International Conference on Education Quality

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UNIVERSITÉ IBN ZOHR

Issues in Education Quality: Higher Education

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Preface

It is a great pleasure for me to contribute the preface to this book which is dedicated to pressing issues of our educational systems and policies. In my opinion, it is high time that we reflect on how we can secure a quality and sustainable education cross-nationally for our future generations. We have all seen that the issue of "quality in education" has grown in importance. But I believe it is not only a question of how to ensure such quality. The key question is also which quality should we strive for – especially given the social and environmental concerns we share universally?

I am very proud that this book is the culmination of an enormous collective effort that saw many institutions and individuals contribute in several ways to set up the reviewing and editing criteria, and methodology to identify the themes and topics of the book. It allowed for the different but essential voices of researchers and practitioners to be present and heard. Reading through the book reveals the amazing diversity of the fields and concerns of its chapters – providing valuable opportunity for researchers, practitioners and decision-makers to share and reflect on their experiences.

On a final note, I would like to thank the editorial team and the authors. Their efforts, expertise and spirit of cooperation made it possible to produce such a valuable work. The authors were a real motivation and key in establishing the need and value of the book. Last but not least, reviewers had an essential role and therefore merit sincere appreciation.

I am confident that the readers will find the book learned and insightful.

Prof. Omar Halli

Ibn Zohr University President

Foreword

On behalf of the first International Conference on Education Quality (ICEQ, 2018) Scientific and Organising Committees, I am delighted, as an Honorary Visiting Professor at the University of Ibn Zohr (UIZ), Agadir, to be invited to write this foreword. This book, which speaks to all who have an interest in international perspectives on quality in education, embraces 29 selected chapters, stemming from papers presented at the ICEQ 2018, held in ENCG (Business School), Agadir, Morocco in March 2018. Proceedings were chaired by Professor Abeldaziz Bendou, UIZ, Vice-President for International Cooperation & Scientific Research alongside the co-chairs, Dr Mustapha Aabi of UIZ and Michael Reed, an Honorary Senior Fellow of the University of Worcester, United Kingdom and a Visiting Professor at UIZ. It was a pleasure to meet the committee and all the authors individually and I was fortunate to be able to listen to the many high calibre presentations, which combine to form this publication.

Of course, it is important to establish that the concept of 'quality' in education, is highly contested in the literature and rarely defined in policy. The authors do not assume an agreed understanding of what constitutes quality or suggest that quality is something tangible and objective, that can be known, recognized, measured or easily achieved (Dahlberg, Moss and Pence 2013). Instead, they acknowledge that it is a subjective and constructed concept, dependent on a plethora of values, beliefs and interests, rather than an objective and universal reality. As Dahlberg et al. succinctly state, 'the subcultures and plurality of values in societies often mean that no one definitive definition of quality exists. It is a relative concept that varies depending on one's perspective…Indeed quality is both a dynamic and relative concept so that perceptions of quality change as a variety of factors evolve, (Dahlberg *et al*.,2013, p.6). This book provides the reader with opportunities to think about, question, and contest the notion of quality under four key themes - School Reform, Higher Education, Teaching, Curriculum and Instruction.

Alexander (2000, p.5) argues that a deeper understanding of educational policy can only be gained 'by reference to the web of inherited ideas and values, habits and customs, institutions and world views which make one, or one region, or one group distinct from another. This sentiment was reflected by the internationally diverse range of prominent keynote speakers, at the ICEQ 2018, Professor Mohammed Abousallah, Secretary General from the Moroccan Ministry of Education, who opened the Plenary session, speaking about quality assurance in Morocco; Associate Professor Alma Fleet, from Maquarie University, Australia, who inspired delegates with a keynote on *Contextualizing problem-solving and the concept of professional inquiry*; and Kenneth R. Bartlett, Professor of Human Resource Development University of Minnesota in the USA, promoted critical reflection with his lecture Quality in Education – *The Required Integration of Organizational Leadership, Policy, and Development,* highlighting that the focus on quality in education has heightened awareness of the recognized connections between leadership, policy, and the effective leadership of organizations that deliver learning across the lifespan. The final day of the conference welcomed Fabrice Henard, an International Consultant, who drew attention to Quality Teaching and Learning in Higher Education Contexts, and closed with a stimulating keynote in French, relating to Institutional Evaluation in Higher Education as a lever towards raining quality delivered by Rached Boussema, The University of Tunis El Amar, Tunisia.

The ICEQ (2018) aimed to border-cross through the shared domain of interest in Quality of Education into different theories, disciplines and paradigms as the keynotes were joined by

128 participants from 22 different countries, representing 5 continents. The rich array of chapters in these volumes, reflects the inclusive ethos of ICEQ 2018 which intentionally crossed social, cultural and linguistic borders to create an international 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1998). Chapters stem from as far afield as Croatia, the United Kingdom, the Kingdom of Morocco and the Republic of Yemen. This book is based on the premise that, regardless of the paradigms, research is concerned with enabling the emergence of new understandings, insight and knowledge. It asserts that the research enterprise is not the sole remit of university-based academics or those with doctoral degrees but embraced reflective practitioners as well as postgraduate students. We invite readers to engage with the rich tapestry of content across the four volumes:

1. Teaching - a volume revolving around issues of quality in pedagogy, gender equality and female empowerment;
2. School Reform - where authors primarily seek to investigate the relationship of the national efforts in Moroccan context, to improve quality and how quality might look in the schools themselves;
3. Curriculum and Instruction - focusing on innovation and research within a number of disciplines and educational levels;
4. Higher Education - based on opportunities and challenges in higher education, ranging from improving the quality of the curriculum to the impact of innovative technologies;

Each volume provides a powerful tool for critical reflection across social, cultural, historical and linguistic boundaries, and includes chapters in French, Arabic and English. Sharing and constructing knowledge is viewed by the International Quality in Education team as a political and social responsibility, and we hope, as readers, that you take upon yourselves to join us in this ambitious endeavor, ultimately leading to capacity building across a range of contexts. Readers are invited to reflect on their own spaces and places and not to assume all is well with the world they professionally inhabit. Mac Naughton, (2003) purports that; 'Critical reflection is dialogic. It requires social connections with others, conversations with others, support from others, colleagues willing to spend time with you and a chance to share ideas and possibilities with others' (p.5). The chapters in these volumes are based on the premise that quality in education is relational and contextual, involving complex interactions between systems, processes and people. The book and the ICEQ conferences reinforce the need for further research and more international collaboration relating to quality in education.

The production of this book is located within a multi-layered landscape. It has evolved from a rigorous process of meaning-making and dialogue between the contributors, the conference delegates and indeed for the ICEQ organizers and scientific committees. It only remains to acknowledge the contribution of all those who contributed to the ICEQ (2018) conference, the Scientific Committee, the Organizing Committee, the President and Vice-President of the University of Ibn Zohr and to those who have been involved in the development and editing of this book. All authors, and the editorial team, are to be commended for their concerted efforts. I look forward to the future publication of the first edition of an *International Journal of Education Quality* (IJEQ) as well to being involved in the organization of the forthcoming annual International Conferences on Educational Quality.

Dr. Caroline A. Jones
University of Warwick and University of Ibn Zohr, ICEQ (2018) Co-chair

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Introduction

The four volumes of this book provide an important vehicle for authors to share their insights into the nature of educational 'quality' and how this is realized within their local context. Quality contributes to increasing individual productivity, which in the end promotes collective productivity. How to proceed with education quality has been though a matter for debate; one on which researchers and practitioners seem to have agreed to disagree. It is only natural that quality as a general concept, will necessarily involve different views and opinions since concepts are often the subject of controversy and debate. Different frames of reference have been proposed defining quality. Some, including the World Bank and EFA's scorecard led by UNESCO, would associate it with outcomes, others with standards; some would focus on the philosophy of continuous improvement, others on the tools and techniques to do so, varying also in terms of purpose immediacy from short-term expediency to the long-term quality improvement.

It is perhaps inevitable that changing economic, social and political factors will always define and redefine such concepts. For our education systems to work, they need to be re-thought by drawing upon the existing economic and social affordances existing in each community. In her study of education quality in the Arab region, Morgan (2017: 512) claims that its failure may due to international hegemonic education forms that are blind to the local context, concluding that "improving educational quality in the [Arab] region entails creating responsive approaches grounded in political and socio-economic contexts". But the question remains as to how these concerns will be articulated using local voices that are expressly drawing upon the import of localized mediations of values, principles, resources along with their interfaces with wider social, resource based and policy considerations.

The pedagogical approaches, school reform, curricula and innovation that are deemed appropriate for the local context are some of the most common issues that fuel the discussion in this book. This collection provides an important insight composed by an educator and comprising of opinion pieces and empirical research that shine a light upon local needs and challenges. With this in mind, the goal for this book is to set a road map in order to amplify local needs and capabilities in the global education agenda.

Many of the chapters revolve around the theme of opportunities and challenges in higher education, ranging from improving the quality of the curriculum to motivating students to marketing strategies to attracting new populations of students. More than the narratives offered at the elementary or secondary levels of education, there are findings that would seem relevant across national contexts.

Nena Rončević conducts an empirical study with the aim to detect and analyse areas of teaching which have gone through significant changes in Croatian education over the past decade. By drawing on a comparison between results from two large studies on changes in the Croatian academic profession, she provides a critical reflection on the quality of teaching and training in Croatian higher education.

Arguing for strong syllabi that are more student-centered in pedagogy in higher education, Ikram Ben Ajiba proposed that these documents can support administratively, the curriculum and student-teacher relations. He reported on his survey of hundreds of students in English Studies in three universities, finding that relatively few were given a syllabus for their coursework

Hassan Zaid undertook a study of students' sense of self-efficacy (a sense of self-determination over academic outcomes), type of motivation and reported academic achievement. Using well-established measures, he found a strong relationship between self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation and as predictors of grades in coursework. He also offered some findings of difference by gender and educational level.

As students in higher education become increasingly exposed to other cultural backgrounds, Nourreddine Menyani and Malika Jmila investigated the concept of intercultural communicative competence with students of foreign languages, looking at their perceptions and knowledge, as well. Reviewing some useful assessments of intercultural communicative competence, they found that students view the concept positively and useful.

Beginning with the premise that marketing strategies and approaches are often seen as antithetical to the quality of higher education, Faical Chanour and Brahim Houban explore marketing concepts that they argue might be of value in supporting better quality and productivity in the increasingly competitive market of universities, including marketing research, segmentation, targeting and marketing mix.

Omar Lemouissi explores the relationship of student perceptions of quality in a wide range of areas--academic, non-academic, reputation and facilities--and a university's open or limited "polarization". Comparing two academic units with limited and open polarization within a single university, he explores the relationship of quality and type of institution, concluding that there can be some educational services identified to support quality at an intermediate level.

The larger questions of quality in higher education include the central role that education is seen to have in sustainable development by, for example, the United Nations. A. Shammary addresses this in a deeper look at how institutions can maintain quality in the support of sustainable development through examination of the role and potential impact of governance as a system within education.

Dr. Devin Thornburg, Adelphi University
Dr. Mustapha Aabi, Ibn Zohr University

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Illuminating the quality of teaching in Croatian higher education

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Overview

The quality culture of teaching in the European Higher Education Area has (recently) been put forward in a fast-growing number of European policies, reports, declarations and recommendations. By documenting and discussing various (national) higher education systems and university-level teaching process, many of the referential European documents require additional efforts regarding the enhancement of quality in higher education teaching. Furthermore, they advocate for a paradigm change in the approach to teaching and the adjustment of teaching to the new generations of students. In parallel, a research conducted in Croatia reveals a lack of critical self-assessment of teaching competencies among scholars (Ćulum, Miočić and Rončević 2017); the absence of the promotion criteria connected to teaching (Turk and Ledić 2016), and the excellence in teaching not being valued enough (Ledić 2016; Vignjević, Turk and Ledić, 2016). This paper focuses on various aspects of teaching in the national higher education context, by comparing results from two large studies on changes in the academic profession, done in 2009 and 2018. The sample includes both junior and senior academics in various disciplinary fields, thus opening a platform for a critical reflection on the quality of teaching and training in Croatian higher education area. The final research results are going to come out as a part of an undergoing quantitative comparative international project "Academic profession in a knowledge society" (APIKS), so only the preliminary results will be presented.

Keywords: academics, higher education teaching, teaching competencies, quality culture of teaching in HE

Introduction

The Aspect of Quality in Higher Education Teaching

The higher education system in Croatia is a part of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), which encompasses 48 countries voluntarily unified with the common goal of reforming the higher education system through implementation of the Bologna Process, and ensuring quality in higher education. In regards, there are more recent and significant documents that focus on the quality of teaching and learning in European higher education.

For instance, the 2015 European Parliament's resolution on monitoring implementation of the Bologna Process emphasises, among other things, the importance of preserving diversity in teaching and looking into the potential offered by new technologies, digitalisation and Information and Communication Technologies (ICT); the aim is to improve the process of teaching and learning, as well as to develop a whole new set of skills and models of learning, teaching and evaluation (the European parliament 2015). Also relevant is the 2015 Yerevan Ministerial Communiqué which lists the following as one of EHEA's priorities: the importance of improving the quality of teaching and learning in higher education, promoting pedagogical innovations and student-focused teaching, as well as the use of digital technology in the process of teaching and learning. In addition, the need to provide conditions for the development of teaching competencies of academics has been brought into light (Yerevan Communiqué 2015). The European Commission's 2013 report on new learning and teaching methods in higher education also draws attention to the aforementioned goal. The report states that it is necessary to come up with mandatory and certified pedagogical training of academic personnel, with one of the components aiming to provide training for a successful use of new digital technologies in teaching (the European Commission 2013).

Studies done in the national higher education area indicate the emergence and development of these new trends in higher education. For example, more emphasis is put on changing the traditional teaching paradigm and introducing the student-focused approach to teaching, as well as the debate over university's civic mission and shaping the teaching process so it meets the needs of society and community. Furthermore, ICT and e-learning has been used in teaching to a greater extent. Also, most Croatian universities conduct standardised student evaluation of the teaching process. European structural and investment funds have started making the internationalisation of higher education possible, which consequently affects growing mobility and the heterogeneity of the student population.

The results of recent research in the national context indicate that most higher education institutions focus on the quality of teaching and learning in their strategic guidelines and action plans. However, institutional frameworks, which should make these guidelines a reality, are not yet sufficiently developed (Duževič, Baković and Delić 2017). Although it has been noticed that institutions do provide some sort of support to teachers when it comes to the advancement of their teaching activities, there is still room for improvement. This is particularly important in the context of educating/training teachers about the use of new technologies in class, preparing on-line classes and the use of modern teaching methods based on problem solving through interactive teaching (Duževič, Baković and Delić 2017).

The internalisation of higher education, in terms of an increased student and teacher mobility, is another important trend and challenge for Croatian higher education. Student mobility affects education systems and individual educational institutions by developing their international dimension, expanding their scope and fully improving their quality (The European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2016). When discussing institutional frameworks, i.e. implementation of internationalisation policies, there is a significant shift - higher education institutions in Croatia have developed diverse capacities for mobility (AMPEU 2016). International visibility and the attractiveness of institutions are noticeably more significant, as well as providing academic support to the personnel and students interested in mobility programs (application process, selection of institution etc.). Moreover, developing procedures for ECTS credit recognition during study periods abroad, opening departments/offices for international cooperation/mobility, and offering language courses to administrative personnel and academics are now in HE institutions' focus (AMPEU 2016).

It is estimated that the sectoral program Erasmus (supported under the Lifelong Learning Program in which Croatian higher education institutions started participating in 2009 with the outgoing mobility only) significantly contributed to strengthening institutional capacities for international collaboration (AMPEU 2016). The most recent available results of the European Commission's Erasmus+ Annual Report 2016 reveal a continuous growth in student mobility - Croatia registered 1804 incoming students and 765 members of academic personnel, and 1703 outbound students and 550 members of academic personnel. The analyses also show that Croatian higher education institutions, when taking steps to make the information regarding mobility programs transparent, available and appropriate, were deemed successful. However, when talking about the recognition of learning outcomes through ECTS credits, there is room for improvement and an opportunity to get close to the standards set by highly developed European universities (the European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2016). Still, it has to be noted that the higher education system in Croatia is not putting enough effort into implementation of Mobility Strategy 2020 for the European Higher Education Area and reaching the goal of 20% of student mobility by 2020 (the European Parliament 2015).

As for the students' perspective on the quality of teaching in higher education in Croatia, the 2014 Eurostudent project reveal they consider the teaching process, faculty organisation and scheduling mediocre (Šćukanec, Sinković, Bilić, Doolan and Cvitan 2015). The most recent Eurostudent report for 2016-2018 points out these adverse trends, and this is no surprise considering the fact that Croatia is one of five countries (Portugal, Poland, Serbia and Romania) where students express a below-average satisfaction with all three aspects of studying at a higher education institution (DZHW 2018). On the other hand, recent studies suggest that members of the governing structures of HEIs in Croatia assess the quality of teaching and learning in the national HE system as good or very good, with a lot of opportunities for enhancement (Duževič, Baković and Delić, 2017).

The perspective of academics in the Croatian higher education system on the teaching quality should also be taken into account. In the national research scope, the research on the role of teachers in higher education and their position in the academic community, which began in the early '90s, intensified in the last couple of years as Croatia joined several international collaborative comparative research projects. Surely worthy of mentioning are the collaborative research projects carried out between 2009-2011 - *The Academic Profession in Europe: Responses to Societal Challenges* (EUROAC) and the project APROFRAME (*Academic Profession Competencies Profile: Between new Requirements and Possibilities*). The latter one ended in 2017 and its results detected numerous challenges related to the teaching profession in higher education, especially with junior researchers.

The AFROFRAME project indicate that higher education teachers do not have the necessary conditions for the acquisition and development of teaching competencies, i.e. that the institutional environment is still unsupportive of the teaching process (Miočić i Turk 2017; Ćulum, Miočić and Rončević 2017). Additionally, the results indicate that teachers esteem their teaching competencies to be at a high level, which questions their (in-depth) understanding of the complexity of the competencies needed for teaching (Ćulum, Miočić and Rončević 2017). The findings also show that teachers often feel overwhelmed with their work (Miočić and Turk 2017) and are consequently not able to participate in mobility programs (Ćulum 2017). What is more, teaching is not considered a major criterion when it comes to academic promotion and advancement (Turk and Ledić 2016), and the excellence in teaching is not valued enough (Ledić 2016, Vignjević, Turk and Ledić 2016).

These perceptions of Croatian higher education teachers can serve as an explanation for the results of the Eurostudent project, which indicates the continuity of the unfavourable perception of teaching in Croatian higher education. The absence of the system's investment into teaching has had a negative impact on the work of higher education teachers, and it consequently contributed to students' reduced satisfaction with the quality of teaching. Conversely, there are many indicators hinting at the fact that Croatia is indeed following European education trends, and in that context, improving the teaching process. Therefore, this paper is going to try to empirically detect and analyse those areas of teaching which have gone through some (significant) changes in Croatian education area over the past decade.

Research Methodology

This paper comes out of the project "Academic Profession in Knowledge Society" (APIKS), a collaborative comparative research project with more than 30 countries worldwide involved.[1]This project aims to compare various aspects of academic profession in different national higher education systems. APIKS leans on the previous collaborative comparative research projects on changes in academic profession,[2] particularly the CAP study as it re-used a larger part of its original instrument. This allows also for deeper analysis of certain phenomena and time-span comparisons within the national HE frameworks.

This paper therefore seeks to detect and analyse (various) aspects of teaching in higher education in Croatia, and if and how they have changed within the last decade. The paper focuses on teaching and learning activities academics use in their everyday teaching, as well on their perspectives and attitudes related with teaching in higher education.

Research population consists of all academics/higher education teachers and associates employed at seven public universities in Croatia, working on an employment contract basis - that is 9777 academics for the academic year 2017/2018, according to The Croatian Bureau of Statistics (full time 9018, part-time 759). The invitation to participate in the study was sent to 9654 academics whose contacts were publicly available on their institution's web pages. Preliminary data shows that 1038 academics submitted their questionnaires, which indicates quite a low response rate, something already noted as a research challenge in the national higher education context (Rončević and Rafajac 2010).

The questionnaire used in the APIKS study covers a broad range of aspects related with the academic profession (e.g. working conditions, teaching, research, administration, service, governing etc.), but for the sake of this paper only those related with (I) teaching and learning activities academics use in their everyday teaching, as as well with (II) academics' perspectives and attitudes related with teaching in higher education, will be presented. As for the (I), the participants were offered nine teaching activities for which they were supposed to mark its usage during the previous and/or the current academic year. As for the (II), the participants were offered different claims on the Likert scale from 1 to 5, and were supposed to position their own standing, while 1 means do not agree at all, and 5 means completely agree. The results are presented and discussed from the time-span perspective and the matter of change. Thus, only the independent variable of the year of the research study was introduced in the analysis (2009 and 2018) in order to follow any changes related with

[1] Research study conducted in Croatia was funded by the University of Rijeka, through the funding scheme Initial Support for Junior Researchers.

[2] The Carnegie Study (1992) represents the first largest study on changes in academic profession and it led to the international collaborative comparative project "The Changing Academic Profession", known as CAP, that started in 2007. Croatia joined the CAP study through the collaborative research project "The Academic Profession in Europe: Responses to Societal Challenges" (EUROAC)", as part of the EUROCORES programme „Funding initiative in the field of Higher Education and Social Change (EuroHESC)", funded at the time by the European Science Foundation-ESF. Joining the project stimulated a multi-method study on the academic profession in the national context (2009-2011), first of such a kind in Croatia.

teaching and learning in the national higher education context.

Data collection was set up online. Participants received and email invitation to participate in the study where research goals as well as various issues related with the ethical dimension and privacy were explained. The research was issued a permit by the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Rijeka. Email sent to participants included a unique link for every participant that enabled their access to the online questionnaire. Research data collection started in November 2017 and ended in February 2018. Data presented in this paper are still preliminary research findings focused only on the national (Croatian) higher education context.

For data processing we used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS, 23.0.). The methods of univariate statistics were applied (percentages, measures of central tendency, and measures of variation), as well as the methods of bivariate statistics (the t-test for independent samples), in order to determine the differences with regard to the defined independent variable and the chi-square test. The chi-square tests were used to determine if there was a contingency association between the studied phenomena, and statistically significant differences were interpreted through the adjusted standardised residuals. All the tests were conducted at the risk level of 5%. A statistically significant difference was evaluated from the effect size aspect, from 0.01 to 0.05 being a small effect size, from 0.06 to 0.13 a medium effect size, and from 0.14 a large effect size (Cohen 1988; Miles and Shevlin 2001)[3].

Research results

In the CAP and APIKS questionnaire, nine teaching activities were offered in both study points (2009 and 2018) and participants were supposed to mark those applied in the current or past academic year (Table 1). Results indicate that (traditional) classroom instruction/lecturing continues to dominate among Croatian academics, as 92.9% of teachers indicate that they participated in this type of teaching during the previous (2016/2017) or current academic year (2017/2018), and almost the same percentage of respondents rounded out the 2009 survey (91, 2%). In other words, no statistically significant difference has been identified, and the overwhelmed domination of this type of teaching is still confined and extremely high. In addition, on the issues of integration of project teaching, practical teaching and distance education, no squares have statistically significant differences as well. For example, in the 2018 survey project teaching was implemented by 33.9% academics, while about the same result of 34.5% was depicted in the 2009 survey. Practical teaching and work in the laboratory have been integrated in teaching in the current academic year by 49.3% academics, while it was the case for 47.5% of higher education teachers in the 2009 survey. Ultimately, distance education remains roughly the same as well - while in the 2009 survey 12.1% of academics used this type of teaching, the latest study indicates a certain increase to 15.8% of them.

[3] The effect size is an objective and standardized measure of the observed influence's size and it assists in interpretation of the obtained statistical significance, especially in the cases of large samples when even the negligible difference can often prove to be statistically significant.

TABLE 1. Academics' engagement in various teaching activities (2018 survey, N=1038)

Teaching activities (2018 survey)		*f*	*%*
Classroom instruction/lecturing	N	7	7
	Y	9	9
Individualized instruction	N	4	4
	Y	6	5
Project-based learning	N	6	6
	Y	3	3
Practice instruction/ laboratory work	N	5	5
	Y	5	4
ICT-based learning/computer-assisted learning	N	3	3
	Y	6	6
Distance education	N	8	8
	Y	1	1
Development of course material	N	8	8
	Y	9	9
Curriculum/program development	N	5	5
	Y	4	4
Face-to-face interaction with students outside of class	N	1	1
	Y	9	8

On the other side, studies suggest changes in everyday teaching related with individualised instructions, CT-based learning/computer-assisted learning, Curriculum/program development, Development of course material, and Face-to-face interaction with students outside of class. The χ^2 test was conducted to determine the existence of the contingency association between the year of the study (2009/2018) and the above-mentioned teaching activities where the significant changed between the two studies

[4] Stands for Not Selected

occurred.

As for the *individualised instructions*, the χ^2 test conducted to determine the existence of the contingency, has shown a statistically significant relationship (χ^2 (1, N=1392)=50,863, p=0.000; Phi=-0.193) in terms of the year of the study, as presented in Table 2. The comparison of the empirical and theoretical frequencies has revealed that in the 2009 survey academics used this approach more regularly than in the 2018 one.[5]

TABLE 2: Contingency table: Year of the survey and the *Individualised instructions*

Contingency table - Individualised instructions			***N/S***	***YES***	***Total***
Year	**2009**	**empirical f.**	69	285	354
		theoretical f.	124.9	229.1	354.0
		% within year	19.5 %	80.5 %	100.0 %
		adjusted standardised residuals	-7.2	7.2	/
	2018	**empirical f.**	422	616	1038
		theoretical f.	366.1	671.9	1038.0
		% within year	40.7 %	59.3 %	100.0 %
		adjusted standardised residuals	7.2	-7.2	/
Total		**empirical f.**	491	901	1392
		theoretical f.	491.0	901.0	1392.0
		% within year	35.3 %	64.7 %	100.0 %

[5] We think that this shift was due to the fact that the particle was slightly modified in the 2018 survey. Namely, while in the 2009 survey it was a question of *consultations*, it now refers to *individualised instructions*, which, albeit similar, is not identical, so it is possible that this discrepancy may have arisen.

The χ^2 test was conducted to determine the existence of the contingency association between the year of the study (2009/2018) and the *ICT-based learning/computer-assisted learning.* The analysis of the contingency table (Table 3.) has shown a statistically significant relationship (χ^2 (1, *N*=1392) =33,100, p=0.000; Phi=0,156). The comparison of empirical and theoretical frequencies has revealed that in the 2018 study academics used this approach more regularly (62%) than in the 2009 study (44,4%).

TABLE 3: Contingency table: Year of the survey and the *ICT-based learning/computer-assisted learning*

Contingency table - ICT-based learning/ computer-assisted learning			***N/S***	***YES***	***Total***
Year	**2009**	**empirical f.**	197	157	354
		theoretical f.	150.3	203.7	354.0
		% within year	55.6%	44.4%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised residuals	5.8	-5.8	/
	2018	**empirical f.**	394	644	1038
		theoretical f.	440.7	597.3	1038.0
		% within year	38.0%	62.0%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised residuals	-5.8	5.8	/
Total		**empirical f.**	591	801	1392
		theoretical f.	591.0	801.0	1392.0
		% within year	42.5%	57.5%	100.0%

Such research result is expected in the view of the accelerated development of information technology and its application in all segments of society. However, the assumption is that the increased use of the ICT in higher education teaching is the result of strategic decisions in education policy, as stated by Junaković, Paćelat and Urem (2016). For the first time Croatian HEIs were able to maintain the study programs by distance learning when the Law on Scientific Activity and Higher Education in 2013 was enacted. The Ministry of Science of Education and Sports recognised the potential of e-learning and included it in the priorities of the National Strategy for Education, Science and Technology in 2014.

As in the previous cases, the χ^2 test was conducted to determine the existence of the contingency association between the year of the survey and the *Development of course material.* The analysis of the contingency table (Table 4.) has shown a statistically significant relationship (χ^2 (1, N=1392) = 21,489, p=0.000; Phi=0,127). The comparison of the empirical and theoretical frequencies has revealed that in the 2018 survey more academics have invested their time in developing course materials (91.5%) than they did in the 2009 survey (82.5%).

