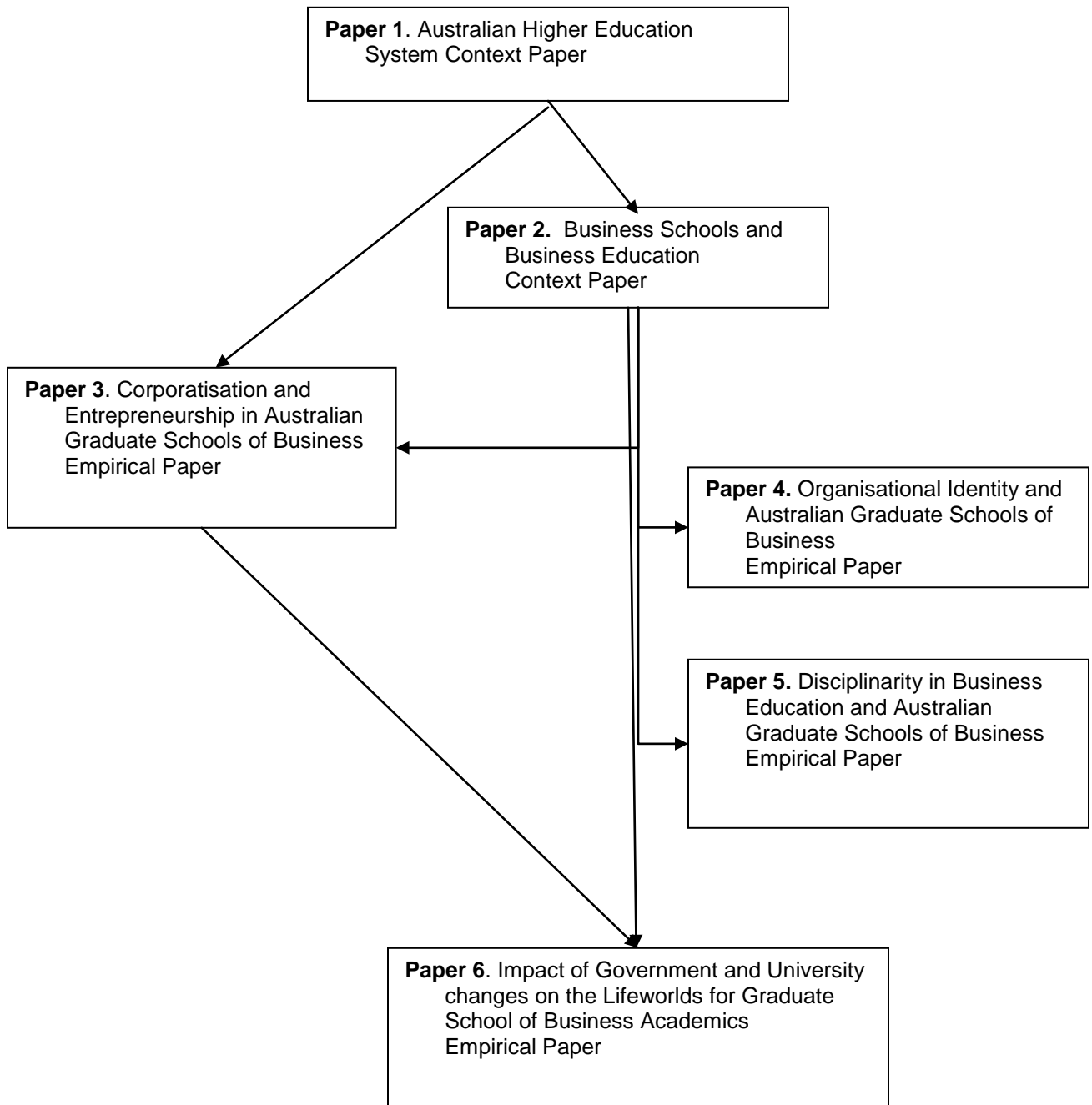
## Chapter Five: Overview of Papers

### 5.1 Introduction

The six papers accompanying this thesis were written to consolidate the research results and complement the literature review in Chapter Two by providing more detailed background and understanding on specific areas such as developments in AHES, business schools and business education. The papers were written between October 2006 and December 2008. With the exception of **Paper One**, which is a book chapter devoted to changes in the AHES, the other papers were presented at international refereed conferences and redeveloped for submission to journal publications. **Papers One and Two** are concerned to capture historical and current issues while the remaining papers explore specific issues in relation to the research findings. Papers One and Two are background papers on the AHES and business schools respectively.

**Papers Three, Four and Five** incorporate, to varying extents, the results from interviews with graduate school of business academics in 2002-3 to examine lifeworld issues more closely. **Paper Three** is concerned with attitudes of academics toward the imposition of modernisation or new public management practices onto their work lives. **Paper Four** explores the competing pressures of teaching, research and money making on the identities of academics. **Paper Five** builds on Papers Two and Four to examine issues of disciplinarity and the tensions between government rhetoric to increase ‘relevant’ (interdisciplinary) education and institutional and government reward mechanisms that militate against the development of interdisciplinarity as a basis for a distinct discipline of management within already multi-disciplinary schools of business. The final **Paper Six** compares the findings of the 2002/2003 interviews with those in 2008 employing Laughlin’s (1991) theory of organisational change. Figure 5.1 below is a schematic representation of the type of papers and their relationship to one another.

**Figure 5.1 Schematic Representation of Paper Type and Interrelationships**



This chapter proceeds by summarising and locating each of the six papers in relation to each other and to the overall thesis.

## **5.2 Paper One: Australian Higher Education Transformed: From central co-ordination to control**

Paper One is the scene setting paper for the subsequent five papers and the thesis. It provides the background to the AHES and the significant corporatisation processes it has undergone as a result of government intervention in recent decades. Emphasis is given to the roles of government funding and performance measurement mechanisms in steering the AHES from a domestic social institution to a competitive export industry and facilitating increasing government control of the higher education system.

The paper proposes four waves of reforms to the AHES commencing with the abolition of student fees as the first wave in 1973. A second wave of reforms in the mid 1980s was marked by the Government employing funding mechanisms in the guise of introducing fees for international and postgraduate students and combining colleges of advanced education with universities to produce a unified system of universities. The far reaching consequences of the second wave of reforms include the move into international student markets and an increasing focus on generating non-government funding sources through research and teaching. The universities' embrace of marketisation, encouraged by reduced government funding, led to government concerns over competition and accountability and a third wave of reforms in the mid-1990s. The third wave marked a distinct move from government co-ordination to greater control as government policies and funding attempted to regulate markets and extract increased accountability from universities. It was during this phase that academic managers and cultures became more managerialist in response to the measures and behaviours required of them by government. Increased competition eventually led the government to express concerns over the quality of Australian education and subsequently impose the fourth and most intrusive wave of reforms on the AHES in 2003. These reforms aimed at gaining even further compliance, efficiencies and quality measurements and saw the government essentially micro-managing the university.

In addition to detailing the mechanisms by which government brought about reforms through the third and fourth waves, the paper concentrates on the consequences of the

reforms for university governance, structure, culture and academic work. Evidence from government reports and enquiries, statistics, research and media commentary is used in the paper to illustrate the dramatic changes in the composition, governance, funding mix and culture brought upon universities commencing with the third wave of reforms in the mid-1990s.

The contribution of the paper is in providing an updated overview of changes to the AHES in the recent decade. Also it demonstrates the rapidity and commitment with which university managers acquiesced to government steering by quickly adopting the processes and languages of the corporation to further impose the changes in their own institutions. Additionally, Paper One points to the rise of business schools and education as direct response to demands from student markets and for institutional revenue. It is relevant to note that the two data collection periods for the PhD research occurred in 2002/2003 when the impacts from the third wave of reforms were well entrenched and in 2008 when reforms from the fourth wave had been in existence for four years.

### **5.3 Paper Two: Management Education in Australia: Relevance Lost?**

As indicated in Paper One, Australian business schools were at the forefront of changes brought about by government policies to deregulate higher education, especially in relation to revenue generation through postgraduate and international student fees. Paper Two expands on the role of business schools by providing context for understanding the origins of, and issues for, business schools and business education, both globally and in Australia. In particular, Paper Two complements the literature review in Chapter Two and provides essential background to Papers Three, Four, Five and Six, which include research findings and analyses.

The paper is centred on the age old debate of academic rigour versus practical relevance within business education, debates that represent essential discourses for communicating and understanding the state of one's field. Paper Two demonstrates the important role played by business schools in facilitating the shift from education as a public good to a

private service. Despite the debates over the relevance of business education to either academe or practice, the realities have been largely influenced by external forces such as market competition, accreditation and, most significantly, the need to raise additional funds. Swings away from practice toward academic rigour and vice versa have been the result of these forces rather than the outcome of internal reflection and debate. In sum, business schools generally appear to be more sensitive to external influences than the more traditional university disciplines and professions.

Unlike their colleagues in the USA and the United Kingdom, the contribution of Australian business academics to debates and discussions on the state of business education has been minimal. They have perhaps been too busy responding to institutional demands for revenue. Not coincidentally, in Australia, the appearance and rapid growth of business schools quickly followed major policy and funding changes in the AHES that encouraged universities to raise funds, especially from student fees. Australian business schools led the way in developing international and postgraduate student markets and, in so doing, became their institutions' 'cash cow'. However, financial and international success has been at a cost. Business schools have had the highest staff-student ratios, the highest levels of casually employed academics, among the lowest levels of research output and the greatest fragmentation in hours and locations of teaching.

More recently, the business school is under threat from a range of factors including: volatile student markets, further changes in government policies including the emergence of competition from private providers, increasingly intrusive institutional policies and a proposed national research measurement exercise. In many ways, the story of Australian business schools exemplifies the story of modernisation in Australian higher education. Business schools have lived and perhaps will die because of their accommodating responses to corporatisation and marketisation. As their capacity to contribute financially is lessened, so to is their place within the university, unless business schools are able to develop a value proposition more strongly tied to the 'idea of a university' rather than a



market. The Australian business school may be seen as a litmus test for the wider AHES in managing the tensions between academic values and corporatisation.

The contribution of Paper Two lies in its addition to the scarce literature on Australian business schools, in particular its articulation of current issues facing business schools. As the creation of the second wave of Government reforms, business schools have been instrumental in attracting fee-paying students, but this has been at the cost of education quality and reflection on their purpose and place in a university.

#### **5.4 Paper Three: Collegial Entrepreneurialism: Australian Graduate Schools of Business**

This paper forms a link between Papers One and Two by exploring the impacts of government and institution adoption of modernisation practices on the lives of academics in graduate business schools. The paper combines background information from Papers One and Two with evidence from interviews with business academics in 2002-3, prior to the most recent wave of higher education reforms by government. Because GSB were among the most highly commercialised academic units within a university, perceptions of their work and the imposition of modernisation practices provide insights into evaluating the types and success of change within the AHES generally.

The paper is concerned with if, why and how academics from the entrepreneurial peripheries manage the tensions between commercialism and academic values, and to what extent these experiences represent an example of 'collegial entrepreneurialism', as a counter to the excesses of modernisation practices. The term 'collegial entrepreneurialism' refers to an approach by universities that confronts the challenges presented by increasing commercialisation of higher education by building on traditional academic processes of collegiality to protect academic values. For some, the term is an oxymoron, for others it is a potential alternative to the consequences of wholesale adoption of modernisation.

The academics' experience of dealing with three consequences of modernisation, ('hard' managerialism, academic consumerism and fragmentation of work) provides insight into whether collegiality and the maintenance of academic values can exist within an entrepreneurial academic unit. Results indicate evidence of 'collegial entrepreneurialism', although the balance between collegiality and entrepreneurialism was threatened by increasingly managerialist steering from university management and, in certain instances, the Dean. People, rather than policy or process appear more influential in affecting positive or negative change within the academic unit. Similar to Papers Four and Five, because Paper Three used evidence from the first series of interviews with GSB academics, it provided the opportunity to engage with the data in greater depth, without the contamination of knowing the changes that occurred in the subsequent five years. The contribution of Paper Three lies in it being a micro level examination of the effects of both government policy and institutional responses on an academic unit and individuals in it.

### **5.5 Paper Four: Australian Business Schools: More than 'commercial enterprise'?**

Paper Four incorporates background from Papers One and Two to focus on the impacts of competing discourses arising from debates about business education and changes to the AHES on GSB academics. The paper follows on from Paper Three with the theme of being an entrepreneurial unit and extends this to examine the effect on academic identity. While the paper makes some use of the evidence provided by academics in 2002-3, evidence from other research on the identity of business academics is also employed.

The identity theory of Laclau and Mouffe (1985), adapted to organisations, particularly business schools, by Bridgman (2005), is used as a basis to examine both general issues in the 'relevance' of business education debates and their pertinence to Australian business schools based on three competing identities: the 'academic department', the professional school' and the 'commercial enterprise'. The paper concludes that, although pressures from external government policies and internal institutional priorities have

resulted in business schools becoming ‘cash cows’, appearing to privilege the ‘commercial enterprise’ discourse over the others, the values and identities of individual academics and their academic units remain firmly aligned with the ‘professional school’ and ‘academic department’.

A chief contribution of Paper Four is to demonstrate the difference in outcome when evaluating the effects of change if the voices of those affected by change are included in the evaluation. Without access to the personal experiences and perceptions of academics, it is easy to conclude from ‘objective’ facts that business schools and their academics, have been captured by the ‘commercial enterprise’ discourse of corporatisation. Again, this paper, like Paper Three, and the following Paper Four, provides insight into the personal worlds of academics, at least their worlds at a certain point in time, 2002/2003. At a more general level, the competing discourses can easily be applied to universities as they struggle to find their identities in the face of contradictory messages from government and institutional steering mechanisms.

## **5.6 Paper Five: Interdisciplinarity and Management Education: Australian Graduate Schools of Business**

Paper Five explores issues of disciplinarity and interdisciplinarity in the context of a graduate school of business. Business education is one of the few areas of higher education without a distinct disciplinary base, or at least a base formed around converging disciplines. Paper Five is strongly linked to Paper Two, where interdisciplinarity is seen as the means to establishing legitimacy between academics and business practitioners. However, as mentioned in Paper Four and Chapter Two, the discipline is a major source of academic identity. Thus GSB academics are torn between their discipline and the desire to develop an interdisciplinary knowledge base that reflects the complexities of business and management. Paper Five contributes to the broader topic of academic values and the corporatisation of the AHES by revealing the underlying paradoxes of government and institutional rhetoric about making education more ‘relevant’ (interdisciplinary), while at the same time encouraging and rewarding

single disciplinary research through national research measurement exercises and selection and promotion criteria.

Interdisciplinarity is a controversial and complex process that is variously accused of either undermining the heart of the university by weakening disciplinary roots, or maintaining it through ensuring its current relevance to a knowledge intensive society. Over the years, single disciplines within business education have merged, fragmented and multiplied into various fields of diverse study but failed to establish a centrally focused interdisciplinary base similar to other professional disciplines and from which it may gain practical and academic legitimacy.

The paper revisits the work of Knights and Willmott (1997), which canvassed issues of interdisciplinarity in management education in the UK, reaching a pessimistic conclusion that historical and institutional processes present obstacles to interdisciplinary teaching and research. These obstacles promote discipline based research and detract time and effort from other scholarly, and potentially interdisciplinary, endeavours that might better establish the legitimacy of business education. Using evidence from the 2002/2003 interviews with GSB academics, the paper indicates that despite institutional obstacles, there were signs of both interest in, and existence of, interdisciplinarity in the GSB at that time. However, the evidence was taken before the emergence of a proposed national research measurement exercise, the Research Quality Framework (RQF) in 2005, which substantially effected the behaviours of institutions and academic units as they prepared for the implementation of the RQF.

Paper Four again provided the opportunity to further understand the lives and values of GSB academics at a point in time and to do so from the perspective of their intellectual roots and commitments. Its contribution is in examining the role of disciplinarity in a multidisciplinary academic unit. For GSB academics, the profession rather than the discipline is their main source of value formation. Although the development of interdisciplinarity is important for the credibility of business or management as a distinct

field of study, institutional rewards and publication conventions remain barriers to its realisation.

### **5.7 Paper Six: Lifeworld Change in an Australian Graduate School of Business: The Bill Stories.**

Paper Six is the culmination of the research for the thesis. The paper presents stories to describe changes in the lifeworld of 'Bill', a symbolic typical academic employed in an autonomous graduate school of business in 2002/2003 and 2008. The 2002/2003 story is an amalgam of the interviews with 21 academics in three autonomous graduate schools of business. The 2008 story is based on follow-up interviews and written responses from 19 of the original 21 academics. In the space of the five years, 'Bill' changes from being highly engaged and loyal to his school to being withdrawn and cynical as his AGSB is stripped of its autonomy and modernisation practices dominate. The majority of respondents had left their School by 2008 and the few who remained were seeking other positions.

The change in 'Bill's' lifeworld is interpreted using the 'skeletal' theory of organisational change developed by Laughlin (1991) and incorporating Habermasian notions of societal change as discussed in Chapter Three of the thesis. The paper concludes that the second and third waves of higher education sector reforms outlined in Paper One facilitated evolutionary change among graduate business school academics in 2002/2003. However, the fourth wave of reform, together with a Government proposal to introduce a national research measurement, forced academics to reorientate to avoid colonisation. Most did so by leaving the AGSB, while others escaped colonisation by withdrawing into their own work and minimising contact with their School.

Paper Six integrates with the other papers and Chapters in the thesis in the following way. The first part of the paper relies on Papers One and Two for the background to AHES and business schools, while a brief overview of Chapters Three and Four constitutes the method and theoretical approach within the paper. The summary of large scale studies of

AHES academics found in Chapter Two is used in the paper to provide contrast between the 'Bill' stories and the general profile of Australian academics in both periods. The unique contribution of Paper Six to the thesis is to bring together the findings from both periods of the research and interpret them. In terms of the broader purpose of this thesis to investigate tensions between academic values and the corporatisation of Australian higher education, the evidence indicates that the value clash arising from corporatisation of the AHES is between managerialism and notions of academic freedom and autonomy, rather than between market models and academic values. The potential conflict between market and academic values was the focus of Paper Three.

In addition to being the culmination of the research, Paper Six draws implication for future AHES policy and provides further research directions. The results highlight the positive and negative effects of institutional implementation of government policies. In particular, academic unit autonomy and size is shown to play a positive role in fostering academic engagement, while bureaucratic control mechanisms and large academic units promote disengagement and resentment among academics.

## **5.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has summarised each of the six papers that form part of this PhD thesis, linking each to the topic of the thesis, the literature review and to each other. The papers are relevant to understanding both the context and the content of the thesis. The literature review was revised to minimise overlap and maximise complementarities. The first two papers provide essential background to understanding the history and issues within the AHES and business education respectively. Papers Three, Four and Five build on the issues in the first two papers to offer an informed empirical undertaking of the world of AGSB academics and their response to changes in the broader system at a specific point in time, six years before the completion of the thesis. Paper Six represents the culmination of the research, comparing results from the two periods in terms of changes in the AHES as a result of the fourth wave of Government reform. The final paper relates strongly to Papers One, Two and Three as well as to Chapters Two, Three and Four.