TABLE 4: Contingency table: Year of the survey and *Development of course material*

Contingency table - Development of course			***N/S***	***YES***	***Total***
Year	**2009**	**empirical f.**	62	292	354
		theoretical f.	38.1	315.9	354.0
		% within year	17.5%	82.5%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised residuals	4.7	-4.7	/
	2018	**empirical f.**	88	950	1038
		theoretical f.	111.9	926.1	1038.0
		% within year	8.5%	91.5%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised residuals	-4.7	4.7	/
Total		**empirical f.**	150	1242	1392
		theoretical f.	150.0	1242.0	1392.0
		% within year	10.8%	89.2%	100.0%

Without any further in-depth analysis related to this particular activity, it is hard to depict what lies behind greater engagement of academics in development of course materials in the 2018 survey. We can assume that regular institutional evaluations might influence this aspect of teaching quality in terms of encouraging academics to refresh periodically (if not even annually) their courses and to rethink various approaches and materials used in classes.

The χ^2 test was conducted to determine the existence of the contingency association between the year of the survey and the *Curriculum/program development* as well. The analysis of the contingency table (Table 5) has shown a statistically significant relationship (χ^2 (1, N=1392) =13,781, p=0.000; Phi=-0,101). The comparison of the empirical and theoretical frequencies has revealed that academics who participated in the 2009 survey used this approach more regularly (56.5%) than their colleagues who participated in the 2018 survey (44.9%).

TABLE 5: Contingency table: Year of the study and the *Curriculum/program development*

Contingency table - Curriculum/program development			***N/S***	***YES***	***Total***
Year	**2009**	**empirical f.**	154	200	354
		theoretical f.	184.6	169.4	354.0
		% within year	43.5 %	56.5 %	100.0 %
		adjusted standardised	-3.8	3.8	/
	2018	**empirical f.**	572	466	1038
		theoretical f.	541.4	496.6	1038.0
		% within year	55.1 %	44.9 %	100.0 %
		adjusted standardised	3.8	-3.8	/
Total		**empirical f.**	726	666	1392
		theoretical f.	726.0	666.0	1392.0
		% within year	52.2 %	47.8 %	100.0 %

Such a decrease in Croatian academics' engagement in curriculum and programme development can be, to a certain extent, explained by the Bologna system dynamics. The academic year 2008/2009 in Croatia was marked by a first follow-up of a new implemented Bologna undergraduate study programmes, so it is expected that academics were at the time more regularly engaged in various interventions to improve academic curriculum and the quality of the available study programmes. In addition, Croatian higher education undergoes the process of reaccreditation every five years and following the recommendations of the international review committee they usually engage in improving the quality of academic curricula and study programmes during the (academic) year afterwards.

The χ^2 test was also conducted to determine the existence of the contingency association between the year of the survey and the *Face-to-face interaction with students outside of class. T*he analysis of the contingency table (Table 6.) has shown a statistically significant relationship (χ^2 (1, N=1392) = 78,700, p=0.000; Phi=0,235. The comparison of the empirical and theoretical frequencies has revealed that in the 2018 survey academics used this approach more regularly (87.4%) than they did in the previous one in 2009 (66.7%).

TABLE 6: Contingency table: Year of the survey and the *Face-to-face interaction with students outside of class*

Contingency table - Face-to-face interaction with students outside of class			***N/S***	***YES***	***Total***
Year	**2009**	**empirical f.**	118	236	354
		theoretical f.	63.3	290.7	354.0
		% within year	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised	8.8	-8.8	/
	2018	**empirical f.**	131	907	1038
		theoretical f.	185.7	852.3	1038.0
		% within year	12.6%	87.4%	100.0%
		adjusted standardised	-8.8	8.8	/
Total		**empirical f.**	249	1143	1392
		theoretical f.	249.0	1143.0	1392.0
		% within year	17.9%	82.1%	100.0%

Academics' perspectives on (everyday) teaching in higher education

In the light of comparing results from both studies, the APIKS survey re-used the part of the CAP questionnaire related to academics' perspectives on various aspects of their everyday teaching practice in higher education. Therefore, we used the T-test for independent samples in order to assess the difference between the academics' perspectives on various teaching activities and the year of the survey (Table 7). The respondents were offered 11 statements, out of which 6 ended up characterised with a statistically significant difference with respect to the year of the survey. There is a higher level of agreement in the 2018 survey compared to the 2009 one for all seven particles with a statistically significant difference.

Survey results suggest that in the 2018 survey academics are more often encouraged to improve their instructional skills in response to teaching evaluations and more often at their institutions there are adequate training courses for enhancing teaching quality. In addition, academics who participated in the 2018 survey seems to agree more than those who participated in the previous survey how their external activities reinforce their teaching, and how they regularly do inform their students about the implications of cheating or plagiarism. Besides, academics who participated in the 2018 survey indicate the increased number of international students in comparison to the 2009 survey. T-test difference between the year of the survey and academics' perspectives on teaching activities is presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7. T-test difference between the year of the survey and academics' perspectives on teaching activities

Academics' perspectives on teaching activities	*Year*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*M*	*Sd*	*Eta2*
You spend more time than you would like teaching basic skills due to student	**2009**	-1,532	1365	0,126	3,34	1,152	/
	2018				3,45	1,135	
You are encouraged to improve your instructional skills in response to teaching	**2009**	-10,682	1361	0,000	2,65	1,230	0,077
	2018				3,45	1,179	
At your institution, there are adequate training courses for enhancing	**2009**	-4,355	565,52	0,000	2,35	1,230	0,032
	2018				2,68	1,162	
Practically oriented knowledge and skills are emphasized in	**2009**	1,554	1365	,120	4,22	,874	/
	2018				4,13	,901	
In your courses, you emphasize international perspectives or content	**2009**	,354	1364	,723	3,82	1,013	/
	2018				3,80	1,054	
You incorporate discussions of values and ethics into your course content	**2009**	-1,325	1364	,186	3,62	1,185	/
	2018				3,72	1,184	
You inform students of the implications of cheating or plagiarism in	**2009**	-2,282	558,173	,023	3,81	1,180	0,01
	2018				3,97	1,097	
Since you started teaching, the number of international students has	**2009**	-18,120	779,169	,000	1,65	1,106	0,296
	2018				3,04	1,504	
Currently, most	**2009**	-6,115	1063	,00	1,11	,384	0,03

of your graduate students are	**2018**		,533	0	1,30	,714	4
Your research activities reinforce your teaching.	**2009**	-1,565	1364	,118	3,97	1,105	/
	2018				4,08	1,060	
Your external activities reinforce your teaching.	**2009**	-4,912	1360	,000	3,00	1,347	0,017
	20				3	1	

Research result that indicates how in comparison to the 2009 survey academics from the 2018 survey have been encouraged more to improve their instructional skills in response to teaching evaluations can be explained by the growing importance of evaluation process in HEIs in Croatia. Every public university in Croatia has introduced institutional policy on teaching evaluation, and since the first year of Bologna reform, universities and their constituents have been implementing various evaluations in their own dynamic - e.g. University of Split started in 2006, University of Rijeka in 2010, and University in Zagreb during the academic year 2011/2012. Some research done in the national context suggests that students consider their own participation in the evaluation of HE teaching as very important (Dubovički and Banjari 2014), which can be interpreted as an additional motive for evaluating and encouraging the improvement of higher education teaching.

This 2018 survey also indicates there are more adequate training courses for enhancing teaching quality then it was the case in the 2009 survey. Although HEIs in Croatia do not have any obligation by the Law to improve the teaching profession[6], various forms of lifelong learning programs for HE teachers have been introduced at public universities within the last decade. However, recent studies done in Croatia still point to the lack of (professional) training opportunities to enhance teaching competencies and improve the quality of teaching (Kovač 2001; Vizek Vidović 2009; Turk 2016; Turk and Ledić, 2016a, 2016b; Ledić and Turk (eds), 2017; Ledić and Brajdić Vuković (eds), 2017). Although formal trainings are (usually) missing at the institutional level, there are various offices and/or committees for quality assurance in higher education at all public Croatian universities. It seems that the introduction of the Law on Quality Assurance in Science and Higher Education in 2009 contributed to a certain extent to the increased concern about the improvement of teaching activity at universities, at least at a declarative level.

Another aspect of teaching culture that has been reported in the 2018 survey in Croatia as a growing one is related with informing students of the implications of cheating or plagiarism. The problems of plagiarism are particularly pronounced with the development of information and communication technology in which the Internet is becoming the main source of information, but opens up opportunities for downloading, processing and potential misuse of this data. This particular finding is very optimistic given that research studies indicate that the cultural environment of post-communist countries where corruption prevails and a higher degree of tolerance towards cheating have contributed to the creation of inappropriate attitudes towards academic and scientific congeniality (Hrabak, 2004, according to Pupovac et al., 2008).

[6] The only respected exception is the University of Osijek where in 2010 the obligation to attend pedagogical-psychological and method-didactic education was introduced for junior members of the academic community, and for those who have never completed any kind of teaching programme development and want to advance in their academic career.

The 2018 survey also suggests an increase in the number of international students at HEIs in Croatia. This is an expected result bearing in mind that during the 2009 survey Croatia participated in Erasmus mobility programme only as a country sender (outgoing mobility), while it was officially set for an incoming mobility in 2011. Since, the statistics of both, incoming and outgoing mobility, has been in favour and Croatia has been ranked the 3rd in the growth of its mobility with an annual increase of an approximate of 30% (Agency for Mobility and EU Programs 2016). In addition, the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports established in June 2009 a working group to strengthen the international mobility. Such effort resulted in developed and implemented measures to foster students' international mobility - e.g. increasing financial resources, equalising 'foreign students' rights with those of Croatian students, increasing the amount of financial support for ERASMUS student mobility. Recent results of the Erasmus + Mobility Report also show that there is a noticeable increase in the number of incoming students and that Croatia is no longer a primary country sender, but also a destination for mobile students, mostly from Poland, Spain and France (Lukić Buković 2016). However, although there are more international students attending graduate programmes (as it is indicated by the 2018 survey in comparison to the 2009 one), most of students at HEIs are still from Croatia.

And the last aspect of the teaching quality assessed in this paper is related with external activities reinforcing teaching ones. Research results indicate that academics who participated in the 2018 survey perceive this to be true more than their colleagues who participated in the 2009 survey. Over the last few years, the concept of the university third mission and the engaged university has become more popular and more studied phenomenon in Croatian academia (Ćulum and Ledić 2011; Ćulum, Rončević and Ledić 2013; Ćulum and Jelenc 2015). University third mission is also recognised in the Science, Education and Technology Strategy (2014), which states that universities must act actively in their social environment by helping their knowledge to innovate and improve social activities, such as public services. In the past decade, various forms of community-based learning (e.g. service-learning) have become more present in the everyday teaching, which might contribute to the result reported here.

Concluding Remarks

Comparing results on various matters related with the teaching culture and quality in Croatian higher education offers a platform for critically discussing noticeable changes. Employed comparison has shown increase in certain teaching elements that can be connected with the aims of the Bologna process itself, as well as with different EU policies on teaching in higher education and the efforts of Croatian HE sector to meet those.

This paper reveals that academics in Croatia are devoted to ICT-based learning and computer-assisted learning today much more than it was the case in the 2009 survey. The same happened with academics investing their time in developing course materials as well as with them having face-to-face interactions with students outside the class. Such changes can be connected with the use of digital technology and distance online learning promotion in various EU policies targeting education (e.g. Yerevan Communiqué 2015), as well as with recent (growing) focus on student centred approach in higher education, on pedagogical innovations and student-focused teaching.

Survey has shown that today academics in Croatia are more often encouraged to improve their instructional skills and more often there are adequate training courses for enhancing teaching quality at their institutions. Such results indicate HEIs in Croatia investing efforts and resources in meeting recommendations from various European policies and reports. The number of international students has been only growing since the first survey in 2009, again indicating HEIs in Croatia investing into internationalisation.

As only preliminary results were presented, this particular study has its own limitations.

However, further in-depth analysis will allow for more comparisons to be made and therefore discussions on the changes related with teaching in higher education sector in Croatia. Such study and discussion are much needed in the national context as everyday practice with teaching culture and quality not being regarded enough seems to confront some of the results presented here. At this point, it is evident that some of the aspects of teaching culture and quality had been changing during the past ten years indicating more positive perspective on enhancing the higher education teaching in Croatia.

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The Role of Strong Syllabi in Increasing Student Engagement and Enhancing the Quality of University Curricula

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Overview

This chapter argues for the importance of designing strong syllabi that would contribute to the implementation of a student-centered pedagogy in Moroccan universities. Because, syllabus documents operate concurrently at the administrative, course development, and interpersonal levels (Eberly & Wiggins, 2001) they ought to be well-designed and thus facilitate a strengthening of learner-teacher communication. However, research aimed at evaluating the English Studies Track (EST) programme indicated that such documents were seldom used in Moroccan universities. The research was carried out in English departments of three Moroccan universities, and involved 883 students who completed a questionnaire covering various aspects of the instructional programme. The research sought to respond to the following question; to what extent can syllabi increase student engagement and enhance the quality of curricula in Moroccan universities?

Keywords: Moroccan university, quality enhancement, student engagement, syllabus design

Introduction

One of the main principles underpinning educational reform in Morocco has been a move towards a student-centered approach in order to enhance learning. The first reform document *The National Charter of Education and Training* (1999) stated that "the new Moroccan national school aims at becoming an active school thanks to a pedagogical approach based on active learning, not on passive reception; on cooperation, discussion and a collective work, not on an individual effort alone" (p. 7). Sixteen years later, the same principle was reiterated in *The Strategic Vision of the Reform: 2015-2030*. In this document, Moroccan schools are expected to promote a transition from the passive transmission of knowledge to a pedagogy promoting learner's cognitive capabilities, life skills, critical thinking, and initiative taking (p.13). These objectives can be better achieved through adoption of a student-centered teaching approach giving priority to students' learning requirements (Cannon and Newble, 2000).

The orientation of the Moroccan reform towards student-centered approaches to learning and teaching goes hand in hand with the international willingness to empower the higher education student and to enhance the quality of tertiary level studies. Davies (1998) argues in *A European Agenda for Change for Higher Education in the 21st Century* that universities assure the quality of teaching and learning through "a careful pre-definition of learning outcomes […], competencies […], or transportable skills […]." (p. 7)Quality is also ensured, according to Davies, through the adoption of new learning methods that are more learner-centered, through the reform of materials and curricula, and through guiding and assisting the student body (ibid, p.8). In this regard, student-centered learning and teaching have become synonymous with effective teaching that can lead to effective learning (Knight and York, 2006, p. 565).

The Moroccan reform expects learner to take responsibility for their learning experiences and to (re)construct the knowledge imparted by the academic authority through a creative interaction teachers (*The Strategic Vision 2015-2030*, p. 13). This interaction between the learner and the teacher is a key aspect of the higher education pedagogy. It is a relationship that should be based on a strong will to engage the student in the educational process. In this regard, the use of well-articulated syllabi that provide students with all the necessary information about the courses they take is likely to increase the levels of student engagement and improve student-teacher interaction.

Theoretical Framework

Student Engagement in Higher Education

Research findings show that the more students are engaged, the more they learn. For example, Trowler and Trowlerpropose that the "value of engagement is no longer questioned." (2010, p. 9). Jones (2009) defines student or learner engagement as

> [the] extent to which all learners (1) are motivated and committed to learning, (2) have a sense of belonging and accomplishment, and (3) have relationships with adults, peers, and parents that support learning. [….] Students need to be engaged before they can apply higher order, creative thinking skills. They learn most effectively when the teacher makes sense and meaning of the curriculum material being taught. This can only happen if the teacher has created a safe learning environment that encourages students to meet challenges and apply high rigor skills to real-world, unpredictable situations inside and outside of school.(p. 24)

Jones' definition refers to the behavioral, the psychological and the socio-psychological dimensions of student engagement (Kahu, 2013). Engaged students invest time and effort to learn; they can self-regulate their own learning and they can use deep learning strategies.

Furthermore, engaged learners enjoy the learning experience and their relationship with their peers and teachers. However, the psychological dimension of engagement goes beyond enjoyment and is further associated with a 'will to succeed', not only in the classroom context, but also in the real world (Kahu, 2013, p. 762).

University students need to be engaged in learning as well as in improving the quality of their learning environment. Students' voices must be heard when it comes to evaluating their own experience with the program. Students' engagement can, indeed, go beyond evaluation to partnership; a situation in which students are listened to and are involved in "designing the curriculum and giving pedagogic advice and consultancy." (Healeyet al., 2014, p. 48). If an institution does not involve its students in this process, it can hardly claim that it is adopting a student-centered approach to teaching and learning. Any attempt to enhance the quality of university programs without involving students and relying only on other parties (teachers and faculty) is likely to fail and it is likely to increase students' feeling of disconnectedness with their learning environment.

According to Bensimon (2009) university students need to "develop feelings about their peers, professors and institutions that give them a sense of connectedness, affiliation, and belonging." (in Trowlerand Trowler, 2010, p.12). In this regard, a certain level of connectedness can be achieved through providing students with a clear syllabus that creates the bond between students, their teachers and the course they will study. The next section will discuss the uses and usefulness of a syllabus in increasing student engagement in higher education.

Uses of a Syllabus in Higher Education

A syllabus is usually conceived of "a description of the contents of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught." (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 532). However, at the tertiary level, the function of a syllabus goes beyond the organization of content to include "the instructor's expectations, the methods of instruction and evaluation, and the overall course rationale" (Lowther et al., 1989, p. vi).This corresponds to what Chickering and Gamson (1987) identify as 'a strong sense of shared purposes' - one of the key characteristics of an environment that fosters learning in higher education (p. 5). These 'shared purposes' are usually stated in the syllabus which is a contract between the student and the university; it is a contract between the student and the teacher; and it is a tool to track the development of a certain course and "to evaluate curriculum and program development over time." (Ecker, 1994 in Eberly and Wiggins, 2001, p. 57). In this regard, Parkes and Harris (2002) identify three functions for a syllabus at the tertiary level: a syllabus as a permanent record, a syllabus as a contract, and a syllabus as a learning tool.

First, a syllabus is a record of the course content, of the course objectives and outcomes, and of assessment procedures. This allows the revision of courses and programs "in order to adapt to changes in the teaching-learning process."(Eberlyand Wiggins, 2001, p. 69).Second, the syllabus is a contract between the student and the teacher, on the one hand, and between the student and the university, on the other hand. Therefore, the syllabus should include, among other components, clear information about the course calendar; course pre-requisites; grading, information regarding late assignment submissions, and requisite make-up policies in the event of failure (Parkes and Harris, ibid). The syllabus is a roadmap for the student and without this document students are likely to feel lost, and, hence, disengaged and demotivated. Slattery and Carlson (2005) argue that:

> [s]students who cannot predict or influence their professor's expectations and behavior may give up and display typical signs of learned helplessness. Similarly, when faculty shift deadlines frequently, students may become frustrated by their inability to plan writing and studying time" (p. 160).

In fact, a syllabus has the potential to be a learning tool because it allows the student to develop his/her planning and self-management skills and it can provide them with valuable advice on how to deal with the course in and outside of class. More importantly, if students have access to a syllabus before they start the course, they can recognise their own strengths and identify their weaknesses in relation to the course pre-requisites (Parkesand Harris, ibid, p. 58).

All things considered, providing university students with a syllabus that describes the course content, objectives and outcomes increases their awareness of what they have to do; how they should do it; and what they are supposed to achieve. The more students are aware of the rationale(s) behind what they are doing at the level of the course and the program, the more likely it is that they will be engaged in their studies and the more informed they will be to provide relevant feedback that will further enhance course quality.

The present chapter examines the extent to which the EST students in three Moroccan universities are aware of the objectives of the program they are enrolled in and the objectives and outcomes of the courses in which they are enrolled. The results will be discussed in the light of the use or lack of use of syllabi in this program.

Methodology

Research Questions

The present chapter seeks to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent are the English Studies Track (EST) students aware of the objectives behind their university studies?
2. To what extent do EST students have a clear idea about the course objectives at the beginning of each course?
3. To what extent are EST students aware of the courses outcomes?

Population and Sampling

The study was carried out among the students of the English departments of three Moroccan universities: Abdelmalek Essaadi University (AEU) in Tetouan, IbnTofail University (ITU) in Kenitra, and Cadi Ayyad University (CAU) in Marrakech. These universities were chosen on the basis of two criteria: accessibility and the fact that they also are somewhat representative of the wider higher education sector. First, these universities were the most accessible to the researcher in terms of their location and having access to students. Second, these universities represent three different geographical regions in Morocco: the North, the West, and the Center of Morocco respectively.

883 students from the above-mentioned universities participated in this study. The participants were Semester 2 (S2), Semester 4 (S4), and Semester 6 (S6) students. This means that the study covers three levels of experience with university studies, which ranges from first year to third year of the graduate program. Table 1 shows the distribution of the participants according to the institution they belong to and the semester of studies.

			Semester			Total
			Semester 2	Semester 4	Semester 6	
The English Department	AEU	**Count**	**130**	**24**	**43**	**197**
		Expected Count	71,6	47,1	78,3	197,0
	ITU	**Count**	**116**	**85**	**165**	**366**
		Expected Count	133,1	87,5	145,5	366,0
	CAU	**Count**	**75**	**102**	**143**	**320**
		Expected Count	116,3	76,5	127,2	320,0
Total		**Count**	**321**	**211**	**351**	**883**
		Expected Count	321,0	211,0	351,0	883,0

Table 1: Number of Participants from the English Departments of the Three Universities

Research Instrument and Data Analysis

A questionnaire comprising 32 closed-ended (Likert scale) questions was administered to participant students. The questionnaire dealt with different aspects of the teaching and learning environments in the ESTs in the three universities covered by this research. Nonetheless, for the sake of the present chapter, only the answers to three questions that are related to syllabus use in the ESTs will be reported. Each one of these questions addresses the aforementioned research questions.

1. I am aware of the objectives behind my university studies at the English department.

Strongly Agree □ Agree □ I'm not sure □ Disagree □ Strongly Disagree □

2. I have a clear idea about the course objectives at the beginning of each course.

Always □ Usually □ Sometimes □ Rarely □ Never □

3. I am aware of the outcomes I have to reach by the end of each course.

Always □ Usually □ Sometimes □ Rarely □ Never □

The answers to these questions were submitted to a statistical analysis of frequencies.

Results

1. To what extent are the English Studies Track (EST) students aware of the objectives behind their university studies?

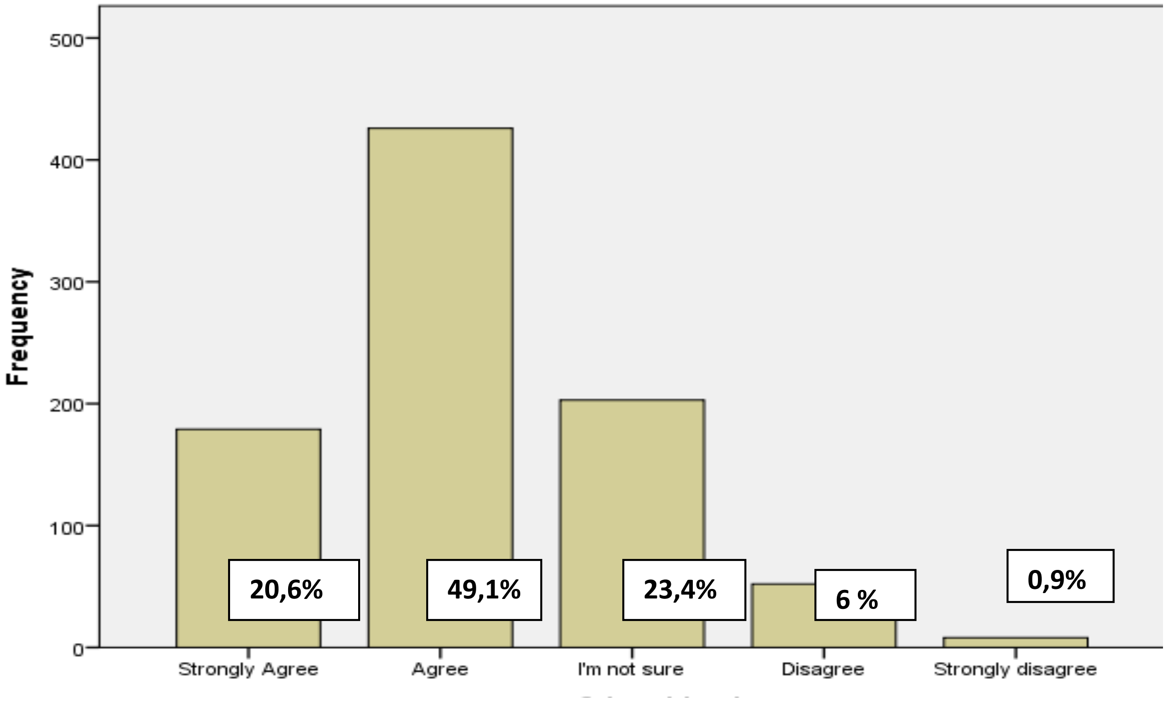

Figure 1. Students' Awareness of the Program Objectives

Figure 1 reveals that the majority of the participants (69,7%) agreed (20,6% strongly agreed and 49,1% agreed) that they had a clear idea about the objectives behind their university studies in the English Studies Track. Only 6,9% said they were unaware of these objectives. However, 23,4% of the students did not have full knowledge of their studies objectives,

2. To what extent do the English Studies Track (EST) students have a clear idea about the objectives of the courses they take?

The participants' answers to this question show that most of the students in the EST do not have a clear idea about the objectives of the courses they take (Figure 2). Only 12, 8% of the respondents claimed that they always had knowledge of the courses objectives. As a matter of fact, this category of respondents is outnumbered by the category that rarely or never got any idea about course objectives (23, 5%). (36%) said that they sometimes knew about the courses objectives.

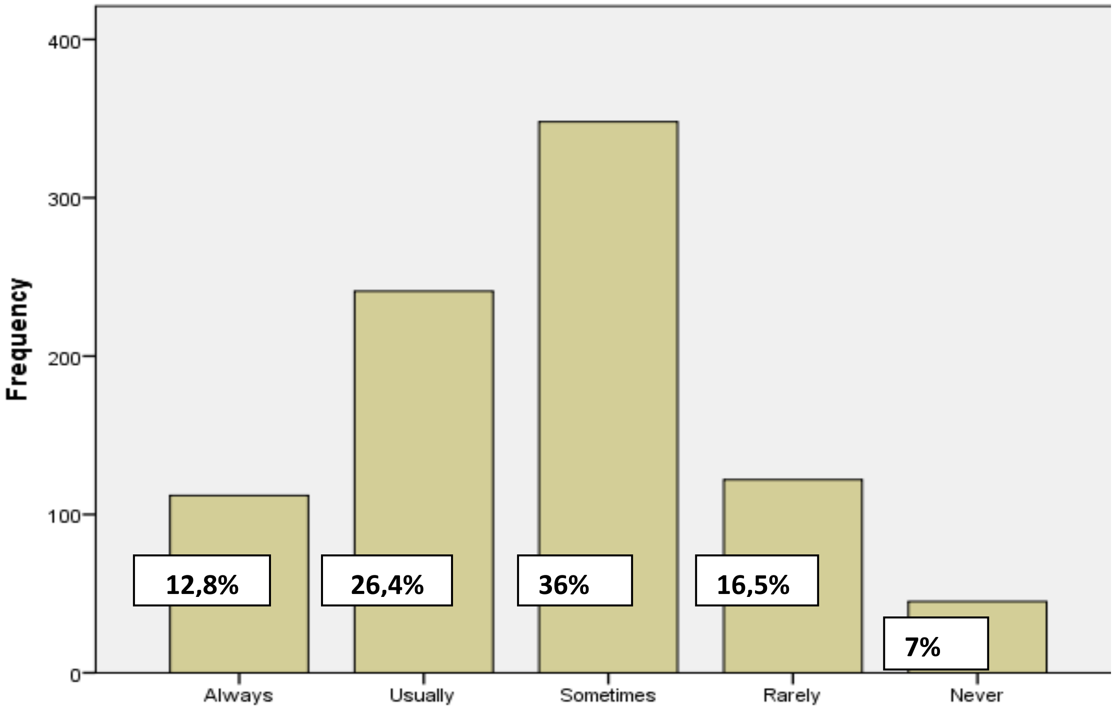

Figure 2: Students' Awareness of the Courses Objectives

3. To what extent are EST students aware of the courses outcomes?

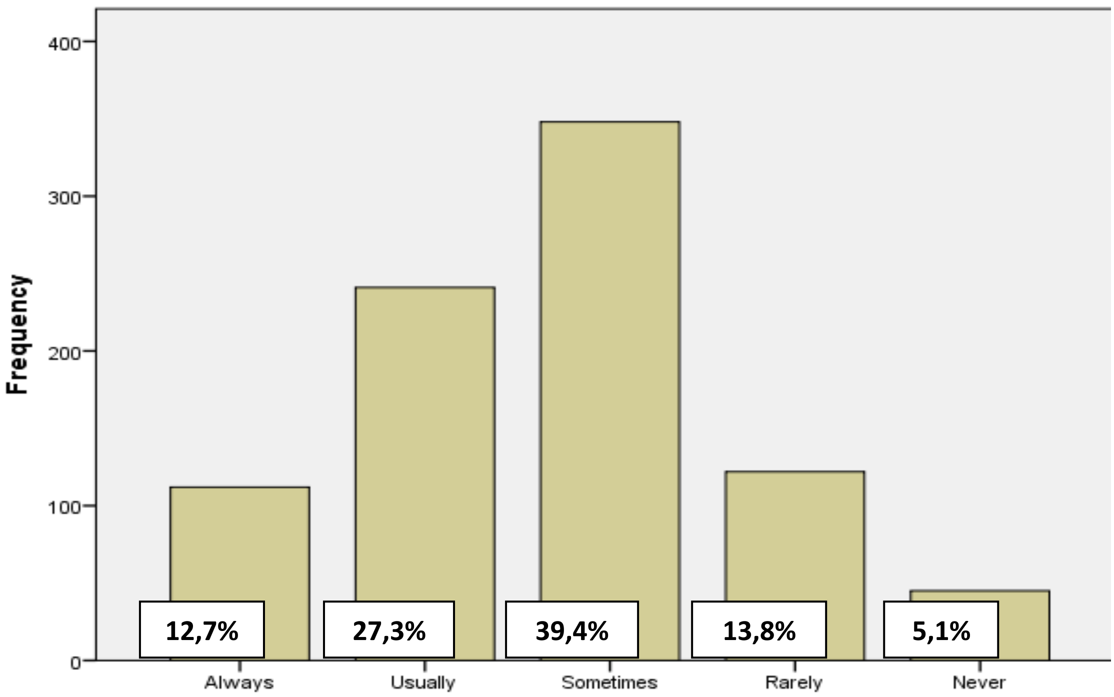

Figure 3: Students' awareness of the Courses Outcomes

The participants answered the third question almost in the same way as they answered the second one. Figure 3 reveals that students are not fully aware of the outcomes they have to reach in the courses they take as only 12, 7% of the respondents answered that they were always aware of the courses outcomes. 27, 3% said they usually knew about the outcomes they had to achieve. However, almost 40% said that they were sometimes aware of the courses outcomes; while, 18, 9% of the participants reported that they rarely or never knew about them. This denotes a lack of certainty about what students have to achieve by the end of the courses.

Discussion and Implications

The results yielded by the questionnaire reveal a significant discrepancy in students' awareness of objectives, and outcomes, at the level of the program on the one hand, and at the level of the courses on the other hand. It seems that EST students' level of awareness of the objectives behind their university studies at the English Department is higher (69% of the respondents) than their level of awareness of the objectives behind the individual courses they take (39,2% of the respondents who were always or usually aware of the courses objectives). This negative tendency is reinforced by the percentage of students who only sometimes had a clear idea about the objectives (36%) and outcomes (39.4%) of the courses they study.

This discrepancy may be due to the fact that the three universities covered by this study provide a general description of the program on their respective websites, either in French (CAU and ITU) or in English (AEU). One of the participant universities provided a comprehensive list of objectives and proposed learning competencies on its website. However, such information provision does not tend to be the norm. Seldom available to students when it comes to individual courses. Anecdotal information suggests that many ESTs teachers communicate course content and objectives orally.

Providing a detailed syllabus is not a requirement in the ESTs and the results presented in the previous section reveal an unsystematic use of syllabi in the ESTs in Moroccan universities. An important number of Moroccan students do not have access to basic information about the courses they take in terms of objectives and outcomes. This situation is likely to foster a surface approach to learning in students who cannot predict what they are supposed to achieve in their courses. Meanwhile, Lizzioet al. (2002) assert that "[s]tudents who reported a deep approach to learning the subject also reported more integrated conceptions of the subject content both prior and subsequent to enrolment in the subject." (p. 30)

*The Strategic Vision 2015-2030*proposes that the Moroccan educational system must "involve the learner in the construction of their own learning and develop a creative interaction between the learner and the teacher." (p. 13). Yet, such an interaction can hardly take place without a syllabus that sets the ground for the student-teacher negotiation of the course context. One of the basic needs of university students is to have access to learning guides and syllabi. Students need to have a clear vision of the courses and the curricula they study in order to be engaged in the learning process.

In order to enhance the quality of the Moroccan tertiary level, it is fundamental to go beyond the conception that a syllabus is a mere document that describes the scope and sequence of a course and that it is a document exclusively for teachers. Moroccan university students must have access to course syllabi to develop their motivation and agency (Zepke and Leach, 2010, p. 169). Students tend to feel more autonomous and in control of their own learning if they have a syllabus that helps them plan for their studies and organise their priorities according to the objectives and outcomes stated in the document.

Conclusion

Student engagement does not only involve what students and teachers do in the classroom but also what happens prior to the course. Engagement can be designed into the development of learner-centered syllabi addressing students' needs for guidance, clarity and connectedness. Enhancing the quality of higher education curricula in Morocco is not solely the responsibility of teachers, faculty and politicians alone. Students have to be consulted as partners and have to be engaged in the quality enhancement process because they are at the heart of the educational practice. They can pinpoint the weaknesses and the strengths of study programs and they can suggest possible solutions to current problems. Adopting a student-centered approach to teaching and learning should not be limited to the teaching methods, but should also affect the teaching philosophy embraced by the teachers and the higher education institution.

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Self-Efficacy, Academic Motivation and Achievement among Moroccan EFL Learners

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Overview

The objective of this research is to explore the relationship among self-efficacy, academic motivation and academic performance of Moroccan English Foreign Language (EFL) students. The data was collected through administering a questionnaire to 179 EFL leaners selected from semester three and semester five. The questionnaire was used to measure the learners' general self-efficacy as adopted from Chen et al. (2001), learning self-efficacy as adopted from Pintrich et al. (1991), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as adopted from Pintrich et al. (1991), and academic achievement as measured by participants' self-reported grade-point averages (see section 7.2). The data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between self-efficacy, motivation and academic performance. T-tests were carried out to explore the differences in participants' self-efficacy, motivation and academic performance on the basis of their gender and instructional level. The results of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between the students' self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and academic performance. There were no differences among learners' self-efficacy beliefs, motivational orientations with respect to their gender and educational level. However, male students scored higher on academic achievement than female students. Fifth-semester students were also found to score higher on academic performance than third-semester students.

Keywords*:* self-efficacy, intrinsic, extrinsic motivation, academic performance, gender

1. Introduction

This chapter addresses the idea that perceived self-efficacy is an important variable in understanding learners' academic motivation and achievement. Self-efficacy is defined as one's perceived capabilities for learning or producing given attainments (Bandura, 1997). In other words, self-efficacy involves one's beliefs about his/her capability to do a task. Perceived self-efficacy does not affect behaviour directly but instead through its impact on other determinants such as "goals and aspirations, outcome expectations, affective proclivities, and perception of impediments and opportunities in the social environment" (Bandura, 2006, p. 309). Through expectations of eventual success, self-efficacy is hypothesised to affect choice of activities, effort, persistence, and achievement (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1995). People who have a low sense of efficacy for accomplishing a task may avoid it; however, people with high self-efficacy for accomplishing a task participate more readily, work harder, persist longer in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1997, Schunk, 1991; Schunk and Meece 2005). So self-efficacy, which refers to people's beliefs in their capabilities to perform tasks, is an important personal factor as sit can influence other factors that impact behaviour, such as strategic thinking, goal setting, success expectation, effort exertion, and perseverance in the face of difficulties.

Self-efficacy is not considered to be a static or global trait, but instead a differentiated set of beliefs about oneself that are linked to distinct areas of functioning (Bandura, 1997, 2006). For instance, one cannot be a master of all trades, which would require a mastery of every realm of human life. Therefore, people differ both in the areas and tasks in which they exhibit their self-efficacy and in the levels to which they develop it within their chosen accomplishments (Bandura 1997, 2006).

The next section provides a theoretical background of self-efficacy framed within the context of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). The sources of self-efficacy information and the consequences of self-efficacy, especially the influence on motivation and academic achievement, are described.

2. Sources of Self-Efficacy

From Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, we can infer that students' self-efficacy constitutes a major aspect of their knowledge about themselves as learners and a determiner of scholastic behaviour. Bandura (1997) argued that self-efficacy is constructed from four major sources: mastery experience, vicarious (observational) experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective state. These four sources are explained below.

2.1. Enactive Mastery Experience

Bendura (1997) considers enactive mastery experiences the most prominent source of efficacy information because they provide the most accurate evidence of whether one can master the prerequisite skills to succeed. The students' judgments of their ability are formed on the basis of their own previous academic performances. Successes raise efficacy and failures lower it, but once a strong sense of efficacy is developed a failure may not have much impact on self-efficacy belief (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 1984, 1991).

2.2. Vicarious Experience

Students' self-efficacy is also partly shaped by vicarious experiences through observing how others perform. Similar others offer the best basis for comparison (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1989). For most activities, including that of school contexts, people measure the adequacy of their capabilities in relation to the performance of similar others. Bandura (1997) argues that students may possibly modify their beliefs following a model's success or failure to the extent that they feel similar to the model. Observing similar peers perform a task conveys to the students the information that they too have the ability to undertake similar tasks. On the other hand, observing others fail may lower the students' sense of self-efficacy and discourage them from doing the task. Nevertheless, information acquired vicariously usually has a weaker and transient effect on self-efficacy than performance-based information (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1989, 1991).

2.3. Verbal/Social Persuasion

Social persuasion serves as another important means of strengthening people's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The positive feedback that students receive from others on their abilities and academic outcomes contributes in sustaining and promoting their sense of self-efficacy, especially when struggling with difficulties. Students who are verbally persuaded that they possess the ability to carry out certain tasks are more likely to exert more effort and persevere in the face of difficulties than if they doubt their capabilities. **Persuasory** efficacy information, which is often conveyed in the form the evaluative feedback given to performers, can be conveyed in a manner that weakens a sense of efficacy or boosts it (Bandura, 1997, p. 101). According to Usher and Pajares (2006) positive feedback from significant others is a reliable source of increasing and strengthening self-confidence.

2.4. Physiological and Emotional States

Students acquire efficacy information through somatic or physiological indices (Bandura 1997). Students often read their physiological and emotional symptoms in stressful situations as indicators of liability of dysfunction (Bandura 1997; Schunk, 1984). For example, physiological and emotional symptoms such as trembling, sweating, anxiety and stress before a test could be interpreted by students as indicators that they lack the pre-requisite skills, and hence may not be capable of performing well. Strong emotional reactions to school related tasks could provide clues to expected success or failure (Usher &Pajares, 2006).

Bandura (1997) argued that guided enactive mastery beliefs produces stronger and more global efficacy beliefs than do other modes of influence relying only on vicarious experiences or verbal instruction. In other words, students' own performances offer more reliable indices for measuring self-efficacy, while effects of the other sources are more variable. In general, successes raise self-efficacy and failures lower it, although an occasional failure (success) after some successes (failures) is unlikely to have much impact (Bandura, 1997; Schunk and Meece, 2005).

The role of self-efficacy in motivation and performance has been increasingly explored since Bandura's (1977) original publications. During the past three decades, self-efficacy has emerged as a highly effective predictor of students' motivation and learning (Zimmerman, 2000). The rest of the paper deals with the influence of self-efficacy on motivation and achievement.

3. Academic Motivation

Albert Bandura's (1977, 1986 & 1997) theory of self-efficacy has important implications with regard to motivation. Bandura hypothesized that perceived self-efficacy affects choice of activities, effort expenditure, and persistence. People who hold a low sense of efficacy for accomplishing a task may avoid it; those who believe they are capable should participate more eagerly even in when facing difficulties and obstacles. In line with this, Schunk (2003) believes that students' perceived self-efficacy about their capabilities to learn or perform behaviours at designated levels, plays an important role in their motivation and learning. Students' self-efficacy sustains motivation and promotes learning.

To be motivated means to be enthusiastic about doing a task, whereas a person who feels no incentive or eagerness to act is thus characterised as unmotivated. Students differ not only in the intensity of motivation, but also in the orientation of that motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In self-determination theory (STD) Deci & Ryan (1985) distinguished between different types of motivation on the basis of different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The most basic distinction is between *intrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something because of its inherently satisfactions, and *extrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something to attain some separable outcome. Intrinsic motivation is based on the individual's needs to be competent and self-determining (p. 5).

4. Self-efficacy and Motivation

Educators have long recognised that students' beliefs about their academic capabilities play an essential role in their motivation to achieve. According to Bandura (1994, 1997), motivation involves the cognitive process that students use in the activation and persistence of behaviour (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Bandura (1994) argues that efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic motivation and deep interest in activities. Therefore, they boost and maintain their efforts in the face of difficulties and failures. In line with this, McKeachie (1990) asserts that when students are efficacious, learning becomes more intrinsically satisfying. Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997; 1999) also found self-efficacy to be highly correlated with students' rated intrinsic interest in a motoric learning task as well as in a writing revision task. In a study by Saracalolu and Dinçer (2009), which explored the relationship between self-efficacy and academic motivation of the teacher candidates, self-efficacy is found to moderately correlate with academic motivation and to lesser extent with academic achievement. Niehaus, Rudasil, and Adelson (2012) examined how academic self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and participation in an after-school program contributed to the academic achievement of Latino middle school students. Results revealed that intrinsic motivation was positively associated with students' academic achievement.

5. Self-Efficacy and Academic Achievement

Ample research has indicated that self-efficacy correlates with achievement outcomes (Bandura, 1993, 1997; Ferla, Valcke, and Cai, 2009; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1989, 1991, 1995; Zimmerman, 1997*;* Usher and Pajares, 2006; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs show confidence in their skills and abilities to do well and have been shown to participate more in learning activities.

Mahyuddin, et al. (2006) investigated the relationship between Malaysian students' self-efficacy and their English language achievement. Correlational analysis shows that there are significant positive correlations between self-efficacy dimensions and academic achievement in the English language. Rahemi (2007) investigated the humanities students' English self-efficacy beliefs, and examined the contributions they make to their EFL achievements. A strong positive correlation was found between their EFL achievements and self-efficacy. Reyes (2010) conducted a study to find the level of efficacy of highs school students in the subjects of Math and English on the basis of their gender. He found a significant relationship between students' performance on both of subjects and self-efficacy. However no significant difference has been located on male and female perceived efficacy on both subjects. Akram and Ghazanfar (2014) explored the relationship of self-efficacy and the academic performance in terms of CGPA of the Pakistani University students. The results reveal a positive relationship between self-efficacy and their academic performance. The study also reveals that there is a significant difference in the level of self-efficacy of respondents with respect to their gender, as male students showed high level of self-efficacy as compared to female students. Shkullaku (2013) explored gender differences in self-efficacy and academic performance among Albanian students. The results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between the students' self-efficacy and academic performance. The results also showed there were gender differences in the levels of self-efficacy, where men reported higher levels of self-efficacy than women. The results also showed that there was no difference between males and females in academic performance.

6. The Objective of the Study

As self-efficacy plays a significant role in influencing academic motivation and achievement, the aim of this study is to investigate the relationship among EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs, motivational orientations and academic performance. Moreover, it also investigates possible differences among learners' self-efficacy beliefs, motivational drives, and academic achievement on the basis of their gender and instructional level.

7. Method

7.1. Sample

A criterion-sampling scheme (Onwuegbuzie& Collins, 2007) was used in this study. Specifically, the criteria used were that each participant was either a third semester or a fifth semester undergraduate student. The target population of the present study was EFL students from Beni Mellal University of Arts and Humanities in Morocco. The sample included 82 male (45,8%) and 97 (54,2%) female students. 90 (50,3%) of these students were studying in the third semester and 88 (49,7%) in the fifth semester. The respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 42 years (mean age = 21,5 years).

7.2. Measures

The questionnaire of the study comprises 24 items tapping learner's beliefs about their self-efficacy and motivational drives. At this stage, it is important to note that the self-efficacy measures refer to performance capabilities rather personal qualities, such as psychological characteristics (Aamir, et al., 2017). Because self-efficacy beliefs are multi-layered, different kinds of self-efficacy scales exist (Bandura, 2006). There are general scales that measure an individuals' global sense of efficacy, and specific domain of functioning scales. Therefore, the first scale (8 items) is adopted from the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen et al, 2001). It includes items such as: I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself; When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them; In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.). The second scale (8 items) is adopted from Pintrich et al., (1991) self-efficacy for learning and performance. It includes items such as: I believe I will receive an excellent grade in my classes; I'm certain I can understand the most difficult course material presented in the readings for my courses; I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in my courses. The eight items used to comprise the scale for learning self-efficacy (LSE) are intended to measure both efficacious appraisals of ability and performance expectations in a specific college course (Pintrich et al., 1991). The Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993) focuses on two subscales, each of which consists of four items. External motivation consists of items such as: I study English because I need at least a high-school degree in order to find a high-paying job later on. Intrinsic motivation includes items such as: I study English because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things. The respondents replied to the five-point Likert scale questionnaire with the following answer possibilities: 1 – not very like me, 2 – like me, 3 – somewhat like me, 4 – like me, 5 – very like me (See Appendix A).

This questionnaire also extracted the following demographic information: gender, age, instructional level and self-reported grade point average (GPA). The data on academic performance was collected through GPA self-reported by the participants in the previous semesters of the 2017- 2018 academic year. The grades were used as the measure of students' academic performance.

The internal consistency estimates of the different self-efficacy and motivation scales ranges from .79 to .85, which were quite similar to the internal consistency reliabilities of SGSES of Chen et al. (2001), which was moderate to high (.76 to .89) and to the AMS of Vallerand, et al. (1993), which ranged from .83 to .86.

7.3. Data Analysis

The compiled data by the questionnaire was analysed with SPSS 17.0 software to answer the research questions. All the data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive analysis was conducted to report the mean scores and standard deviation in order to investigate the students' self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations statistics used were means. The inferential statistics used were t-tests for independent samples to determine the gender and instructional level difference among the sample concerning their self-efficacy beliefs and motivation, and Pearson product moment correlation. Pearson correlations were performed to investigate the relationship among self–efficacy, motivational orientations and academic performance. Independent *t*-tests were conducted to determine the gender and instructional level difference among the sample concerning their self-efficacy beliefs, motivation and academic achievement. A correlation analysis was also to determine the correlation among self-efficacy beliefs, motivational orientations and academic achievement.

8. Results

8.1. Students self-efficacy and motivational orientations

Table 1 presents descriptive results, which gives an initial idea about the learners' level of self-efficacy, motivational orientations, and academic achievement.

Table 1: Students self-efficacy and motivational orientations

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
General Self-Efficacy	178	1,75	5,00	3,75	,64
Learning Self-Efficacy	179	1,75	5,00	3,61	,68
External Motivation	179	1,00	5,00	3,47	1,12
Internal Motivation	179	1,00	5,00	4,15	,83
Academic Achievement	179	5,00	15,50	10,94	1,66
Valid N (listwise)	178				

The first objective of this study was to explore the Moroccan EFL self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations. The descriptive statistics table below give us an initial idea about the learners' self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations. As shown in Table 1 below EFL students generally have a moderately high sense of global self-efficacy (M= 3,75; SD = ,64) and learning self-efficacy (M = 3,61; SD = ,68). As far as their motivational orientations are concerned, it seems that they more internally motivated to (M = 4,15; SD = ,83) than externally motivated (M = 3,47; SD = 1,12) to learn English. Concerning the sample global grade mean it is moderate with a mean score of (M = 10,94; SD = 1,66).

8.2. Correlation among learners' self-efficacy, motivational drives, and academic achievement

Table 2 explores the different correlation among the learners' self-efficacy beliefs, motivations orientations and academic achievement. It also investigates the inter-correlations among the investigated variables.

Table 2: Correlations among academic achievement and self-efficacy and motivation

	Academic Ach	G S Efficacy	L Self Ef	Intr motivation	Ext motivation
Academic Achievement	--				
General Self-efficacy	,32** Sig= ,00 N= 177	--			
Learning Self-efficacy	,34** Sig= ,00 N= 177	,67** Sig= ,00 N= 175	--		
Intrinsic motivation	,20** Sig= ,006 N= 178	,34** Sig= ,00 N= 176	,28** Sig= ,00 N= 176	--	
Extrinsic motivation	-,08 Sig= ,28 N= 177	-,004 Sig= ,96 N= 176	,11 Sig= ,15 N= 175	-,08 Sig= ,26 N= 176	--

** P<.01

An evaluation of Table 4 reveals that the academic performances of the students have a significantly positive relationship with learning self-efficacy (r = .34), with intrinsic motivation (r = .34) (p < .01), and global self-efficacy (r = .32). These results seem to suggest that the higher the learners' global self-efficacy, learning self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation the higher their academic achievements get. On the other hand, external motivation correlates negatively with academic achievement (r = -.34, p< .01). This seems to suggest that the more externally motivated the learners are the lower their academic performance becomes. One can also see that global self-efficacy correlates strongly with learning self-efficacy r = .64 and moderately with intrinsic motivation r = .34. These results entail that students who have high global self-efficacy also have high sense of learning self-efficacy and are intrinsically motivated to learn English. Learning self-efficacy also exhibits a moderately positive correlation with internal motivation r = .28, p < .01). It should be noted that external motivation exhibits insignificant inter-correlations with academic achievement and the rest of the investigated variables, as the p value is more than .01.

8.3. Gender and learners' self-efficacy and motivational orientations

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate whether participants' mean scores differed across genders at statistically significant levels.

Table 3: A Comparison of Male and Female Learners' Self-Efficacy and Motivational Orientations

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	sig
General Self-Efficacy	male	81	3,8194	,65491	1,295	.19
	female	96	3,6953	,61874	1,288	
Learning Self-Efficacy	male	81	3,6402	,75462	1,182	.23
	female	96	3,5179	,62261	1,163	
External Motivation	male	80	3,4917	1,14611	,002	.54
	female	97	3,4914	1,08663	,002	
Internal Motivation	male	81	4,0401	,88429	-,713	.45
	female	97	4,1340	,86607	-,712	
Academic Achievement	Male	82	11,21	1,82	2,04	.04
	Female	97	10,71	1,48		

So as the results in Table 2 show, the *t*-test results indicated that there was not a significant difference between females and males with regard to the mean scores of their self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations as the *p* value is more than .05 ($P< .05$). However, the *t*-test results show that there is significant difference between males and females in academic performance. Male students of the sample of this study score higher in academic achievement (M= 11.21; SD= 1,82; p= .04) than female students (M = 10.71; SD = 1,48; p = .04).

8.4. Instructional level and students' self-efficacy and motivation

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate whether participants' mean scores differed across the two investigated instructional levels at statistically significant levels.

Table 4: A Comparison of S1 and S6 Students' self-efficacy and motivation

	Instructional level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.
General Self-Efficacy	S3	90	3,78	,56	,22	.82
	S5	86	3,75	,71	,22	
Learning Sefl-Efficay	S3	90	3,63	,60	,57	.57
	S5	86	3,57	,76	,56	
External Motivation	S3	90	3,52	1,12	,49	.61
	S5	86	3,44	1,10	,49	
Intrinsic Motivation	S3	89	4,14	,82	-,26	.79
	S5	88	4,16	,92	-,26	
Academic Achievement	S3	90	10,68	1,73	2.51	.01
	S5	88	11,28	1,41	2,52	

To investigate the impact of the instruction level on the learners' self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations an independent *t*-test was conducted. As shown in Table 3, the analysis by the independent *t*-tests on the investigated variables between S3 and S5 students yield significant differences for the academic achievement, as the *p* value is less than .05 ($P< .05$). This means that there is a statistically significant difference in terms of academic achievement between semester five students (M = 11.28, SD = 1.41, t = 2.51) and semester 3 students (M = 10.68, SD = 1.73, $t = 2.52$), p = .01.

9. Discussion

The aim of the present study is to investigate the relationship among EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs, motivational orientations, and academic performance. Fist, the descriptive statistics shows through the EFL learners' mean scores that they have a moderately high sense of general self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy. These results seem to indicate that participants in this sample believed themselves to be considerably efficacious with regard to not only their sense of mastery in academic related tasks, but also in different domains of functioning.

Concerning their motivational orientation, the results revealed that the participants of this study are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated to learn English. These results seem to indicate that the Moroccan EFL leaners included in this study sample tend to perceive themselves as efficacious and intrinsically oriented to learn English. This is important because self-efficacy has important implications with regard to motivation (Bandura, 1977, 1986 & 1997), and academic achievement (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1989, 1991, 1995).

The correlational analysis reveals that both learning self-efficacy and global self-efficacy correlate positively with the leaners' academic performances. This result was consistent with previous research in suggesting that academic self-efficacy correlates positively with academic achievement (Bandura, 1993, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1989, 1991, 1995; Zimmerman, 1997; Mahyuddin, et al., 2006; Rahemi, 2007; Reyes, 2010; Ghazanfar, 2014). This result points to the importance fostering a high sense of self-efficacy, both general and academic efficacy beliefs, in learners as it directly influence their academic performance.

In addition, intrinsic motivation is also found to correlate positively with leaners' academic performance. Specifically, students who were more intrinsically motivated earned higher grades. This finding suggests that Moroccan EFL learners who are more internally motivated to study English are more successful. This result is in line with previous work by Niehaus, Rudasil, and Adelson (2012) showed that intrinsic motivation was positively associated with Latino middle school students' GPAs. On the other hand, external motivation correlates negatively with learners' academic achievement. This finding seems to suggest that the more externally motivated the students are the less they achieve in their study.

One of the most significant results of the study revealed that general self-efficacy correlates strongly with learning self-efficacy ($r= .64$, $p < .01$).This result seems to corroborate the previous descriptive result, which indicates that students who have high global self-efficacy also have high sense of learning self-efficacy. A person who possesses high self-efficacious beliefs in accomplishing different performances is more likely to trust his/her academic performance as well. The learners' global sense of self-efficacy, which is developed at early stages of individuals' lives outside the classroom, should be nurtured by educators and other caregivers, as it is predictive of academic self-efficacy. Moreover, both general and learning self-efficacy beliefs exhibit a significant positive correlation with intrinsic motivation. These results were consistent with previous research in suggesting that academic self-efficacy is correlated with intrinsic motivation. For instance, Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1997; 1999) found self-efficacy to correlate highly with students' rated intrinsic interest in learning. In line with this, McKeachie (1990) asserts that when students have a high sense of efficacy, learning becomes more intrinsically satisfying. In another study by Saracalolu and Dinçer (2009), self-efficacy was found to moderately correlate with academic motivation.

The positive correlations among self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and academic achievement can be accounted for by Bandura's theory. Bandura's social cognitive theory introduces self-efficacy as a personal factor that affect individuals' choice of activities, effort expenditure, persistence in the face of obstacles, and achievement. Bandura believes that the individuals who have more successful experiences develop their capabilities for learning or producing a given attainment. Moreover, as Schunk (2003) argues students' perceived self-efficacy plays an important role in their motivation and learning. In other words, students' self-efficacy beliefs help sustain motivation and hence promote learning. Indeed, self-efficacy has emerged as a highly effective predictor of students' motivation and learning as Zimmerman (2000) argued.

In the current study, there were no difference among learners' self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations with respect to their gender and educational level. The fact that there were no differences among male and female learners' efficacy beliefs was consistent with Reyes (2010) study in which he investigated the level of efficacy of high school students in the subjects of Math and English on the basis of their gender. However, this result was inconsistent with other studies, where males were found to show high level of self-efficacy than females (cf. Akram & Ghazanfar, 2014; Shkullaku, 2013). The fact that there is no difference among the Moroccan male and female EFL learners' self-efficacy believes shows that today female learners are as efficacious as male learners. Indeed, Moroccan female learners are as good at learning language as males.

10. Implications

In light of the findings of the present study the following implication were formulated:

1- Self-efficacy beliefs and motivational orientations of learners are vital constructs to take into account in trying to understand EFL learners' academic outcomes.

2- It is essential for the teachers to promote the learners' self-efficacy, and, by doing so, they can improve the academic performance of their students.

3- It is helpful that teachers help their leaners get interested in the subjects they teach and the language in general.