Paper Six also provides policy implications for the AHES as at November 2008 and issues for further research which are taken up in the following and final chapter.

## **Chapter Six: Conclusion**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The empirical findings from this thesis are unashamedly from the perspective of the organisational participants, the academics. From this perspective, Government policies are divorced from day to day life. The institutional response to Government is far more relevant. Hence, even if the government's response to the review of AHES (Bradley et al., 2008) is one that provides more money or more institutional autonomy, the question remains of how the universities will respond. Will they be capable of reversing over a decade of bureaucratic control to free academics to pursue what is most important, scholarship? Ultimately future change in the lives and values of academics will depend not on the Government's review but the Universities' response to it.

The research in this thesis has examined changes in the AHES and business schools. It has studied the impacts of change through a longitudinal study of academics in graduate schools of business. The research has found that it is possible to be entrepreneurial without loss of academic values as long as academics perceive they have ownership and autonomy. Without ownership and autonomy, it is less possible to maintain commitment to and engagement with an academic unit or institution.

As outlined in Chapter One, this thesis had four aims. The first aim was to analyse changes in the AHES. The second aim was to analyse the role of business schools and issues in business education arising from changes in the AHES. The third aim was to analyse the impact of change on the identities and values of GSB academics with a focus on three specific issues: the effects of modernisation and entrepreneurial practices; the impact of change on individual identity; and the role of disciplinarity and value formation. The fourth aim was to evaluate the types of change in the AHES and responses to it by GSB academics.

In order to satisfy these aims, the research adopted an MRT approach whereby both an external objectivity and researcher subjectivity is acknowledged. In line with MRT, qualitative methods, primarily documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews,



were employed in undertaking the research. Documentary analysis and literature review were the main bases for developing an understanding of the AHES and business schools. A longitudinal case study of 21 GSB academics was the basis of examining the impacts of system change on academics. Findings from the longitudinal research were interpreted in the light of a 'skeletal' theory of organisational change.

The purpose of this concluding chapter is to summarise the empirical findings of the research arising from inquiry into each of the aims and to reflect on its implications for policy at various levels and for further research. The chapter is organised as follows. Section 6.2 reviews the motivation of the research. Section 6.3 summarises the major findings in relation to the research aims and their contribution. Section 6.4 presents the implications in terms of policy observations and suggestions for future research.

## **6.2 Motivation**

This thesis was motivated by the researcher's experience as a graduate school of business academic teaching offshore. Early experiences of offshore teaching were on one hand an exciting learning opportunity, but on the other an explicit exercise in revenue collection rather than quality education or developing research agendas. The research for this thesis involved a journey requiring a greater understanding of government policy, higher education, institutional governance and business schools, in a sense putting one's own experience into a wider context. Since starting the journey, offshore teaching has become part of the AHES landscape. Although it remains an important source of revenue for institutions, teaching quality has improved, research links have grown and cross cultural appreciation among business academics has increased. Once the journey commenced, the literature opened up many other avenues for exploration and explanation and became a legitimate source of motivation.

Although the literature offered background to debates on higher education reform and aggregate data on its impacts, there was little available by way of qualitative case studies or longitudinal research, and even less on Australian business schools that provided depth

of understanding. Similarly, the literature on academic values was generally divorced from the literature on higher education reform. Thus these gaps in the literature served as formal motivations for the research. A final but important motivator was a reading of Habermasian theory and its adaptation to understanding organisational change by Laughlin (1991). Once exposed to this form of critical thinking, it was difficult to retreat as it allows not only a critique of the status quo but encourages a need for emancipation. Not all change is good, nor is it bad, but understanding is the first step in making an informed judgement.

### **6.3 Findings and Contribution**

The purpose of this section is to summarise the empirical findings, conclusions and contribution from each of the four research aims by addressing each aim in order. The section concludes with the central messages from the research.

#### *6.3.1 The first aim: to analyse changes in the AHES.*

Paper One examined the four waves of Government reform to higher education and the response of the AHES from the first wave of reform in 1972 to the most recent wave in 2003. It is argued that the Australian government employed funding mechanisms to steer Australian universities from their role as a domestic social institution to a competitive export industry, with a consequent shift in the role of central government from co-ordination to control. The paper finds that although such reforms were not unique to the AHES, the speed and compliance with which AHES adopted the reforms were particular to Australia. Institutional responses to government policies and processes are found to include: (1) the move from full government funding to partial subsidisation caused universities to cut costs and find new forms of revenues, especially from international student markets; (2) as a consequence of meeting the demand for fee-paying students, the balance of disciplines and mix of students became distorted; (3) reductions in expenditures meant a change in academic workloads with a resultant decline in the quality of academic work; and (4) the reliance on tied central government grants was used to direct industrial relations, governance structures, and quality of teaching and

research priorities. In sum, Paper One demonstrates government funding mechanisms and policy to be powerful instruments of transformation in the AHES.

Further analysis of the AHES in Chapters Two and Three indicates not only the strength of the change within institutional structures and processes but also the resistance to change from academics. Chapter Two examines the 'Idea of a University' through debates on whether traditional values should change, or have changed. It contributes further background to the reasons for, and impacts of, corporatisation and globalisation on the AHES and provides updated statistical information and an analysis of large scale surveys of Australian academics carried out between 1977 and 2007. The analysis of the research and literature on the AHES points to increasingly controlling institutions and increasingly dissatisfied academics. Chapter Three uses both the literature and research in Chapter Two to demonstrate evidence for second order changes in the AHES initiated by government steering media and mechanisms but also embraced by the institutions' own steering media and use of steering mechanisms. Taken together, Paper One and Chapters Two and Three provide strong evidence for the colonising impact of both government and institutional steering media on academic life, however evidence for acceptance of change by academics is less certain.

### *6.3.2 The second aim: to analyse the role of business schools and issues in business education arising from changes in the AHES.*

Paper Two offers the major findings for this aim. Australian business schools, unlike the USA, were essentially creatures of transformation in the AHES and as such worthy of investigation. The paper reviews debates on management/business education from the USA and the UK in relation to the relevance of business research and teaching and the impacts on both of engaging in market competition and on the ultimate value proposition of a business school. When the issues from these debates are applied to Australian business schools, the paper finds that the role of institutional 'cash cow' has overshadowed all else. In the aggregate, Australian business schools appear compliant handmaidens in the institutional steering of higher education from social institution to

export industry. However, their role may be changing. Excessive reliance on international student markets and the emergence of private competitors pose a threat to their continued financial success, just as lessening quality poses a threat to reputation. There is evidence that business schools are restructuring themselves to meet the challenges of a proposed national research assessment framework. Yet without a value proposition that clearly identifies the business school as a legitimate part of the university, wholesale adaptation to a research imperative may be little different to that of revenue. As largely the creation of government policy through institutional need for revenue, the business school has been a forerunner in the new world of Australian higher education and its future may be indicative of the impact of that change on the wider system.

Chapter Two contributes to the analysis of business schools and business education in two ways. First, it points out the link between the decline in government funds and deregulation to allow fee-paying international and postgraduate students and the phenomenal rise of Australian business schools, a rise that has not sat easily within the broader university. Second, the Chapter reviews the few empirical studies on Australian business schools, including their scale, environment and values. The chapter concludes that business schools generally are overworked and under resourced; exceptions to this observation were the autonomous graduate schools of business which are described as small, highly focussed and highly motivated.

*6.3.3. The third aim: to analyse the impact of change on the identities and values of GSB academics with a focus on three specific issues: the effects of modernisation and entrepreneurial practices; the impact of change on individual identity; and the role of disciplinarity and value formation.*

Evidence from Papers Three, Four and Five suggests that, despite being in an entrepreneurial and multidisciplinary academic unit, GSB academics hold to traditional academic values concerned with academic freedom and belief in the 'Idea of a University' as a place for unfettered acquisition and transmission of knowledge. Chapter

Two provides a review of literature on academic values and identities that gives greater depth to the themes in each paper. Paper Three, based on interviews from 2002-3 finds that, contrary to much of the rhetoric in the literature, being a profit making unit was not a threat to values but rather enabled the AGSB to have sufficient resources to enhance academic values. However, being an entrepreneurial unit fragmented work and lessened opportunities for collegiality, while modernisation practices were viewed as an unnecessary annoyance. Paper Four uses evidence from the same period to explore competing identities within the AGSB. Although business schools are uncertain as to their identity and purpose (Paper Two), the research finds that the academics identify as teachers and researchers and not at all as part of a 'commercial enterprise'.

Paper Five, in exploring the role of disciplinarity in the formation of academic identity and values, uses the evidence from 2002-3 to find that the identity and values of AGSB academics are formed more by the academic profession than specific disciplines. The academics, although keen to develop interdisciplinary teaching and research to reflect the realities of management, are thwarted by institutional reward systems and publishing conventions that privilege disciplinary attachment. Papers Three, Four and Five combine to establish that the AGSB academics held values and identities reflecting respect for the university as a social institution, but at the same time were interested in pursuing new areas of teaching and research that were entrepreneurial and multidisciplinary. Paper Six, however, reveals that when the Dean was neither able nor willing to protect them from external disturbances imposed by the institution, the majority of AGSB academics withdrew from engagement with their school in order to protect their values and maintain identity.

*6.3.4. The fourth aim: to evaluate the types of change in the AHES and responses to it by GSB academics.*

Although Chapters Two and Three and Papers One and Two indicate colonisation by both government and institutions, Papers Three, Four and Five point to a failure of colonisation at the levels of academic unit and individual academic. However, these latter papers were based on data prior to impacts from the fourth wave of government

reform. Paper Six is based on the evidence from two periods of research, 2002-3 and 2008. It is focused on the relationship between changes in institutional policies and processes and their effect on AGSB academics for both periods. The findings suggest that institutional focus on revenue raising through the development of fee-paying student markets prior to 2003 created a form of evolutionary change for the AGSB and its academics. The AGSB was at the forefront of change in terms of its students, programs and governance. Its academics were engaged and committed to their school. By 2008, the institutional focus had changed to greater control over both academics and cash flows and steering toward meeting the requirements of a proposed national research measurement exercise. For the AGSB, this meant loss of autonomy and dissolution into large undergraduate faculties. Along with the loss of autonomy, was the loss of ownership manifested in the disillusionment and apathy of the academics, symptoms suggestive of colonisation. The magnitude of government and institutional change in the period 2002-8 was such that the AGSB Deans and its academics were no longer able to resist the steering mechanisms imposed by the University. From the perspective of the academics, it presented change of a colonising nature from which they escaped or avoided by either leaving or withdrawing into their own work. For the academics remaining in what was once the AGSB, their interactions with their institution had become purely transactional.

Based on Laughlin's (1991) 'skeletal' theory of organisational change and from the perspective of AGSB academics, the types of change that resulted from the implementation of higher education reforms prior to 2003 would be judged to have been evolutionary, while those after 2003 would be judged to have colonising effects that the academics chose to avoid. Appendix Six provides greater detail of the results in the form of a table comparing the lifeworlds and themes of respondents over the two periods.

### *6.3.5 Central Messages from the Research*

The central contributions or messages from this research at the levels of government, institution, academic unit and academic are now summarised.

First, at the level of government, previous governments' intentions in steering change to meet global and technological challenges were no doubt well intentioned and in several important aspects created evolutionary change in the AHES. However, in many other aspects that go to the heart of the 'Idea of a University', the change has been colonising from the perspective of its organisational participants and has moved universities from their role as a social institution toward being an economic institution.

Second, at the institutional level, universities through their steering media, have too easily surrendered their autonomy to reshape themselves in the image of a corporation using similar transactional and controlling mechanisms to gain compliance from academics. As the steering media and mechanisms closest to organisational participants, university managers and mechanisms have the greatest impact on academic behaviour. Their perceived willingness to give business objectives the same or greater status as traditional beliefs in academic freedom and the unfettered pursuit of knowledge, has cast them in role of colonisers of the academic lifeworld. This role has been reinforced by their use of steering mechanisms and language that more closely resemble the corporate world of command and control.

Third, at the level of the academic unit, in this case the business school, business schools generally were created in response to demand from fee-paying students and quickly became the institutional 'cash cow'. In many ways large business schools were the symbol of government and institutional change, albeit that they were overworked and under-resourced without a value proposition that placed them within the 'Idea of a University'. On the other hand, autonomous graduate schools of business, while they were small autonomous units, they enjoyed the benefits of committed and engaged academics and being well resourced in comparison to other academic units at the time. They had in many ways experienced evolutionary change as a result of fee deregulation with the sector. Their size, autonomy and entrepreneurial spirit allowed them to ward off the more colonising effects of institutional change. However, along with a new steering toward research, their financial success was also their downfall. By 2008, their institutions had stripped away their autonomy and merged them into large business

schools distancing them from ownership of their programs and entrepreneurial ventures. The inability or unwillingness of their own steering media, the deans, to fend off institutional incursions ultimately resulted in their decline. People not processes facilitated what they perceived as colonising influences of their lifeworlds.

Finally, at the level of the individual academic, individual and collective values and beliefs are reinforced through processes of collegiality and communication. Entrepreneurship was never a threat to these values while ever academics felt ownership over their work and environment. Once collegiality, communication and ownership were diminished, most academics protected their lifeworlds by leaving the school or withdrawing their commitment to it. Although individual withdrawal is a common form of academic resistance, as a longer term strategy to maintain collective values, it is a passive form of resistance that further weakens communication and allows colonising forces to take hold. New academics will enter an organisational lifeworld without the benefit of critique.

Overall, the contribution of this research has been in gaining a deeper understanding of organisational change and its impact on the lives of those affected by change within the AHES. In particular, it has shown the relationship between government policy, institutional response and implementation, and the effect on an academic unit and its academics. The research has implications for government, institutions and academic units and raises questions for further investigation.

#### **6.4 Implications**

The purpose of this final section is to suggest policy implications for various stakeholders in higher education and further research to investigate some of the unanswered questions raised by the research. The section begins with a discussion of the implications for the AHES, individual institutions and business schools followed by suggestions for further research in relation to the roles of university management and heads of schools in facilitating or absorbing change and the future of the business school.



First, the policy implications for the government, institutions and business schools are addressed. The Howard Government was transparent in its desire to see the AHES transformed into an economic institution. Although the AHES appears to have demonstrated its compliance with this vision, the ideals of the current Rudd Government are more complex. It wants a higher education system that is 'world class' in knowledge generation and one that ensures social justice and equity but also maintains its economic contribution to the economy. The exact role of higher education has probably never been as clear as during the past decade with the Howard Government firmly in control. It was not a role that sat comfortably with academics, but it was clear. If the Rudd Government maintains the same level of control, and if universities continue to be as compliant as they have in the past, the ideals of the current government will require them to steer their institutions in conflicting directions. If government wants its higher education institutions to continue as the "custodian of scientific and cultural capital [and the] critic and conscience of society.. protected from political interference and the vagaries of the market through notions of institutional autonomy and academic freedom" (Senate Committee, 2001, p. 8), then it must abolish steering mechanisms aimed at transactional micromanagement and promote policies to enhance institutional autonomy and social contribution among universities.

From this research, it is clear that the challenge for individual institutions is in being able to manage autonomy after more than a decade of compliance and focus on government demands. University executives appear to have become the captives of corporate ideology to the detriment of being social and knowledge creating institutions. Knowledge creation is based on creativity not control. University executives will have to surrender their pretensions to be bureaucratic corporations and encourage autonomy throughout their institutions in a similar fashion to other knowledge intensive industries. Unravelling the structures and processes put in place to shore up centralised control of their institutions may prove more difficult than government returning autonomy to universities. However, if knowledge creation and transmission are to flourish, then academics need to be empowered and engaged in their work and their institutions, not

reduced to the role of a factory worker. As this research demonstrates, issues such as size, autonomy, focus and feelings of ownership are prerequisites for academic engagement, while bureaucratic systems of command and control are recipes for academic withdrawal and alienation.

For business schools, the message is to stand up and be counted with a value proposition appropriate to being part of a social and knowledge institution. Consideration of what it may take to become a professional school similar to law and medicine may be a starting point in developing a purpose that is relevant and rigorous. Business academics, more than most, should be aware of the danger of following fads and the importance of purpose.

Second, suggestions for further research include a focus on roles of university executives and heads of school in absorbing or facilitating unwanted change into their institutions and academic units respectively and the future of business schools. From the perspective of the academics in this research, university executives were the steering media responsible for attempting to colonise their lifeworlds. However, the academics charged with the management of universities were, and probably still are, respected scholars who also hold to academic values and the 'Idea of a University'. The question of what happens to these scholars once they are in positions of power and what prevents them from protecting, rather than appearing to destroy, academic values and freedom lies behind all aspects of this research. Perhaps they have been colonised by requirements of survival in the face of government steering mechanisms or perhaps they truly believe they are the facilitators of evolutionary change. Although academic managers have been the subject of considerable research, most recently including that of Scott et al. (2008), research inevitably points to the dilemmas faced by these managers rather than the processes behind decisions made. Understanding the lifeworlds of these academics should provide better insight into the reasons for change in AHES institutions.

The role of the head of school or dean in absorbing or facilitating change has direct implications for academic behaviour. Current research points clearly to the importance

of the role played by this person. Research and commentary on the ‘dean’s squeeze’, the conflicts of trying to manage both up and down, (for example, Gallos, 2002 and Scott et al., 2008) abounds. As with senior academic administrators, there is the need to more closely understand not just the issues, but the values and compromises that drive academics in this position. Interviews from the second period of research for this thesis with respondents who had left the AGSB for higher administrative positions provide evidence that while most viewed their primary role as protecting their academics from unnecessary institutional requirements, a minority saw the role as ensuring staff compliance with institutional directives.

Finally, further research is required to provide insights into developing and implementing sound value propositions in business schools. Almost twenty years ago, Sporn (1999) undertook a longitudinal study of five business school in the USA and United Kingdom in search of exemplars in school mission and governance and understanding how these evolved. Revisiting and extending the work of Sporn may assist Australian business schools in developing and implementing relevant value propositions to assure their futures within universities.

This thesis does not mark the end of change but just the beginning, once again. It is hoped, as usual, that an insight into the past, to which this thesis is a small contribution, might further the learning for the future. While ever the values hold, there is hope. In the words of two respondents:

My values about the worth of what academics do for the community have not diminished but my behaviour has (RN 0101151202-04).

Although we have been crushed, I think there is still a kernel of desire among the academics to return (RN 0803100603-04).