11. CONCLUSION

Ample research has indicated that self-efficacy correlates with achievement outcomes (Bandura, 1993, 1997; Ferla, Valcke, and Cai, 2009; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1995), and motivation, especially intrinsic motivation (Bandura, 1994, 1997; McKeachie, 1990; Zimmerman and Kitsantas, 1997; 1999). Students with high self-efficacy often display greater performance comparatively to those with low self-efficacy. Students' beliefs about their academic capabilities is equated with self-competence, therefore significant others, especially teachers should play their role in enhancing this academic self-competence for it has great influence on the learners' endeavour to achieve and eventually on their achievement behaviour.

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Appendix: A questionnaire on qualities of effective teachers

This questionnaire is about your perceptions of your self-efficacy and motivation. We would appreciate it if you would complete this survey anonymously and return it to the person who handed it to you. Your answers, along with that of other students, will be used to assist us in developing a better understanding in this area. Thanks for your time.

****

I- Part one

1- Gender: male ☐ female ☐

2- Age: ______

3- Instructional level: Semester 3 ☐ Semester 5 ☐

4- What are the global grades you got in the two previous semesters: …… and ……

5- How would you rate your academic performance?

5- Very high ☐ 4- High ☐ 3- Average ☐ 2- Low ☐ 1-Very low ☐

II- Part two

1- Please CHECK ONE box that best describes you. Be honest, since the information you provide will be used in a scientific study about EFL learners' academic self-efficacy and motivation. There are no right or wrong answers! All your answers are held to be true.

5= very like me; 4= like me, 3= somewhat like me, 2= not like me; 1= not very like me

1- I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.					
2- When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.					
3- In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.					
4- I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.					
5- I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.					
6- I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.					
7- Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.					
8- Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.					
9- I believe I will receive an excellent grade in my classes					

10- I'm certain I can understand the most difficult course material presented in the readings for my courses.					
11- I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in my courses.					
12- I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in my courses					
13- I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in my courses.					
14- I expect to do well in my classes.					
15- I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in my classes.					
16- Considering the difficulty of the courses and my skills, I think I will do well in my classes.					
17- Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school.					
18- I once had good reasons for going to school; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.					
19- I can't see why I go to school and, frankly, I couldn't care less.					
20- I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.					
21- I study English because I need at least a high-school degree in order to find a high-paying job later on.					
22- I study English in order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.					
23- I study English because I want to have "the good life" later on.					
24- I study English in order to have a better salary later on.					
25- I study English because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning this language.					
26- I study English for the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never known before.					
27- I study English for the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.					
28- I study English because it allows me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.					

Investigating Intercultural Communication Competence at the Tertiary Level: The Case of Moroccan EFL University Students

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Overview

In recent years the concept of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has been widely discussed by many researchers and scholars. The concept has influenced the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching and learning. Aguilar (2008) states that the main objective of ICC is to help learners develop different forms of knowledge related to "attitudes, values, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction and critical cultural awareness" (p. 87). This chapter investigates Moroccan EFL university students' perceptions of ICC, their intercultural knowledge and competence. It also attempts to explore the relationship between different ICC components such as age, gender, attitudes, competence, and knowledge. Further, it highlights some ICC assessment tools that may help teachers in assessing students' ICC. In so doing, the findings of this small case study may influence the refinement of teaching practices and strengthen students' learning. The results reveal that a majority of participating students have positive attitudes towards ICC. They also acknowledge that their ICC level will, to some extent, help them interact effectively in different intercultural situations.

Keywords: intercultural communicative competence (ICC), communicative competence, students' attitudes towards ICC, ICC assessment.

1. Introduction

The development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has become one of the main issues in the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) over the last two decades. Teachers are becoming aware that one of the main goals of language teaching is to enable learners to communicate effectively with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. However, several authors such as Lázár (2003) point out that despite the recommendations of the Common European Framework of Reference to Languages (CEF), the focus of language learning is generally restricted to the study of grammatical and lexical competence. Byram (1997) also explains that cultural competence has often been ignored in EFL because language teaching has been influenced by the study of grammatical forms.

Communicative competence (CC) had prevailed for over three decades in foreign language teaching despite the inclusion of some cultural aspects. Kramsch (1993) states that "[a]fter years of communicative euphoria, some language teachers are becoming dissatisfied with purely functional uses of language and some are pleading to supplement the traditional acquisition of 'communication skills' with some intellectually legitimate, humanistic, cultural 'content' ('Cultural' 83)". Although Baxter introduced the idea of ICC as early as 1983 (304), it is Michael Byram who, since the mid1990s, has most extensively developed the concept and the applications of ICC. He is also considered to be the pioneer of the ICC notion.

According to Deardorff (2006), intercultural competence is often considered to be a subfield of "communicative competence". Intercultural competence, which is the ability to change one's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors so as to be open and flexible to other cultures, has become a key issue in the globalized society of the 21st century (Alred and Byram 2002). The concept of "intercultural communicative competence" (Byram, 1997) has refocused the goal of language education with culture integrated into language study. The use of the term "inter-cultural" reflects the view that EFL learners have to gain insight into both their own culture and the foreign culture (Kramsch, 1993). Intercultural communicative competence refers to the "ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and [the] ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality" (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p. 10). This competence emphasizes the mediation between different cultures, the ability to look at oneself from an 'external' perspective, analyze and adapt one's own behaviors, values and beliefs (Byram & Zarate, 1997).

The goal of intercultural language learning is not native speaker-level competence in the target language. Instead, language learners follow the norms of an "intercultural speaker" (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Risager, 1998) that require them to acquire the 'competences which enable them to mediate/interpret the values, beliefs and behaviors (the 'cultures') of themselves and of others and to 'stand on the bridge' or indeed 'be the bridge' between people of different languages and cultures' (Byram, 2006, p. 12).

1.1. Conceptualizing Intercultural Communicative Competence

1.2. Language and Culture

Language and culture are interrelated and accordingly, the teaching of language entails the teaching of the culture(s) of the target language, this is a highly complex phenomenon. Kramsch (1998) describes culture as; "membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings" (p. 10). Another definition to culture was provided by Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler (2003). They define culture as a "complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviors, practices, rituals and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artefacts they produce and the institutions they create" (p. 45). Languages and cultures have inextricable and interdependent relationships.

Liddicoat et al. (2003) also claim that language and culture interact with one another in a way that culture connects to all levels of language use and structures; i.e. there is no level of language which is independent of culture. Moreover, the fact that language expresses, embodies and symbolizes cultural realities clearly shows that language and culture are bound together (Kramsch, 1998). The relationships between language and culture are made meaningful in language learning as “the person who learns language without learning culture risks becoming a fluent fool” (Bennett, Bennett & Allen, 2003, p. 237). Further, Kramsch (1998, p. 3) describes the relationship between language and culture and points out that language expresses cultural reality (it reflects its speakers’ experience, attitudes, and beliefs), it symbolizes cultural reality (speakers view their language as a symbol of their identity), and it embodies cultural reality through all its verbal and nonverbal aspects.

According to Agar (1994), as quoted in Georgiou (2010), there is a close bond between language so that; “culture is language, and language is loaded with culture”. However, this tendency to simply identify language and culture has received criticism from Risager (2007), who questions their inseparability and emphasizes the complexity of their relationship which, in her view, lacks comprehensive analysis. Furthermore, Lange (2011) points out that “culture today is understood as a heterogeneous, multi-layered, and dynamic construct” (p. 7). In this respect, Spencer-Oatey acknowledges these features of culture:

> Culture is a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioral conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member’s behavior and his/her interpretation of the ‘meaning’ of other people’s behavior (as cited in Lange, 2011, p. 7).

According to Lange (2011), this definition gives an impression as to the task that lies ahead for language teachers. She also suggests that “if culture influences the way people from the target group of native speakers think, act, feel, and experience others, the same applies to students in the language classroom” (p. 7), and then they see and perceive the behavior of people through their own cultural frame of reference. Very often this perception is channeled through language. Culture is explained via language, and how it is explained is influenced by one’s cultural frame of reference.

Contact between cultures increases via direct and indirect exchange, the transfer of products, and social networks. Different cultures live together, work together, and go to school together. In brief, globalization, which refers to the transmission of ideas, meanings, and values around the world in such a way as to extend and intensify social relations…, has found its way into schools and one of the tasks of education, including language education, is to prepare students for this globalized world. An intercultural approach to language teaching gives one outlook on how this can be achieved. Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) has become increasingly aware that a language can rarely be taught without including the culture(s) of the target community (Byram *et al.*, 1994; Lange and Paige, 2003; Corbett, 2003).

1.3. Intercultural competence

Intercultural competence has been widely defined and discussed by a large number of scholars over the last few decades, but there has been no agreement on its definition (Deardorff, 2009). In this respect, Byram (1997) introduced the term of intercultural communicative competence making a distinction between intercultural competence that defines the ability to interact in one‘s own language with people from other cultures, whereas intercultural communication competence describes the ability to do so in a foreign language (as cited in Georgiou, 2010, p. 72).

The complexity of the term IC is highly manifested in the diversity of its definitions. For example, Byram (1997) acknowledges that IC refers to the "individual's ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries" (p. 7). In addition, it expresses "the willingness to engage with the foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to look upon oneself from the outside" (Sercu et al., 2005 as quoted in Georgiou, 2010, p. 72). According to (Bennett, 2009), in order to interact with other speakers of other cultures without conflicts or misunderstandings, one needs to step outside one's own framework to take a distance and observe oneself as an outsider (p. 122). Moreover, Alred (2003) claims that a better knowledge of the self leads to a better understanding of others and vice versa Accordingly, to enter other cultures is to re-enter one's own. This process refers to what Byram (1997) has called the ability to decenter (as cited in Georgiou, 2010, p. 72).

1.4. Intercultural Communicative Competence

According to Portala & Chen, (2010), intercultural communication competence (ICC) can be conceptualized as "an individual's ability to achieve their communication goal while effectively and appropriately utilizing communication behaviors to negotiate between the different identities present within a culturally diverse environment" (p. 21). ICC, then, is comprised of three dimensions, including intercultural awareness, intercultural sensitivity, and intercultural effectiveness.

More specifically, intercultural awareness, according to Chen & Starosta, (1997), represents the cognitive processes by which a person comes to know about their own and others' cultures. On the other hand, intercultural sensitivity is "the affective aspect which not only represents the ability of an individual to distinguish between the different behaviors, perceptions, and feelings of a culturally different counterpart, but also the ability to appreciate and respect them as well" (While intercultural effectiveness dictates the behavioral aspect of ICC, which refers to the ability to attain communication goals in intercultural interactions**.**

Accordingly, Fantini (2007) points out that intercultural communicative competence "is more than a collection of abilities that allow one to function in one and another system (CC1 and CC2); ICC also results in producing unique perspectives that arise from interaction of two (or more) systems" (p. 8). Indeed, ICC is part and parcel of biculturalism and multiculturalism; however, no bicultural or multicultural individual has such ability. This has been proven by Byram (2008) who claims that: "the intercultural speaker is not someone who is bicultural, someone who can pass as belonging to two cultural groups" (p. 78) because bicultural people are not necessarily able to act interculturally as they may not be conscious of the two cultures in which they live and the relationships between them.

Moreover, Fantini (2007) provides another definition to ICC that is a bit different from the aforementioned definition provided by Fantini himself. He puts it briefly as: "a complex (set) of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (p.8). In addition, the notions of 'effectiveness' and 'appropriateness' are equally central to the concept of ICC, as the desirable outcome is a learner with an enhanced intercultural understanding of others which is guaranteed "through the learning about values, motives, beliefs, attitudes and intentions of an interlocutor." That is to say that, as Byram (2008) puts it,

> One of the outcomes of teaching language (and cultures) should be the ability to see how different cultures relate to each other, in terms of similarities and differences, and to act as a mediator between them, or more precisely between people socialized into them. (p. 68)

Byram (1997) defined ICC as "the knowledge, skills and abilities to participate in activities where the target language is the primary communicative code and in situations where it is the common code for those with different preferred languages." Furthermore, Byram (1997), in his model of intercultural communicative competence, focuses on the importance of language (linguistic competence) and also includes identity and cultural understanding in his conceptualization of ICC. Deardorff (2004) also argues that a comprehensive definition of intercultural communicative competence should include the social context and non-verbal dimensions of communication.

2. Methodology

The research carried out is known as an exploratory research. The exploratory nature of the study intended to collect information and answer some questions regarding the intercultural communicative competence of Moroccan EFL students, their motives of learning English as a foreign language (FL), their attitudes towards other cultures and their openness and readiness to accept and tolerate other cultures. This exploratory study revealed a general picture about the issue of intercultural communicative competence of Moroccan universities students –the sample being studied- It also explained to what extent ICC is valuable in the process of teaching and learning in the Moroccan context.

2.1. The Sample and the Settings

A questionnaire was administered to a total of one hundred and one (n=101) Moroccan EFL university students (Master students). Stressing the fact that the respondents were taken almost equally from different Moroccan universities namely, Moulay Ismail University in Meknes; Mohamed V University in Rabat; Faculty of Sciences of Education in Rabat; Ibn Tofail University in Kenitra. The study also included both males and females. At the level of informants' gender, there was not a clear discrepancy between males and females in the sense that males represented 54.5% while females represented 45.5% of the overall of the population (see the table below). Selection criteria were guided primarily by the availability of research participants.

2.3. The Design and Development of the Questionnaire

2.3.1 Global Perspective Inventory (GPI)

The questionnaire used in the study consisted of three sections. The first included questions about the demographics of participants including their age, gender, and years of English language learning. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the Global Perspective Inventory (GPI) questionnaire developed Braskamp, Braskamp, and Carter Merrill (2008) as cited in Lazarivic (2013, p. 132). The GPI questionnaire reflects a global and holistic view of student learning and development and the importance of the campus environment in fostering holistic student development. In this sense, Braskamp et al., (2010) base their work and their view of holistic human development on two theoretical perspectives: intercultural maturity and intercultural communication (Lazarivic, 2013, p. 132).

The questionnaire consisted of 48 items and two added items on a 5-point Likert scale that cover three domains: cognitive, intracultural, and intercultural. Moreover, Lazarivic (2013) points out that the questionnaire was developed on the basis of two theories – the first is the work by a psychologist Robert Kegan, who described the process of growing up as a process of meaning making. The connections that people form among each other are based not only on their thinking but also on their feelings as well. Thus, three domains of human development are identified: cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal. The second theory used for the creation of the GPI questionnaire is based on the assumption that the cognitive, affirmative, and behavioural domains, as well as the competence in each of them are important for successful intercultural communication.

The third part of the questionnaire was designed to explore students' English learning motives and their ICC development procedure. In this part, respondents were required to state, from a given list, their motives of learning English, the learning purposes and how they develop their ICC level. They were also required to state how they see themselves in another culture that is different from theirs by saying whether they may be identified as being competent, incompetent or they do not know.

3. Results

The aim of this section is to analyze and interpret the collected data from the questionnaire which was administered to an overall of one hundred and one Moroccan university students. In this regard, the Likert-scale questions are analyzed with the help of the statistical analysis of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequency calculations are used to produce descriptive central tendency statistics that were utilized to give an overall picture of Moroccan university students' attitudes toward ICC and see their ICC competence levels**.** Moreover, chi-square tests were utilized in order to see if there is any relationship between different variables such as age, gender, attitudes, motives and competence.

3.1. English language learning motives

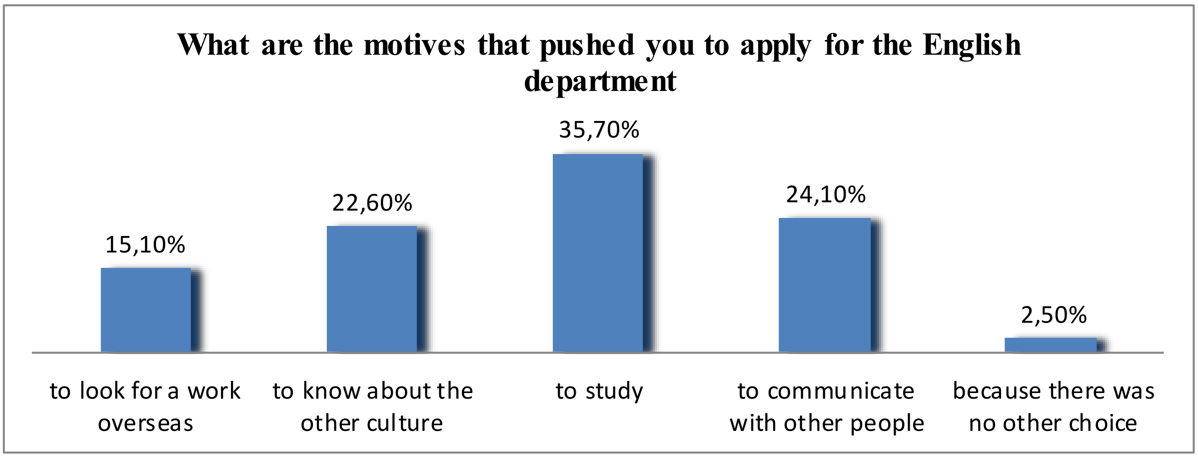

Figure 1: Students' motives for English language learning

As illustrated in the figure above, most respondents (35.7%) stated studying was their primary motive; 24.1% of respondents highlighted communication with other people as a motive; 22,6% of participants referred to "to know about the other culture"; 15,1% pointed out to "to look for a work overseas" as a motive whereas only 2.5% stated that they applied for the English department because there was no other choice.

3.2. Students' attitudes towards ICC and students' ICC.

Table 1: Students' attitudes towards intercultural communication competence

Statements	SD		D		N		A		SA	
	r		r		r		r		r	
1. When I notice cultural differences, my culture tends to have the better approach.		,9	6	5,7	8	7,6	4	3,8		,9
6. Some people have a culture and others do not.	2	1,4	0	9,8		,9		,9		,0
10. I feel threatened around people from backgrounds very different from my own.	3	2,7	9	8,6	4	3,9	2	1,9		,0
13. I understand the reasons and causes of conflict among nations of different cultures.		,0	1	0,9	6	5,7	6	5,5	3	2,9
18. I do not see cultural differences as important to my daily life.	1	0,8	6	5,7	9	8,8	6	5,7		,9
20. I get offended often by people who do not understand my point-of-view.		,9	8	7,6	9	8,8	7	6,7		,9
24. The role of the student is to receive knowledge from authority figures	4	3,8	5	4,7	6	5,7	3	2,9		,0
28. I prefer to work with people who have different cultural values from me.		,0		,9	2	1,7	7	6,6	4	3,8
33. I am developing a meaningful philosophy of life by learning about other cultures.		,0		,9	7	6,8	7	6,5	7	6,7
37. I enjoy when my friends from other cultures teach me about our cultural differences.		,0		,9	0	,9	2	1,5	0	9,7
41. I have a strong sense of affiliation with my college/university.		,0		,0	9	8,6	1	0,6	3	2,9
42. I share personal feelings and problems with students and colleagues.		,9	3	2,9	1	0,8	3	2,6	6	5,8
43. I have felt insulted or threatened based on my cultural/ethnic background at my college/university.	6	5,7	1	0,8	0	9,8	6	5,7		,9

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neutral; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

The table above (1) serves as a representation of participants' attitudes towards ICC. As reported in the table, the participants seem to have positive attitudes towards ICC stressing the fact that they respond positively (agree or strongly agree) to the items being presented in the table (1). For example, 60.3% of respondents indicated their preference for working with people who have different cultural values (item, 28). Moreover, 81.2% (A, 51%; SA, 29.7%) of participants indicated a willingness to learn about cultural differences (item, 37). However, when respondents were asked to say if they get offended when other people do not understand their point of view, 46.7% of them disagreed with the prompt question. Additionally, more than 71.3% of respondents stated that they never feel threatened around people from different backgrounds (item, 10). Taken together the responses indicate that respondents have positive attitudes towards ICC.

Table 2: Students' level of ICC

Statements	SD		D		N		A		SA	
	r		r		r		r		r	
3. I can explain my personal values to people who are different from me.				,0		,0	2	1,4	2	1,7
7. In different settings what is right and wrong is simple to determine.	8	7,8	2	1,7	9	8,8	4	3,8		,9
8. I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.		,0	3	2,9	4	3,7	4	3,6		,9
12. I tend to judge the values of others based on my own value system.	9	8,7	5	4,7	4	3,9	6	5,8		,9
13. I understand the reasons and causes of conflict among nations of different cultures.		,0	1	0,9	6	5,7	6	5,5	3	2,9
15. People from other cultures tell me that I am successful at navigating their cultures.		,0	2	1,9	7	6,5	2	1,7		,0
21. I'm able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings		,0		,9	0	9,6	1	0,6		,9
23. I can evaluate issues from several different perspectives.		,0		,9	2	1,8	6	5,4	6	5,8
25. I know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from mine.			2	1,9	9	8,7	5	4,5		,0
27. I do not feel threatened emotionally when presented with multiple perspectives.		,0	2	1,9	8	7,8	4	3,5	6	5,8
34. I intentionally involve people from many cultural backgrounds in my life.		,0	1	0,9	6	5,7	7	6,5	6	5,8
35. I prefer complex rather than straightforward interpretations of debatable issues.	2	1,9	0	9,8	2	1,7	7	6,7	0	,9
50. I have developed my ICC knowledge by interacting with people from other cultures.		,9		,9	8	7,8	4	3,6	5	4,8

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neutral; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

The statements included in the table above tend to assess students' ICC competence (items 3, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15, 21, 23, 25, 27, 34, 35, 50). Respondents were required to state whether they agreed or disagreed with statements that best assessed their ICC level. The results show that most of them possessed a certain level of competence allowing them to interact appropriately with other people from different cultures. More than 93.1% of respondents stated that they could explain their personal values to people who are different from them (item 1). Moreover, respondents (78.7%) suggested that they had developed their ICC level by interacting with people from other cultures (item 50). In addition, respondents evidenced certain levels of ICC by stating that ‘they are able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings’ (item 21; 48.5%) or being told by people from other cultures that they are successful at navigating their cultures (item 15; 36.7%). A majority of respondents (59.5%) stated that they knew how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that was different from theirs (item 25). Additionally, participates provided the same positive responses concerning items; 8 (49.5%), 13 (58.4%), 23 (71.2%), 27 (69.3%), and item 34 (62.3%), all of which are concerned with assessing levels of ICC.

A Chi Square test focused on gender revealed that the significance (0.305) was over (0,05) indicating that there was no difference between males’ and females’ responses. Thus, the demographic variable “gender” and the variable “I know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from mine’ are independent, that is, they do not affect each other. Another chi-square test was used to test another variable that is related to ICC competence. The chi-square test shows that the significance (0.058) is more than (0.05) which simply means that there is no relation between the gender variable and the prompt variable of ‘I have developed my ICC knowledge by interacting with people from other cultures’. Moreover, all the other tested variables reveal that the gender variable does not affect at all students’ ICC.

Table 3: Students' ICC Knowledge

Statements	SD		D		N		A		SA	
	r		r		r		r		r	
3. I can explain my personal values to people who are different from me.				,0		,0	2	1,4	1	1,7
8. I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.		,0	3	2,9	4	3,7	4	3,6		
13. I understand the reasons and causes of conflict among nations of different cultures.		,0	1	0,9	6	5,7	6	5,5	3	3
7. In different settings what is right and wrong is simple to determine.	8	7,8	2	1,7	9	8,8	4	3,8	8	,9
14. I am confident that I can take care of myself in a completely new situation/culture.		,0	1	0,9		,9	6	5,5	8	3,7
21. I'm able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings		,0		,9	0	9,6	1	0,6		,9
25. I know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from mine.			2	1,9	9	8,7	5	4,5		
30. Cultural differences make me question what is really true.		,0		,9	6	5,7	7	6,6	8	7.7
32. I can discuss cultural differences from an informed perspective.		,0		,9	0	9,7	8	7,5	0	,9
35. I prefer complex rather than straightforward interpretations of debatable issues.	2	1,9	0	9,8	2	1,7	7	6,7	0	,9
38. I consciously behave in terms of making a difference.		,0	3	2,9	1	0,7	4	3,6	1	1,9
42. I share personal feelings and problems with students and colleagues.		,9	3	2,9	1	0,8	3	2,6	6	5,8

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neutral; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

The items listed in the table above reveal participants' ICC knowledge and skills. From the results given in the table, it is clear that all participants perceive that they have the necessary knowledge and skills that help them better interact appropriately in different intercultural settings. For instance, more than 93.1% of respondents state that they can explain their personal values to people who are different from their own culture (A, 61.4%; SA, 31.7%). Moreover, 89.2% of respondents are confident enough and can easily take care of themselves in a completely new situation/culture. Additionally, 59.5% of respondents say that they know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from theirs. Many other items also show positive results and acknowledge that respondents have certain knowledge and skills (items 13, 'I understand the reasons and causes of conflict among nations of different cultures'. 58.5%; 21, 'I'm able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings' 48.5%; 30, 'Cultural differences make me question what is really true' 64.3%; 42, 'I share personal feelings and problems with students and colleagues' 58.4%.

Table 4: Students' Intercultural Sensitivity

Statements	SD		D		N		A		SA	
	r		r		r		r		r	
2. I have a definite purpose in my life.		,0		,0		,9	9	8,5	1	0,6
8. I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.		,0	3	2,9	4	3,7	4	3,6		,9
14. I am confident that I can take care of myself in a completely new situation/culture.		,0	1	0,9		,9	6	5,5	4	3,7
15. People from other cultures tell me that I am successful at navigating their cultures.		,0	2	1,9	7	6,5	2	1,7		,0
25. I know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from mine.			2	1,9	9	8,7	5	4,5		,0
33. I am developing a meaningful philosophy of life by learning about other cultures.		,0		,9	7	6,8	7	6,5	7	6,7

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neutral; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

The table above (4) represents students' perceptions of their intercultural sensitivity. As indicated in the table, most of the positive statements reveal respondents' acceptance, openness and understanding of other cultures. 61.4% of respondents show their sensitivity to those who are discriminated against. Moreover, 81.2% of respondents argue that they enjoy being taught about cultural differences by other people from different cultures. Moreover, 81.3% of respondents say that they do not feel threatened when engaging with people from different cultures, nor do they tend to judge other cultures as being inferior when noticing intercultural differences (30.7%) whereas 37.6% of respondents are neutral regarding this prompt.

Table 5: Students' Intercultural awareness

Statements	SD			D		N		A	SA	
	r		r		r		r		r	
1. When I notice cultural differences, my culture tends to have the better approach.		,9	6	5,7	8	7,6	4	3,8		,9
8. I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.		,0	3	2,9	4	3,7	4	3,6		,9
10. I feel threatened around people from backgrounds very different from my own.	3	2,7	9	8,6	4	3,9	2	1,9		,0
12. I tend to judge the values of others based on my own value system.	9	8,7	5	4,7	4	3,9	6	5,8		,9
23. I can evaluate issues from several different perspectives.		,0		,9	2	1,8	6	5,4	6	5,8
26. I am sensitive to those who are discriminated against.		,0	0	,9	4	3,8	2	1,6	0	9,8
27. I do not feel threatened emotionally when presented with multiple perspectives.		,0	2	1,9	8	7,8	4	3,5	6	5,8
36. I constantly need affirmative confirmation about myself from others.	4	3,9	8	7,7	1	0,7	2	1,8		5,9
37. I enjoy when my friends from other cultures teach me about our cultural differences.		,0		,9	0	,9	2	1,5	0	9,7

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neutral; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

This table represents the participants' cultural awareness. In this respect, 49.5% of respondents said that they are informed about current issues that impact international relations and represent cultural differences. Respondents shared a view their own culture does not always tend to have a better approach (SA, 5.9%; D, 25.7%; N, 37.6%). The majority of participants (75.2%) stated that they were aware of their culture.

Students' development of ICC

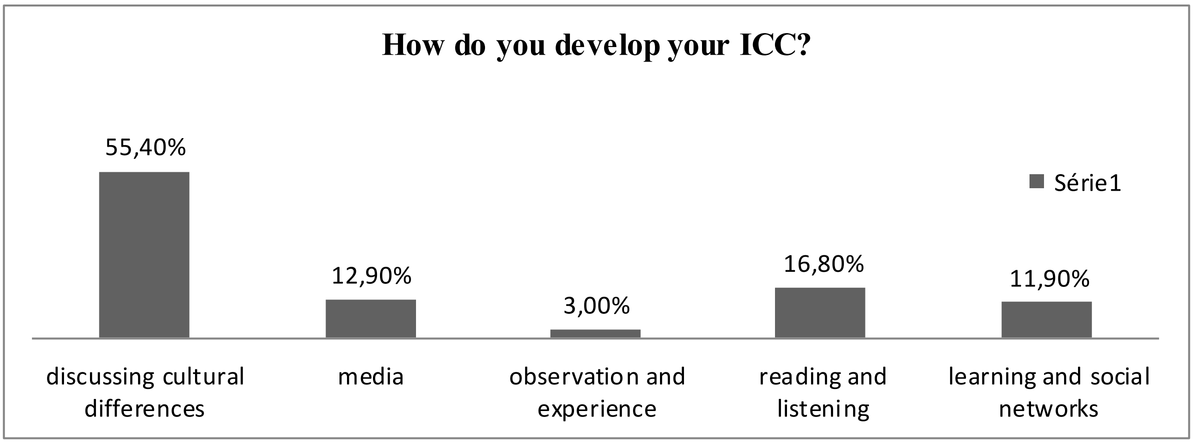

Figure 2: Methods and ways of students' development of ICC

As identified in Figure 2, when participants were prompted to share how they developed their ICC level, the majority (55,4%) stated that they developed their ICC through discussing cultural differences; 16,8% of respondents indicated that they developed their ICC through 'reading, listening and writing;' others through engagement with media (12,9%) or through 'Learning and social networks' (11,9%). But, only (3,0%) refer to 'observation and experience' as a way of developing their ICC.

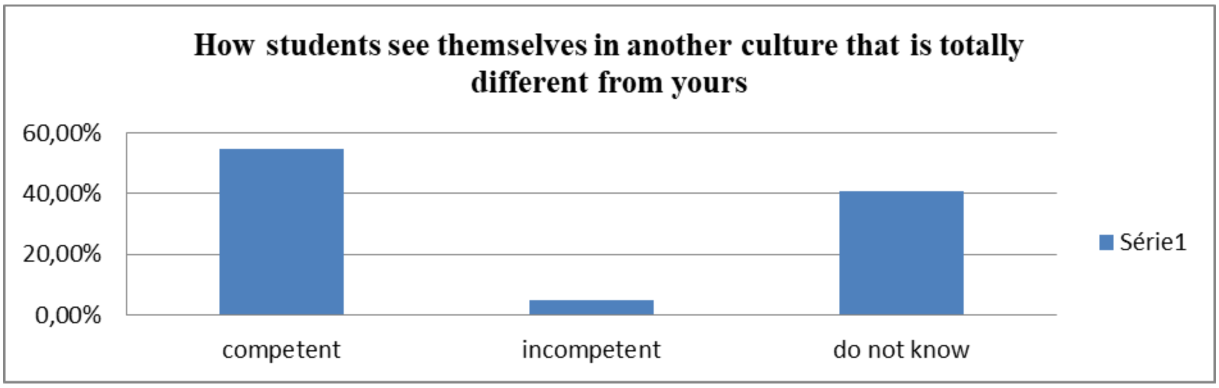

Figure 3: Students' state of competence

In the above figure (3), the participants were given a direct question: How do you see yourself in another culture that is totally different from yours? Since they were given choices to choose from and say whether they believed they were 'competent', 'incompetent' or, 'do not know', the majority of participants see themselves as competent intercultural users of language (54.5%). A total of 40,6% indicated that they 'do not know' and a small percentage of 5,0% perceived themselves as being 'incompetent'.

Table 6: Justification

Justification		
	Frequency	Percent
I can easily communicate and interact with others because I have the necessary skills & knowledge	40	39,6%
Openness and acceptance	12	11,9%
I have experience overseas and I know what is normal and abnormal	2	2,0%
I need to be in the situation	44	43,6%
Incompetent	3	3,0%

When participants were asked to say whether they are 'competent', 'incompetent', or 'do not know,' they were also required to justify their choices. The results shown in the table above reveal that the answers given to both the first and second questions are quite identical. In this sense, an overall of 54.5% said that they believed they were 'competent' because they can easily communicate and interact with others, possessing the necessary skills and knowledge (39.6%) required while also sharing that they had a sense of openness and acceptance (11.9%). On the other hand, 43,6% indicated that they could not judge themselves as being 'competent' because, according to them, they needed to be in a particular situation in order to judge their level of competency.

4. Discussion and Interpretation of the Results

The four research questions that this study sets out to answer are: 1) Do Moroccan university students hold positive or negative attitudes towards ICC? 2) What is the ICC level of Moroccan EFL university students? 3) Is there any relationship between Moroccan EFL students' 'age', 'gender' and their ICC? 4) Is there any relationship between Moroccan EFL students' motives and attitudes/knowledge of ICC?

RQ 1: Do Moroccan university students hold positive or negative attitudes towards ICC?

From the findings reported in this study, it is clear that the majority of Moroccan EFL university students have positive attitudes towards ICC. They also have a sense of openness and acceptance as far as other cultures are concerned. Correspondingly, the first research question that necessitates an answer is 'Do Moroccan university students hold positive or negative attitudes towards ICC? Overall, as reflected in table (7), it is clear that participants hold positive attitudes towards ICC. As identified earlier, some 60.3% of respondents indicated a preference for working with people who have different cultural values (item, 28). Moreover, 81.2% (A, 51%; SA, 29.7%) of participants show their readiness to learn about cultural differences (item, 37).

RQ 2: What is the ICC level of Moroccan EFL university students?

The results indicate that Moroccan EFL university students rate themselves as having a relatively high level of ICC, which in their own perceptions, enables them to interact appropriately with other people from different cultures. For instance, more than 93.1% of respondents acknowledge that they can explain their personal values to people who are different from them (item 1). Moreover, a high percentage of respondents (78.7%) suggest that they have developed their ICC level by interacting with people from other cultures (item 50). In addition, respondents show certain level of ICC when they state that 'they are able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings' (item 21; 48.5%) or being told by people from other cultures that they are successful at navigating their cultures (item 15; 36.7%). Many other respondents (59.5%) state that they know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from theirs (item 25). Based on the findings, it could be concluded that Moroccan university students do possess a high level (knowledge /savoir) of ICC enabling them to effectively interact in another intercultural setting different from their own.

RQ 3: Is there any relationship between Moroccan EFL students' 'age', 'gender' and ICC?

Concerning the third research question, the findings show that there is no relationship between age and students' intercultural communicative competence. The results also indicate that there is no relationship between the 'gender' variable and students' ICC. These correlations were analyzed using chi-square tests. In this respect, the chi-square tests (.698, .018, .224, .147, .104, .054, .274) related to the relationship between age and students' ICC show no significance since they are all over 0.05. In the same vein, the chi-square tests related to gender and students' ICC relationship show that two variables are independent (.047, .242, .718, .115, .305, .338 > 0.05) except for one item (15,) I can easily interact in another context that is totally different from mine in which the chi-square test (.004 < 0.05) shows that there is an effect of gender on students' ICC. For this, the hypothesis that states that 'there is no relationship between Moroccan EFL students' 'age', 'gender' and their ICC' is also confirmed.

RQ 4: Is there any relationship between Moroccan EFL students' motives and attitudes/knowledge of ICC?

Based on the findings related to the above research question, it would appear that there is no relationship between students' motives and the attitudes they hold towards intercultural communicative competence. Despite the positive attitudes that Moroccan university students hold towards ICC and being motivated in English learning for different motives and purposes, still the results display no significance in this respect. All the chi-square tests (.895, .223, .208, .114 > 0.05) show that there are no significant results since they are all over 0.05. Similarly, the findings related the relationship between students' English learning motives and their ICC knowledge indicate that motives have no perceptible effect on students' ICC. Accordingly, the chi-square tests that have been performed display no significant relationship between students' motives and their ICC (.508, .100, .388, .140 > 0.05). Therefore, the fourth hypothesis (mentioned earlier) which states that there is no relationship between Moroccan EFL students' motives and attitudes/knowledge of ICC is confirmed.

5. Conclusion

This research was an attempt to both investigate and assess whether Moroccan university students' attitudes towards ICC have an effect on Moroccan EFL students. Several important findings have been obtained namely, the type of attitudes that students hold towards ICC, and students' ICC levels of competence. The research findings indicate that attitudes towards ICC are positive and that students' perceived levels of ICC competence is quite high even if they lack competence in some of the statements they were required to report on. Moreover, the results appear to suggest that Moroccan university students possess notable levels of EFK competence perhaps enabling them to interact appropriately with other people who belong to the target culture. These positive attitudes and this level of competence have been made clear by the numerous motives that students make reference to. However, the chi-square tests show that there are no significant relationships between the variables of attitudes, competence, age, gender.

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Appendix 1: The questionnaire

This questionnaire is meant to collect and investigate *Moroccan University Students' Intercultural Communicative Competence level."* For research purposes, please answer the following questions as honestly as possible. Your contribution is only for research purposes. I would highly appreciate your voluntary participation in the fulfilment of this research.

Part one: General information

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age: ……………
3. Years of learning English: ………………
4. MA unit: …………………………………..
5. Name of the university: …………………………………………………………………

Part two: Students' attitudes and competence level of ICC

Rate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please tick (√) the suitable box.

Statements	SD	D	N	A	**SA**
1. When I notice cultural differences, my culture tends to have the better approach.					
2. I have a definite purpose in my life.					
3. I can explain my personal values to people who are different from me.					
4. Most of my friends are from my own ethnic background.					
5. I think of my life in terms of giving back to society.					
6. Some people have a culture and others do not.					
7. In different settings what is right and wrong is simple to determine.					
8. I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.					
9. I know who I am as a person.					
10. I feel threatened around people from backgrounds very different from my own.					
11. I often get out of my comfort zone to better understand myself.					
12. I tend to judge the values of others based on my own value system.					
13. I understand the reasons and causes of conflict among nations of different cultures.					
14. I am confident that I can take care of myself in a completely new situation/culture.					
15. People from other cultures tell me that I am successful at navigating their cultures.					
16. I work for the rights of others.					
17. I see myself as a global citizen.					
18. I do not see cultural differences as important to my daily life.					
19. I understand how various cultures of this world interact socially.					
20. I get offended often by people who do not understand my point-of-view.					
21. I'm able to take on various roles as appropriate in different cultural and ethnic settings					
22. I put my beliefs into action by standing up for my principles.					
23. I can evaluate issues from several different perspectives.					
24. The role of the student is to receive knowledge from authority figures					
25. I know how to analyze the basic characteristics of a culture that is different from mine.					
26. I am sensitive to those who are discriminated against.					
27. I do not feel threatened emotionally when presented with multiple					

perspectives.					
28. I prefer to work with people who have different cultural values from me.					
29. I accept people with different religious and spiritual traditions.					
30. Cultural differences make me question what is really true.					
31. My teachers always tell me about other cultures .					
32. I can discuss cultural differences from an informed perspective.					
33. I am developing a meaningful philosophy of life by learning about other cultures.					
34. I intentionally involve people from many cultural backgrounds in my life.					
35. I prefer complex rather than straightforward interpretations of debatable issues.					
36. I constantly need affirmative confirmation about myself from others.					
37. I enjoy when my friends from other cultures teach me about our cultural differences.					
38. I consciously behave in terms of making a difference.					
39. I am open to people who strive to live lives very different from my own life style.					
40. Volunteering is not an important priority in my life.					
41. I have a strong sense of affiliation with my college/university.					
42. I share personal feelings and problems with students and colleagues.					
43. I have felt insulted or threatened based on my cultural/ethnic background at my college/university.					
44. I feel that my college/university community honors diversity and internationalism.					
45. I understand the mission of my college/university.					
46. I am both challenged and supported at my college/university.					
47. I have been encouraged to develop my strengths and talents at my college/university.					
48. I feel I am a part of a close and supportive community of colleagues and friends.					
49. I have learnt/heard a lot about other cultures from my teachers and colleagues.					
50. I have developed my ICC knowledge by interacting with people from other cultures.					

SA= Strongly Disagree; **D**= Disagree; N= Neutral; **A**= Agree; **SA**= Strongly Agree

Part three: Students' English learning motives and state of competence

1. What are the motives that pushed you to apply for the English Department?
   a. to look for a work overseas, ☐
   b. to know about the other culture, ☐
   c. to study, ☐
   d. to communicate with other people different from your culture, or ☐
   e. because there was no other choice. ☐

   Or others, please state them ……

   Then, your motives are for:

   Learning purposes ☐ Business purposes ☐ Political purposes ☐

   or others please specify ……………………………………………………………………………………….
2. How do you improve your ICC level/knowledge? …… ……………………………………………………………………………………………
3. After years of learning English, do you think your ICC level is good enough and will allow you to interact appropriately in the other culture?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

Why?……………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. How do you see yourself in another culture that is totally different from yours?

   Competent ☐ Incompetent ☐ Don't know ☐

Why and how? ………

Thanks for your cooperation.

The Implementation of Marketing Approaches in Higher Education

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Overview

This chapter investigates the implementation of marketing theory as well as tools and strategies in higher education. Undoubtedly, marketing affects as well as determines universities' perceived quality and image. Therefore, adopting marketing concepts to higher education is no longer a choice, but rather a necessity. Higher education stakeholders may perceive attributes of quality from institutions' marketing activities. However, the extent to which marketing concepts should be implemented in higher education has always been subject to debate. By applying business concepts to academic institutions such as universities attributes of values and missions are brought into question. In this context, this chapter highlights the extent to which marketing approaches and strategies such as marketing plans, marketing research, segmentation, targeting and marketing mix should be implemented in higher education for the sake of a better quality and more productivity in a highly competitive environment.

Keywords: Higher education, marketing, private universities, stakeholder orientation

Introduction

The importance of marketing in higher education has been extensively discussed in developed countries where higher education is a vital sector namely in the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia and Canada. A number of issues and concerns raise academic debate of whether marketing theories and models are applicable to higher education or not (Kwong, 2000). Marketing seems to be vital to higher education as a non-profit sector basically in developing countries where education is indispensible for promotion of sustainable development and economic prosperity.

The literature of marketing in higher education has been divided into two main approaches: problem identification and problem solving (Brown and Oplatka, 2006). First, problem identification research focuses upon problems of marketing in higher education by addressing those problems to marketers and academics for solutions. The main problem identification in this literature review is the challenge facing the implementation of marketing in higher education and the problems of concepts. Second, a problem-solving approach focuses more on adopting strategies and marketing tools and practices for a better quality in higher education (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). While this research addresses the problem identification approach to contextualize the research problem of marketing in higher education, the main objective in this paper is to embrace a problem-solving approach by suggesting how marketing strategies contribute to image construction in higher education.

I. Marketing in Higher Education

Defining marketing in higher education has been subject to evolution. This is attributed to the fact that higher education's constituents are not clearly defined. While some literature considers higher education as a product, others embrace service orientation in defining marketing in higher education (Umashanker, 2001). Another issue for debate is the role that that students play in the process. They may be perceived as 'consumers' who consume universities' products for their own sake, or they can be perceived as a product made by universities for the purpose of consumption by an employer(Conway *et al.,* 1994).

Definitions of marketing in higher education in the 1990s tend to confine marketing to the parochial perspective of marketing communication. Managers of higher education focused more upon how students take their decisions to choose a certain university and what they prioritize while selecting a higher institution. Managers can then adapt communication materials, prints and promotional tools to meet students' needs (Mortimer, 1997). While many Western higher education institutions have gone beyond marketing communication, other institutions in developing countries confine marketing to promotion. Kotler and Fox (1995) define marketing in higher education as:

> the analysis, planning, implementation and control of carefully formulated programs designed to bring about voluntarily exchanges of values with target market to achieve institutional objectives. Marketing involves designing the institution's offerings to meet the target market's needs and desires and using effective pricing, communication, and distribution to inform, motivate and service these markets. (p.6)

Similarly, Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) argue that all marketing efforts and strategies should be geared towards the consumer's needs. Market orientation of higher education is also essential in Kotler's definition of marketing in that universities can achieve a competitive advantage by incorporating market orientation in their strategic planning (Conway *et al.,* 1994).Earlier definitions of marketing in higher education have focused on students as products and employers as consumers, more recently, however there has been a disinclination to consider students as consumers lest higher education adopts business values (Barrett, 1996).

It was not until 1990's that marketing in higher education embraced the concept of service marketing within definitions (Mazzarol, 1998). There was an argument that because education focuses on relationships with consumers it tends to be highly intangible and therefore, subject to service marketing theory. Later, the concept of marketing expanded to include not only students but also other stakeholders in higher education. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines marketing as:

> set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large. (AMA,2013)

Including other stakeholders in higher education accentuates the mission and objective of higher education and complexifies understandings because such stakeholders may have differing or contradictory interests.

II. Importance of Marketing in Higher Education

In the last three decades, many factors have contributed to the adoption of marketing in higher education. Higher education institutions see higher education industry as a lucrative market. Finding new ways to recruit prospective students made higher institutions borrow marketing models and strategies from business industry (Gibbs and Knapp, 2002).

The role of marketing in higher education has evolved significantly owing to economic and social factors. Kotler and Fox explained how marketing has undergone through many phases in higher education (1995). First, *marketing is unnecessary.* At this stage institutions believed that education has its value in itself, and therefore there is no need to market courses. Similarly, Students find exactly what they want in universities' curricula. Second, *Marketing is promotion.* Universities have started to promote their courses and programmes through admission offices which served as sales departments. At this stage, universities focused more on push selling techniques regardless of their programmes' quality. The third phase is Marketing is segmentation and marketing research. Obviously, universities start to learn that they cannot adopt the 'one size fits all' strategy, and that they can save their energy and money spent for targeting students who meet a university's mission. Admission departments start to focus more on how students make decisions so that they can filter and target prospective students in the right phase. The fourth phase is *Marketing is positioning.* The spread of competition exerts an influence on universities and schools to adopt distinctive characteristics so that they can be visible and highly competitive to attract students. Differentiation improved those universities' image and facilitated students' decision making. The fifth phase is *Marketing is strategic planning*. Buffeted by competition, economic and social changes, universities and schools start to consider external factors in the construction of their image. Higher education institutions start to think strategically by taking into consideration economic trends and social values when reviewing programmes and activities. The last stage in marketing enrolment is *marketing is an enrolment management.* Universities realized that students' experience is important and that enrolment does not finish once a prospective student registers but rather exceeds the first day at the admission department. To maximize students' experience, different departments start to collaborate and focus more on students' satisfaction and needs (Kotler, 1995).

Most universities and schools namely in developing countries have not achieved the seventh stage in Kotler's enrolment marketing. For example, universities in Morocco, tend to consider marketing as a promotional tool rather than a strategy that focuses on enrolment management (Sabando et al., 2016)

III. Strategic Marketing Approaches in Higher Education

A. Product Marketing Strategy

A product marketing approach in higher education considers students as consumers while programmes and courses as products (Conway et al*.,* 1994). It is worth mentioning that the concept of product is not restricted to tangible products but includes also intangible services. Armstrong and Kotler (2016) states that ''in addition to tangible goods, products include services which are activities or benefits offered for sale that are essentially intangible and do not result in the ownership of anything'' (p.7).Although they are some aspects of universities' programmes related to classrooms and certificates, programmes are intangible products that students consume without ownership.

Although a product marketing approach has only one exchange process by producing a service to students, it can result in a competitive advantage when institutions deliver a range of product mix (Conway et al*.,* 1994). Newbould (1982) emphasized the importance of product portfolio matrices in that they analyse the total product mix strategy as well as provide a competitive strategic advantage for higher education institutions. Newbould (1982) has also applied Boston Consulting Group Matrix (BCG) in higher education programmes. By positioning each programme in the matrix and by comparing academic programmes, management can allocate resources or terminate any programme depending on its performance. Although it is useful, product portfolio model proposed by Newbould fails to respond to the complexities that educational programmes have. This is because many factors, beyond those of students demands, may affect programmes' performance like government funds, innovation and market needs, and therefore, management decisions based solely on product portfolio model become insufficient (Wells, 2011).

A number of studies have also adopted the 4Ps transactional marketing approach in higher education. Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) conducted a survey using transactional marketing model. They have concluded that students' needs are clustered around tangible and core features of an educational product like fees, quality, scholarships and academic recognition. Accordingly, the best suggested marketing strategy to attract students is to focus more on better quality, lower tuition fees, scholarships, and adopt promotional strategy through alumni, universities' websites and friends. Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) concluded that in order for higher education institutions to succeed, it is imperative that they foster relationships and interaction with stakeholders instead of adopting merely transactional marketing approach.

B. Service marketing strategy

Most scholars (Kotler and Fox, 1995; Mazzarol, 1998; Brooks and Hammons, 1993) argue that higher education is a service rather than a product. Given the rather intangible nature of higher education, other components were added to the traditional four marketing mix (price, place, promotion and product). These are: people, physical facilities and process. Zeithaml et al. (1985) presented four features that characterize any service including higher education: intangibility; heterogeneity; inseparability and perishability.

Although educational experience is tied to physical diplomas, the whole process is intangible and does not lead to the acquisition of any factor of production. Kotler and Andreasen (2013, p.429) describe a service as *''*any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything*''*. Similarly, Du Plessis and Rousseau (2008) highlight the importance of intangibility as a distinctive feature of services in higher education. Although higher education institutions comprise intangible forms like teaching process, other tangible elements are taking place in higher education like learning materials, final certificates and textbooks. It is very important not to consider services and products as polarities or opposing dualities but rather as a continuum that can include both with different scales MacColl-Kennedy (2003). In other words, higher education programmes composed of both tangible products and intangible services. Therefore, it is important not to categorize or classify programmes as purely services or products, but rather as a mixture of both with different scale.

Lovelock and wright (2002) elaborate on the features that characterize services in higher education institutions. First, customers are highly involved in the process of a service. Students' performance and participation, for example, affect the quality of services provided. They cannot sit back and wait for the service to be delivered. Therefore, customers and services are inseparable. Second, customers cannot have the same perception toward higher education institution. Each time the service is provided, students gain different experiences and perceptions (Brooks and Hammons, 1993). This makes the service provided heterogeneous in higher education. Third, higher education services are perishable and therefore cannot be inventoried. Because higher education service is perishable, students have to attend the courses physically to get the educational service.

Although service marketing mix is applicable to higher education, educational institutions have unique features that make applying service concepts to higher education challenging. Canterbury (2000) argued for the fact that similarities between higher education and other businesses are not sufficient to adopt service marketing to higher education. He presents a number of distinctive features that characterise higher education. First, choosing a higher education is a unique decision. Such unique decision is highly important to the decision maker than any other purchasing decision because it affects directly decision makers' life. More importantly, students may not necessarily have precise and sufficient information to assess the unique decision. Second, higher education institutions involve entirely customers in the process of the service. Unlike other businesses, higher education institutions, or what Goffman (1961) names '*total institutions'*, influence students' life to a great extent. The boundaries between personal life and educational service become unclear when higher educational institutions take care of education, lodging, social life, recreation and food (Lovelock, 1980). Third, prospective students' development is very sophisticated. Their wants and needs, desires and objectives restrict the process of educational service.

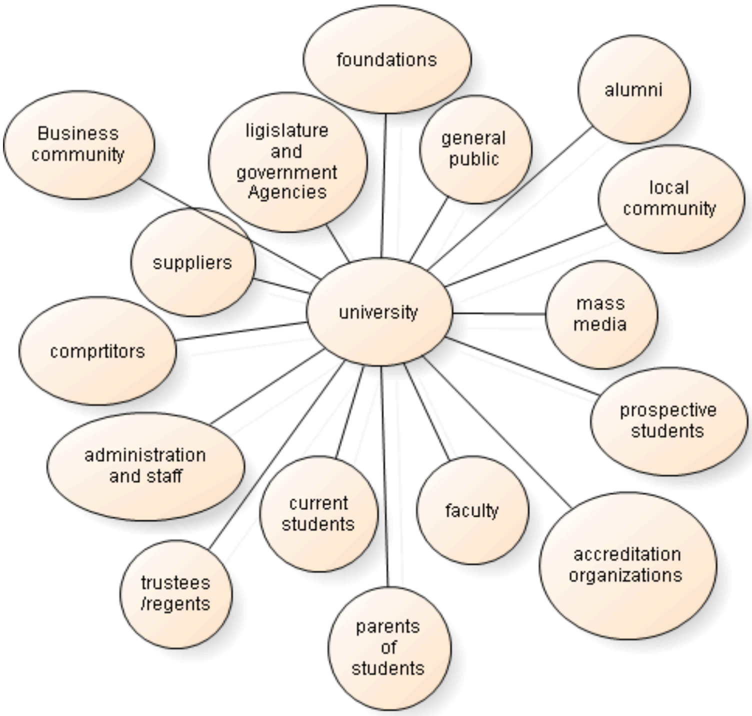
Both product approach and service approach have considered students as customers while programmes are viewed as products. They have both adopted strategic planning on the basis of defined and predetermined customer-product interaction (Conway, 1994). However, customer-oriented strategy problematizes the concept of consumer-product duality when it integrates other stakeholders into the process of marketing strategy in higher education. This is because different needs and wants of other stakeholders may affect institution's objectives.

C. Stakeholders Orientation

Mehralizadeh and Emoghaddam (2010) demonstrate that students are not only customers of higher education in the traditional sense of a customer in a service industry, but they are also products of educational institutions from the perspective of other stakeholders like employers. The peculiar nature of customers in higher education make scholars focus more on customers and identify them first before planning any marketing strategy. Belohlav (1984) examined the nature of students as customers in higher education, in doing so he acknowledged that there are other customers as well, for example alumni, government and businesses are some of them. The alumni consume their school activities and part-time courses after graduation. Similarly, businesses and governments consume graduate students and potential employees. The diversity of stakeholders' needs in higher education makes institutions' missions challenging and complex in a way that each stakeholder's interest may conflict other stakeholder.

Kotler and Fox (1995) examined thoroughly other stakeholders of higher education or what Kotler calls 'the public'. Figure 2-1 illustrates the 16 stakeholders that have potential or actual interest in an education institution.

Figure 1: The University and its Public



Source: Kotler and Fox (1995, p.20)

Stakeholders differ in their involvement in higher education because of different needs and wants. While prospective students may need a job after graduation, parents look for teaching quality or accreditation of programmes. Understanding customers' needs and wants is very important to adopt marketing orientation, otherwise; institutions will experience 'marketing myopia' (Kotler & Fox, 1995). Marketing orientation in higher education focuses more on customers' satisfaction through designing, communicating, planning and delivering the right programme and service. Although stakeholders' interests, needs and wants might be conflicted in regard to the institution's mission and objective, institutions should choose selectively the appropriate stakeholders that go hand in hand with the institution's mission, then adjust those objectives and missions with the public needs and wants (Kotler, 1995).

Other literature embraces the concept of '*stakeholder orientation'* rather than '*customer orientation'* (Alarcon-del-Amo et al., 2016; Sabando et al., 2016). This is because of the fact that the concept of customer orientation does not fit into higher education sector, and that stakeholder orientation successfully addresses the public as a whole. The prevalent perspective in marketing literature in higher education considers students as the main customers (Redding 2005, Marzo 2005). Nevertheless, the question as to whether or not students should be categorised as customers remains pertinent. Previous studies showed that students expect to be treated as customers in some educational contexts but not all of them (Saunders, 2014). Students are less likely to be treated as customers in the classroom, assessments and graduation while they like to be treated as customers in their interaction with staff, complaints, students' feedback, and teaching methods (Koris & Nokelainen, 2015).

The emergence of a free market and commercialization in higher education has promoted a supplier-customer relationship. Such relationships may adopt the maxim of 'the customer is always right'. However, teachers are less likely to accept students as customers (Winter & O'Donohue, 2012). When considering students as customers, they will expect grades regardless of any effort done. They can irresponsibly transfer learning to the university and expect entertainment rather than learning (Eagle and Brennan, 2007). Besides, the relationship between the supplier and the customer in higher education is highly asymmetric in that students do not approach programmes with high precision. They cannot guarantee jobs after graduation or be sure to get a qualification.

Exploring a wider definition of students as customers or as products of other customers may extend our concepts of marketing theory as applied to higher education. For example, Litten (1980) defines a student as "a client, part of the process itself, and a quasi-product at the end of the process" (p.47). The student is part of the process because they contribute to the quality of the educational experience by carrying all their needs, attitudes and attributes to the educational process. Ressler and Abratt (2009, p.39) argue that "the student is not only a customer of the education, but a designer of the education product and in essence becomes a product of the university on graduation". This means that a student is not a customer in the traditional sense. Having said all this, it is imperative that education institutions become cautious in their displacement of marketing concepts from other businesses to higher education sector. Greater contextualization and adaptation should take place for the sake of a better marketing framework.