## References

- Australian Universities Quality Agency AUQA (2006) *Quality Audit and Assurance for Transnational Higher Education*, AUQA Occasional Publication No. 10, AUQA.
- Allport, C. (1998) Thinking Globally, Acting Locally: Life long learning and the implications for university staff, Keynote address to *Reworking the University Conference*, Griffith University, Queensland, December.
- Anderson, D., Johnson, R. and Saha, L. (2002) *Changes in Academic Work: Implications for Universities for the Changing Age Distribution and Work Roles of Academic Staff*, DEST, Canberra.
- Anderson, G. (2008) Mapping academic resistance in the managerial university, *Organization*, Vol. 15, No. 2, 251-270.
- Arber, S. (2005) Designing Samples, in N. Gilbert (ed) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London, 58 – 82.
- Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) (2001) *Offshore Programs in Australian Universities*, AVCC, Canberra.
- Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) (2005) *Key Statistics on Higher Education*, AVCC, Canberra.
- Barone, T. (2001) Science, art and the predispositions of educational researchers, *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 30, No 7, 24-28.
- Barone, T. and Eisner, E. (2006) Arts-based educational research, in J. L. Green, G. Camilli and P. B. Elmore (ed) *Handbook of Complementary Methods in Education Research*, American Educational Research Association by Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc., 95-110.
- Becher, T. (1989) *Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual inquiry and the Culture of Disciplines*, SRHE and the Open University, Buckingham.
- Becher, T. and Parry, S. (2005) The Endurance of the Disciplines, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 133-144.
- Bellamy, S., Morley, C. and Watty, K. (2003) Why business academics remain in Australian universities despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job

- satisfaction: An intellectual puzzle, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 25, No. 1, 13-28.
- Berg, B. (2001) *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*, Fourth Edition, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.
- Birrell, B. (2006) Implications of low English standards among overseas students at Australian universities, *People and Places*, Vol. 14, No. 4, 51-62.
- Blackburn, R. T. and Lawrence, J. H. (1995) *Faculty at Work: Motivation, Expectation and Satisfaction*, John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
- Bleiklie, I. (2005) Academic Leadership and Emerging Knowledge Regimes, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 189-212.
- Bok, D. (2003) *Universities in the Marketplace*, Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- Boyer, E. L. (1990) *Scholarship Reconsidered: The Priorities of the Professoriate*, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Princeton, New Jersey.
- Bradley, D., Noonan, P., Nugent, H. and Seales, B. (2008) *Review of Australian Higher Education: Final Report*, Commonwealth of Australia, December.
- Brett, J. (2000) Competition and Collegiality, in T. Coady (ed.), *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 144-158.
- Bridgman T. (2005) *Theorising Organizational Identity: The Contribution of Laclau and Mouffe*, paper presented to Sub-theme 30: The Unfolding of Organization Identity at 21<sup>st</sup> EGOS Colloquium, Freie Universität Berlin, June 30 – July 2.
- Broadbent, J. and Guthrie, J. (2008) Public sector to public services: 20 years of ‘alternative’ accounting research’, *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, Vol. 21, No. 2, 129-169.
- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (1997) Developing empirical research: An example informed by a Habermasian Approach, *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, Vol. 10, No 5, 622-648.
- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (1998) Resisting the “new public management” Absorption and absorbing groups in schools and GP practices in the UK, *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, Vol. 11, No. 4, 403-435.

- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (2004) Management of a Research Team, in C. Humphrey and B. Lee, *The Real Life Guide to Accounting Research: A Behind-the –Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, Elsevier, Oxford, 149-161.
- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (2006a) Performance management systems in UK higher education institutions: An analysis of regulatory frameworks, Paper presented at *The 8<sup>th</sup> Interdisciplinary Perspectives on Accounting Conference*, Cardiff Business School, July 10-12.
- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (2006b) Performance management systems: A conceptual model and an analysis of the development and intensification of new public management in the UK, *School of Business and Social Sciences, Roehampton University, Research Paper*, November.
- Broadbent, J. and Laughlin, R. (2008) Performance management systems: A conceptual model, *Roehampton University, Research Paper*, September.
- Broadbent, J., Gallop, C. and Laughlin, R. (2008) An analysis of societal regulatory systems: The case of higher education in England, Paper presented to the *British Accountants Association Conference*, University of Sheffield, April 1-3.
- Broadbent, J., Jacobs, K. and Laughlin, R. (2001) Organisational resistance strategies to unwanted accounting and finance changes. The case of general medical practice in the UK, *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol.14, No 5, 565-586.
- Broadbent, J., Laughlin, R. and Read, S. (1991) recent financial and administrative changes in the NHS: A critical theory analysis, *Critical Perspectives in Accounting*, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1-29.
- Burrell, G. (1994) Modernism, postmodernism and organizational analysis 4: The contribution of Jurgen Habermas, *Organization Studies*, Vol. 15, No. 1, 1-45.
- Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (1979) *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis*, Ashgate Publishing, England.
- Byrt, W. (1989) Management Education in Australia, in W. J. Byrt (ed.), *Management Education - An international Survey*, Routledge, London, 78-103.
- Cain, J. and Hewitt, J. (2004) *Off Course: From Public Place to Marketplace at Melbourne University*, Scribe, Melbourne.

- Carr, A. (2000) Critical theory and the management of change in organizations, *Journal of Organizational Change*, Vol. 13, No. 3, 208-220.
- Cecez-Kecmanovic, D., Juchau, M., Kay, R. and Wright, S. (2002) *Australian Business Education Study: Enhancing the quality of Australian Business Education*, Higher Education Group, Department of Education, Science and Training, June.
- Centre for Academic Integrity (CAI) (1999) *The Fundamental Values of Academic Integrity*, CAI., Illinois.
- Cervini, E. (2006) Universities overly reliant on overseas students, *Australian Financial Review Education Supplement*, July 24, 34.
- Chipman, L. (2000) Academic freedom and the well-managed university, *Policy*, Autumn, 22-30.
- Clarke, B. (1987) *The Academic Life*, Carnegie Foundation, Princeton, NJ.
- Clarke, B. (1998) *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organisational Pathways of Transformation*, Pergamon, Oxford.
- Coady, T. (2000) Universities and the Ideals of Inquiry, in T. Coady (ed) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 3-25.
- Coaldrake, P. and Stedman, L. (1998) *On the Brink: Australia's Universities Confronting Their Future*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, Brisbane.
- Coates, H., Goedegebuure, L., van der Lee, J. and Meek, L. (2008a) *The Australian Academic Profession in 2007: A First Analysis of the Survey Results*, Australian Council for Education Research, Melbourne, and Centre for Higher Education Management and Policy, University of New England, Armidale, March.
- Coates, H., Goedegebuure, L., van der Lee, J. and Meek, L. (2008b) *The Australian Academic Profession in 2007: Survey Methodology and Response Analysis*, Australian Council for Education Research, Melbourne, and Centre for Higher Education Management and Policy, University of New England, Armidale, March.
- Cooper, G. (2001) Conceptualising Social Life, in N. Gilbert (ed.) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998) *Qualitative Enquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.

- Craig, R. J., Clarke, F. L. and Amernic, J. H. (1999) Scholarship in university business schools: Cardinal Newman, creeping corporatism and farewell to the “disturber of the peace”, *Accounting Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol.12, No. 5, 510-524.
- Crotty, M. (1998) *Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney.
- Currie, J. and Newson, J. (1998) Microeconomic Reform through Managerialism in American and Australian Universities, in J. Currie and J. Newson, (eds), *Universities and Globalisation: Critical Perspectives*, Sage Publications, UK.
- Currie, J. and Vidovich L. (2000) Privatization and competition policies for Australian universities, *International Journal of Educational Development*, Vol. 20, No. 2, 135-151.
- Davis, D., Olsen A, and Bohm, A. (eds) (2000) *Transnational Education Providers, Partners and Policy: Challenges for Australian Institutions Offshore, A Research Study*, paper presented at the 14th Australian International Education Conference Brisbane.
- Davis, G. (2006) The rising phoenix of competition, *Griffith Review*, Edition 11, February, 13-31.
- Davis, J. and Harcourt, E (2007) No shonky, cappuccino courses here, mate. UK perspectives on Australian higher education, *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, Vol. 11, No. 4, 116-122.
- Dawkins, J. S. (1988) *Higher Education: A Policy Statement*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Deem, R. (2004) The knowledge worker, the manager-academic and the contemporary UK university: New and old forms of public management, *Financial Accountability & Management*, Vol. 20, No. 2, 107-128.
- Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) (2008) *Publications - Higher Education Statistics Collections*, accessed 26 December, 2008,  
[http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher\\_education/publications\\_resources/statistics/publications\\_higher\\_education\\_statistics\\_collections.htm](http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher_education/publications_resources/statistics/publications_higher_education_statistics_collections.htm)



- Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) (2006) *Students: 2005 Selected Higher Education Statistics, September*, Accessed 21<sup>st</sup> January, 2008.  
[http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher\\_education/publications\\_resources/profiles/students\\_2005\\_selected\\_higher\\_education\\_statistics.htm](http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher_education/publications_resources/profiles/students_2005_selected_higher_education_statistics.htm)
- Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) (2007) *Students: 2006 Selected Higher Education Statistics, September*, Accessed 21<sup>st</sup> January, 2008.  
[http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher\\_education/publications\\_resources/profiles/students\\_2006\\_selected\\_higher\\_education\\_statistics.htm](http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher_education/publications_resources/profiles/students_2006_selected_higher_education_statistics.htm)
- De Zilwa, D. (2005) Using entrepreneurial activities as a means of survival: Investigating the processes used by Australian universities to diversify their revenue streams, *Higher Education*, Vol. 50, No. 3, 385-411.
- De Zilwa, D. (2007) Organisational culture and values and the adaptation of academic units to Australian universities, *Higher Education*, Vol. 54, No. 4, 557-574.
- Dill, D. (1982) The management of academic culture: Notes on the management of meaning and social integration, *Higher Education*, Vol. 11, No. 3, 303-320.
- Dill, D. (1997) Higher education markets and public policy, *Higher Education Policy*, Vol. 10, No.3/4, 167-185.
- Dillard, J. D. (2002) Dialectical possibilities of thwarted responsibilities, *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, Vol. 13, 621-641.
- Duke, C. (2004) Is there an Australian idea of a university? *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 26, No. 3, 297-314.
- Eisner, E. W. (1991) *The Enlightened Eye: Qualitative Inquiry and the Enhancement of Education Practice*, Macmillan, New York.
- Evans, M. (2004) *Killing Thinking: The Death of Universities*, Continuum, London.
- Fielding, J. (2005) Coding and Managing Data, in N. Gilbert (ed) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London, 227-251.
- Fielding, N. and Thomas, H. (2005) Qualitative Interviewing, in N. Gilbert (ed.) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London, 123-144.
- Freedman, M., Hancock, P., Simpson, L. and Sykes, C. (2008) *Business as Usual*, The Carrick Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education Ltd., February.

- Friga, P. N., Bettis, R. A. and Sullivan, R.S. (2003) Changes in graduate management education and new business school strategies for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 2, No. 3, 233-249.
- Gaita, R. (2000) Truth and the University, in T. Coady (ed.) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 26-48.
- Gallagher, M. (2001) Modern University Governance: A National Perspective, in P. Kinnear (ed.) *The 'Idea of a University' Enterprise or Academy?* Australia Institute, No. 39, 49-57.
- Gallos, J. V. (2002) The Dean's Squeeze: The myths and realities of academic leadership in the middle, *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 174-184.
- Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P. and Trow, M. (1994) *The New Production of Knowledge*, Sage, London.
- Gilbert, A. D. (2000) The 'idea of a university' beyond 2000, *Policy*, Autumn, 31-36.
- Gilbert, A. D. (2001) Change Continuity and the 'Idea of a University', in P. Kinnear (ed.) *The 'Idea of a University': Enterprise or Academy?* Australia Institute, No. 39, 1-8.
- Gillard, J. (2008) *A Higher Education Revolution: Creating a Productive, Prosperous, Modern Australia*, Speech by the Minister for Education to the Australian Financial Review Higher Education Conference, March 13.
- Gioia, D. A. and Corley. K. G. (2002) Being good versus looking good: Business school rankings and the Circean transformation from substance to image, *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 107-120.
- Global Alliance Limited (1997) Australian higher education in the era of mass customisation, Appendix 11 to West Committee, *Learning for Life, Review of higher education financing and policy: a policy discussion paper*, Commonwealth of Australia, AGPS, Canberra.
- Goldney, R. (2008) It's all in the brand power, *The Australian Higher Education Supplement*, February 26, p. 32.
- Gordon, R. and Howell, J. (1959) *Higher Education for Business*, Columbia University Press, New York.

- Greenwood, R. and Hinings, C. R. (1988) Organizational design types, Tracks and the dynamics of strategic change, *Organization Studies*, Vol. 9, No. 3, 293-316.
- Gray, R., Guthrie, J. and Parker, L. (2002) Rites of passage and the self-immolation of academic accounting labour: An essay exploring exclusivity vs mutuality in accounting, *Accounting Forum*, Vol. 26, No. 1, 1-30.
- Gumport, P. J. (2005) The Organisation of Knowledge: Imperatives for Continuity and Change in Higher Education, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 113-132.
- Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2007) Economic and non-financial performance indicators in universities: The establishment of a performance driven system for Australian higher education, *Public Management Review*, Vol. 9, No. 2, 231-252.
- Habermas, J. (1984) *The Theory of Communicative Action, Volume One, Reason and the Rationalisation of Society*, (T. Mc Carthy transl.), Beacon Press, Boston.
- Habermas, J. (1987) *The Theory of Communicative Action, Volume Two, Lifeworld and System: A Critique of Functionalist Reason*, (T. Mc Carthy transl.), Heinemann, London.
- Hamilton, C. (2001) The University and the Marketplace, in P. Kinnear, (ed.) *The 'Idea of a University': Enterprise or Academy?*, Australia Institute, Discussion Paper No. 39, 9-15.
- Harman, G. (2000) Academic Work and Values in Australian Higher Education, 1977-1997, in M. Tight (ed.) *Academic Work and Life: What it is to be an Academic, and How This is Changing*, Volume 1, Elsevier Science Inc, London, 73-115.
- Harman, G. (2005) Australian social scientists and transition to a more commercial university environment, *Higher Education Research and Development*, Vol. 24, No. 1, 79-94.
- Harmon, M. M. (2006) Business Research and Chinese Patriotic Poetry: How Competition for Status Distorts the Priority Between Research and Teaching in U.S. Business Schools, *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 234-243.

- Healy, G. (2007) CQU ponders float or buyout to combat downturn, *The Australian Higher Education Supplement*, October 10, 23.
- Hedro, T., Sahlin-Andersson, K. and Wedlin, L. (2006) Is a Global Organizational Field of Higher Education Emerging? Management Education as an Early Example, in G. Krücken, A. Kosmützky, and M. Torke, (eds), *Towards a Multiversity?: Universities between Global Trends and National Traditions*, 149-170.
- Heffernan, T. and Poole, D. (2004) “Catch me I’m falling”: Key factors in the deterioration of offshore education partnerships, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 26, No. 1, 75-90.
- Henkel, M. (2005a) Academic Identity and Autonomy in a Changing Policy Environment, *Higher Education*, Vol. 49, Nos. 1-2, 155-176
- Henkel, M. (2005b) Academic Identity and Autonomy Revisited, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 145-165.
- Hostaker, R. and Vabo, A. (2005) Higher Education and the Transformation to a Cognitive Capitalism, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 227-244.
- Howard, J. (2008) *Rigour and Relevance: Extending the Role of the Social Sciences and Humanities in Public Policy Research*, Council for Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences (CHASS), Occasional Paper, April.
- Howe, K. and Eisenhardt, M. (1990) Standards for qualitative (and quantitative) research: A prolegomenon, *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 19, No. 4, 2-9.
- IDP Education Pty Ltd (2008) *Education Replaces Tourism as Australia's No. 1 Services Export*, Press Release, 5 February, <http://www.idp.com/mediacentre/2008/february/article1335.asp>
- Jorgensen, (1989) *Participant Observation: a Methodology for Human Studies*, SAGE, Newbury Park, CA.

- Julian, S. D. and Ofori-Dankwa, J. C. (2006) Is accreditation good for the strategic decision making of traditional business schools? *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 225-233.
- Kayrooz, C., Kinnear, P. and Preston, P. (2001) *Academic Freedom and Commercialisation of Australian Universities: Perceptions and Experiences of Social Scientists*, Discussion Paper No 37, Australia Institute, Canberra.
- Kelsey, J. (1998) Privatizing the universities, *Journal of Law and Society*, Vol. 25, No. 1, 51-70.
- Kemmis, S. (1998) System and lifeworld, and the conditions of learning in late modernity, *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, Vol. 6, No.3, 269-305.
- Khurana, R. (2007) *From Higher Aims to Hired Hands: The Social Transformation of American Business Schools and the Unfulfilled Promise of Management as a Profession*, Princeton University Press, New Jersey.
- Kinnear, P. (ed.) (2001) *The 'Idea of a University': Enterprise or Academy?*, Australia Institute, Discussion Paper No. 39.
- Knight, J. and de Wit, H. (eds) (1997) *Internationalisation of Higher Education in Asia Pacific Countries*, European Association for International Education (EAIE), Amsterdam.
- Knights, D. and Willmott, H. (1997) The Hype and Hope of Interdisciplinary Management Studies, *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 8, No. 1, 9-22.
- Koh, G. Q. (2007) UNSW closes Singapore campus, *The Australian*, May 24, <http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,21786447-1702,00.html>
- Krucken, G. (2003) Learning the 'new, new thing': On the role of path dependency in university structures, *Higher Education*, Vol. 46, PP 315-339.
- Laclau, E. and Mouffe, C. (1985) *Hegemony and Socialist Strategy: Towards a Radical Democratic Politics*, Verso, London.
- Langford, P. (2008) *Improving Employee Engagement During Change in Australian Universities*, Presentation slides presented to Higher Education Human Resources Conference, Sydney, April 11, <http://www.aheia.edu.au/pages/1122155>.
- Lapsley, I. (2004) Making Sense of Interactions in an Investigation of Organisational Practices and Processes, in C. Humphrey and B. Lee (eds), *The Real Life Guide to*

- Accounting Research: A Behind-the –Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, Elsevier, Oxford, 75-190.
- Larsen, K. and Vincent-Lancrin, S. (2002) The learning business: Can trade in international education work? *Observer*, OECD, No. 235, 26-28.
- Laughlin, R. (1987) Accounting systems in organisational contexts: A case for critical theory, *Accounting, Organisations and Society*, Vol.12, No.5, 479-502.
- Laughlin, R. (1991) Environmental disturbances and organizational transitions and transformation: Some alternative models, *Organization Studies*, Vol. 12, No. 2, 209-232.
- Laughlin, R. (1995) Methodological themes: Empirical research in accounting: alternative approaches and a case for “middle-range” thinking, *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 1, 63 – 87.
- Laughlin, R. (2004) Putting the record straight: A commentary on ‘methodological choices and the construction of facts: Some implications from the sociology of knowledge, *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, Vol. 14, No. 1, 23-48
- Laughlin, R. (2007) Critical reflections on research approaches, accounting regulation and the regulation of accounting, *The British Accounting Review*, Vol. 39, 271-289.
- Lawrence, S. and Sharma, U. (2002) Commodification of education and academic labour – Using the Balanced Scorecard in a university setting, *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, Vol. 13, 661-677.
- Leavitt, H. (1989) Educating our MBAs: on teaching what we haven’t taught, *Californian Management Review*, Vol. 31, No. 3, 38-50.
- Lebihan, R. (2008) Unis unite to boost languages, *Australian Financial Review Education Supplement*, April 14, 37.
- LeCompte, M. D. and Goetz, J. P. (1982) Problems in reliability and validity in ethnographic research, *Review of Educational Research*; Vol. 51, 31-60.
- Levy, A. (1986) Second Order Change: Definition and Conceptualisation, *Organization Dynamics*, Vol. 15, No. 1, 5-23.
- Lincoln, Y. S. (1995) Emerging criteria for quality in qualitative and interpretative research, *Qualitative Inquiry*, Vol.1, 275-289.

- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*, Sage, Beverly Hills, CA.
- Lockhart, J. C. and Stablein, R. E. (2002) Doctoral education in a knowledge economy, *Higher Education Research and Development*, Vol. 21, No. 2, 191-202.
- Lofland, J. and Lofland, L. (1994) *Analysing Social Settings*, Wadsworth, Belmont, CA.
- Luckett, K. and Webbstock, D. (1999) Tensions between system and lifeworld: The imposition of a national qualifications framework on the humanities in South Africa, *International Journal for Continuous Improvement Monitor*, Vol. 1, No. 4, <http://64.233.179.104/scholar?hl=en&lr=&q=cache:GYLOanZ6gYkJ:llanes.auburn.edu/cimjournal/Vol1/No4/luckett.pdf+Luckett+and+Webbstock>, accessed June 6, 2003.
- Maasen, P. and Stensaker, B. (2005) The Black Box Revisited: The Relevance of Theory-driven Research in the Field of Higher Education Studies, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 213-226.
- MacDonald, K. (2005) Using Documents, in N. Gilbert (ed) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London, 194-210.
- Macfarlane, B. (1995) Business and management studies in higher education: The challenge of academic legitimacy, in *International Journal of Education Management*, Vol.9, No. 5, 4-9.
- Macintyre, S. (2001) 'Funny you should ask for that': Higher education as a market, in P. Kinnear (ed.) *The 'Idea of a University' Enterprise or Academy?* Australia Institute, Discussion Paper No. 39, 24-31.
- Macintyre, S. and Marginson, S. (2000) The University and its Public, in T. Coady (ed.) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 49-71.
- Marceau, J. (2000) Australian Universities: A Contestable Future, in T. Coady (ed.) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 214-234.
- Marginson, S. (1999) Living with the other: Higher education in the global era, *Australian Universities Review*, Vol. 42, No. 2, 5-8.

- Marginson, S. (2001) Governance: Its time for a new paradigm, in P. Kinnear (ed) *The 'Idea of a University' Enterprise or Academy?* Australia Institute, Discussion Paper No. 39, 58-70.
- Marginson, S. (2002) The phenomenal rise of international degrees down under, *Change*, May/June, 34-44.
- Marginson, S. (2007) *The Global Positioning of Australian Higher Education: Where to From Here?* The University of Melbourne Faculty of Education Dean's Lecture Series, October 16.
- Marginson, S. and Considine, M. (2000) *The Enterprise University: Power, Governance and Reinvention in Australia*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Marton, S. (2005) Academics and the Mode 2 Society: Shifts in Knowledge Management in the Humanities and Social Sciences, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 169-188.
- Maskell, D. and Robinson, I. (2001) *The New Idea of a University*, Imprint Academic, Thorverton.
- Maslen, G. (2006) Students' origins are a-changin', *Australian Financial Review Education Supplement*, October 9, 32.
- Mast, C. (2002) *Reflections on the Past: Management Education's First Century*, Background paper for the Graduate Management Advisory Council Annual MBA Leadership Conference in USA, [http://www.gmac.com/services/prof\\_dev/mba\\_leadership/2002/handouts/BackgroundArticlePlenary1.pdf](http://www.gmac.com/services/prof_dev/mba_leadership/2002/handouts/BackgroundArticlePlenary1.pdf).
- Maykut, P. and Morehouse, R. (1994) *Beginning Qualitative Research*, Falmer Press, London.
- McCarthy, D. J. and Puffer, S. M. (1999) The Trend Toward Pragmatism in Management Education: The Influence of Globalisation and Other Key Factors on Programmes in North America, Europe and Russia, in K. Theile and C. OhOgartaigh, (eds), *International Business Education: Partnerships, Patterns and Prospects for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*, Oak Tree Press, Dublin.



- McInnis, C. (2000a) *The Work Roles of Academics in Australian Universities*, Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Higher Education Division, Canberra.
- McInnis, C. (2000b) Towards New Balance or New Divides? The Changing Work Roles of Academics in Australia, in M. Tight (ed) *Academic Work and Life: What it is to be an Academic, and How This is Changing*, Volume 1, Elsevier Science Inc, London, 117-145.
- McShane, S. and Travaglione, T. (2007) *Organisational Behaviour on the Pacific Rim*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, McGraw-Hill, Australia.
- McSweeney, B (2004) Critical Independence, in C. Humphrey and B. Lee, *The Real Life Guide to Accounting Research: A Behind-the –Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, Elsevier, Oxford, 207-226.
- Meek, V. L. and Wood, F. Q. (1997) *Higher Education Governance and Management, An Australian Study*, Evaluation and Investigations Program 97/1, Higher Education Division, Department of Employment, Education and Training, Canberra.
- Meek, V. L. and Wood, F. Q. (1998) *Managing Higher Education Diversity in a Climate of Public Sector Reform*, Evaluations and Investigations Programme 98/5, Department of Employment, Education , Training and Youth Affairs, AGPS, Canberra.
- Miles, R.E. and Snow, C.C. (1978) *Organizational Strategy, Structure and Process*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, SAGE, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Miller, D. and Friesen, P. (1984) *Organizations: A Quantum View*, Prentice Hall, NJ.
- Miller, S. (2000) Academic Autonomy, in T. Coady (ed.) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 110-131.
- Mingers, J. (1997a) Multiparadigm Multimethodology, Chapt 1 in J. Mingers and A. Gill (eds), *Multimethodology: The Theory and Practice of Combining Management Science Methodologies*, John Wiley, 1-19.

- Mingers, J. (1997b) Toward Critical Pluralism, in J. Mingers and A. Gill (eds), *Multimethodology: The Theory and Practice of Combining Management Science Methodologies*, John Wiley, 407-439.
- Mintzberg, H. (2004) *Managers Not MBAs: A Hard Look at the Soft Practice of Managing and Management Development*, Barrett-Koehler, San Francisco.
- Molony, J. (2000) Australian Universities Today, in T. Coady (ed.) *Why Universities Matter*, Allen and Unwin, Sydney, 72-84.
- National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) (2000) *Unhealthy Places of Learning: Working in Australian Universities*, NTEU, Melbourne.
- National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) (2004) *Excess Baggage*, NTEU, Melbourne.
- National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) (2007) *The Funding of Australian Universities 1996-2005: An Examination of the Facts and Figures*, NTEU, Melbourne.
- Nelson, B. (2002) *Higher Education at the Crossroads*, Department of Education, Science and Training, Canberra, Australia.
- Neumann, R. and Guthrie, J. (2004) Australian public management reform: Research and doctoral education in the context of management knowledge, *Public Management Review*, Vol. 6, No. 4, 473 -492.
- Nowotny, H., Scott, P. and Gibbons, M. (2001) *Re-thinking Science: Knowledge and the Public in an Age of Uncertainty*, Polity Press, Cambridge.
- Nybom, T. (2003) The Humboldt legacy: Reflection on the past, present and future of the European university, *Higher Education Policy*, Vol. 16, 141-159.
- O'Dwyer, B. (2004) Qualitative Data Analysis, in C. Humphrey and B. Lee, *The Real Life Guide to Accounting Research: A Behind-the-Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, Elsevier, Oxford, 391-407.
- O'Hear, A., (1988) Academic freedom and the university, *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, Vol. 22, No. 1, 13-21.
- O'Kane, M. (2001) Quality in Australian Universities: A Decline and Change, in P. Kinnear (ed.) *The 'Idea of a University' Enterprise or Academy?* Australia Institute, Discussion Paper No. 39, 16-23.

- O'Keefe, B. (2007) UNSW Singapore campus doomed to fail, *The Australian*, June 27, [http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,21973976-12332,00.html?from=public\\_rss](http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,21973976-12332,00.html?from=public_rss)
- Olssen, M. and Peters, M. A. (2005) Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From free market to knowledge capitalism, *Journal of Education Policy*, Vol. 20, No. 3, 313-345.
- Orr, S. (2000) The organisational determinants of success for delivering fee-paying graduate courses, *The International Journal of International Management*, Vol. 14, No. 2, 54-61.
- Parker, L. D. (1994) The case for field studies, *Management and Accounting: Towards Informed Policy and Practice in Asia*, *Accounting and Business Review*, Vol. 1, No 2, 211-231.
- Parker, L. D. (2002) It's been a pleasure doing business with you: A strategic analysis and critique of university change management, *Critical Perspectives in Accounting*, Vol. 13, No. 5/6, 603-619.
- Parker, L., Guthrie, J. and Gray, R. (1998) Accounting and management research: Passwords from the gatekeepers, *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, Vol. 11, No. 4, 371-402.
- Pelikan, J. (1992) *The Idea of the University: A Reexamination*, Yale University Press, New Haven.
- Petty, R. and Guthrie, J. (2000) Intellectual capital literature review: Measurement, reporting and management, *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, Vol. 1 No. 2, 155-76.
- Pfeffer, J. and Fong, C. (2002) The end of business schools? Less success than meets the eye, *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 78-95.
- Pfeffer, J. and Fong, C. (2004) The business school 'business': Some lessons from the US experience, *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 41, No. 1, 1501-1520.
- Pierson, F. C. (1959) *The Education of American Businessmen: A Study of University-college Programs in Business Administration*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (1995) Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, Vol. 8, No. 1, 5-23.

- Polster, C. and Newson, J. (1998) Don't Count Your Blessings: The Social Accomplishments of Performance Indicators, in J. Currie and J. Newson (eds) *Universities and Globalisation: Critical Perspectives*, Sage Publications, UK.
- Poole, D. (1999) The Business of Internationalisation: Emerging Issues for the Entrepreneurial University, paper presented at the *Association for Institutional Research (AIR) Conference*, Seattle, Washington, May-June.
- Poole, D. (2000) The Strategic Management of International Entrepreneurial Activities at Australian Universities, paper presented at the *European Higher Education Society (EAIR) Forum*, Berlin, September.
- Porter, L.W. and McKibbin, L. E. (1988) *Management Education and Development - Drift or Thrust into the 21<sup>st</sup> Century?* McGraw-Hill, NY.
- Power, M. and Laughlin, R. (1992) Critical Theory and Accounting, in M. Alversson and H. Willmott (eds), *Critical Management Studies*, SAGE Publications, 113-135.
- Power, M. and Laughlin, R. (1996) Habermas, law and accounting, *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, Vol. 21, No. 2, 441-465.
- Pratt, G. and Poole, D. (1999) Globalisation and Australian universities: Policies and impacts, *Australian Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 12, No.16, 533-544.
- Pratt, G. and Poole, D. (2000) Global corporations "r" us? The impacts of globalisation on Australian universities, *Australian University Review*, Vol. 43, No. 1, 16-23.
- Pritchard, C. (1998) *It's Intelligent Life, Jim, But Not As We Know It. Re-wording and Re-working Tertiary Education in the Age of the Global Knowledge Economy*, paper presented at the Annual Conference of the New Zealand Association for Research in Education, University of Otago, December.
- Readings, B. (1996) *The University in Ruins*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge
- Richter, E.-M. and Buttery, E. A. (2005) Three fundamental challenges for the modern university arising from stated purpose and globalization, *International Journal of Business & Management Education*, Special Issue, *Outcomes of University Education*, 14- 29.
- Rochford, F. (2006) Is there any clear idea of a university, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 28, No. 2, 147-158.

- Ross-Smith, A., Clegg, S. and Agius, P. (2004) The State of the MBA in Australian Universities: A Degree Fit to Meet the Challenge of a New Century or One Grinding Towards Obsolescence? Paper submitted to the *Journal of the Australian New Zealand Academy of Management*, July.
- Rout, M. (2008) Unis rely on 'risky' income, *The Australian Higher Education Supplement*, February 13, 35.
- Ryan, S. (2008a) Management Education in Australia: Relevance lost? Paper submitted to *British Journal of Management*.
- Ryan, S (2008b) Australian Business Schools: More Than 'Commercial Enterprise'? Paper submitted to *Organisational Studies*.
- Ryan, S. and Guthrie, J. (forthcoming) Collegial Entrepreneurialism: Australian Graduate Schools of Business, Paper accepted for publication in *Public Management Review*.
- Ryan, S., Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2008a), The Case of Australian Higher Education: Performance, Markets and Government Control", in C. Mazza, P. Quattrone and A. Riccaboni (eds), *European Universities in Transition: Issues, Models and Cases*, Edward Elgar, London, 171-187.
- Ryan, S., Guthrie, J. and Neumann, R. (2008b) "Lifeworld Changes in an Australian Graduate School of Business: The Bill Stories", paper presented at 22nd Annual *Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) Conference*, University of Auckland Business School, Auckland, New Zealand, 2-5 December, 2008.
- Ryan, S. Neumann, R. and Guthrie, J. (2008) Interdisciplinarity in Management Education: Australian Graduate Schools of Business, paper presented at the *Irish Academy of Management Conference (IAM)*, Dublin, Ireland, September, 3-5.
- Saffu, K. and Mamman, A. (1999) Mechanics, problems and contributions of tertiary strategic alliances: The case of 22 Australian universities, *International Journal of International Management*, Vol. 13, No. 6, 281-286.
- Sanderson, D. M. and Watters, J. J. (2006) The Corporatisation of Higher Education: A Question of Balance, in S. Debowski (Ed) *Proceedings Higher Education and*

- Research and Development Society of Australia Annual Conference, Perth, Western Australia, 316-323.*
- Saunders, M. (2006) The Madness and Malady of Managerialism, *Quadrant Magazine*, Vol. 1, No. 3, 9-17.
- Scapens, R. W. (1990) Researching management accounting practice: The role of case study methods, *British Accounting Review*, Vol. 22, No. 3, 259-281.
- Schein, E. (1985) *Organisational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey Bass, San Francisco.
- Schreuder, D. (2005) Boundaries fall as universities look outwards, *Australian Financial Review Education Supplement*, September 26, 42.
- Scott, G., Coates, H. and Anderson, M. (2008) *Learning Leaders in Times of Change: Academic Leadership and Capabilities for Australian Higher Education*, University of Western Sydney and the Australian Council for Education Research, May.
- Senate Committee (2001) Employment, Workplace Relations, Small Business and Education Reference, *Universities in Crisis: Report into the capacity of public universities to meet Australia's higher education needs*, Commonwealth of Australia, 27 September.
- Sharrock, G. (2004) Rethinking the Australian university: A critique of off Course, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 26, No. 2, 265 -278.
- Sharrock, G. (2007) After Copernicus: Beyond the crisis in Australian Universities, *Australian Universities Review*, Vol.49, Nos. 1-2, 2-14.
- Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996) *The Academic Profession in Australia*, EIP No. 96/1, Department of Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, Canberra.
- Simmons, R. (2005) Questionnaires, in N. Gilbert (ed.) *Researching Social Life*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, London, 85 – 104.
- Singh, G. (2002) Educational consumers or educational partners: A critical theory analysis, *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, Vol. 13, 681-700.
- Slattery, L. (2006) Growth lies over the horizon, *The Financial Review Education Supplement*, October 9, 31 and 40.
- Slaughter, S. and Leslie, L (1997) *Academic Capitalism*, John Hopkins, Baltimore.

- Smart, D., Volet, S. and Ang, G. (2000) *Fostering Social Cohesion in Universities: Bridging the cultural divide*, Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Canberra.
- Spender, J. C. (2007) Management as a regulated profession: An essay, *Journal of Management Inquiry*, Vol. 16, No. 1, 32-42.
- Sporn, B. (1999) *Adaptive University Structures: An Analysis of Adaptation to Socioeconomic Environments of US and European Universities: Higher Education Policy Series 54*, Taylor and Francis, Philadelphia.
- Starkey, K. and Tiratsoo, N. (2007) *The Business School and the Bottom Line*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Starkey, K., Hatchuel, A. and Tempest, S. (2004) Rethinking the business school, *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 41, No. 8, 1521-1531.
- Strauss, A. (1987) *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists*, Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Sudman, S. and Bradburn, N. M. (1974) *Response Effect in Surveys*, Aldine, Chicago.
- Tasker, M. and Packham, D. (1993) Industry and higher education : A question of values, *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol. 18, No. 2, 127-136.
- Teichler, U. (1999) Internationalisation as a challenge for higher education in Europe, *Tertiary Education and Management*, Vol. 5, No.1, 5-22.
- Teichler, U. (2005) New Patterns of Diversity in Higher Education: Towards a Convergent Knowledge, in I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel (eds), *Governing Knowledge: A Study of Continuity and Change in Higher Education – A Festschrift in Honour of Maurice Kogan*, Springer, The Netherlands, 97-112.
- Thomas, H. (2007) An analysis of the environment and competitive dynamics of management education, *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 26, No. 1, 9-21.
- Tight, M. (2003) *Researching Higher Education*, Society for Research into Higher Education, McGraw-Hill, UK.
- Trieschmann, J. S., Dennis, A. R., Northcroft, G. B. and Niemi, A. W (2000) Serving multiple constituencies in business schools: MBA program vs research performance, *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43, No. 6, 1130-1141.