IV. Strategic Planning in Higher Education

A. Marketing Plan

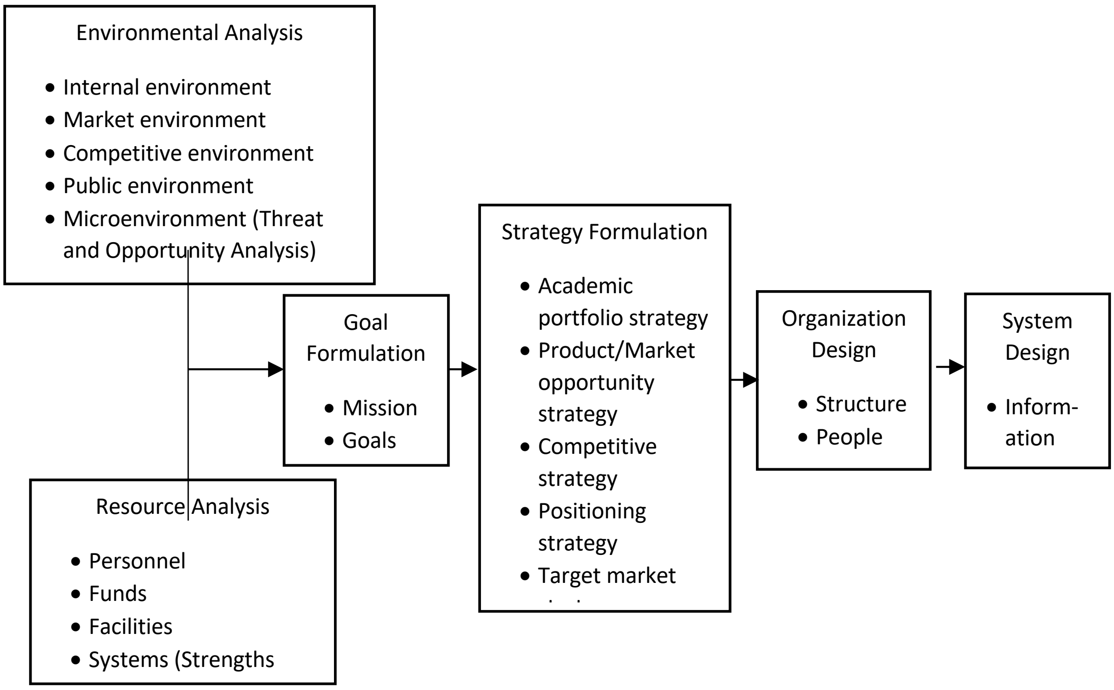
Higher education institutions become aware of the importance of marketing planning within the overall institutions' strategic plans. As a matter of fact, universities should go beyond the traditional marketing activities of promotion, students' recruitment or advertising. Kotler and Murphy (1981) argue that most universities have a quality operational level, but they overlook the strategic plan on the mistaken belief that strategic plan is a waste of time with no concrete results. All institutions tend to plan in the budgeting and scheduling level while some of them are short-term planner. Unfortunately, only few institutions are long-term strategic planners. A strategic marketing plan is an integrated process of the whole institution's philosophy and approach (Gyure and Arnold, 2004). Most institutions do not recognize the need of marketing plan until they face serious students' enrolment decline or fund raising. Then they start questioning their techniques and marketing activities. Kotler and Fox argue that ''the first step to start a new strategic or marketing plan is to recognize the need for a marketing planning'' (1995).

Kotler and Fox suggest that universities adopt two marketing planning types: strategic plan and tactical marketing plan. While the former focuses more upon setting objectives, goals, and mission, the latter grows out of strategic marketing plan and implements the strategic objectives. Kotler (1995) defines strategic planning as:

> The process of developing and maintaining a strategic fit between the institution's goals and capabilities and its changing marketing opportunities. It relies on developing a clear institutional mission, supporting goals and objectives, a sound strategy, and appropriate implementation. (p.95)

A marketing strategic plan follows certain steps as it is illustrated in Figure 2 of the strategic planning process:

Figure 2: Strategic planning process



Source: Kotlerand Fox (1995)

An educational institution must first examine its internal and external environment. The reason behind scrutinizing the environment is to have a general picture of major threats and opportunities so that strategic decisions can be accurately taken. Cann and George (2004) also underline the importance of internal and external data in developing marketing strategy. Following the environment analysis, a higher educational institution should appraise its resources by analysing its strengths and weaknesses. Kotler (1995) argues that identifying the distinctive competencies in those resources like funds, personnel, or facilities will definitely provide the institution with differential advantage over competitors.

Thirdly, the previous phases in the implementation of marketing strategic plan provide the cornerstone for the institution's mission, goals and objectives. Those missions and goals are not static but rather subject to change depending upon environment change and institutional resource competencies. Forth, to evaluate efficiently programmes and markets for change, management should assess the environment analysis and resource analysis, along with objectives and missions. Kotler and Fox (1995) suggest two strategy formulations at this stage: Academic portfolio and product/market opportunity strategy. Academic portfolio is based on analysis of current programmes and reviewing their quality, attractiveness and relation to the institution's mission. Product/market strategy is based on market orientation in a way that evaluates market trends so that programmes can be in line with the market needs.

Fifth, Cann and George (2004) argue for the fact that organization's readiness to learn and implement marketing strategy should also be taken into consideration when implementing a new marketing strategy, and that organizational culture is a key to efficient marketing plan (Deshpande and Webster, 1989). University presidents for instance who try to convince teachers to be market oriented and to design non-traditional programmes may encounter resistance from the academic culture. Besides, embracing a new marketing plan based on international students' recruitment requires staff training to meet the institution's mission and objectives.

Finally, every institution should design and upgrade its system including technology, staff and academic or admission procedures. When an institution implements a new marketing strategy, it is important to invest in telecommunication, attendance biometrics or computers in the classroom. Internal functions should reflect the quality of service provided (Kotler & Fox, 1995).

Marketing plan or the tactical plan should follow and be an integral part the strategic plan (Maringe & Foskett, 2002). As a matter of fact, education institutions are rarely aware of different types of customers. Institutions tend to focus upon one or two stakeholders and build up their marketing plan on them. Instead, institutions should highly adopt market orientation (Conway et al., 1994). According to Kotler and Fox (1995), marketing plan includes the following sections: "executive summary, situation analysis, goals and objectives, marketing strategy action programmes, budget and controls'' (p.102). The following table illustrates elements of a marketing plan advocated for higher education marketing managers:

Section	Purpose
I.Executive summary	A brief overview showing proposed plan to management
II.Current marketing situation	Background data on market situation, competition, external environment…
III.Opportunity and issue analysis	Identify threats and opportunities, internal environment…
IV.Objectives	Set objectives for the marketing plan precisely
V.Marketing strategy	Represent strategies and approaches that the institution will adopt
VI.Action Programs	Answers: what will be done? who will do it? when will it be done? Who much will it cost?
VII.Budget	Financial forecasting, costs and other outcomes
VIII.Control	Indicate how the implementation and effectiveness of the plan will be monitored.

Table 1. Steps of a marketing plan. Source: Kotler and Fox (p. 102, 1995)

A successful marketing plan requires highly skilled managers and staff in higher education institutions. Gray (1991) underlines the importance of market research techniques, skills in planning, analysing, and interpreting data in achieving the objectives of a marketing plan. As far as Moroccan universities are concerned, the scarcity of qualified marketing staff affects negatively the marketing plan's objectives.

Some of the main marketing goals that make universities adopt a marketing plan are: recruiting student, improvement of curricula, fund raising for research objectives, cooperating with academic, research or economic institutions and attracting didactic personnel Białoń (2015).

A marketing plan is highly advocated as a continuous planning process aiming at maximizing institutions' resources and capacities either to solve problems or to meet stakeholders' expectations (Gyure & Arnold, 2004). As a matter of fact, both strategic planning and marketing planning should operate complementarily to analyse the internal and external environment as well as to assess institutions' resources and capabilities in order to set objectives realistically. Blend of marketing strategies should be implemented to fit education context and its peculiar nature like market segmentation, targeting, positioning and marketing mix. It is also worth mentioning that the extent to which marketing strategies should be implemented in higher education institutions depends mainly on objectives and goals set by those institutions and their definition of stakeholders and the service provided.

B. Marketing Research

Most higher education institutions do not understand how their customers perceive the service they provide, until they encounter a problem that need to be solved be it a decrease in students' recruitment or a fall in donations. Problem identification and problem solving are the main important responsibilities of any university's management and administration. Decision makers need to take data-gathering and marketing research seriously before any action is made. Otherwise, resources and time spent will be wasted (Kotler & Fox, 1995). Universities need to build a reliable information database from their marketing research. Krampf and Heinlein (1981) argue that internal and external research is required to improve the service offered. A quality information is indispensable for a good marketing plan.

To identify marketing research issues, Kotler and Fox (1995) underscore four methods. First, complaint system can be created to identify stakeholders' concerns and dissatisfaction. Second, marketers and administrators can adopt a marketing problem inventory in which they can list frequent problems and difficulties either internally or externally. Third, the institution can assess demands of their programmes and services by determining the marketing problem between the desired demand and the actual demand. Forth, universities can undertake a marketing audit by collecting critical data for analysis. Usually, the auditor is an independent consultant who appraises the institution objectively so as to provide long-term and short-term recommendations.

Identifying a marketing challenge or a problem is definitely the first step in effective marketing plan. Stott and Parr (1991) argue for the fact that institutions should evaluate opportunities, threats, strengthens and weaknesses (SWOT) before any marketing plan is taking place. Applying SWOT analysis is very helpful in linking an institution's strengths with the existing market opportunities as well as avoiding weaknesses and challenging threats. As Baker et al (1998) stated, a SWOT analysis is a strategic audit used by an institution to improve its programmes and services.

It is also worth mentioning that both market and marketing research should be seen as a process rather than a project so that universities can continuously adjust their marketing mix and strategies according to existing environment (Rossum & Baum, 2001). It is also argued that institutions that adopt a market-oriented strategy tend to consider marketing research as a process. A market orientation strategy can also help universities in developing an integrated marketing intelligence system to analyse customers' needs and complaints, competition and other external variables (Cann & George, 2004).

C. Segmentation

One of the main strategic approaches that is based on market research and marketing information is segmentation. Market segmentation is a marketing tool used to change and divide the market in sets of segments which share the same characteristics, needs and values (Schiffman, Kanuk, & Hansen, 2008). Although segmentation literature is well established in marketing theory, market segmentation in higher education literature is not well grounded (Hemsley-Brown, 2017)

Kotler and Fox (1995) present three approaches to segmentation that any institution should embrace. First, mass marketing considers all students are alike and no preference or difference exists among customers. Generally, institutions adopting mass marketing try to convince all students that their programme is the best. While this segmentation strategy is less expensive in promotion and communication, most universities do not adopt it because of the diversity of stakeholders' needs and preferences. Second, programme differentiated marketing seems to be the most used segmentation strategy in higher education. This is because universities tend to offer different programmes and different fields of studies to meet prospective students' needs. Third, other universities will resort to focused marketing. Serving a target market can result in a competitive advantage because of differentiation strategy. However, the targeted segment might be a failure especially if the segment is not substantial or sustainable. As Kotler and Fox (1995) argue, universities should make sure that the segmentations chosen are measurable, accessible, substantial and durable.

Kotler and Armstrong (2003) agree on four grouping variables for customer in higher education: demographic, geographic, behavioural and psychographic, all of which can be integrated in a marketing mix to serve institutions' marketing strategy. Universities today segment the market into three main customers: high school leavers, mature students and international students. Although there are other segments like managers who are seeking corporate training, they are not generally the core business for a university. All of those segments have different factors in choosing a university or a programme (Soutar & Turner, 2002).

To examine the viability of segmentation in strategic planning in higher education, Rindfleish (2003) conducted an Australian study focusing on the marketing technique of segment profiling. He found out that the segment profiling was highly beneficial in that it reduces the risk of adopting inefficient strategic planning goals by detecting a new market segment. Efficient segmenting and targeting contribute to market differentiation. Mazzarol and Hosie (1996) argued that successful differentiation requires an institution to reflect an image of perceived value in the market.

D. Targeting

After segmenting the market, the institution should select among three main targeting strategies: mass marketing; targeted marketing and niche marketing (Hsuan-Fu & Chia-Chi, 2008). Mass marketing is applied when an institution intends to attract as many customers as possible and focus on common needs and wants of customers. Usually one programme will be designed to attract as much students as possible. Although adopting undifferentiated marketing strategy is less expensive, it fails to satisfy customers whose needs are different from the mass.

On the other hand, targeted marketing approach focuses on targeting a number of segments and addressing them using different marketing mix. For instance, a university can have undergraduate, graduate and research programmes or even alumni programmes. Targeting the market using differentiated marketing is highly recommended by scholars especially when it is cost effective (Kotler & Fox, 1995). Targeting more than one segment in higher education remains imperative since institutions address more than one stakeholder. However, institutions should be alert in using targeted marketing approach; some universities go too far in the segmentation process by offering more segmented programmes. Although this can live up to the public expectations, it can be very costly.

The last targeted marketing strategy is the niche marketing or the concentrated marketing. This is when a university focuses on one segment and implement all its marketing strategies to target it. Targeting one segment can be risky for some institutions as the targeted segment may disappear or shrink (Hsuan-Fu & Chia-Chi, 2008). However, niche marketing can be viable in higher education especially when the institution has limited resources.

E. Marketing Mix

The concept of marketing mix was first introduced in macroeconomic theory (Chong, 2003). Later, McCarthy (1964) introduced the concept of 'marketing mix' as conceptual framework in marketing repertoire that translates planning into practice and contributes to successful decision making for managers (Bennett, 1997). This conceptual framework is used to improve businesses' strategies and tactics (Palmer, 2012). Marketing mix has prevailed research in the marketing field to the extent that Kent (1986) considers the 4Ps (Price, place, promotion, product) as "the holy quadruple…of the marketing faith…written in tablets of stone". Zeithaml and Bitner (2010) defined marketing mix as a strategic tool used to satisfy and communicate with customers. Management also adopts marketing mix to achieve institutional objectives by blending price, programme, place and promotion (Michael et al., 1995).

However, Moller (2006) underlined that the limitations of the 4Ps in marketing mix, as the cornerstone of the conventional marketing management have become subject to criticism. Some researchers have even gone as far as eliminating the 4Ps model altogether and suggesting an alternative framework. Rafiq and Ahmed (1995) also argued for the fact that the 4Ps does not satisfy the business environment changes namely in the service sector, and that Booms and Bitner's (1981)'s 7P marketing mix has to replace McCarthy's 4Ps marketing mix. The reason behind criticising the 4Ps marketing mix is because of its product-oriented rather than customer-oriented (Popovic, 2006). Each element of the marketing mix should be seen from the customer's perspective. By converting product into customer solution, place into convenience, promotion into communication and price into cost, the 4Ps marketing mix can be responsive to customers' needs (Lauterborn, 1990). Similarly, Baker (2008) criticised the traditional 4Ps marketing mix. He states that the product variable is presented in isolation as if it is sold independently. However, marketers and companies sell products in relation to their brands and their product lines. Unlike customers who perceive products holistically in relation to their brand, the 4Ps marketing mix does not consider relationship buildings and customers' experiences; rather, it regards customers as passive.

To differentiate between service marketing and product marketing and to keep up with the environmental changes that marketing and higher education are facing, Cowell (1982) proposed two additional 'Ps': people and process. The importance of people lies in the fact that they are the performers and sellers. Relationship marketing is mainly based on people's interaction with customers. The importance of the process revolves around service delivery as an essential ingredient in any customer satisfaction. Physical evidence, the seventh marketing mix, was introduced by Gray (1991) to represent the environment in which the service is provided. The seven-marketing mix are defined in the table below:

Table 2: Definitions of marketing mix in product and service industry

Product	The good or service that is delivered
Price	The recourses needed by customers to get the services/goods
Place	The location and accessibility of the services/goods
Promotion	Communication activities addressed to potential customers
People	Those involved in the process of the services delivered
Process	The organizational system by which the service is delivered
Physical evidence	The environment is which the service is provided

Source: Gray (1991, p.31)

Mariage (2006) points out that the seven-marketing mix should be integrated effectively to achieve a competitive advantage. Achieving an optimal blending of the marketing mix components depends on many factors including institutions' internal and external competencies, target market and the target customer. The implication of 7Ps marketing mix is highly compatible with service industry in general and higher education institutions in particular.

Conclusion

Higher education institutions have become increasingly aware of the role of marketing in achieving their missions and objectives as well as planning strategically. Marketing contributes to a better understanding of current activities and performance of higher education institutions and compares it with their missions. Marketing can also detect problems as well as proposing solutions and plans to achieve a stated mission for any higher education institution (Kotler & Fox, 1995).

According to Rudd and Mills (2008), marketing principles revolve around three main tenets: First, marketing is essential at any educational institution's phase. Second, marketing is an ongoing process that is implemented in a cyclic way from planning, implementation to control. Such process should be regular and consistent. Institutions should regularly inform, remind and even reinforce current and prospective students. Third, marketing is not a panacea tool for all sorts of problems. If an institution is unable to provide students with added value for their educational experience, marketing becomes inadequate.

This chapter has presented the implementation of marketing practices in higher education and has shown proposed marketing process steps, marketing tools and marketing techniques that could further be adapted to higher education. Future research direction for academics could be to conduct empirical research to find out, to what extent and how, the marketing practices presented in this chapter are actually adopted in higher education. Likewise, practitioners of HE marketing research could use the extensive literature presented in this chapter to guide implementation of improved marketing practice in their own or their client institutions.

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جودة التعليم الجامعي المغربي بين مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود والمفتوح

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الملخص

عرفت الجامعة المغربية منذ الاستقلال عدة إصلاحات هدفت إلى النهوض بمستوى التعليم الجامعي وتحسين جودته. وتشمل الجامعة المغربية نمطين من المؤسسات: كليات ذات استقطاب مفتوح، ومعاهد ومدارس ذات استقطاب محدود، مما كرس تعليما نخبويا محدودا، وآخر جماهيريا مفتوحا. تهدف الدراسة إلى قياس جودة الخدمة التعليمية التي تقدمها جامعة ابن زهر أكادير، اعتمادا على مقياس جودة الخدمة في التعليم العالي(Hed PERF) (بأبعاده: الجوانب غير الأكاديمية، الجوانب الأكاديمية، السمعة والصيت، تسهيلات الوصول)، وطبق المقياس على عينة من طلبة جامعة ابن زهر في تخصص العلوم الاقتصادية، المنتمين لكلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية (استقطاب مفتوح)، والمدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير (استقطاب محدود). وقد استخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي التحليلي، من خلال جمع البيانات، بواسطة استمارة وزعت على عينة من طلبة المؤسستين الجامعيتين. وتسعى الدراسة إلى تحديد مدى وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في إجابات الطلبة تعزى لمتغير نوع المؤسسة الجامعية، و تحديد مستوى تقييم الطلبة لجودة الخدمات التعليمية في المؤسستين موضوع الدراسة، و تحديد نقاط القوة والضعف في كل من المؤسستين. في ضوء النتائج المتوصل إليها، سيتم تقديم مقترحات لتحسين جودة الخدمات التعليمية في الجامعة. وقد توصلت الدراسة إلى أن تقييم الطلبة لمستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية في المستوى المتوسط، مع اختلاف في أبعاد المقياس داخل المؤسستين.

الكلمات المفتاحية: جودة-خدمة- التعليم الجامعي

Overview

Since independence, the Moroccan university has undergone several reforms aimed at enhancing the level of education and improving its quality. The Moroccan university comprises two types of institutions: open-ended colleges, schools and institutions with limited polarization, which has served both a limited elite and an open public education. The study aims at measuring the quality of the educational service provided by Ibn Zohr University of Agadir. In so doing, the researcher adopts the measure of quality of service in higher education "HED PERF" (dimensions: non-academic aspects, academic aspects, reputation, accessible facilities). This was applied to a sample of students from Ibn Zohr University in economics, belonging to the Faculty of Law, Economics and Social Sciences (open polarization) along with the National School of Commerce and Management (limited polarization). The researcher opts for the descriptive analytical method to collect data by means of a questionnaire distributed to a sample of the students from both institutions. The study seeks to ddetermine the existence of differences of statistical significance in the answers of students attributed to the variable type of university institution, to examine the level of students' evaluation of the quality of educational services in the aforementioned institutions, and to identify strengths and weaknesses in each of the two institutions. In light of the results attained, suggestions will be presented to improve the quality of educational services at the university. The study came up with the students' assessment of the quality of educational services at the intermediate level, with different dimensions of the scale in both institutions.

Keywords: quality, services, university education

مقدمة

عرفت الجامعة المغربية منذ الاستقلال عدة إصلاحات هدفت إلى النهوض بمستوى التعليم الجامعي وتحسين جودته. وفي هذا السياق صدر الميثاق الوطني للتربية والتكوين سنة 1999، ليؤكد على اعتبار الجامعة قاطرة للتنمية، تزود كل القطاعات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية بالأطر المؤهلة، ويمكن لكل مواطن ولوجها.

وتعرف الجودة عدة تحديات من أهمها ارتفاع أعداد الطلبة، وضعف التمويل، وقلة الموارد البشرية المؤهلة، وعالمية التعليم العالي. وعرف المغرب تضاعف نسبة الالتحاق بالتعليم العالي من 10,6% سنة 2000 إلى 31,95% سنة 2016.

ويطرح هذا التوسع تحديات فيما يخص جودة التعليم الجامعي، نتيجة ضعف البنية التحتية وقلة الموارد البشرية، وضعف نسب التأطير البيداغوجي والاداري، حيث أكدت الدراسات على ارتباط ارتفاع عدد الطلبة في الجامعات ، بانخفاض مستويات الخدمة المقدمة للطلبة ويشتمل التعليم الجامعي المغربي على الجامعات والمؤسسات والكليات المتخصصة التابعة لها، ويعتمد على نمطين من التعليم: فالأول ذو استقطاب مفتوح يستقبل جميع الطلبة الحاصلين على شهادة الباكالوريا، والثاني ذو استقطاب محدود، والتسجيل فيه مفتوح أمام التلاميذ، بشروط أهمها اجتياز مباراة.

1. مشكلة الدراسة

ان الدراسة الحالية ستحاول تحديد مفهوم جودة الخدمة التعليمية في الجامعة، وطرق قياسها، وماهي أوجه الاختلاف بين المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح والاستقطاب المحدود في نظام التعليم المغربي؟ وهل توجد فروق في مستوى جودة الخدمة حسب هاذين النمطين من التعليم الجامعي؟

وتجيب الدراسة عن السؤال الرئيسي:

ما مستوى جودة الخدمات الجامعية كما يدركها طلبة كلية العلوم الاقتصادية أيت ملول، والمدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير في جامعة ابن زهر أكادير؟

وينبثق من السؤال الرئيسي الأسئلة الفرعية التالية:

- ما مستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية المدركة من قبل طلبة المؤسستين الجامعيتين طبقا لمقياس (HedPERF)؟
- هل يختلف مستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية في المؤسستينحسب أبعاد المقياس المعتمد؟
- ماهي نقاط ضعف وقوة المؤسستين؟

2. أهمية الدراسة

تتجلى أهمية الدراسة في أن معرفة مستوى الخدمات المقدمة حسب أبعاد الدراسة، يساهم في التعرف على نقاط القوة والضعف في هذه الخدمات، مما يساعد على وضع آليات مناسبة كفيلة بتحسين جودة التعليم الجامعي.

3. أهداف الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى التعرف على:

- مستوى جودة الخدمات المقدمة من طرف الجامعة والمدركة من قبل الطلبة.
- التعرف على أهم نقاط القوة والضعف في الخدمات التعليمية المقدمة حسب الأبعاد الأربعة لمقياس (HedPERF) (الجوانب الأكاديمية، الجوانب غير الأكاديمية، السمعة، الوصول).
- في ضوء النتائج المتوصل اليها سيتم تقديم مقترحات لتجاوز نقاط الضعف، وتعزيز نقاط القوة، وبالتالي تحسين جودة الخدمات التعليمية في الجامعة.

4. منهجية الدراسة

من أجل تحقيق أهداف الدراسة، تم استخدام المنهج الوصفي التحليلي بهدف تحديد مستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية المقدمة لطلبة الجامعة.

أولا: الدراسة النظرية

I .مفهوم الجودة في التعليم العالي

1- جودة الخدمة التعليمية

أ- تعريف الجودة في التعليم العالي

يرى يوسف أحمد أبو فارة أن جودة التعليم العالي هي: "**مجموعة من الخصائص والصفات الإجمالية التي ينبغي أن تتوفر في الخدمة التعليمية، بحيث تكون هذه الخدمة قادرة على تأهيل الطالب، وتزويده بالمعرفة والمهارات والخبرات أثناء سنوات الدراسة العالية، وإعداده في صورة خريج جامعي متميز،و قادر على تحقيق أهدافه وأهداف المشغلين وأهداف المجتمع التنموية**".(أبو فارة، 2006، صفحة 251)

فجودة التعليم العالي تعني مقدرة مجموع خصائص وعناصر المنتج التعليمي على تلبية حاجيات الطالب، وسوق العمل والمجتمع وكافة الجهات الداخلية والخارجية ذات المصلحة.

ب- جودة الخدمات التعليمية

إن جودة خدمة التعليم الجامعي هي نظام متكامل لمجموعة من الأنشطة والعمليات الموجهة للمستفيد، تبدأ من تحديد رغباته وحاجاته وتنتهي بالعمل على تلبيتها، وهذا يتفق تماما مع أهداف الجامعة، والغرض من وجودها.
ويمكن تقسيم جودة الخدمات التعليمية إلى عناصر أكاديمية وأخرى غير أكاديمية:

- جودة الخدمات الأكاديمية

تعني جودة الخدمة في التعليم العالي: العمل على توفير التدريس الفعال، مما يؤدي إلى نتائج تعليمية جيدة، وتشمل هذه الخدمات على المعرفة والفهم والمهارات المستهدفة من قبل الجامعة، من أجل تغيير سلوك الطالب بعد التعرض لخبرة تعليمية محددة. (قطامي و أبو جابر، 2006) ومن أجل تحقيق جودة الخدمات الأكاديمية، يتعين على المؤسسة الجامعية توفير عدد كاف من أفراد هيئة التدريس والإداريين، يتمتعون بالمؤهلات العلمية والشخصية الكفيلة بأدائهم لمهامهم المتعددة.

- الخدمات غير الأكاديمية

تتمثل في المرافق والتجهيزات الملائمة، حيث يتعين على الجامعة توفير القاعات والمدرجات وتجهيزها بما يتناسب مع أعداد الطلبة، وأن تتوفر فيها الإضاءة والتهوية والتجهيزات المساعدة على الشرح، وأن تتيح الفرصة للتفاعل بين الطلاب وهيئة التدريس.(الخطيب، 2007)

وتتبنى الدراسة التعريف الإجرائي الذي يعرف جودة الخدمة التعليمية بأنها : كل خدمة تقدمها الجامعة للطلبة تتطابق مع المواصفات، وتؤدي إلى حالة من الرضى من وجهة نظر الطلبة.

وتهتم الدراسة الحالية بالجوانب والأبعاد التالية: الجوانب الأكاديمية، الجوانب غير الأكاديمية، السمعة، تسهيلات الوصول.

2- قياس الجودة

إن جودة الخدمة التعليمية مفهوم نسبي يختلف حسب وجهات نظر الأشخاص الذين يحكمون عليها في وقت معين، فهي تتحدد في ضوء صلتها بأصحاب المصلحة في التعليم (الطلاب وغيرهم) فضلا عن الظروف المحيطة بأداء تلك الخدمة. وباعتبار الطالب محور العملية التعليمية، فان مختلف الدراسات تعتبر أنه الزبون الأساسي الذي يجب أن يقيم الخدمة التعليمية.(Tam, 2001)

ويعد رضا الطالب من أهم العوامل التي تقيس وتقيم تطوره ونموه الأكاديمي، والتي تقيم أيضا مستوى الجامعة ومستوى الخدمات المقدمة فيها، وتختلف معايير رضى الطالب من جامعة لأخرى ومن طالب لآخر ومن نمط تعليمي لآخر.

ومن أجل قياس جودة الخدمات وضع الباحثون عدة أدوات ومقاييس، أهمها: مقياس الفجوة (SERVQUAL)، مقياس الأداء الفعلي (SERVPERF)، ومقياس الأداء في التعليم العالي (HEDPERF).

- مقياس الفجوة (SERVQUAL) (الجودة= الأداء الفعلي- التوقعات)

لقياس جودة الخدمات وضعت أدوات ومقاييس مختلفة أولها هو أسلوب الفجوة بين إدراكات وتوقعات الأفراد لقياس جودة الخدمة (SERVQUAL)، حيث طور (Parasuraman & Others) من خلال عدة دراسات (1985-1988-1994) أداة تعتمد على تحديد الفجوة بين واقع مستوى الخدمة، وتوقع الزبون لمستوى هذه الخدمة. ويعرف المقياس باسم نموذج الفجوة، واختصارا (SERVQUAL)، وهو يقيس الفجوة بين الخدمات المتوقعة من العملاء، والخدمات التي يدركها العملاء فعليا.

وقد وجهت إلى المقياس عدة انتقادات حيث يرى كرونين و وتيلور(Cronin & Taylor, 1992, pp. 55-68) وكاسبر(Kasper, Helsdingen, & Vries Jr, 1999) ، أن مقياس سيرفكوال يقيس في الحقيقة رضا الزبون، وليس الجودة، ومفهوم الرضا هو مفهوم يختلف عن الجودة، فالرضى هو شعور ذاتي عن مدى تحقق توقعات الزبون بشأن خدمة محددة، فهو مفهوم وجداني شخصي ومتقلب، فالرضى يرتبط بعملية الخدمة أكثر منه بمقدم الخدمة، بينما الجودة معرفية وتتسم بقدر من الثبات لكونها تتضمن تقييما على مدى أوسع، وتخص مقدم الخدمة وعملية الخدمة نفسها.

- مقياس الاداء ((SERVPERF(جودة الخدمة = الأداء الفعلي))

اقترح كورنينوتيلور (Cronin & Taylor, 1994, pp. 125-131) قياس الجودة من خلال الأداء وحده، حسب النموذج: (الجودة = الأداء)، وأطلق عليه مقياس الأداء الفعلي للخدمة (SERVPERF)، وهو من المقاييس المعتمدة في قياس نوعية الخدمات في المؤسسات والمنظمات المختلفة. (سلمان، 2013، صفحة 7)

يقصد بالجودة حسب هذا المقياس، الجودة المدركة، ويقصد بالأداء الأداء الفعلي الذي يدركه الزبون، فنموذج سيرفبارف لا يعتمد على التوقعات في حساب الجودة المدركة. (صادق و فاضل، 2013)

وقارنت دراسة بروشادو(Brochado, 2009, pp. 174-190) عدة نماذج لقياس الجودة في التعليم العالي، ولم تصل الدراسة إلى تفضيل قطعي لأي من المقاييس المختبرة، لكنها أكدت أن سيرفبارف أقدر على القياس، إذ يتفوق على بقية المقاييس في كل من الصدقية المعيارية، والصدقية المفاهيمية، والقدرة التفسيرية. (بوعبد الله، 2014)

وأكد الطائي أفضلية نموذج الأداء الفعلي في قياس جودة الخدمة في التعليم العالي مقارنة بنموذج الفجوة. (الطائي، صبيحة، و الوادي، 2013، صفحة 63)

– مقياس أداء التعليم العالي (HEdPERF)

طور (Firdaus Abdullah) من خلال دراستين 2005 و 2006 مقياسا جديدا لجودة الخدمة المقدمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي بماليزيا، يعتمد بشكل أساسي على تطوير نموذج الأداء الفعلي، وقابل للتطبيق من أجل قياس جودة الخدمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي، وأطلق عليه « Higher Education PERFormance »(HEdPERF) مقياس الأداء في مجال الخدمات التي يقدمها التعليم العالي.(Firdaus A. , 2005)(Firdaus A. , 2006)

إن مقياس(HEdPERF) يأتي في مقدمة المقاييس التي يمكن اعتمادها في قياس جودة الخدمة التعليمية في مؤسسات التعليم العالي، ويتميز بالمصداقية والثبات. (صالح و العطوي، 2016)

في دراسة سنة2007 أكدت أبو وردة تمتع مقياس (HEdPERF) بدرجة عالية من الصدق والثبات وقدرته على تفسير جودة الخدمة في التعليم العالي بمصر، واعتمد المقياس على العناصر الأكاديمية، وأوجه بيئة التعليم العالي الأخرى وفقا لتقويم الطالب. (الطائي، صبيحة، و الوادي، 2013، الصفحات 67-68).

وحسب المقياس يتم قياس مستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية في التعليم العالي من خلال أربعة أبعاد:

- الجوانب الأكاديمية: المسؤوليات الأكاديمية تجاه الطلبة، من حيث تقديم الاستشارات، وتوصيل المعلومات، والتواصل المستمر مع الطلاب، ومهارات الاتصال الجيد، والمواقف الإيجابية مع الطلاب داخل وخارج قاعات الدرس، وتنوع التخصصات.
- الجوانب غير الأكاديمية: العناصر المساعدة على الحصول على الخدمة، وتتعلق بكفاءة الموظفين في أداء عملهم، والاستجابة للشكايات، والسرعة في تقديم الخدمات، ودرجة الاستعداد لمساعدة الطلاب.
- السمعة: الصورة الذهنية لدى المستفيدين من المؤسسة، ومدى اندماجها في المجتمع وقدرتها على تحقيق رسالتها.
- تسهيلات الوصول: الموقع الجغرافي للمؤسسة، وسهولة الوصول، واللوحات الإرشادية، وسهولة الحصول على المعلومات. (أبو وردة، 2007)

II .سياسات القبول وجودة التعليم الجامعي

نظرا لمحدودية الطاقة الاستيعابية في بعض المؤسسات الجامعية، ولتوجيه الطلبة إلى التخصصات الملائمة لمؤهلاتهم تعمد الدولة إلى وضع سياسات لقبول الطلبة والالتحاق بمؤسساتها.

وتوصلت بعض الدراسات إلى أن أحد أسباب ضعف فاعلية منظومة جودة التعليم العالي في الجامعات العربية، هو عدم ملاءمة نظام القبول في التعليم العالي، (عويس و عصمت، 2012) وأن معايير القبول قادرة على تفسير تقدم الطلبة في الدراسة مستقبلا، من خلال وجود علاقات ارتباطية بين معايير القبول والمعدل التراكمي للطالب ونجاحه في مساره الدراسي. (الشمري، 2015)

وأكد جوزيف joseph أن سياسة القبول تأثر على جودة التعليم الجامعي، فالمؤسسات التي تنتقي طلابها غالبا ما تكون مخرجاتها بجودة عالية. (أبو شديد، 2009، صفحة 170)

ان آلية الالتحاق بالتعليم العالي يجب أن تعتمد على مبادئ العدالة وتكافؤ الفرص، لذلك فان الارتقاء بالتعليم العالي يعتمد على الظروف المرتبطة بأشكال الالتحاق وسياسات القبول. (بوجروم و إيبورك، 2011)

ويجب أن يتوفر في معايير القبول، مبدأ تكافؤ الفرص، ويعني توفير فرص تعليمية متكافئة لكل فرد؛ بما تسمح به استعداداته وقدراته، بصرف النظر عن وضعه الاقتصادي أو الاجتماعي أو كونه ذكرا أم أنثى، وعلى الدولة أن تضمن تكافؤ الفرص في القبول والالتحاق بمؤسسات التعليم العالي.

إن مختلف الدراسات السابقة تؤكد أن سياسيات الانتقاء والقبول تعد أحد معايير الجودة في التعليم العالي، وتعد الخطوة الأولى لتحسين الخدمات التعليمية، وتكوين طالب يتمتع بمؤهلات عالية.

III . التعليم الجامعي المغربي

1- خصائص نظام التعليم الجامعي المغربي

يمكن تحديد خصائص منظومة التعليم الجامعي المغربي فيما يلي:

– يعتبر الاكتظاظ السمة المشتركة بين الجامعات المغربية، حيث يلاحظ ضعف الطاقة الاستيعابية في كليات العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية وكليات الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية، فيما تعتبر الطاقة الاستيعابية في المدارس والمعاهد مناسبة.

– ضعف التأطير الأكاديمي والإداري في مؤسسات الاستقطاب المفتوح.

– يشكل طلبة الاستقطاب المفتوح 87% من الطلبة المسجلين في الجامعات، والاستقطاب المحدود 13%.

– تشكل تخصصات العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية والأدبية 82% من مجموع الطلبة.

إن ارتفاع أعداد الطلبة في المؤسسات المفتوحة، يؤثر على السير العادي للدراسة، وينعكس سلبا على جودة التعليم، ونقص الجودة يؤدي بدوره إلى ارتفاع نسب الرسوب والتكرار، مما يكرس مرة أخرى ظاهرة الاكتظاظ ويرفع من حجمه. (منديب، 2014، صفحة 444).

2- التعليم الجامعي المغربي بين الاستقطاب المفتوح والمحدود

أ- سياسات القبول في التعليم الجامعي المغربي

يتكون النظام التعليمي الجامعي المغربي من نمطين من التعليم:

مؤسسات ذات استقطاب مفتوح: تتكون من الكليات يكون التسجيل فيها مفتوحا في وجه جميع الطلبة الحاصلين على شهادة الباكالوريا، وهذا يضمن حصول الجميع على مقعد في الجامعة، رغم أن البعد الجغرافي لبعض الجامعات قد لا يساعد التلاميذ على متابعة دراستهم خصوصا الإناث.

مؤسسات استقطاب محدود: تتكون من المدارس والمعاهد، التسجيل فيها مفتوح أمام جميع التلاميذ، شرط اجتياز مباراة، وذلك بعد دراسة ملفات الانتقاء، بناء على المعدلات المحصل عليها في الباكالوريا. وما تزال المقاعد المخصصة لهذا النمط من التعليم الجامعي محدودة رغم الطلب المزايد على خريجيها في سوق الشغل.

وقد ظهرت هذه المدراس والمعاهد من أجل مواكبة التطور الذي يعرفه العالم في المجال التكنولوجي والاقتصادي، فتوجهها هو توجه وظيفي يهدف إلى تلبية حاجات سوق العمل من الكوادر التقنية. (كمال، 2002، صفحة 57)

ورغم أن تسجيل الطلبة في المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المحدود يعتمد على التفوق والامتياز، ولا تراعى فيه أي اعتبارات جغرافية أو اجتماعية أو جنسية، (شيسي، 2014، صفحة 290) فان النظام الجامعي المغربي يعرف تباينا بين النمطين المكونين له؛ حيث تجسد تكوينات المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح كل مشاكل الجودة التي يعاني منها التعليم العالي: فهي بخسة القيمة، يعتبرها حاملو الباكالوريا تكوينات متبقية، لا يقبل عليها إلا من لا يستطيع ولوج مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود، وتعتبرها المقاولات غير ملائمة لسوق الشغل، ومكتظة بسبب أعداد الطلبة المتزايدة، وينظر إليها المجتمع نظرة سلبية. (المجلس الاعلى للتربية والتكوين والبحث العلمي، 2014، صفحة 109). وفي حين تتوفر مؤسسات التعليم العالي ذات الولوج المحدود على تكوينات جيدة، غير أن الطاقة الاستيعابية لهذه المؤسسات تبقى محدودة جدا، بالإضافة إلى كونها تتمركز في المدن الكبرى، ولا يستفيد منها سوى الطلبة من أوساط اجتماعية ميسورة. (المجلس الاعلى للتعليم، 2008)

ب– الجامعة بين نمط الاستقطاب المحدود والاستقطاب المفتوح

توجد فروق مهمة في توفير ظروف التعليم بين المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح والاستقطاب المحدود في مجال التأطير البيداغوجي، وتكلفة الطالب، والطاقة الاستيعابية:

جدول 1: احصائيات حسب نمط التعليم الجامعي المغربي (1016–2017)

	الاستقطاب المفتوح			الاستقطاب المحدود		
	2000	2013	2016	2000	2013	2016
عدد الطلبة المسجلين	240661	471059	684718	20968	72360	96787
عدد الخريجين	22171	46044	67435	3751	13205	17138
تكلفة الطالب (درهم)	10212	10067		64893	31280	
استغلال الطاقة الاستيعابية (العدد لكل 100 مقعد)	126	175	199	29	63	68
التأطير البيداغوجي (العدد لكل أستاذ)	36	65	82	7	16	18
التأطير الاداري (العدد لكل اداري)	55	114	147	9	27	33

المصدر: وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي وتكوين الأطر

يشكل الطلبة المسجلون في مؤسسات الاستقطاب المفتوح 87% من مجموع الطلبة، وفي مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود 13 %.

فعدد الطلبة في المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المحدودة رغم تزايد أعدادهم لم يتجاوز8% سنة 2000، و13 % سنة 2016. كما أن تكلفة الطالب بالمؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المحدود، تشكل أكثر من ثلاثة أضعاف تكلفة الطالب بالمؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح؛ لأن نسبة التأطير أفضل في المعاهد والمدارس العليا بالمقارنة مع الكليات، مما يجعل التكلفة أعلى.

في سنة 2016 عرضت مؤسسات الاستقطاب المفتوح 100 مقعد أمام 199 طالب، في حين تعرض مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود 100 مقعد أمام 68 طالب.

تتوفر المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المحدود على نسبة تأطير جيدة، مقابل ضعف نسب التأطير في المؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح، حيث بلغت سنة 2013 في كليات العلوم الاقتصادية والقانونية أستاذ لكل 123 طالب.

وبلغت نسبة الإدماج في سوق الشغل بعد 34 شهرا من التخرج حسب دراسة أعدها المجلس الأعلى للتعليم على خريجي ثلاث جامعات مغربية، 100% في المدارس الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير و79% في كليات العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية (Berhili, Berahou, Cheddadi, & Zaaaj, 2015).

وفي مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود يتمكن الطلبة بواسطة قيامهم بالتداريب الإلزامية من ربط صلات جيدة مع مؤسسات سوق الشغل مما يسهل عليهم في كثير من الأحيان الحصول على عمل بمجرد تخرجهم.

وأفرزت منظومة التعليم الجامعي المغربي نظاما غير موحد وغير منسجم،(ATTALI, 1998, p. 11) أثر على مبدأ تكافؤ الفرص، (لعمير و الوسولي، 2015، صفحة 72) حيث يتواجد داخلها نمطان من المؤسسات الجامعية

(المحدود والمفتوح). وأدت هاته الازدواجية إلى أن النمط الأول يحظى بالاهتمام عبر توفير الموارد المالية والبشرية، والانفتاح على سوق الشغل، ويوفر لخريجيه فرص جيدة للعمل. أما الثاني فيعاني عجزا في التجهيزات والتأطير البيداغوجي والإداري، ويعاني خريجوه من البطالة، ويطغى على تسيره الجانب الكمي عوض الجانب الكيفي.

وهكذا أصبح النظام التعليمي، من الناحية الظاهرية يضمن تكافؤ الفرص، ولكنه في الواقع نظام مجحف في أعماقه، ويخلق أشكالا من عدم المساواة الاجتماعية. (بوجروم و إيبورك، 2011، صفحة 178)

ثانيا: الدراسة الميدانية

I- إجراءات الدراسة

أ- مجتمع وعينة الدراسة

يتكون مجتمع الدراسة من طلبة كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية أيت ملول، والمدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير التابعتين لجامعة ابن زهر خلال الموسم الجامعي 2017-2018.

جدول 2: احصائيات حول جامعة ابن زهر أكادير

	جامعة ابن زهر	كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية شعبة العلوم الاقتصادية	المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير
عدد الطلبة المسجلين	114166 *	5831	1615
عدد الاساتذة	1115	15	56
عدد الاداريين	687	5	45
عدد الخريجين	11484		308
الطاقة الاستيعابية	82415	5900	2430
التأطير البيداغوجي (العدد لكل أستاذ)	102	388	28
التأطير الإداري (العدد لكل اداري)	166	1166	35
استغلال الطاقة الاستيعابية (العدد لكل 100 مقعد)	138	100	66

(*) منهم 109047 طالب في مؤسسات الاستقطاب المفتوح (95,5%) و5119 في مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود (4,5%)

وقد تم اختيار عينة من 140 طالبا، 110 طالب من كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية أيت ملول، و30 طالبا من المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير ووزعت عليهم الاستمارة .

ب- أداة واجراءات الدراسة

استخدمت الاستمارة كأداة لجمع البيانات من مجتمع الدراسة، اعتمدت الاستمارة على المقياس الذي وضعه الباحث Firdaus Abdullah سنة 2006، وفق النسخة المطورة من طرف الباحثة أبو وردة سنة 2007، والتي تتضمن أربعة أبعاد هي: الجوانب الأكاديمية، الجوانب غير الأكاديمية، السمعة، تسهيلات الوصول، وقد أجريت على المقياس بعض التعديلات ليتناسب مع موضوع الدراسة و بيئتها.

جدول3أبعاد جودة خدمة التعليم الجامعي

البعد	عدد الفقرات
الجوانب غير الأكاديمية	15
الجوانب الأكاديمية	15
السمعة	05
تسهيلات الوصول	05
العدد الاجمالي	40

وقد تم إعطاء خمسة بدائل لكل سؤال وهي: لا اوافق اطلاقا، لا اوافق، محايد، أوافق، أوافق بشدة، وتم اختيار هذا النوع من الإجابات المغلقة لتشجيع أفراد عينة الدراسة على الإجابة، والقدرة على الوصول إلى نتائج دقيقة من خلال التحليل، وقد تم تفريغ البيانات وتحليل النتائج باستخدام البرنامج الإحصائيSPSS. وتم تقسيم فئات الاجابة حسب المستويات التالية:

- أقل من 2,5 درجة ضعيفة.
- بين 2,5 و 3,5 درجة متوسطة.
- أكبر من 3,5 درجة عالية.

ت- صدق أداة الدراسة

تم التحقق من ثبات الأداة بفحص الاتساق الداخلي لفقرات الاستمارة باستخدام معامل ألفا كرونباخ، ويشير الجدول إلى قيمية معاملات الثبات لأبعاد المقياس الأربعة، وبلغت قيمة معامل الثبات لجميع الفقرات 0.934 وهي قيمة عالية تدل على ثبات المقياس وعلى إمكانية تباث النتائج (الجدول4).

جدول 4: معامل ألفا كرونباخ

البعد	معامل الفاكرونباخ
الجوانب غير الأكاديمية	0.868
الجوانب الأكاديمية	0.883
السمعة	0.829
تسهيلات الوصول	0.524
جميع الفقرات	0.934

وصف العينة:

جدول 5: عينة الدراسة

المتغير		الفئة	التكرار	النسبة
المؤسسة		كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية	110	78
		المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة التسيير	30	22
الجنس	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	دكر	51	46.4
		أنثى	59	53.6
	م.و .ت.ت	دكر	17	56.7
		أنثى	13	43.3
	المجموع	دكر	68	48,57
		أنثى	72	51,43

ك.ع.ق.إ : كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية/م.و .ت.ت: المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير

ثالثا: عرض النتائج ومناقشتها

I- بعد الجوانب غير الأكاديمية

جدول 6 إجابات أفراد العينة على فقرات بعد الجوانب غير الأكاديمية

ف	العبارة	المؤسسة	المتوسط الحسابي	الانحراف المعياري	مستوى الموافقة
1	سرعة استجابة الموظفين لمطالب الطلبة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.69	1.038	متوسط
		م.و .ت.ت	2.30	1.119	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.61	1.064	متوسط
2	تعاطف الموظفين مع الطلبة وطمأنتهم عند التعرض للمشكلات	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.68	1.057	متوسط
		م.و .ت.ت	2.40	1.163	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.62	1.083	متوسط
3	الشعور بالأمان عند اجراء معاملات ادارية داخل المؤسسة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.16	1.054	متوسط
		م.و .ت.ت	2.57	1.165	متوسط
		المجموع	3.04	1.102	متوسط
4	تمتع الموظفين باللطف وحسن الخلق	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.11	1.026	متوسط
		م.و .ت.ت	2.73	1.081	متوسط
		المجموع	3.03	1.045	متوسط
5	كفاءة الموظفين في أداء الأعمال المكلفين بها	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.06	0.951	متوسط
		م.و .ت.ت	2.73	1.048	متوسط

		المجموع	2.99	0.978	متوسط
6	الاهتمام الشخصي من جانب الموظفين بالطلاب	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.63	0.855	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.43	1.165	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.59	0.929	متوسط
7	كفاءة الإدارة في التعامل مع الشكايات	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.64	1.183	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.33	1.213	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.58	1.192	متوسط
8	توفر مهارات الاتصال الجيد من قبل الموظفين	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.82	1.210	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.70	1.088	متوسط
		المجموع	2.79	1.189	متوسط
9	المساواة بين الطلاب في المعاملة والاحترام من قبل الموظفين	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.80	1.094	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.87	1.106	متوسط
		المجموع	2.81	1.185	متوسط
10	مستوى نظافة المباني	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.54	1.170	عالي
		م.و.ت.ت	3.80	0.847	عالي
		المجموع	3.53	1.115	متوسط
11	السماح بتكوين أندية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.57	0.913	عالي
		م.و.ت.ت	4.17	0.592	عالي
		المجموع	3.70	0.887	عالي
12	شكل مباني المؤسسة (المساحة، كفاية القاعات)	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.42	1.252	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.97	1.098	عالي
		المجموع	3.54	1.237	عالي
13	توفر التجهيزات في المدرجات والقاعات	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.14	1.208	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.67	1.124	عالي
		المجموع	3.25	1.206	متوسط
14	توفر المرافق (الصحية، مقصف، النسخ، الانترنيت، المكتبة)	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.58	1.104	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.07	1.202	متوسط
		المجموع	2.69	1.139	متوسط
15	توفر المرافق الرياضية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.11	1.070	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	1.70	0.837	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.02	1.035	ضعيف
	المتوسط الحسابي العام	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.92	0.666	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.89	0.638	متوسط
		المجموع	2.91	0.658	متوسط

تشير النتائج الواردة في الجدول رقم 6 إلى أن تقييم الطلبة لفقرات بعد الجوانب غير الأكاديمية، تقع في المدى المتوسط؛ إذ تراوحت قيم المتوسطات الحسابية بين أعلى قيمة3.80 والمتعلقة بمستوى نظافة المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير، تلتها 3.67 والمتعلقة بتوفر التجهيزات في المدرسة، وآخر فقرة متمثلة في ضعف المرافق الرياضية في كلية العلوم الاقتصادية 2.11.

المتوسط الحسابي لفقرات البعد تقع ضمن المدى المتوسط، وتدل على تقييم متوسط لجودة الخدمات التعليمية فقرات البعد مجتمعة حصلت على متوسط حسابي 2.91، مع تقدم للكلية ب 2.92 مقابل 2.89 للمدرسة.

II- بعد الجوانب الأكاديمية

جدول 7 إجابات أفراد العينة على فقرات بعد الجوانب الأكاديمية

الفقرة	العبارة	المؤسسة	المتوسط الحسابي	الانحراف المعياري	مستوى الموافقة
16	درجة احتواء المقررات الدراسية على تطبيقات عملية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.59	1.103	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.77	1.104	متوسط
		المجموع	2.63	1.102	متوسط
17	إظهار الأساتذة للاتجاهات الايجابية نحو الطالب داخل وخارج قاعات الدرس	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.44	0.972	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.70	0.915	متوسط
		المجموع	3.28	1.004	متوسط
18	التواصل المستمر بين الأساتذة والطلبة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.53	0.906	عالي
		م.و.ت.ت	2.43	1.165	ضعيف
		المجموع	3.29	1.063	متوسط
19	استجابة الأساتذة لملاحظات وتعليقات الطلبة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.32	0.938	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.53	1.106	متوسط
		المجموع	3.15	1.024	متوسط
20	توفير الوقت الكافي من جانب الأستاذ لتقديم النصح والمشورة للطلبة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.32	1.100	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.37	0.999	ضعيف
		المجموع	3.11	1.145	متوسط
21	يتمتع الأساتذة بكفاءة عالية أثناء الشرح	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.21	0.996	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.50	0.861	متوسط
		المجموع	3.06	1.009	متوسط
22	يتوفر الأساتذة على خبرات أكاديمية وتعليمية عالية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.35	0.982	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.17	0.913	متوسط
		المجموع	3.31	0.968	متوسط
23	المواقف الإنسانية للأستاذ تجاه الطلبة داخل وخارج قاعة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.37	1.057	متوسط

	الدرس	م.و.ت.ت	2.57	1.137	متوسط
		المجموع	3.19	1.129	متوسط
24	وجود أنظمة لمساعدة الطلبة المتعثرين، ومساعدتهم على فهم ما يصعب عليهم خارج المحاضرة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.37	1.124	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	2.20	1.270	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.34	1.154	ضعيف
25	الاستجابة لآراء الطلبة لتحسين أداء الخدمة التعليمية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.56	1.080	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.30	1.119	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.51	1.089	متوسط
26	استخدام وسائل حديثة لتبسيط المعلومات وتوصيلها	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.23	1.122	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.70	1.149	متوسط
		المجموع	3.11	1.145	متوسط
27	السماح للطلبة بقدر من حرية التعبير والمناقشة داخل قاعة الدرس	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.42	1.168	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.40	1.037	متوسط
		المجموع	3.41	1.138	متوسط
28	الساعات المخصصة للمقرر كافية لفهمه	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.28	1.118	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	3.10	1.029	متوسط
		المجموع	2.46	1.147	ضعيف
29	يتم تحديث المقررات لتساير التغييرات المحيطة بالجامعة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.70	0.982	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.57	1.104	متوسط
		المجموع	2.67	1.007	متوسط
30	توفر العدد الكافي الأساتذة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.17	2.171	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.27	0.980	متوسط
		المجموع	3.19	1.974	متوسط
	المتوسط الحسابي العام	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.05	0.704	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.70	0.698	متوسط
		المجموع	2.98	0.715	متوسط

تشير النتائج الواردة في الجدول رقم 7 إلى أن تقييم الطلبة لفقرات بعد الجوانب الأكاديمية تقع في المدى المتوسط، إذ تراوحت قيم المتوسطات الحسابية بين أعلى قيمة 3.57 والمتعلقة بمستوى التواصل بين الطلبة والأساتذة في الكلية، وقد يرجع ذلك إلى أن الأساتذة في الكلية وظفوا حديثا ولا توجد فروق كبيرة في السن بينهم وبين الطلبة، مما يسهل عملية التواصل، وآخر فقرة متمثلة بغياب أنظمة لمساعدة الطلبة المتعثرين 2,20 في المدرسة الوطنية و2,34 في الكلية، بالإضافة إلى عدم كفاية الساعات المخصصة للمقرر في الكلية لفهمه بنسبة 2,28. المتوسط الحسابي لفقرات البعد تقع ضمن المدى المتوسط وتدل على تقييم متوسط لجودة الخدمات التعليمية. فقرات البعد مجتمعة حصلت على متوسط حسابي 2.98، مع تقدم للكلية ب 3.05 مقابل 2.98 للمدرسة.

II- بعد جوانب السمعة والصيت

جدول 8 إجابات أفراد العينة على فقرات بعد السمعة والصيت

الفقرة	العبارة	المؤسسة	المتوسط الحسابي	الانحراف المعياري	مستوى الموافقة
31	تتمتع المؤسسة بالسمعة الجيدة فيما تقدمه من تخصصات مطلوبة في سوق العمل	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.67	1.059	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	3.47	0.973	متوسط
		المجموع	2.84	1.088	متوسط
32	الثقة فيما تقدمه المؤسسة من خدمات تعليمية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.95	0.956	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.97	0.850	متوسط
		المجموع	2.95	0.935	متوسط
33	التحديث في الأساليب التعليمية التي تتبعها المؤسسة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.92	0.978	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.73	1.112	متوسط
		المجموع	2.88	1.007	متوسط
34	حرص المؤسسة على التطوير والتحديث بشكل دائم	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.11	0.922	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.80	1.215	متوسط
		المجموع	3.04	0.995	متوسط
35	اهتمام الإدارة بالطلاب ووضعهم في قائمة أولوياتها	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.45	1.46	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	2.30	1.42	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.42	1.57	ضعيف
	المتوسط الحسابي العام	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.82	0.787	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	2.85	0.856	متوسط
		المجموع	2.82	0.800	متوسط

تشير النتائج الواردة في الجدول رقم 8 إلى أن تقييم الطلبة لفقرات بعد السمعة تقع في المدى المتوسط، إذ تراوحت قيم المتوسطات الحسابية بين أعلى قيمة 3.47 والمتعلقة بتمتع المدرسة بالسمعة الجيدة فيما تقدمه من تخصصات مطلوبة في سوق العمل، وآخر فقرة متمثلة في ضعف اهتمام الإدارة بالطلاب ووضعهم في قائمة أولوياتها بمتوسط حسابي بلغ2,30 في المدرسة. المتوسط الحسابي لفقرات البعد تقع ضمن المدى المتوسط، وتدل على تقييم متوسط لجودة الخدمات التعليمية. فقرات البعد مجتمعة حصلت على متوسط حسابي 2.82، مع تقدم للمدرسة ب 2.85 مقابل 2.82 للكلية.