- Trowler, P. (1998) *Academics Responding to Change – New Higher Education Frameworks and Academic Cultures*, SRHE and Open University Press, Buckingham.
- Universities Australia (2007) *Offshore Programs of Australian Universities*, Universities Australia, Canberra, November.
- Vidovich, L. and Currie, J. (1998) Changing Accountability and Autonomy at the ‘Coalface’ of Academic Work in Australia, in J. Currie and J. Newson (eds) *Universities and Globalisation: Critical Perspectives*, Sage Publications, UK, 193-212.
- Viten, G. (2000) The business school in the new millennium, *International Journal of International Management*, Vol. 14, No. 2, 180-191.
- Walker, S. P. (2004) The Search for Clues in Accounting History, in C. Humphrey and B. Lee, *The Real Life Guide to Accounting Research: A Behind-the –Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, Elsevier, Oxford, 5-22.
- Washburn, J. (2005) *University Inc.: The Corporate Corruption of American Higher Education*, Basic Books, New York.
- Watty, K., Bellamy, S. and Morley, C. (2008) Changes in higher education and valuing the job: The views of accounting academics in Australia, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 30, No. 2, 139-151.
- Weber, S. (1996) The Future of the University: The Cutting Edge, in T. Smith (ed.), *Ideas of the University*, Research Institute for the Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Sydney, Australia, 43-75.
- Winefield, A. H., Gillespie, N.A., Stough, C., Dua, J. and Hapuararchchi, J. (2002) *Occupational Stress in Australian University Staff: Results from a National Survey*, NTEU, Melbourne.
- Winefield, T., Boyd, C., Saebel, J. and Pignata, S. (2008) Update on National University Stress Study, *Australian Universities Review*, Vol. 50, No. 1, 20-29.
- Winter, R. and Sarros, J. (2001) Corporate Reforms to Australian Universities: Views from the Academic Heartland, paper presented at *Second International Critical Management Studies Conference*, Manchester School of Management and UMIST, Manchester, UK 11-13 July.



- Winter, R. and Sarros, J. (2002) The Academic Work Environment in Australian Universities: A Motivating Place to Work? *Higher Education Research & Development*, Vol. 21, No. 3, 241-258.
- Winter, R., Taylor, T. and Sarros, J. (2000) Trouble at Mill: Quality of Academic Worklife Issues Within a Comprehensive Australian University, *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol. 25, No. 3, 297-294.
- Wolcott, H. F. (1990) On Seeking - and Rejecting – Validity in Qualitative Research, in E.W. Eisner and A. Peshkin (eds) *Qualitative Inquiry in Education: The Continuing Debate*, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, New York, 121-152.
- Yin, R. K., (1994) *Case Study Research; Design and Methods*, Second Edition, Sage, California.
- Zimmerman, J. L. (2001) *Can American Business Schools Survive?* Simon School of Business, Working Paper No. FR 01-16. Retrieved from SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=283112> on 10 January, 2008.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX ONE      **THE BILL STORIES AND QUESTIONS FOR 2008 PARTICIPANTS**

The following 'Bill Stories' are based on an amalgam of the most common participant responses based on the transcripts from the 2002/03 interviews. In 2008, the original participants were sent the stories and asked to read them and respond to the questions at the end. The three stories consist of a general profile of Bill, a description of his personal world or 'identity' and a description of his social world or 'school'.

- 5A. Bill of the AGSB: General Profile 2002/03
- 5B. Identity: A summary of the personal lifeworld of Bill of the AGBS 2002/03.
- 5C. The School: A summary of the social lifeworld of Bill of the AGBS 2002/03.
- 5D. Questions

#### **5A. Bill of the AGSB: General Profile 2002-2003**

Bill is a 45 year old Australian born male who worked for eight years outside academe before obtaining a PhD and becoming a full-time academic whereupon he worked for three other universities prior to taking up his current position as Associate Professor in the AGSB seven years ago. He has been an academic for 16 years.

Bill became an academic because his early experiences of teaching were very positive and he enjoyed being in control of his own work and time. He enjoys being an academic because students are a priority but there is still time for research and the environment is stimulating. The most valued aspect of his work is his freedom over what he teaches and researches and the times in which he does it. Over the years he has noticed that the number of administrators have increased while collegiality and support to academics has decreased and there is more pressure in every aspect of work.

Bill values academic freedom and integrity and is committed to his work. His loyalty is to his School and colleagues, although not always to the Dean. Colleagues, students and the stimulating work environment are the best aspects of working in a AGSB while managerialist practices and pressures of time and workload are the downside of the AGSB. Compared to working in a larger school with both undergraduates and

postgraduates, the AGSB is preferred because of the students and the stronger culture. Teaching and research are equally valued by Bill, but teaching takes precedence because of its urgency. Although the School is multidisciplinary, this is limited to interaction with colleagues and students because research and publication is still disciplinary based.

Autonomous governance of the AGSB is important to Bill even if the Dean is not always collegial. According to Bill, while Deans come and go, the culture and collegiality among AGSB academics are stronger than a single Dean. The wider University is a threat to the autonomy of the AGSB because, according to Bill, it fears the difference and wants more revenue from the School. Any additional remuneration that Bill receives, he believes he deserves because it is commensurate with the additional effort he makes compared to other academics. Inappropriate bureaucratic administrative processes are a source of stress and frustration for Bill but he does not blame the school's administrative staff for these processes.

While Bill appreciates the maturity and motivation of his students and learns a lot from them, the fact that they pay high fees encourages them to behave like customers which is a source of discomfort for Bill. Teaching offshore is good for Bill in terms of his self development and time and opportunity for research, however, it is not good for his health and disruptive to his family life. The initial attraction of travel and extra money wears off after a year or so.

Bill describes his School environment as hard working, friendly and collegial. Bill's lifestyle as an academic is different to most academics as his hours and places of work are very diverse. Although Bill is quite content with his life and work at the AGSB, in an ideal world he would like more time for research and greater collegiality with less managerialism and administrative interference.

## **5B. Identity: A summary of the personal lifeworld of Bill of the AGBS 2002-03.**

### **Values**

Prior to becoming an academic, Bill worked for private industry where he resented the command and control environment. He enrolled in a part-time higher degree and became a casual teacher. It was during this time that his teaching experience and glimpses of academic life convinced him to change to an academic career. He made this change at the earliest possible opportunity and has no regrets.

Although he often feels pressured by work, Bill is passionate about his work and he values both the stimulating environment and his control over time and work. He espouses the values of academic integrity, especially honesty and academic freedom, and remains committed to teaching and learning.

In the course of his academic career, Bill has noticed an increasing number of administrators and administrative processes that threaten his autonomy and consume his

valuable time. He believes in the need for quality assurance and performance review processes but is cynical about the usefulness of the processes used by the School.

Although Bill is strongly committed to his School and school colleagues, his loyalty to the School is tempered by his view of the Dean. According to Bill, a 'good' dean makes the school vibrant and a 'bad' dean inspires resistance from him and his colleagues as they attempt to protect the School from 'harmful' interference.

### **Work Attitudes**

Colleagues, students and teaching represent the highlights of Bill's work environment. While work pressure, lack of time and administrative interference are the downside of work, Bill would much prefer to work in the small graduate business school than in a large faculty. His students are more mature and motivated and his School culture stronger and more cohesive.

Teaching and research constitute most of Bill's work time, but he also has significant administrative duties and occasionally finds time to do consulting work or teach in executive education. He believes teaching and research are equally important for an academic, however Bill is more inclined toward teaching, partly because of a personal preference and partly because of the nature of the School and its emphasis on teaching. The importance of research for promotion does not escape Bill and he is sometimes resentful of this.

Bill enjoys being in a multidisciplinary environment because it is stimulating and contributes to his own learning. He admits, however, that being a multidisciplinary school does not always translate into teaching and research.

Teaching overseas is a big plus for Bill despite it being tiring and detracting from other work. He not only enjoys travel and getting away but benefits personally from learning about other cultures and it improves his teaching.

### **Relationships**

Bill's relationship with his School colleagues is important to him. He and his colleagues form a good team because they are similarly motivated and committed. The bond between them is strengthened more by the non-traditional hours and locations in which they teach and the ownership they feel for the courses offered than sharing disciplines. Bill respects his colleagues for their intelligence and hard work, and, in the rare times it is possible, he likes to relax socially with them.

Likewise, Bill's attitude toward his students is positive. Because the students are mature, experienced and motivated, teaching is a two way learning experience. Students provide Bill with a closer understanding of current issues in business and management and they are not afraid to challenge him or each other in class. The diversity of nationalities among the students can sometimes present a teaching challenge for Bill. However, Bill

believes the diversity enriches the learning experience for all and this outweighs any negatives.

There is one issue that troubles Bill about his students and that is their tendency to see themselves as customers rather than students. He understands they pay high fees and are entitled to a good educational experience but he does not believe they have the right to define what that education is. Occasionally he worries that the administration views students as customers and places pressure on him to teach and assess in a way that suits the students' wants rather than their needs. He does not like this. He prefers to teach onshore students because there is more time to build relationships with them and they are usually more able students.

Bill views his relationship with School administration officers as a 'partnership', they are part of the same team and he gets along well with them. These feelings do not apply to University administrators whom Bill feels are controlling and untrusting of academics. They waste his time with petty procedures.

### **Lifestyle**

While appreciating the flexibility and autonomy of his work, Bill acknowledges that lack of time and excess pressure together undermine much of this flexibility and autonomy. Bill does not teach according to a constant timetable nor at the same location. He teaches at night, during weekends, on a weekly basis and in blocks. Moreover, he teaches on-campus, overseas and on other campuses in the city and throughout Australia.

He is an itinerant, who, in addition to his own work, must supervise the work of casual academics. His teaching load is higher than it would be if he worked in a large Faculty but so is his remuneration. Bill has the opportunity to volunteer for additional teaching for additional income. He often accepts additional teaching to supplement his income which he considers much less than it would be were he still in industry.

Bill is also under pressure to research and publish. He enjoys his research but is sometimes cynical about the pressure to publish regardless of quality. Bill tries to arrange his teaching to allow time for research, however, research time always seems to be squeezed between teaching and administration.

Although Bill would prefer to be teaching and researching only, he accepts administrative or governance roles because they are necessary and it is his other contribution to the School. Bill likes to consult but there is little time to do so. Some of his colleagues are able to substitute consulting for research, but they are the minority.

## **5C. The School: A summary of the social lifeworld of Bill of the AGBS 2002/03.**

### **Culture**

Bill describes his School's culture as strong and dynamic. Its strength derives from its relatively small size; shared values and goals; difference from most other schools in the university; and the changes that it has undergone. In particular, Bill points out that the School culture is more enduring than the Deans who pass through it. It is reasonably collegial, but more in the sense of respect for colleagues and shared values than in terms of governance. Bill and his colleagues are too busy to engage in full collegial governance. It is essentially a friendly and hard working School.

### **Governance**

Bill and his colleagues demonstrate little loyalty toward the University. They view the management of the University as threatening the School's autonomy; unable to understand its differences and concerned only with increasing the University's share of the School's revenue. The University has embraced managerialism and revenue generation to the detriment of academics and academic issues, turning itself into a knowledge factory.

The School's governance changes with the Dean, inspiring either collegiality or managerialism, in the negative sense of command and control. Because the School is a profit centre, issues of governance are more complex than academic matters alone. A purely collegial system would not work as it is time consuming and often non-decisive. The best system is one based on clear and agreed goals with open discussion followed by decision making from the Dean and implementation by the responsible academics or administrators. Bill feels he can have input into decisions but recognises that he is not part of the decision making. He is comfortable with this as earlier experiences with interminable meetings without decisions being made has made him skeptical of fully collegial models of School governance.

### **Leadership**

The leadership or Dean of the School is important to Bill and his colleagues. The Dean's allegiances and management style can 'make or break' the School. Deans can encourage loyalty and commitment to the School by providing focus, treating academics with respect and fostering collegiality. If the Dean wants to go in a direction that Bill and his colleagues do not consider to be in the interests of the School, the Dean has to contend with resistance from academic staff which may take the shape of either actively working against the Dean or withdrawing additional effort and commitment to the School. Bill and his colleagues do not like being treated as employees, they desire respect from their leaders and want to be included in issues affecting the School. Deans who appear to be doing the bidding of the University against School interests are especially out of favour. Possibly even worse than an autocratic Dean is one who is 'laissez-faire' and under whom nothing happens. Sometimes Bill thinks academics are really not sufficiently skilled or trained to be good leaders or managers.

### **Entrepreneurship**

At the University level, Bill believes that monetary concerns have overtaken all else. The University wants to make money but its bureaucratic administration and lack of managerial skills work against it being entrepreneurial in a positive sense. The School is viewed as a 'cash cow' by the University, but rather than invest in it, the University only wants to strip the School of its revenue. Bill does not consider this is a sensible entrepreneurial strategy.

The School has been entrepreneurial in terms of opening up new markets, offering new programs and courses and engaging with the business community. Bill sees that growth and entrepreneurialism have been good for the School in terms of increasing resources and reputation and he feels comfortable with this. He believes that students are given a good deal compared to other students of the University and other graduate schools. Despite this, Bill is always wary that the University and its desire for more of the School's funds is a threat to the School being able to continue as it has, including being able to be entrepreneurial. Very occasionally, Bill wonders if the School itself is putting money ahead of academic concerns.

THE END

#### **5D. Questions to Participants**

Having read these stories, would you please respond to the following two questions:

1. How realistically do the stories reflect your views and circumstances as you remember them five years ago? and
2. Have you changed your views and/or circumstances in the past five years, and if so, why?

## **APPENDIX TWO      SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES**

The following three tables summarise 15 large scale studies of Australian academics and their work between 1991 and 2007. The studies are summarised by theme, commencing with the earliest study in 1991 and concluding with the most recent in 2007. Where authors are reporting on the same study, they are grouped together and counted as one study. The first table gives the background to each study while the second and third tables cover the various themes.

TABLE 2A      Comparison of Australian Empirical Research on Higher Education: Year of Study, Focus, Sample and Method

TABLE 2B      Comparison of Australian Research – Autonomy, Management and Job Satisfaction

TABLE 2C      Comparison of Australian Research – Workload, Stress and Other



**Table 2A: Comparison of Australian Empirical Research on Higher Education: Year of study, Focus, Sample and Method**

	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Year of Study</b>	<b>Focus</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Method</b>
1	Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996); Sheehan and Welch (1996)	1991	Reports on the Australian results of the Carnegie Foundation Survey of higher education in 26 countries. Provides a general overview of the academic profession in 1991.	1420 respondents (40% response rate) from 20 universities, eight 'research' and 12 'other'.	Quantitative - Questionnaire
2	Vidovich and Currie (1998) Currie and Vidovich (2000)	1994-1995	Changing nature of academic work in relation to autonomy and accountability over previous five years.	115 respondents from three universities, one each representing sandstone, gumtree and new universities.	Qualitative - Interviews
3	Meek and Wood (1997)	1995	Examination of perceptions of academic managers [ie senior executives (SE), deans and heads of departments (HOD)] on issues arising from changes in AHES.	794 respondents (35.5% response rate) from total population of academic managers at all 36 universities.	Quantitative - Questionnaire
4	Harman (2000)	1997	Change in academic work and values over 20 year period 1977 to 1997.	In 1977 – eight universities (66% response rate) and 11 colleges of advanced education (59% response rate). In 1997 – 12 universities (39% response rates). The institutions were the same in both studies and covered the range of university types in 1997.	Quantitative - Questionnaire
5	Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000)	1997	Quality of working life among academics.	189 academic respondents (65% response rate) from a single comprehensive university. Sample stratified by academic level and discipline.	Quantitative – Questionnaire with open ended comments
6	Winter and Sarros (2001; 2002)	1998	Perceived impact of changes in AHES on institutional work organisation and resultant impact on power of management and autonomy and motivation of academics.	1041 academic respondents (40% response rate) stratified by position and discipline from eight universities equally representing sandstones, unitechs, regionals and metropolitans.	Quantitative – Questionnaire with open ended comments

7	NTEU (2000)	1998	Examination of workload and stress related matters among university staff including their perceptions of change in each in the two year period from 1996 to 1998.	1691 respondents from both academic (753) and general (948) staff (37% overall response rate) Stratified random sampling across 20 unis representing the four types: sandstone; unitech; gumtree and new universities. Only results of academics are reported in this summary.	Quantitative - Questionnaire
8	McInnis (2000a; 2000b)	1999	Changing work roles and values of academics. Replicates a 1993 national survey in 1999.	2609 respondents (58.5% response rate) across 15 universities of all types (old, middle and new) 40% of respondents were casual academics.	Quantitative - Questionnaire
9	Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua and Hapuararchchi (2002)	2000	National survey of occupational stress among university staff, both academic (43%) and general (54%) but excluding casual staff. Only results for academics are reported in this study.	Phase One: 178 staff across 15 universities. Phase Two: 8732 respondents across 17 universities (25% response rate) covering sandstones (3); unitech (4) gumtrees (6) and new universities (4).	Phase One: qualitative - focus groups Phase Two: Quantitative – paper-based questionnaire
10	Kayrooz, Kinear and Preston, (2001)	2000	Academic perceptions of impact of commercialisation on academic freedom among social scientists.	165 respondents from 13 universities (20% response rate). Universities from the four groups: sandstone, unitech, gumtrees and new universities.	Quantitative – questionnaires Qualitative – 20 interviews
11	Anderson, Johnson and Saha (2002)	2002	Perceived changes in academic work over the two decades from 1982-2002 – emphasis on declining number of academics.	2075 respondents (50% response rate) across 12 universities equally distributed between sandstone, unitech, regional and metropolitan (other).	Quantitative –web based questionnaires with open ended comments
12	Harman (2005)	2002	Impacts of and adaptations to changes in AHES on social scientists.	853 respondents (35% response rate) across eight universities, two of each type, Go8; unitech, pre 1987 and new.	Quantitative Questionnaire

13	Winefield, Boyd, Saebel and Pignata, (2008)	2003/04	Phase two follow up study to Winefield et al. (2002) on occupational stress among university staff carried out in 2000.	6301 respondents (25% response rate) from 13 of the 17 original universities. Of 6301 respondents, 969 had responded to the first survey in 2000, including 447 academics.	Quantitative – online questionnaire similar to the 2000 survey but fewer measurement scales.
14	Coates, Goedegebuure, van der Lee and Meek (2008a; 2008b)	2007	Exploration of the nature and extent of changes in the experiences of academics – part of an international survey of 26 countries as follow up to the Carnegie Foundation study in 1991. Note this summary based on early analysis of Australian results.	1252 respondents (24% response rate) from 21 universities that volunteered their participation. Half the universities were from Go8 Sandstones universities. Sample stratified by discipline, gender, level and function. Sample restricted to academics working in faculties.	Quantitative Online Questionnaire
15	Langford (2008)	2003-2007	University based research and consultancy practice that conducts organisational climate surveys. Aim of was to identify and measure changes within universities over time.	8,000 respondents (62% response rate) both academic and general staff across six universities All staff invited to participate.	Quantitative online questionnaire – two surveys with an average of 2.5 years of between surveys.

**Table 2B: Comparison of Australian Research – Autonomy, Management and Job Satisfaction**

	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Autonomy/Academic Freedom</b>	<b>Management/ Accountability</b>	<b>Job Satisfaction</b>
1	Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996); Sheehan and Welch (1996)	77% considered academic freedom to be protected by the administration of their institution.	<p>Only 28% positive about leadership competence of senior academic administrators; 63% thought the administration was autocratic.</p> <p>31% agreed that relationships between academic staff and administration were positive. The majority did not know where important decisions were made in their institution.</p>	<p>77% satisfied or very satisfied with work. Satisfaction increased with seniority.</p> <p>Respondents most satisfied with classes taught (77%) relationships with colleagues (69%). Least satisfied with prospects for promotion (25%) and institutional management (18%).</p>
2	Vidovich and Currie (1998); Currie and Vidovich (2000)	<p>70% thought participation in decision making had decreased</p> <p>59% said decision making was not participatory</p> <p>Mainly explained by a feeling of general loss and lack of trust and focus on budgetary requirements.</p>	<p>Increase in accountability was stronger than the decrease in autonomy.</p> <p>84% thought accountability had increased, especially in relation to student evaluations and research reporting.</p>	

3	Meek and Wood (1997)	Strong agreement that senior management did <b>not</b> restrict academic freedom in research and teaching matters.	<p>77% agreed that the job of the Dean was more management than academic but only 55% thought it should be.</p> <p>50% of HOD thought senior leadership was effective compared to 79% of SE.</p> <p>35% of HOD considered senior administrators to be effective compared to 78% of SE.</p> <p>64% of all agreed that university management was 'top down' including 71% of HOD.</p> <p>65% of HOD saw a conflict between the values of academics and the goals of management compared to 30% of SE.</p>	70% agreed staff morale was low, including senior executive.
---	----------------------	--	---	--

4	Harman (2000)	72% agree that academic freedom was being eroded in 1997.	<p>80% thought the VC was primarily a CEO rather than an academic leader</p> <p>75% thought quality had suffered because of high staff-student ratios</p> <p>70% considered the university leadership as incompetent or would not comment</p> <p>70% agreed there were too many administrators</p> <p>62% thought promotion prospects were more limited</p> <p>61% agreed that mission statement and strategic planning were positive</p> <p>59% thought there was insufficient administrative support in departments</p> <p>55% thought enterprise bargaining had increased industrial tensions</p> <p>50% saw competition in higher education as positive.</p>	<p>91% of academics were satisfied with their work in 1977 compared to 76% in 1997 (but the question in 1997 was slightly different).</p> <p>In 1997, academics were most satisfied with the academic aspects of their work and satisfied least with their work environment and governance.</p>
5	Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000)	<p>High levels of role clarity and task identity.</p> <p>Low levels of participation in decision making.</p> <p>High levels of demoralisation.</p>	Moderate levels of centralisation and formalisation. Negative reactions to pressures from managerialism and accountability through quality assurance measures. Declining collegiality.	High levels of personal job involvement, job challenge and skill variety which indicate internal satisfaction with work but moderated by negative attitudes to external factors affecting work such as administration.

6	Winter and Sarros (2001;2002)	High levels of role clarity and task identity.	<p>Decreased government funding seen as major impact on university and worklife. Strong agreement that managerialism was replacing collegiality.</p> <p>Increased accountability and quality assurance measures seen as negative effect on morale and not justifiable in terms of cost and time.</p> <p>High level of support for departmental heads.</p>	High levels of personal job involvement but general complaints that efforts were not recognised nor rewarded and administration limited job satisfaction.
7	NTEU (2000)	<p>63.5% reported lack of intellectual freedom <b>was never or rarely</b> a source of stress or pressure.</p> <p>59% reported that lack of job autonomy was never or rarely a source of stress or pressure.</p> <p>Satisfaction with the ability to exercise intellectual freedom had dropped from 59.5% in 1996 to 51.5% in 1998.</p> <p>Dissatisfaction with the ability to exercise intellectual freedom had almost doubled from 15% in 1996 to 28% in 1998.</p>	<p>84% reported university management as a source of stress and pressure.</p> <p>Dissatisfaction with the quality of university management increased from 49% in 1996 to 73% in 1998.</p>	<p>55% were satisfied (46%) or very satisfied (9%) with their job.</p> <p>Approximately 55% reported a decrease in satisfaction compared wit approx. 14% reporting increase satisfaction since 1996.</p> <p>Respondents were most satisfied with their personal work environments (60%).</p> <p>87% reported low morale as a source of stress and pressure.</p>

8	Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua and Hapuararchchi (2002)	Academic freedom was one of the three major aspects of academic work with which respondents were most satisfied.	<p>Academics most dissatisfied with university management, hours of work, industrial relations, promotion opportunities; and rates of pay.</p> <p>19% trusted senior management</p> <p>48% distrusted senior management</p> <p>53% trusted the departmental head</p> <p>Staff were divided equally on whether they perceived institutional processes to be fair, one third each believing they were or were not fair and one third uncertain.</p>	<p>61% were satisfied with their jobs which the authors state is low relative to other occupational groups.</p> <p>33% were dissatisfied with their work.</p> <p>Strongest predictors of job satisfaction were procedural fairness, trust in heads of school, and autonomy.</p> <p>Institutional differences in job satisfaction were best predicted by percentages in staff cuts and staff-student ratios.</p> <p>Colleagues were the greatest source of job satisfaction.</p> <p>52% felt committed to their institution, the strongest predictor of commitment was trust in senior staff.</p> <p>33% reported high job involvement.</p>
---	--	--	---	--



9	McInnis (2000a; 2000b)	Opportunity to pursue own academic interests dropped from 66% in 1993 to 53% in 1999.	63% strongly negative toward management and administration.	<p>Job satisfaction dropped from 67% being satisfied in 1993 to 51% in 1999.</p> <p>71% reported no change or a decline in job satisfaction between 1993 and 1999.</p> <p>67% motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic rewards.</p> <p>61% would not recommend academe as a profession.</p> <p>Job satisfaction decreased with seniority, the late career academics are the most dissatisfied.</p> <p>Business academics most satisfied among the disciplines.</p>
10	Kayrooz, Kinear and Preston, (2001)	<p>Moderate to high satisfaction with academic freedom.</p> <p>73% claimed it had deteriorated over the previous four years.</p>	<p>81% blamed changes in academic freedom on commercialisation of the university.</p> <p>Respondents were uncomfortable with commercialisation in terms of redirecting teaching in to fee paying postgraduate and vocational programs and a loss of collegiality.</p> <p>51% reported increased competition between colleagues.</p>	

11	Anderson, Johnson and Saha (2002)	<p>92% stated academic freedom was very important to them.</p> <p>56% reported a decline in autonomy.</p> <p>41% reported decline in freedom of speech.</p>	<p>58% reported decrease in collegiality.</p> <p>50% reported deterioration in relationships with senior management.</p> <p>62% thought senior management's knowledge of academic work had decreased.</p>	<p>64% reported a decline in job satisfaction.</p> <p>79% reported a decrease in the attractiveness of being an academic as a career.</p>
12	Harman (2005)	<p>94% stated they engaged in research for reasons of personal interest and motivation compared to 47.5% to enhance departmental profile.</p> <p>35% agreed that social scientists had ceased to be critics of government and society.</p>	<p>66% thought entrepreneurial efforts were a threat to academic values.</p> <p>45% thought their school was well managed.</p> <p>33% rated the quality of university management as high or very high.</p>	<p>25% rated morale as high.</p>
13	Winefield, Boyd, Saebel and Pignata, (2008)	<p>Comparison of overall results for 2000 and 2003/04 (for all staff) shows job autonomy had increased at <math>p &lt; .05</math> level.</p> <p>Comparison of longitudinal results for academics (only those 447 who were resurveyed) showed no change in job autonomy.</p>	<p>Comparisons of overall results for 2000 and 2003/04 (for all staff) show the following significant changes:</p> <p>Improved trust in senior management.</p> <p>Less job insecurity.</p> <p>Improved procedural fairness.</p> <p>No change in trust in department head.</p> <p>Longitudinal results for academics show not changes in attitudes to management.</p>	<p>Comparison of overall results for 2000 and 2003/04 (for all staff) for provides no significant change in job satisfaction.</p> <p>This is similar for the longitudinal results for academics in both surveys.</p>

14	Coates, Goedegebuure, van der Lee and Meek (2008a; 2008b)		<p>75% agree that administrative systems are cumbersome.</p> <p>70% agree that management style is 'top down'.</p> <p>70% agree that institution had a strong performance orientation.</p> <p>31% agree that senior management is providing competent leadership.</p> <p>21% agree that the communication with management is good.</p> <p>20% agree there is collegiality in decision-making.</p>	<p>55% describe their job satisfaction as high or very high – the highest is at levels D and E (71%) and lowest at Level C (47%).</p> <p>75% are considering changing jobs including 38% leaving academe.</p>
15	Langford (2008)	Autonomy stated to have decreased but only figure given is drop in involvement from 49% to 45%.	<p>Organisational direction up from 46% to 62%.</p> <p>Leadership up from 37% to 43%.</p> <p>Organisational processes down from 40% to 33%.</p> <p>Supervision (HOD) up from 70% to 73%.</p> <p>Teamwork (colleagues) up from 84% to 86%.</p> <p>Cross-unit cooperation up from 21% to 24%.</p> <p>Career opportunities up from 29% to 31%.</p> <p>Involvement down from 49% to 45%.</p>	<p>Job satisfaction up from 77% to 78%.</p> <p>Organisational commitment up from 72% to 73%.</p>

**Table 2C: Comparison of Australian Research – Workload, Stress and Other**

	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Workload</b>	<b>Stress</b>	<b>Other</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1	Sheehan, Welch and Lacy (1996); Sheehan and Welch (1996)	Average weekly working hours were 44.4 for females and 47.6 for males.	N/A	56 % Level A and Level B 48% Level C, 30% Level D and 25.5 % Level E staff have a primary interest in teaching.  83% agreed regular research is expected in their academic position.	
2	Vidovich and Currie (1998); Currie and Vidovich (2000)	N/A	N/A	Senior academics were more likely to perceive changes than younger academics.	
3	Meek and Wood (1997)	N/A	N/A	Key impediments to effective management were lack of finances (66%); ineffective administrative systems (42%) and staff resistance (42%).  Respondents were not always sure where decisions were made.	

4	Harman (2000)	<p>Working hours increased from 44 hours per week in 1977 to 49.7 hours in 1997.</p> <p>82% reported working harder and longer than five years previously.</p> <p>Teaching hours declined.</p> <p>Research hours increased.</p> <p>Administration hours increased significantly.</p>	N/A	<p>Core values remained unchanged between 1977 and 1997.</p> <p>70% disagreed that students should financially contribute more to higher education.</p> <p>Only 33% of academics agreed that coursework postgraduate students should pay fees.</p> <p>Despite lower satisfaction levels in 1997, fewer academics indicated an intention to leave compared with 1977.</p>	<p>Over 50% involved in entrepreneurial activities and enjoyed the excitement.</p>
5	Winter, Taylor and Sarros (2000)	<p>High levels of role overload from time pressures and unrealistic performance expectations. Lowest level of role overload in business faculty.</p>	<p>High role stress related to high workload but not role ambiguity.</p>		
6	Winter and Sarros (2001;2002)	<p>Very high levels of role overload and intensification of work because of lack of time; fewer academics; larger classes and more administrative tasks.</p>	<p>Not specifically mentioned but stress is related to role overload and value conflict.</p>	<p>Value conflict between university as a business and as a place of scholarship. Most felt that market and corporate behaviour inappropriate for a university. Strong emotional commitment to the institution but high levels of negativity toward the administration.</p>	<p>Issues of entrepreneurialism were the least mentioned by respondents.</p> <p>Sample profile similar to Winter et al. (2000).</p>

7	NTEU (2000)	<p>90% reported workload as a source of stress and pressure.</p> <p>86.5% reported lack of time for research as a source of stress and pressure.</p> <p>89% worked over 40 hrs per week.</p> <p>66% worked over 50 hrs per week.</p> <p>82.5% reported an increase in workload since 1996.</p> <p>60% reported a decrease in departmental size since 1996.</p> <p>70% gave restructuring as the reason for downsizing of departments.</p> <p>Greatest workload increases were in areas of administration and teaching.</p>	<p>62% reported feeling stressed often or almost always.</p> <p>82% reported an increase in stress since 1996.</p> <p>See section on management for sources of stress such as workload and university climate.</p>	<p>General staff had lower workloads and greater job satisfaction than academics.</p>
---	-------------	--	--	---

8	Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua and Hapuararchchi (2002)	30% reported working more than 55 hours per week.	<p>50% were at risk of psychological illness compared with only 19% of the Australian population.</p> <p>Strongest organisational predictors of stress were job insecurity and work demands.</p> <p>Institutional differences in stress were best predicted by financial health of the institution.</p>	<p>Overall, high stress levels attributed to: insufficient resources; work overload; poor management practices; job insecurity and insufficient recognition and reward.</p> <p>Level B and C academics most at risk.</p>
---	--	---	---	--

9	McInnis (2000a; 2000b)	<p>Average working hours per week increased 47.7 in 1993 to 49.2 in 1999.</p> <p>40% work more than 50 hours per week.</p> <p>Teaching time has declined from 53% of time in 1993 to 48.7% in 1999.</p> <p>Time spent on administration increased from 13.5% to 17% of time per week between 1993 and 1999.</p> <p>50% reported an increase in the time spent on marketing and promotions.</p> <p>Business academics worked the fewest hours than other disciplines.</p>	<p>Those reporting their job as a considerable source of stress increased from 52% to 56% between 1993 and 1999.</p> <p>Mid career academics were most overworked and stressed.</p> <p>Satisfaction with job security dropped from 52% in 1993 to 43% in 1999.</p> <p>Satisfaction with salary dropped from 37% in 1993 to 31% in 1999.</p> <p>Business academics were least stressed of any discipline.</p>	<p>The proportion of academics primarily interested in research increased from 35% in 1993 to 41% in 1999.</p> <p>64% strongly committed to research compared to 52% being strongly committed to teaching.</p> <p>Only 21% preferred teaching to research.</p> <p>In 1999, 91% saw reward systems favouring research over teaching.</p> <p>95% thought teaching should be rewarded.</p>	<p>No change in work motivation.</p> <p>Declines in satisfaction and autonomy.</p> <p>Increases in administration, students and research time and interest.</p> <p>Business academics work fewer hours, are less stressed and more satisfied.</p>
10	Kayrooz, Kinear and Preston, (2001)	<p>Majority reported increases in workload, especially administrative and less time for research.</p>		<p>The most common strategy to protect academic freedom was building networks with colleagues.</p>	



11	Anderson, Johnson and Saha (2002)	<p>82% reported an increase in job related stress.</p> <p>80% reported an increase in administrative work.</p> <p>77% thought the pressure to publish had increased.</p> <p>52% reported an increase in activities associated with entrepreneurialism.</p>		Overall picture of frustration and disillusionment.	
12	Harman (2005)	<p>Average hours per week were 49.5</p> <p>Slightly more were interested in research (95%) rather than teaching (82%) – 10% interested in administration.</p> <p>Most hours spent on teaching (18.2), followed by administration (14) and then research (11.4).</p>	N/A		
13	Winefield, Boyd, Saebel and Pignata, (2008)	<p>Comparison of results for 2000 and 2003/04 (all staff) demonstrate significant decrease in work pressure but an increase in work-home conflict.</p>	<p>Comparison of results for 2000 and 2003/04 (all staff) demonstrate significant increase in stress. There was no significant change for academics in the longitudinal study.</p> <p>Only work-home conflict increased for academics in the longitudinal study.</p>	<p>Comparisons of results for 2000 and 2003/04 (all staff) show significant increases in organisational commitment and job involvement. There was also a significant increase in job involvement among academics in the longitudinal study.</p>	<p>Details of the full results were not available so it has been necessary to rely on a published journal article.</p>

14	Coates, Goedegebuure, van der Lee and Meek (2008a; 2008b)	<p>Average hours per week is 50 hours with greater hours in teaching sessions and less outside teaching sessions.</p> <p>Teaching constitutes 36% of time; research 29% and administration 20%.</p> <p>25% of academics are engaged in distance learning and 14% in offshore teaching.</p>	<p>50% report the job is a constant source of strain.</p> <p>62% agree that working conditions have deteriorated.</p> <p>50% rate academic support as poor.</p>	<p>93% express a preference for research over teaching.</p> <p>Research is applied, multidisciplinary, international and not geared to commercialisation.</p> <p>45% of publications are in overseas publications.</p> <p>There is pressure to publish but this is a threat to quality of research.</p>	
15	Langford (2008)	<p>Satisfaction with workload decreased from 36% to 34%.</p> <p>Research hours up from 55% to 57%.</p> <p>Teaching hours the same 63%.</p> <p>Entrepreneurship activities down from 42% to 37%.</p>	<p>Wellness decreased from 51% to 50%.</p> <p>Worklife balance remained the same at 64%.</p>	<p>Overall stronger and clearer management focus with high satisfaction with colleagues but more dissatisfaction with the processes, involvement, workload and perceived reduction in student satisfaction.</p>	<p>Important to note that these results include the perceptions of general staff who constitute the majority of respondents in each university. Academics record stronger negative attitudes.</p>

## **APPENDIX THREE    ETHICS APPROVALS AND PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEETS**

This Appendix contains copies of Ethics approval from two universities for the 2002/03 research. The third university did not require individual approval other than from Macquarie University. In addition, the participant information sheets and consent forms for each period are attached.

- 2A    Ethics Application Approval from Macquarie University
- 2B    2002 Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form
- 2C    Ethics Application Approval from University of Sydney
- 2D    2008 Information Sheet to Participants
- 2D    2008 Participant Consent Form

## 2A Ethics Application Approval from Macquarie University



Ms Suzanne Ryan  
4/197 King St  
Newcastle NSW 2300

Reference: HE25OCT2002-DO2056  
02/1495

Dear Ms Ryan

### FINAL APPROVAL LETTER

Title of Project: *Colonisation of academic values through corporatisation of universities: fact or fiction for academics engaged in offshore graduate management program*

Your responses to the outstanding issues raised by the Committee have satisfactorily been addressed. You may now proceed with your research. The approval was granted subject to the following condition:

1. Item 1.11. Copies of correspondence with other university ethics committees should be provided to the Committee when applications have been submitted.

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. Approval will be for a period of twelve months. At the end of this period, if the project has been completed, abandoned, discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are required to submit a Final Report on the project. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. The Final Report is available at [http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth\\_hum3.htm](http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth_hum3.htm)
2. However, at the end of the 12 month period if the project is still current you should instead submit an application for renewal of the approval if the project has run for less than three (3) years. This form is available at [http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth\\_hum3.htm](http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth_hum3.htm). If the project has run for more than three (3) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report (see Point 1 above) and submit a new application for the project. (The three year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).
3. Please remember the Committee must be notified of any alteration to the project.
4. You must notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.
5. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University ([http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth\\_hum2.htm](http://www.ro.mq.edu.au/eth_hum2.htm)).
6. If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is **your responsibility** to provide Macquarie University's Grants Officer with a copy of this letter as soon as possible. The Grants Officer will not inform external funding agencies that you have final approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Grants Officer has received a copy of this final approval letter.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Catriona Mackenzie'.

*Dr* Dr Catriona Mackenzie  
Chair, Ethics Review Committee (Human Research)

*Received Dec 2002*

ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (HUMAN RESEARCH)  
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY (E11A)  
SYDNEY, NSW, 2109 AUSTRALIA

Chair: Ph: (02) 9850 8865 Fax: (02) 9850 8892 E-mail: [cmackenz@scmp.mq.edu.au](mailto:cmackenz@scmp.mq.edu.au)  
Deputy Chair: Ph: (02) 9850 9859 Fax: (02) 9850 9890 E-mail: [swyver@aces1.aces.mq.edu.au](mailto:swyver@aces1.aces.mq.edu.au)  
Secretary: Ph: (02) 9850 7854 Fax: (02) 9850 8799 E-mail: [kdesilva@vc.mq.edu.au](mailto:kdesilva@vc.mq.edu.au)

## 2B 2002 Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form

Suzanne Ryan  
Macquarie GSM  
Mobile: 040 770 1624  
Email: sryan007@student.mq.edu.au

### INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

#### The Impact of Offshore Commercialised Teaching and Learning on Academic Values

---

You are invited to participate in a study of *The Impact of Offshore Commercialised Teaching and Learning on Academic Values*. Your assistance in this work would be very much appreciated.

The purpose of the study is to understand how involvement in offshore postgraduate management programs, specifically the MBA and the DBA, affects traditional academic values. If these values are affected, then I am interested what gave rise to the change. I am also interested in how and why values may not change.

The study is being conducted to meet the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration under the supervision of Associate Professor Ruth Neumann (phone 02 9850 7766) and Professor James Guthrie (phone 02 9850 9030) of Macquarie Graduate School of Management at Macquarie University.

If, as I hope, you agree to participate, you will be asked to take part in an semi-structured interview (about one hour) in which I will ask about your academic career and values, your academic experiences, especially in a graduate school of business and in offshore programs. The interview will be confidential and the thesis and any publications emanating from it will be written in such a way as to preserve the anonymity of participants, their school and the institution. The interview will be audio taped for later analysis. Only the researcher will have access to the tapes whose security and confidentiality is assured. The written summaries and transcripts of interviews will be coded and also kept securely. A summary of the results will be available to participants on completion of the thesis if they would like to receive it.

If you are interested in participating in this research or would like further information, please email me indicating your interest. My email address is [sryan007@student.mq.edu.au](mailto:sryan007@student.mq.edu.au). I will telephone you to make a mutually convenient time for the interview. Naturally, should you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation in the research at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

Thank you for your time.

Suzanne Ryan  
DBA Candidate

## ***PARTICIPANTS COPY***

---

I, \_\_\_\_\_ have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name:  
(block letters)

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date:

Investigator's Name:  
(block letters)

Investigator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date:

*The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through its Secretary (telephone 9850 7854; email [kdesilva@vc.mq.edu.au](mailto:kdesilva@vc.mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.*

**INVESTIGATORS COPY**

I, \_\_\_\_\_ have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name:  
(block letters)

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date:

Investigator's Name:  
(block letters)

Investigator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date:

*The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Ethics Review Committee through its Secretary (telephone 9850 7854; email k.desilva@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.*

Please circle the appropriate age code:

AGE	CODE
<30	A1
31-40	A2
41-50	A3
51-60	A4
61-70	A5
71+	A6

I would like a copy of the summary of findings from the interviews. Please send it to me at:

NAME:

ADDRESS:

## 2C Ethics Application Approval from University of Sydney



The University of Sydney

NSW 2006 Australia

Human Research Ethics Committee

[www.usyd.edu.au/ethics/human](http://www.usyd.edu.au/ethics/human)

Senior Ethics Officer:

Gail Briody

Telephone: (02) 9351 4811

Facsimile: (02) 9351 6706

Email: [gbriody@usyd.edu.au](mailto:gbriody@usyd.edu.au)

Room 313, Level 3, Old Teachers College – A22

---

Human Secretariat

Telephone: (02) 9036 9309

(02) 9036 9308

Facsimile: (02) 9036 9310

16 July 2008

Professor J Guthrie  
Discipline of Accounting  
Faculty of Economics and Business  
Economics and Business Building – H69  
The University of Sydney

Dear Professor Guthrie

**Title:** *Impact of corporatisation of the Australian Higher Education Sector on the values of graduate business school academics*

**Ref:** 07-2008/10837

Thank you for providing a summary of participants' views, fulfilling the condition of approval for the above-mentioned protocol.

This has been filed with your original application.

Yours sincerely

Dr P Beale  
Chairman  
Human Research Ethics Committee

cc. Ms. S. Ryan, 4/197 King Street, NEWCASTLE NSW 2300





**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT  
Research Project**

**Title: Impact of corporatisation of the Australian Higher Education Sector on the values of graduate business school academics**

1. What is the study about?

Over the past two decades, Australian higher education has changed from a domestic social institution into a competitive export industry with significant implications for students, academics and the community. The broad purpose of this study is in understanding the impact of corporatisation within higher education on academic values and priorities. Autonomous graduate schools of business were the selected case study for the research because they were among the most highly commercialised academic units within Australian universities. The specific research focus is on the impacts of work in a graduate school of business on the values of their academics.

2. Who is carrying out the study?

The study is being conducted by Suzanne Ryan and will form the basis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at The University of Sydney under the supervision of Professor James Guthrie, Professor and Chair of the Accounting Discipline in the Faculty of Business and Law and Associate Professor Ruth Neumann, Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Macquarie University.

3. What does the study involve?

Stage one of this research involved interviews in late 2002 or early 2003 about your perceptions of working in a graduate school of business. In this second stage of the research I am asking you to comment on the attached summary of the 2002/203 interviews with 21 academics from three graduate schools of business. The summary is written in general terms without distinguishing between schools as it tries to paint a picture of the academics as if they were in one school. There are three questions at the end of the summary asking for comment on: one, your general reaction to the summary; two, any changes that have significantly affected you in the past five years; and three, specifically any changes in your views on collegiality.





NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA

James Guthrie  
PhD  
Professor of Accounting  
Chair of Discipline

Discipline of Accounting  
Economics and Business Building H69  
cnr Rose & Cadrigton Streets  
telephone + 61 2 9036 6236  
facsimile + 61 2 9351 6638  
email j.guthrie@econ.usyd.edu.au

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I, ..... give consent to my participation in the research project  
Name (please print)

TITLE: .. Impact of corporatisation of the Australian Higher Education Sector on the values of graduate business school academics

In giving my consent I acknowledge that:

1. The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I have read the Participant Information Statement and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher/s.
3. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without affecting my relationship with the researcher(s) now or in the future.
4. By consenting to be interviewed, I understand the interview will be recorded on a digital recorder by the interviewer and I have the opportunity to review the audio files and transcript should I wish to do so.
5. I understand that my involvement is strictly confidential and no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

Signed: .....  
Name: .....  
Date: .....



UNIVERSITY OF SYDNEY  
HREC  
27 MAY 2008  
**APPROVED**

## 2D 2008 Information Sheet to Participants



**The University of Sydney**

Faculty of Economics and Business

NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA

---

**James Guthrie**

*PhD*

Professor of Accounting

Chair of Discipline

**Discipline of Accounting**

Economics and Business Building H69

cnr Rose & Codrington Streets

telephone + 61 2 9036 6236

facsimile + 61 2 9351 6638

email j.guthrie@econ.usyd.edu.au

### **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT** **Research Project**

**Title: Impact of corporatisation of the Australian Higher Education Sector on the values of graduate business school academics**

1. What is the study about?

Over the past two decades, Australian higher education has changed from a domestic social institution into a competitive export industry with significant implications for students, academics and the community. The broad purpose of this study is in understanding the impact of corporatisation within higher education on academic values and priorities. Autonomous graduate schools of business were selected as the case study for the research because they were among the most highly commercialised academic units within Australian universities. The specific research focus is the impacts of work in a graduate school of business on the values of their academics.

2. Who is carrying out the study?

The study is being conducted by Suzanne Ryan and will form the basis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at The University of Sydney under the supervision of Professor James Guthrie, Professor and Chair of the Accounting Discipline in the Faculty of Business and Law and Associate Professor Ruth Neumann, Macquarie Graduate School of Management, Macquarie University.

3. What does the study involve?

Stage one of this research involved interviews in late 2002 or early 2003 about your perceptions of working in a graduate school of business. In this second

stage of the research I am asking you to comment on the attached summaries (stories) of the 2002/203 interviews with 21 academics from three graduate schools of business. The summary is written in general terms without distinguishing between schools as it tries to paint a picture of the academics as if they were in one school. There are two questions at the end of the stories asking for your comment on: one, the accuracy of the stories in relation to your views and circumstance as you remember them five years ago; and two, any changes in your views or circumstances in the past five years. If you agree to participate, you may do so in one of three ways, depending on which is most convenient to you. You may email me a written response, request that I phone you for a telephone interview, or you may seek a face to face meeting for an interview. If you opt for an interview, with your permission, it will be audio taped for later analysis. Only the researcher will have access to the tapes whose security and confidentiality is assured.

4. How much time will the study take?

I estimate that it will take approximately two hours of your time to read, consider and respond to the summary, be this in writing or by interview.

5. Can I withdraw from the study?

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and, if you do participate, you may withdraw at any time without prejudice or penalty. All aspects of the study will be strictly confidential, and only the researchers will have access to information on participants.

6. Will anyone else know the results?

In the final thesis and in the event of publications arising from the study, both School and individual identities will be protected. The 21 academics from three graduate schools are treated as if from one School, referred to as the 'Australian Graduate School of Business'. Individual identities are protected by a code number on all transcripts and, should any quotations be used, only the code number will be used.

7. Will the study benefit me?

Although the study is of no direct benefit to participants, it may be of interest because of the focus on higher education and business schools.

8. Can I tell other people about the study?

You may inform others about the study and a summary of the results and/or publications containing the results will be available to participants on completion of the thesis should they wish to receive them. If you would

9. What if I require further information?

When you have read this information, Suzanne Ryan will discuss it with you further and answer any questions you may have. If you would like to know more at

any stage, please feel free to contact Suzanne. Her email is srya7877@usyd.edu.au and telephone 0407701624

10. What if I have a complaint or concerns?

Any person with concerns or complaints about the conduct of a research study can contact the Senior Ethics Officer, Ethics Administration, University of Sydney on (02) 9351 4811 (Telephone); (02) 9351 6706 (Facsimile) or [gbriody@usyd.edu.au](mailto:gbriody@usyd.edu.au) (Email).

The ethics approval number is

This information sheet is for you to keep

## 2E 2008 Participant Consent Form



# The University of Sydney

Faculty of Economics and Business

NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA

**James Guthrie**  
*PhD*  
Professor of Accounting  
Chair of Discipline

**Discipline of Accounting**  
Economics and Business Building H69  
cnr Rose & Codrington Streets  
telephone + 61 2 9036 6236  
facsimile + 61 2 9351 6638  
email j.guthrie@econ.usyd.edu.au

### PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I, ....., give consent to my participation in the research project  
Name (please print)

**TITLE: Impact of corporatisation of the Australian Higher Education Sector on the values of graduate business school academics**

In giving my consent I acknowledge that:

1. The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I have read the Participant Information Statement and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher/s.
3. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without affecting my relationship with the researcher(s) now or in the future.
4. By consenting to be interviewed, I understand the interview will be recorded on a digital recorder by the interviewer and I have the opportunity to review the audio files and transcript should I wish to do so.
5. I understand that my involvement is strictly confidential and no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

**Signed:** .....

**Name:** .....

**Date:** .....



## **APPENDIX FOUR      INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR 2002/2003**

### **INTERVIEWS**

The following questions were used as the interview guide for the first stage of interviews in 2002/2003.

November 2002

- 1. To start with, would you tell me a little about your career, your reasons for becoming an academic and the changes you've noticed in academe over your career?**

Probe:

- Reasons for becoming an academic
- Early experiences in Academe
- Other institutions and departments in which worked
- Range of teaching experiences
- Changes in academic over your career

- 2. What does being an academic mean to you?**

Probe:

- Most valued aspects of academic life
- Priorities in terms of teaching, research and scholarship
- Management of time in terms of teaching and research

- 3. How would you describe your values as an academic?**

- Values, identity and culture
- Most important values
- Value change

- 4. Where does your main loyalty lie, with the Graduate School or your discipline?**

- 5. Tell me about the highs and lows of working in a Graduate School of Business**

Probe:

- Comparison with working in a general Faculty
- Multidisciplinarity
- Research and teaching nexus
- Impact of quality controls and administration generally
- Impact of Fee structures
- Impact of Rewards
- Governance

**7. How has internationalisation affected you?**

Probe:

- University reaction
- teaching
- research
- lifestyle
- benefits and burdens of off-shore teaching and supervision

**8. In the best of all worlds, what would an ideal academic life consist of?**

Probe:

- Value priorities
- Lifestyle priorities
- Negative aspects of current situation
- Suggestions for improvement

**Demographics:**

The following information will be sought from within the interview. If the information is not available from either of these sources, direct questions will be asked.

- Years as an academic
- Original discipline
- DBA or MBA or both
- No and type of offshore courses taught (no per year and no of years)
- Time in Grad School



## **APPENDIX FIVE            CODING PROCESS AND THEME DEVELOPMENT**

This appendix outlines the four steps employed to code the transcripts and develop themes for understanding the data. The steps are, in order of the sections within this appendix:

- 5A    Step One: Coding Down to Original Codes
  
- 5B    Step Two: Coding Up Expansion of Original Codes.
  
- 5C    Step Three: Collapsing Codes into Themes
  
- 5D    Step Four: Division of Themes into Lifeworlds

## 5A Step One: Coding Down to Original Codes

The transcripts were firstly coded into 23 codes based on the prompts from the interview schedule and notes arising from interviews. The interview prompts were initially developed to cover issues raised in the literature and were further extended based on other issues arising from the literature. The 23 codes were then grouped into seven general codes with the 23 preliminary codes forming sub-codes. The following Table 4A summarises the headings of the seven codes and 23 sub-codes.

**Table 4A Original Codes and Sub-codes**

CODE	SUBCODES
1. Academic Life	1A Reason for becoming an academic 1B On being an academic 1C Most valued aspects of academic life 1D Changes in academe over career 1E Ideal academic life 1F Changes desired to current academic life
2. Work in a GSB	2A Positive aspects of working in a GSB 2B Negative aspects of working in a GSB 2C Comparison of GSB with a general faculty 2D Additional remuneration 2E Impact of fee-paying students 2F Culture
3. Values	3A Values
4. Loyalty	4A Loyalty
5. Teaching, Research and Other Work Activities	5A Balance of work 5B Multidisciplinarity
6. Governance	6A Governance 6B Leadership 6C Quality Assurance
7. Internationalisation	7A General 7B Positives of offshore teaching 7C Negatives of offshore teaching 7D Student-Teacher Relationships

## **5B Step Two: Coding Up Expansion of Original Codes.**

The original seven codes and 23 sub-codes were expanded into 137 codes based on responses to the 23 sub-codes. Exceptions were not coded as they were single responses. The following is a summary of the 137 detailed codes grouped according to the original code and sub-code and ordered according to frequency.

### **1. Academic Life**

#### **1A. Reasons for becoming an academic**

1A.1 Enjoyed teaching	11
1A.2 Control over work and time –autonomy, frustration with industry	9
1A.3 Interest in Learning and inquiry, making a contribution	4
1A.4 Inspired by professors or others	3
1A.5 Only ever been an academic	2

Exceptions: it was the done thing; lack of options, I dreamed of being a professor since childhood.

#### **1B. On being an academic**

1B.1 Love of work and stimulating environment	10
1B.2 Time poor, feeling pressured	8
1B.3 Freedom to control work	7
1B.4 Students and teaching as a priority	6
1B.5 Emphasis on teaching but research for promotion, a game	6
1B.6 Research is a priority or a game that must be played	5
1B.7 Balance between research and teaching	2

Exceptions: my natural left wing orientation means I have to be careful with student and business; freedom might be compromised in the future by need to meet market criteria; being involved in administration is important to understand the direction of the school

#### **1C. Most valued aspects of academic life**

1C.1 Control over work – freedom; job and time control	17
1C.2 Teaching	6
1C.3 Learning environment	4
1C.4 Research	3

Exceptions: being a role model

## **1D Changes in academe over career**

1D.1 More administrators and administration/controls; managerialism	11
1D.2 Changes in students– size, focus, ability, demands, consumerism	9
1D.3 More pressure in every area	6
1D.4 Emphasis on money making	5
1D.5 Fewer resources	4
1D.6 Less academic freedom	3
Exceptions: increased fragmentation and no academic unity	

## **1E Ideal academic life**

1E.1 More resources/time	15
1E.2 Less controlling administration	11
1E.3 Collegial environment	5
1E.4 Balance of work	5
1E.5 I like it as it is	4
1E.6 More freedom to teach what I want	3
1E.7 More administrative support	3
1E.8 More recognition/appropriate rewards for what we do	2
1E.9 More academics in my area	2
Exceptions: stimulating rather than threatening politics.	

## **1F. Changes desired to current academic life**

1F.1. Less administrative control/more administrative support	8
1F.2. Less interference/ greater respect by the University/State	7
1F.3. Return to collegiality	5
1F.4. Better time balance to allow research	2

## **2. Working in a GSB**

### **2A. Positives of working in a GSB**

2A.1 Colleagues	18
2A.2 Students and teaching	17
2A.3 Stimulating environment	9
2A.4 Not having fixed teaching periods/flexible time	4
2A.5 Feeling empowered and/or responsible for the future of the school	3
2A.6 Travel and conference	3
2A.7 Personal enjoyment	2
2A.8 Research	2
Exceptions: being part of the university; control of time, high standards, having own administrative staff	

## **2B. Negatives of working in a GSB**

2B.1 Pressure of time and workload	18
2B.2 Administration, administrators, management, administrative load	13
2B.3 Demanding students	4
2B.4 Negative relationship with University and focus on money making	4
2B.5 Loneliness	2

Exceptions: separation from discipline; not having practical experience.

## **2C. Comparison of GSB with working in a Faculty**

2C.1 Positive characteristics of students and teaching	12
2C.2 Culture colleagues and environment more positive	10
2C.3 More pressure	2
2C.4 More resources	2

Exceptions: Faculty has better students; more research time and less stress in Faculty; I miss the students wandering around in faculty

## **2D. Additional Remuneration**

2D.1 Important	16
2D.2 Not important	9
2D.3 Salaries low so need supplementation	8
2D.4 Only commensurate with the additional effort	5
2D.5 Distraction from research	4
2D.6 It helps with research resources	2
2D.7 Others do it for the money	2

Exceptions: it is an incentive.

## **2E. Impact of fee-paying students**

2E.1 Student demanding, have high expectations, behave like customers	17
2E.2 Does not affect me, students are students, not customers.	13
2E.3 Pressure to perform for student expectation	10
2E.4 Makes students more motivated	4

Exceptions: I learn a lot from the students; there is a need to balance income stream with academic standards.

## **2F. Culture of GSB**

2F.1 Strong culture based on hours/size/shared values, goals & change	12
2F.2 More enduring than the deans who pass through/affected by deans	9
2F.3 Collegial	6
2F.4 Research is a game	3
2F.5 Hardworking/productive	3
2F.6 Competitive with and/or different from University	2
2F.7 Emphasis on teaching	2
2F.8 Disciplinary silos	2

Exceptions: The culture is closer to that of a traditional university, it is personally ambitious and competitive among colleagues and between other GSB.

## **3. Values**

3.1 Integrity, honesty, truth, respect	15
3.2 Learning, knowledge transfer and stewardship	10
3.3 Freedom to decide research, content of teaching and to speak out	7
3.4 Commitment to work, profession, excellence	5
3.5 Cooperating, helping students and colleagues	2

Exception: no pressure not to speak out but don't bite the hand that feeds you; organisational loyalty.

## **4. Loyalty**

4.1 School or school with conditions	18
4.2 Not the University	5
4.3 Colleagues	3
4.4 Discipline	2
4.5 University	2
4.6 Self	2

## **5. Teaching, research and other work activities**

### **5A. Balance of work activities**

5A.1 Both research and teaching important and connected	17
5A.2 Teaching is the priority because of urgency/enjoyment	9
5A.3 Research is the priority	3
5A.4 Administration is priority	3
5A.5 Consultancy and teaching	2

Exceptions: there is no nexus except in research programs; research is too advanced for core programs.

## **5B. Multidisciplinarity**

5B.1 Positive interaction with colleagues improves knowledge and teaching	22
5B.2 More in theory than practice because of disciplinary silos	7
5B.3 Has a positive effect on research	6
5B.4 Has a negative affect on research	5
5B.5 A necessity as it reflects what real business is	4

Exceptions: it makes the school unique; it is a tradeoff between shared values and shared ideas.

## **6. Governance**

### **6A. Governance**

6A.1 Collegiality – the good and bad	23
6A.2 Managerialism	17
6A.3 Leadership	17
6A.4 Role of the University	3
6A.5 Academic Freedom	2
6A.6 Partnership governance	2

Exceptions: important to be a good citizen o the university; this is a cold place, it is frightening; I would personally prefer managerialism and quick decision making.

### **6B. Leadership**

6B.1 Dean can encourage loyalty to School, focus and/or collegiality	12
6B.2 Dean can make or break the school	11
6B.3 Can inspire solidarity against the dean	8
6B.4 Managerialist	4
6B.5 Lack skills	3

### **6C. Quality assurance**

6C.1 Inappropriate, controlling, bureaucratic, alienating	17
6C.2 Necessary but only if the means are appropriate	13
6C.3 Necessary even though not appropriate means	12
6C.4 It is a source of stress	2

Exceptions: makes me feel good but does not inspire improvement; useful when changing a course.

## **7. Internationalisation**

### **7A. General**

7A.1 Self Learning	8
7A.2 University views it as simply revenue/major growth strategy	6
7A.3 Informs teaching and curricula	4
7A.4 Enjoyable	3
7A.5 Part of living in a global world	3
7A.6 Useful for research	3
7A.7 Contributes to personal income	3
7A.8 Adds to workload/travel interferes with work	2
Exceptions: good for local students to be exposed to internationals; international students do not per se compromise standards, university entry criteria do this.	

### **7B. Positives of working offshore**

7B.1 Learning/self development/informs teaching	17
7B.2 Like to travel, and get away	17
7B.3 Good for research	9
7B.4 Like intensive mode	4
7B.5 Good students	4
7B.6 Like catching up with colleagues	3
7B.7 Like the extra income	3
7B.8 Novelty of travel wears off	2
Exceptions: there is time to relax	

### **7C. Negatives of working offshore**

7C.1 Negative affect on health, tiring	11
7C.2 Disruptive and time consuming	9
7C.3 Students or relationships with students not as good	6
7C.4 Away from family	6
7C.5 Lack of resources	5
7C.6 Teaching period or mode not good	4
7C.7 Sick of travel	3
Exceptions: Financially is not sufficient; the total workload for teaching is too much; the resources are not as good.	



## **7D. Student—Teacher Relationships**

7D.1 I adapt my style to the students	18
7D.2 Students more pressured, less support, more confident, less demanding language problems, not as good.	6
7D.3 Students non-participative, language problems; cohort issues.	5
7D.4 Too short term	4
7D.5 Do not like the students nor the teaching	4
7D.6 Similar to onshore students with minor exceptions	2
7D.7 Too time consuming, too much reliance on email	2
Exception: I refuse to change my style, even the jokes.	

### **Issues missing from or minimal mention in transcripts**

Minimal mention of competition between colleagues or other GSB.

Absence of business focus apart from University using GSB for money making

Lack of mention of the university or the sector other than the comment above.

Absence of use of the word 'stress'.

## 5C Step Three: Collapsing Codes into Themes

Eight themes were developed from the 137 sub-codes: individual values; work attitudes; relationships; lifestyle; culture; governance; and leadership and entrepreneurship. In all but the last theme, entrepreneurship, the themes were selected because they were re-occurring in the major codes. The eighth and final theme, entrepreneurship, was selected because of its relevance to the AGSB and its relationship with the University. Table 4C illustrates the composition of each theme in terms of the seven codes and 23 sub-codes. Because of the variety in the content of sub-codes, they appear several themes.

**Table 4C Codes and sub-codes collapsed into themes**

Theme	Relevant Code	Relevant Sub-code	
Individual Values	1. Academic Life	1A Becoming an academic	
		1B Being an academic	
		1C Valued aspects of academe	
	2.Working in a GSB	2A Positive aspects	
		2D Additional remuneration	
	3. Values	3 Values	
	7. Internationalisation	7B Positive aspects	
		7C Negative aspects	
	Work Attitudes	1. Academic Life	1B Being an academic
			1C Valued aspects of academe
1E Ideal academic life			
1F Changes to current life			
2.Working in a GSB		2A Positive aspects	
		2D Additional remuneration	
4. Loyalty		4 Loyalty	
7. Internationalisation		7A General	
		7B Positive aspects	
		7D Student-teacher relationships	
Relationships	2.Working in a GSB	2A Positive aspects	
		2B Negative aspects	
		2C Comparison with faculty	
		2E Impact of students	
	5. Teaching, Research and Other Work Activities	5B Multidisciplinarity	
	7. Internationalisation	7B Positive aspects	
		7C Negative aspects	
		7D Student-teacher relationships	

Lifestyle	1. Academic life	1B Being an academic
	2. Working in a GSB	2A Positive aspects
		2B Negative aspects
		2C Comparison with faculty
		2F Culture
	5. Teaching, Research and Other Work Activities	5A Balance of work
	7. Internationalisation	7B Positive aspects
		7C Negative aspects
Culture	1. Academic life	1B Being an academic
		1C Valued aspects of academe
	2. Working in a GSB	2A Positive aspects
		2B Negative aspects
		2C Comparison with a faculty
		2D Additional remuneration
		2F Impact of students
	4. Loyalty	4 Loyalty
	5. Teaching, Research and Other Work Activities	5A Balance of work
		5B Multidisciplinarity
	6. Governance	6A Governance
	7. Internationalisation	7A General
Governance	1. Academic Life	1D Changes in academic life
		1E Ideal academic life
		1F Changes to current life
	2. Working in a GSB	2A Positive aspects
		2B Negative aspects
		2C Comparison with a faculty
		2F Culture
	6. Governance	6A Governance
		6B Leadership
		6C Quality assurance
Leadership	2. Working in a GSB	2B Negative aspects
		2F Culture
	4. Loyalty	4 Loyalty
	6. Governance	6A Governance
		6B Leadership
Entrepreneurship	1. Academic Life	1D Changes in academe

	2. Working in a GSB	2B Negative aspects
		2D Additional remuneration
		2E Impact of students
	7. Internationalisation	7A General
		7B Positive aspects

## **5D Step Four: Division of Themes into Lifeworlds**

The final step was to divide the eight themes into two lifeworlds: the personal and the social. The personal lifeworld or 'identity' is based on participants' statements about themselves, their attitudes and preferences, for example, personal background, attitude to colleagues, preferences for certain types of students or work. The social lifeworld or 'School' is based on participants' descriptions of their environment, for example, their School, colleagues, university.

The four themes that constitute the personal lifeworld, Identity, are:

1. Personal values
2. Work attitudes
3. Relationships
4. Academic lifestyle.

The four themes that constitute the social lifeworld, School, are:

1. Culture
2. Governance
3. Leadership
4. Entrepreneurship

Once the data were organised according to themes, stories were written to cover the themes in each of these lifeworlds as well as a general profile of an average GSB academic. The stories are found in the following appendix, Appendix One, The Bill Stories and Questions.

## **APPENDIX SIX 2002/03 AND 2008 COMPARISON OF INTERVIEW RESULTS**

The following two tables compare the general responses to the main themes in 2002-03 with those in 2008. The responses are based on the interview transcripts for 2002-03 and the interview transcripts and written responses in 2008. Table 6A, concerns the personal lifeworld or Identity, and Table 6B, concerns the social lifeworld or School.

TABLE 6A Comparison of Identity: the personal lifeworld of Bill: 2002-03 – 2008

TABLE 6B Comparison of the social lifeworld of Bill: 2002-03 – 2008.

**TABLE 6A****Comparison of Identity: the personal lifeworld of Bill: 2002-03 – 2008.**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>2002-03</b>	<b>2008</b>
Values	Passionate about work	Work is a source of frustration.
	Stimulating environment	Prefers to work from home and avoid the office.
	Control over work and time	Control over work and time remains but with more pressure to research
	Belief in academic freedom and academic integrity, especially honesty.	Fundamental values remain the same but not shared. Perceived decline in academic freedom and honesty and rise in inequity and nepotism.
	Committed to teaching and learning	Now accepts that research is more important than teaching to maintain employment. Teaching no longer holds the same pleasure.
	Believes in the need for quality and performance review but is cynical about the processes employed	The processes have increased becoming more intrusive and cynicism toward them has increased.
	Loyal to School and colleagues	No longer loyal to the School but shares a bond with the few remaining colleagues. Loyalty is mainly to self as there is no reward for loyalty.

	Loyal to Dean if the Dean supports the School	The AGSB is no longer a school. It has lost its autonomy. The Deans have left or changed sides.
	Resists Dean if Dean works against the School.	There is no longer any overt resistance to the Dean and the University. The focus is on own work, mainly research and away from the office.
Work Attitudes	Prefers the smallness of the AGSB because of the stronger culture and cohesiveness among colleagues	No longer a small school but part of a large school with little cohesion among academics and no distinctive culture. There is now division between colleagues.
	Enjoys the maturity and motivation of the students.	Still enjoys mature students but students are increasingly younger and less experienced. The percentage of young international students has risen and this is less preferred.
	Teaching and research are equally important but more inclined toward teaching.	Research is now the priority because of performance management criteria and teaching less satisfying.
	Accepted administrative duties as an important contribution to the School.	Avoids administrative duties because such duties now support administrators rather than administrators supporting academics.
	Found time for consulting and executive education because they were enjoyable and good for the reputation of the School.	Consulting is no longer a desirable activity. Research and publishing is the only thing that counts despite publicity that the School engages in consulting.
	Found the multidisciplinary environment stimulating and it contributed to personal learning.	With the amalgamations into larger schools and the development of discipline groups, multidisciplinary has dissipated along with less frequent social contact among



		colleagues from different disciplines.
	Finds overseas teaching a good cultural learning experience but students weaker.	Enjoys offshore teaching more because it is a chance to be away from work and the students are now often better than onshore students.
Relationships	Colleagues are important because they are committed and motivated.	Colleagues are important but most have left and the large schools do not offer the same closeness. New colleagues do not share the same history and are without the same commitment.
	Bond between colleagues is strengthened by the hours and locations in which they work and their dedication to work.	The hours and locations are the same but the colleagues have changed.
	Colleagues share a feeling of personal ownership and responsibility for the School's programs and courses.	Programs and courses no longer belong to the School, they seem to belong to the administrators.
	Enjoy spending social time with colleagues.	The social time is less as there are fewer former colleagues and they tend to work from home.
	The maturity and experience of the students means teaching is a two way learning process.	Younger international students now outnumber the more mature students so teaching is more didactic and one way.
	The diversity of nationalities among students is a worthwhile challenge.	There are now too many international students with language problems and the diversity has narrowed so one or two nationalities dominate the classes. .

Students see themselves as customers and this is a concern for Bill.

Prefers onshore students because there is more time to build a relationship with them and they are more able students.

The relationship with the School administrators is one of a partnership. They are part of the School team.

Negative opinion of the University administrators as they do not understand the AGSB and make unnecessary and intrusive demands on academic time.

#### Lifestyle

A non traditional timetable and multiple teaching sites make Bill an itinerant.

In addition to his own work, Bill supervises casual academics

The teaching load is higher than in a conventional academic unit

Bill feels even more pressure to treat students as customers as a result of increasing administrative pressure to do so.

Generally prefers offshore students because they are more experienced and often more able than the current onshore students.

Apart from filling in forms, there is little contact with administrators who now seem to be in charge of all academic matters leaving the academics to carry out petty administrative tasks.

The University now has control of the AGSB and it is the same as other academic units subject to inane and intrusive demands.

Bill is still an itinerant but increasingly resentful of it.

In an effort to save money, the number of casuals has increased and the full-time staff decreased so that the burden of supervising casual academics has increased greatly. The processes and accountabilities required in supervising casuals have also increased so that supervision of casual academics is avoided.

The teaching load in terms of number of classes has decreased but the number of students increased

The remuneration is higher than in a conventional academic unit.

Additional teaching is voluntary but paid.

Conscious that salary is less than if employed in industry.

Under pressure to research and publish but somewhat contemptuous about the emphasis on quantity rather quality.

Although teaching and research consume most time, administrative work is accepted because it is necessary and an important contribution to the School.

Enjoys consulting and staying in touch with business but has little time to do so.

There have been significant cuts to the remuneration available and is a source of resentment.

Bill takes on less additional teaching because he needs the time for research. This increases the number of casuals.

Salary relativities are no longer an issue but time is spent reading job advertisements both inside and outside the higher education sector.

With the proposed introduction of a national research measurement exercise, there is even more pressure to research and publish. Performance reviews are dependent on publications. Contempt for the system has increased.

Any additional work outside teaching and research is avoided because only research is rewarded and there is no incentive to contribute further.

Consultancy is no longer valued although the School uses it for advertising to attract students. Research is everything.

**TABLE 6B Comparison of the social lifeworld of Bill: 2002-03 – 2008.**

Theme	2002-03	2008
Culture	The School culture is described as strong and dynamic	The larger School has a weak culture, most academics work from home and withdraw into their own work. It is a collection of individuals with a low morale.
	The strength of the culture derives from the School's autonomy, smallness; shared values and goals; difference from other academic units; and its history.	School autonomy has been lost. Shared values and goals no longer exist in the larger School. There is little trust among colleagues. Any difference in postgraduate teaching is diluted by the large size of the new School.
	The culture of the School is more enduring than the Deans who pass through.	No longer believes the culture can be stronger than the Deans. The Deans and/or the University have won control and the old culture cannot exist without the people who made it.
	The culture is collegial in terms of respect for colleagues and shared values rather than governance.	Collegiality in every sense has diminished.
	The School is described as friendly and hardworking.	The School is described as divisive, iniquitous and bureaucratic.
Governance	Little loyalty to the University which only sees the School as a cash cow.	No allegiance to the University, it is the victor and the academics the losers.

University managers are a threat to AGSB autonomy because they are unable to understand why the AGSB is different and only want its revenue.

Universities are no longer a threat because the AGSB has lost its autonomy and the University has control, directly or through its appointments.

University managers had embraced managerialism and revenue generation to the detriment of academics and academic issues.

Managerialism has increased further and its imposition on the AGSB is evidenced by the changed nature of the students; large classes, timetabling decisions; and more forms, rules and administrative processes.

The School's governance depends on the Dean who can facilitate or deter collegial practices.

This is no longer an issue because the deans who supported the School left through frustration and those who did not support School autonomy remain.

Acknowledges the complexity of being a profit centre is not conducive to full collegial governance which can be time consuming and non-decisive.

This is no longer an issue as academics are virtually excluded from all governance processes.

Academics have input into decision making but are not part of the ultimate decision.

Input from academics is no longer required in any governance processes.

#### Leadership

Dean can 'make' a School by providing focus and encouraging loyalty; commitment and collegiality and treating academics with respect.

Still believes this but does not consider it relevant any more.

A Dean can 'break' the School by working

Academics attempted to voice their resistance but eventually

against its interests and the interests of its academics and resulting in active resistance or withdrawal among academics.

gave in to silence and reluctant resignation that this was now how it was.

Academics do not want to be treated as employees but as respected colleagues.

Academics now feel like an employee, reduced to the level of a factory shift worker.

Deans who appear to do the bidding of University managers against the AGSB are particularly disliked by the academics.

Bill believes that trust is undermined when the Dean does not defend the School against the University. There is neither trust in, nor loyalty for, a Dean who does this.

The academics are scathing of a Dean who is non-decisive rather than an autocratic Dean.

A Dean who cannot make a decision brings the School to a halt. This was the beginning of the end.

The academics wonder if academics are sufficiently skilled to be good leaders and managers.

Managerialism and bureaucratic authority are substitutes for leadership and have no place in a University.

#### Entrepreneurship

The University puts money ahead of all else but its bureaucratic and managerial approach prevent it from being able to be entrepreneurial.

Both money and managerialism are rampant, flexibility and enthusiasm among academics is lost.

The University sees the School simply as a cash cow to be stripped of its earnings rather than invested in.

The University used the excuse that the School was no longer making sufficient money to merge it with the undergraduate faculty. Publicly, the University said the merger was to improve research.

The School itself has been entrepreneurial in opening up new markets, courses and engaging with business.

Pride in the growth in reputation and resources arising from the School's entrepreneurialism.

Students have also benefited in terms of resources and quality of teaching compared to other academic units.

The University's desire for money from AGSB is a potential threat to its ability to continue being entrepreneurial.

Occasionally wonders if the School itself is putting money ahead of academic concerns.

This is no longer the case, when the School was prevented from moving forward, it started to sink and people left.

Fear that the emphasis on revenue by concentrating on taking students regardless of their age or ability will ultimately undermine both revenue and reputation.

The AGSB students are becoming more like undergraduate students and are being treated like undergraduates.

The School is no longer entrepreneurial, it is just a knowledge factory selling degrees for short term profit.

Under University guidance, the current focus is almost exclusively on cost cutting and making money by recruiting as many students as it can.