III-بعد تسهيلات الوصول

جدول 9 إجابات أفراد العينة على فقرات بعد تسهيلات الوصول

الفقرة	العبارة	المؤسسة	المتوسط الحسابي	الانحراف المعياري	مستوى الموافقة
36	تقع المؤسسة بالقرب من مكان إقامتي	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.24	1.256	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	3.73	1.413	عالي
		المجموع	2.56	1.426	متوسط
37	تستجيب الإدارة للاستفسارات والشكايات	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.40	1.060	ضعيف
		م.و.ت.ت	2.10	0.960	ضعيف
		المجموع	2.34	1.043	ضعيف
38	موقع المؤسسة جيد وسهل الوصول إليه (توفر المواصلات)	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.57	1.071	متوسط
		م.و.ت.ت	4.00	0.830	عالي
		المجموع	2.88	1.178	متوسط
39	توافر لوحات إرشادية تسهل الوصول إلى القاعات والمرافق داخل المؤسسة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.69	1.073	عالي
		م.و.ت.ت	3.83	1.053	عالي
		المجموع	3.72	1.067	عالي
40	تتوفر المعلومات التي أحتاجها على موقع المؤسسة الالكتروني	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.19	1.129	متوسط
		م.و.ت. ت	2.57	1.165	متوسط
		المجموع	3.06	1.162	متوسط
	المتوسط الحسابي العام	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.81	0.701	متوسط
		م.و.ت. ت	3.24	0.557	متوسط
		المجموع	2.91	0.694	متوسط

تشير النتائج الواردة في الجدول رقم 9 إلى أن تقييم الطلبة لفقرات بعد تسهيلات الوصول تقع في المدى المتوسط؛ إذ تراوحت قيم المتوسطات الحسابية بين أعلى قيمة 4.00 والمتعلقة بموقع المدرسة، تلتها 3.83 والمتعلقة بتوافر لوحات إرشادية تسهل الوصول إلى القاعات والمرافق داخل المدرسة، وآخر فقرة متمثلة في فقرة موقع المؤسسة؛ حيث بلغ المتوسط الحسابي للفقرة 2.24 في كلية العلوم الاقتصادية. المتوسط الحسابي لفقرات البعد تقع ضمن المدى المتوسط وتدل على تقييم متوسط لجودة الخدمات التعليمية. فقرات البعد مجتمعة حصلت على متوسط حسابي 2.91، مع تقدم للمدرسة ب 3.24 مقابل 2.81 للكلية.

جدول 10 قيمة المتوسط الحسابي العام لأبعاد جودة الخدمات التعليمية وترتيبها:

البعد	المؤسسة	قيمة المتوسط الحسابي	الانحراف المعياري	قيمة ت	الاحتمال sig
الجوانب غير الأكاديمية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.92	0.666	0.223	0.824
	م.و.ت.ت	2.89	0.116		
الجوانب الأكاديمية	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	3.05	0.704	0.848	0.015
	م.و.ت.ت	2.70	0.698		
السمعة	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.82	0.787	0.202−	0.841
	م.و.ت.ت	2.85	0.856		
تسهيلات الوصول	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.81	0.701	3.087−	0.002
	م.و.ت.ت	3.24	0.557		
جميع الفقرات	ك.ع.ق.إ.إ	2.90	0.593	0.152−	0.879
	م.و.ت.ت	2.92	0.569		

يتضح من خلال الجدول 10 تقارب في مستوى جودة خدمات التعليمة في المؤسستين، مع تقدم كلية العلوم الاقتصادية في بعدي الجوانب الأكاديمية وغير الأكاديمية، وتقدم المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير في بعدي السمعة وتسهيلات الوصول. كما يتبين من خلال مستوى الدلالة وجود فروق معنوية بين إجابات عينة الدراسة، تبعا لمتغير المدرسة في بعدي الجوانب الأكاديمية وتسهيلات الوصول.

ويمكن تحديد جوانب القوة والضعف في الخدمات التي تقدمها المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير فيما يلي:

جوانب القوة	جوانب الضعف
السماح بتكوين أندية	توفر المرافق الرياضية
سهولة الوصول إلى موقع المؤسسة	استجابة الإدارة للاستفسارات والشكايات
شكل مباني المؤسسة (المساحة، كفاية القاعات)	وجود أنظمة لمساعدة الطلبة المتعثرين
توافر لوحات إرشادية تسهل الوصول إلى القاعات والمرافق داخل المؤسسة	سرعة استجابة الموظفين لمطالب الطلبة
مستوى نظافة المباني	اهتمام الإدارة بالطلاب ووضعهم في قائمة أولوياتها
موقع المؤسسة	الكفاءة في التعامل مع الشكايات
توفر التجهيزات في القاعات	توفير الوقت الكافي من جانب الأستاذ لتقديم النصح والمشورة للطلبة
	تعاطف الموظفين مع الطلبة وطمأنتهم عند التعرض للمشكلات
	الاهتمام الشخصي من جانب الموظفين بالطلاب
	التواصل المستمر بين الاساتذة والطلبة

أما جوانب القوة والضعف لدى كلية العلوم القانونية والاقتصادية والاجتماعية فتتحدد فيما يلي:

جوانب القوة	جوانب الضعف
توافر لوحات ارشادية تسهل الوصول إلى القاعات والمرافق داخل المؤسسة	توفر المرافق الرياضية
السماح بتكوين أندية	موقع المؤسسة
مستوى نظافة المباني	الساعات المخصصة للمقرر غير كافية لفهمه
التواصل المستمر بين الأساتذة والطلبة	وجود أنظمة لمساعدة الطلبة المتعثرين
	استجابة الإدارة للاستفسارات والشكايات
	اهتمام الإدارة بالطلاب ووضعهم في قائمة أولوياتها
	توفر المرافق الرياضية

يظهر من خلال نتائج الدراسة أن تقييم الطلبة لمستوى جودة الخدمات التعليمية متوسط، في المؤسستين، وهو ما يتطلب من الجامعة القيام بإجراءات إضافية لتحسين جودة الخدمات التعليمية تمكن من تحديد وضبط الكفايات الواجب اكتسابها للطلبة، وتعديلها وفقا لمتطلبات سوق الشغل والتطورات التي يعرفها المجتمع، وتوفير الإمكانيات البشرية وتدريبها.

رابعا: توصيات

من خلال نتائج الدراسة يمكن تقديم التوصيات التالية:

– توفير المرافق الرياضية قصد تشجيع الانسجام بين الطلبة، وتنمية مهاراتهم الشخصية.

– تطوير نظام لمتابعة الطلبة المتعثرين، ومساعدة الطالب على مسايرة إيقاع الدروس الجامعية؛ وذلك للتقليص من نسب الهدر الجامعي.

– الاهتمام بشكايات الطلبة، عبر وضع نظام الكتروني لوضع الشكايات، وخلق جهاز إداري لتتبعها.

– توفير المواصلات في المؤسسات البعيدة.

– توجيه وإرشاد الطلاب نحو التسجيل في التخصصات المطلوبة لقطاعات العمل.

– رفع الطاقة الاستيعابية للقبول في التخصصات العلمية والتطبيقية التي يحتاجها سوق العمل.

– رفع الطاقة الاستيعابية للمؤسسات ذات الاستقطاب المحدود.

– ربط المقررات الدراسة بالميدان العملي، وتشجيع التداريب الميدانية داخل المقاولات، وانشاء آلية مؤسساتية في الجامعة لتدبير هذه التداريب.

– توفير الإمكانيات البشرية والمادية في مؤسسات التعليم الجامعي ذات الاستقطاب المفتوح، واستعمال التقنيات الحديثة للتعليم عن بعد قصد تجاوز مشاكل الاكتظاظ.

– تشجيع الإجازات المهنية بالتعاون مع المحيط الاقتصادي.

– تقسيم الوظائف الأساسية للجامعة بين نمطي القبول: بحيث تهتم الكليات أكثر بالبحث العلمي والدراسات العليا، بينما تركز المدارس على التكوين المهني المؤدي لسوق الشغل.

– تكوين الموظفين الإداريين في مجال التواصل، وضبط العمليات الإدارية.

– توفير معلومات محينة على المواقع الالكترونية للمؤسسات الجامعية، وتوفير آليات التواصل مع الطلبة عبرها.

خاتمة

إن نظام التعليم الجامعي المغربي المبني على تواجد نمطين، متمايزين من حيث الإمكانيات المادية والبشرية، يؤدي في النتيجة النهائية إلى عدم المساواة؛ حيث يحصل طلبة مؤسسات الاستقطاب المحدود على فرص أفضل من طلبة مؤسسات الاستقطاب المفتوح، لهذا يجب فرض نظام فعال للقبول في التعليم العالي في جميع المؤسسات، يراعى فيه إمكانيات الجامعات.

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حوكمة التعليم العالي وأثرها في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي

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الملخص

في ظل تأكيد العديد من المنظمات الدولية ومؤسسات المجتمع على دور التعليم في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة، والنظر إليه كركيزة أساسية في العمل التنموي، كتلك الاستراتيجية الإقليمية التي وضعتها لجنة الأمم المتحدة الاقتصادية لأمريكا الشمالية وأوروبا الهادفة إلى تفعيل دور التعليم من أجل التنمية المستدامة؛ والمتضمنة مجموعة من الإجراءات، وقواعد العمل التي أخرجت على شكل قانون ملزم للدول الموقعة عليه (اليونسكو، 2005). وانطلاقا من الأهمية التي احتلتها تطبيقات الحوكمة كأحد النظم الحديثة التي انتقلت من القطاع الاقتصادي والشركات، ودخلت إلى مؤسسات التعليم، وأثبتت دورا فاعلا في تجويد التعليم، وانعكاسا إيجابيا على مخرجاته، من خلال ما تضمنت من مبادئ هامة وفاعلة، جاءت هذه الورقة لتقدم تصورا شاملا لحوكمة التعليم العالي ومفهومها وعناصرها وأهدافها من جانب، وأثرها في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي من جانب آخر. وقد اعتمدت المنهج الوصفي التحليلي القائم على مراجعة الأدبيات النظرية والدراسات البحثية المرتبطة بموضوع الدراسة، أملا أن تسهم في ترسيخ قناعات مسؤولي التربية والتعليم في الوطن العربي بأهمية العمل على تفعيل تطبيق مبادئ الحوكمة في قطاع التعليم العالي، من خلال ما كشفت عنه من دور هام لهذا النظام وما قدمته من مقترحات في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: حوكمة، تعليم، تنمية مستدامة

Overview

In light of the emphasis of many international organizations and community institutions on the role of education in achieving sustainable development, and to regard it as a cornerstone of developmental work—notably the regional strategy of the United Nations Economic Commission for North America and Europe, aimed at activating the role of education for sustainable development, which includes a set of procedures and rules that have been enacted in the form of a binding law for signatory States (UNESCO, 2005). In view of the importance of the application of governance as one of the modern systems that moved from the economic sector and companies and entered educational institutions, demonstrating an effective role in improving education and a positive reflection of its output through important and effective principles, this paper presents a comprehensive vision of the governance of higher education and its impact on achieving sustainable development in the Arab world. The analytical descriptive approach was based on the review of theoretical literature and research studies related to the subject of the paper in the hope that it will contribute to the awareness of education officials in the Arab world to initiate the implementation of the principles of governance in the education sector through its important role in achieving sustainable development.

Keywords: governance, education, sustainable development

مقدمة

شكلت التنمية المستدامة هدفا رئيسا في استراتيجيات ورؤى كثير من دول العالم، وتأتي هذه الأهمية من أهمية الأهداف التي يمكن أن تحققها هذه التنمية، والمتمثلة بالاستفادة القصوى من الطاقات المتوفرة، والتحرر من تبعية الدول، وصولا إلى إشباع الحاجات الأساسية للمجتمع، ورفع مستواه المعيشي والثقافي، وتأمين مستقبله، والمحافظة على مقدراته، وزيادة اهتمامه بالموارد الطبيعية والبيئة التي يعيش فيها.

وتشكل القدرات البشرية المؤهلة بالمعرفة والمهارات أهم المرتكزات التي تحتاجها التنمية المستدامة، إذ تشكل هذه القدرات متطلبا سابقا للوصول إلى تنمية حقيقية، وكذلك لاحقا لضمان استدامتها، فالوسيلة التي يمكن أن نصل بها إلى تنمية مستدامة هي الإنسان، وهو في ذات الوقت الغاية التي نريد أن نحقق له هذه التنمية.

ولا يختلف اثنان على أن بناء القدرات والمهارات البشرية التي تتطلبها عملية التنمية يحتاج إلى نوعية متميزة من التعليم القائم على الجودة، يوفر متطلبات هذه التنمية، وينتج أدواتها، مما يعني أن التعليم بوجه عام والتعليم العالي بوجه خاص أمام تحديات كبيرة لتقديم مخرجات نوعية، وبيئة بحثية تتوافق مع متطلبات التنمية المستدامة.وقد أكد غير واحد من المهتمين بأن التنمية البشرية التي هي قوام التنمية المستدامة هي مسؤولية التربية والتعليم، فالتعليم أداة التنمية، لأجل ذلك فإن السؤال المهم هو: كيف يمكن أن نساعد مؤسسات التعليم في تحقيق هذه التنمية ؟ وما السبل التي تقود التعليم ليكون تعليما فاعلا ومؤثرا وناجحا؟

ولا يمكن الحديث عن التنمية بمعزل عن الحوكمة، فهناك تأكيد على أن الحوكمة أساس في التنمية الحقيقية، بل إن أحد حواجز التنمية وعوائقها في الدول النامية يتجلى في وجود حوكمة سيئة، كما يؤكده كولر (Collier,2007). وعلى هذا الأساس حرصت الدول المتقدمة على ربط الحوكمة باستراتيجيات التنمية التي رسمتها لتكون أكثر فاعلية وأكثر نجاحا.

وقد برزت الحوكمة كأحد الأنظمة التي دخلت مؤسسات التعليم في محاولة لقيادته نحو فضاءات واسعة من الاستقلالية والمسؤولية والرقابة والشفافية والمشاركة، وتوظيف أحدث النظم والنظريات الإدارية التي تقود إلى الاستثمار الأمثل للموارد المادية والبشرية والعلمية، إذ أثبت هذا النظام فاعلية كبيرة في كثير من مؤسسات التعليم في العالم الغربي، وقادها إلى مستويات متقدمة في اكتشاف المعرفة وتوظيفها، فالتعليم أساس لتحقيق التنمية المستدامة التي أصبحت ترتبط بالاقتصاد أكثر من أي وقت مضى، كما أن الحوكمة هي نظام إداري أثبت فاعلية كبيرة في إنجاح مؤسسات التعليم، وهكذا سلسلة من العلاقات المتشابكة التي يصعب تفكيكها، أو تحديد تأثيرها المتبادل بشكل دقيق.

وفي هذا الإطار ظهرت أهمية بيان أثر تطبيق الحوكمة كنظام إداري في مؤسسات التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي، الذي تزيد فيه الحاجة إلى هذا النوع من التنمية أكثر من غيره من الدول التي سبقته في هذا المجال، فاستجابة الوطن العربي لهذا المطلب أمر في غاية الأهمية، يمكن أن تقوده إلى الخروج من حالة التهميش المعرفي والسياسي والاجتماعي والاقتصادي، إلى الحضور القوي والفاعل بين أمم الأرض.

1. مشكلة الدراسة

في الوقت الذي تعاني فيه كثير من الدول العربية حالة من التراجع الاقتصادي والاجتماعي والسياسي والبيئي، كما جاء في عدد من تقارير الأمم المتحدة (الدردري، 2011)، تبرز الحاجة ماسة إلى البحث عن السبل التي يمكن أن تقيّم المعوج، وتصحح المسار، وتعين على تحقيق خطوات متقدمة في التنمية الشاملة.

وبالرغم من الطفرة التعليمية في المنطقة العربية، إلا أن النظم الحالية لا تلبي احتياجات التنمية المستدامة، خصوصا في إطار توسع العولمة والتغيرات التكنولوجية، والسكانية، كما أن تعظيم الفائدة من التعليم يتطلب نظرة جديدة لعملية الإصلاح تعتمد تحفيز مقدمي الخدمة، وتفعيل دور المنتفعين بها (الحريش،2006).

وفي الوقت الذي أثبتت فيه الدراسات والبحوث والواقع العملي لتطبيق مبادئ الحوكمة نجاعة هذا النظام ودوره الفاعل في تجويد العمل والمخرجات والنتائج، سواء في القطاع الخاص أو العام، فإن الحاجة تبدو جلية في الكشف عن التأثير الإيجابي المتوقع لتطبيق نظام الحوكمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي المتمثلة بالجامعات، وانعكاس ذلك على تحقيق تنمية حقيقية، خصوصا في الجانب الاقتصادي والاجتماعي. وعليه يمكن تحديد مشكلة الدراسة بالسؤال الرئيس التالي:

ما أثر حوكمة مؤسسات التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي؟

ويتفرع هذا السؤال إلى الأسئلة الفرعية التالية:

- ما مفهوم حوكمة التعليم العالي ومرتكزاتها الأساسية وأهدافها؟
- ما المراد بالتنمية المستدامة، وما هي عناصرها وأهدافها؟
- ما العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية المستدامة؟.
- ما دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاجتماعية؟
- ما دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية؟
- ماهي مقترحات تفعيل دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي؟

2. منهج الدراسة

تعتمد الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي في مناقشة موضوعها والأسئلة المنبثقة عن مشكلتها، وهو المنهج الذي يدرس ظاهرة أو قضية أو حالة بقصد تشخيصها، وفهمها، وتحديد العلاقات بين عناصرها، أو بينها وبين ظواهر وقضايا أخرى، متضمنا التحليل والتفسير للوصول إلى تعميمات مفيدة وذات معنى. وقد تمت الاستفادة في جمع بياناتها من الرجوع إلى الأدبيات النظرية المرتبطة بالحوكمة، والتنمية المستدامة، والتقارير الدولية، والبحوث العلمية المتعلقة بأسئلتها، والواقع التطبيقي لمتغيرات الدراسة.

3. أهمية الدراسة

تنبثق أهمية هذه الدراسة من أهمية موضوعها، وهو حوكمة مؤسسات التعليم العالي، والتنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي، الذي هو في أمس الحاجة إلى توظيف كل الإمكانات والآليات والنظم التي تقود إلى الإصلاح الاقتصادي والاجتماعي والبيئي، في ظل التراجع الكبير للواقع العربي في هذا الشأن. كما تظهر أهميتها من أهمية ما تقدمة من شواهد لأصحاب القرار والمسؤولين في الوطن العربي حيال ضرورة الانتقال إلى تطبيق نظام الحوكمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي، والمقترحات التي تساعد على ذلك.

4. خطة الدراسة

تناولت هذه الورقة الحديث عن حوكمة التعليم العالي، ومبادئها، وأهدافها، ودورها الفاعل في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي، الذي يفتقر إلى جوانب عديدة من التنمية، من خلال استعراض مجموعة من المباحث المرتبطة بموضوع الورقة على النحو التالي :

- مفهوم حوكمة التعليم العالي ومرتكزاتها الأساسية وأهدافها.
- التنمية المستدامة (المفهوم – العناصر – الأهداف).
- العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية المستدامة.
- دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاجتماعية.
- دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية.

- مقترحات تفعيل دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي.

1.4. مفهوم حوكمة التعليم العالي ومرتكزاتها الأساسية وأهدافها

أولا- المفهوم

قبل الدخول في تفصيلات مفهوم حوكمة التعليم العالي لا بد من التأكيد على أن مقصود الدراسة بحوكمة التعليم العالي، هو ذلك النظام الإداري المعتمد تطبيقه في مؤسسات التعليم العالي المتمثلة بالجامعات، والذي يقوم على مجموعة من المبادئ المتعلقة بالفاعلية التنظيمية والمشاركة والشفافية والمساءلة والرقابة والاستقلالية، ويستند إلى إطار عام وأهداف واستراتيجية تتوافق مع هذه المتطلبات وتساعد على تبنيها.

ولن نقف عند الحديث عن نشأة الحوكمة وبداياتها، فذلك مسطر في كتابات كثير من المهتمين، ولكننا نؤكد على أن هذه البدايات كانت في القطاع الخاص والشركات التي عانت من الاستبداد الإداري، وسوء الإدارة حتى أضحت بحاجة إلى نظام جديد يعالج هذه الإشكالات، ويزيد من فرص النجاح.

وقد انتقل تطبيق نظام الحوكمة إلى مؤسسات التعليم، مراعيا خصوصية هذه المؤسسات، وطبيعة أنشطتها وأدوارها، فكانت بداية ظهور هذا المفهوم في تصنيف كلارك للحوكمة الجامعية الذي وضعه عام 1983، وتناول فيه عددا من القضايا المرتبطة بأهداف الجامعة، وطريقة تنفيذها، وآلية العمل المتبعة بالجامعات، والإنجازات التي يجب أن تحققها (برنامج مبادرة العالم العربي ومركز التكامل المتوسطي، 2011).

لقد أفرزت التحديات التي واجهت ومازالت تواجه الجامعات الحاجة إلى دخول مفهوم حوكمة الجامعات لهذه المؤسسات، فمواكبة عولمة التعليم العالي، والمنافسة العالمية على الصعيدين الاقليمي والدولي، والحاجة إلى مسايرة متطلبات العصر، والانفجار المعرفي، وبروز أهمية المشاركة المجتمعية في التعليم، وتغير حاجات المتعلمين والمهارات المطلوبة منهم، وتحقيق تنمية مستدامة وشاملة، وما يشهده العالم من تحولات اقتصادية وسياسية واجتماعية؛ كل ذلك قاد إلى ضرورة البحث عن أدوات جديدة تساعد مؤسسات التعليم على الارتقاء بأدائها وعملياتها ومخرجاتها.

ومن هنا برزت الحوكمة كإطار عمل جديد يفتح المجال لممارسة سلطات الإدارة الرشيدة، من خلال تفعيل مجموعة من المبادئ القائمة على بناء نظم عمل واضحة، وخلق مناخ تنظيمي يقوم على مشاركة المختصين وأصحاب العلاقة بمؤسسات التعليم العالي في صناعة القرارات ومناقشتها، وفي مراقبة الموازنات والموارد، وفي التقييم والرقابة والمحاسبة، وفي تعزيز الاستقلالية والمسؤولية والإفصاح.

وفي بيان لهدف حوكمة الجامعة يورد سراج الدين وزملاؤه (2009) بأن حوكمة الجامعة تعني تحويل الجامعة إلى مصدر للتميز والجودة في الأداء، ومركز للإنتاج العلمي، ومؤسسة بناء وتنمية للقدرات البشرية، ومنبع للاحتياجات المتجددة للمجتمع، تسير مواكبة للتطورات الإقليمية والدولية، وتقود المجتمع إلى التطور والرقي والتقدم.

ومن جهته يرى السر (2013) بأن حوكمة الجامعات تعني تطبيق المبادئ والمعايير التي تحكم أداءها بالشكل الذي يحقق سلامة التوجهات، وصحة التصرفات، ونزاهة السلوكيات، ويضمن تحقيق الشفافية، والمساءلة والمشاركة من قبل الجميع، ويغلب مصلحة الجامعة على المصالح الفردية، بما يؤدي إلى تطوير الأداء، وحماية مصالح جميع الأطراف ذات العلاقة المباشرة وغير المباشرة بالجامعة.

وقد وضع الشمري (2017، ص 17) تعريفا شاملا لهدف حوكمة الجامعات ينص على أنها "منهج وطريق عمل يتم من خلاله توجيه وإدارة الجامعة، ويحدد العلاقات بين عناصرها المختلفة، في إطار مجموعة من القوانين التي تضمن المشاركة، والفعالية، والشفافية، والمساءلة، والاستقلالية، بحيث تحدد هذه المبادئ موقع وأدوار جميع الأطراف ذات العلاقة بعمل الجامعة، وتوجه أداءهم نحو التميز والمنافسة، وتمثل إطارا عاما للعمل داخل الجامعة وخارجها".

ثانيا – مرتكزات الحوكمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي

تقوم الحوكمة بشكل عام وحوكمة الجامعات بشكل خاص على مجموعة من المرتكزات والمبادئ التي تشكل أساس ومنطلق عمل هذا النظام الإداري الهام، وقد قامت العديد من المؤسسات والمنظمات الدولية المهتمة بالحوكمة بتناول هذا النظام بالتحليل والدراسة، لتصل إلى مجموعة مبادئ ومرتكزات، تمثل محتوى الحوكمة المطلوب تطبيقه في الجامعات، ولعل من أبرز هذه المؤسسات البنك الدولي الذي طرح بطاقة قياس حوكمة الجامعات، ومنظمة التعاون الاقتصادي والتنمية (OECD) التي طرحت مؤشرات الحوكمة،كذلك بطاقة قياس الاستقلالية الأوروبية، والدليل الإرشادي لأعضاء الهيئات الحاكمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي في المملكة المتحدة، إضافة إلى عدد من المؤتمرات والندوات التي تناولت الموضوع، لعل آخرها المؤتمر الدولي للحوكمة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي الذي عقد بجامعة الشرق الأوسط بالمملكة الأردنية. وقد أوردت هذه الجهات المهتمة عددا من المرتكزات والمبادئ التي تستند إليها حوكمة مؤسسات التعليم العالي كان أهمها:

- **الإطار العام والرسالة والأهداف والاستراتيجية:** وتعني البيئة الحاضنة للنظام بما فيها طبيعة العلاقة بين الجامعات والدولة، وما تمتلكه هذه المؤسسات من أنظمة وأدلة وإجراءات عمل في إطار رؤية وأهداف واضحة ومتسقة مع الاستراتيجية المرسومة، ومتوافقة مع الإمكانات والقدرات، ومستجيبة لمتطلبات الحوكمة الرشيدة.
- **الشفافية والإفصاح:** وتقوم على حرية تدفق المعلومات الصحيحة والدقيقة، وإتاحتها للمهتمين وأصحاب الشأن بما يضمن فهم جميع العمليات التي تتم داخل الجامعة، سواء في الجانب الأكاديمي أو الإداري أو المالي، إضافة إلى الوضوح في تطبيق النظم واللوائح والتشريعات المرسومة للجامعة، وذلك بما يكفل صناعة القرار الصحيح والمناسب.
- **المساءلة والرقابة:** وتستند إلى مسؤولية القيادات ومتخذي القرار عما يقومون به من أعمال، وما يصدرونه من قرارات أمام المستفيدين، والمجتمع عموما.
- **المشاركة الداخلية والخارجية:** وتعني أحقية كل فرد داخل الجامعة أو خارجها من المهتمين بالمشاركة في الرأي أو صنع القرار، كما تعني مشاركة كل مؤسسات المجتمع العامة والخاصة في تحقيق الأهداف المرسومة.
- **الاستقلالية:** وتعني منح الجامعة القدرة على التخطيط الفعال لاستخدام ما لديها من موارد بكفاءة عالية دون قيود، والحرية في تنظيم شؤونها وتوجيه أنشطتها، ورسم برامجها لتحقيق الأهداف التي وضعتها.

ثالثا – أهداف حوكمة مؤسسات التعليم العالي

هناك اتفاق على أهمية دور تطبيق نظام الحوكمة في الجامعات، وإيمان بدورها الفاعل في تحقيق التنمية البشرية التي هي أساس التنمية المستدامة الشاملة، ولعل الهدف العام من تطبيق هذا النظام هو مواجهة الاختلالات الأكاديمية والمالية والإدارية التي تواجهها هذه الجامعات، ولا سيما ما يتصل بحقوق الأطراف ذات العلاقة، وكذلك ما يتصل بتحقيق الأهداف المنوطة بها، إلى جانب استخدام الموارد المتاحة لديها (بامخرمة وباطويح، 2010). ويمكن استخلاص مجموعة من الأهداف التفصيلية التي يسعى نظام الحوكمة إلى تحقيقها في الجامعات يمكن استعراضها بالتالي:

- بناء نظام عمل فاعل يتضمن سياسات وتشريعات متوافقة مع مبادئ الحوكمة، وتحسين الكفاءة الإدارية للجامعات بما يضمن فاعلية الإدارة وكفاءتها في تنفيذ هذه السياسات والتشريعات ومتابعتها.
- تمكين أطراف العمل من الأكاديميين والطلبة والإداريين من المشاركة الفاعلة في صنع القرار.
- الاستعمال الأمثل للموارد المتاحة للجامعات بأعلى درجة من الكفاءة وأقل نسبة من الهدر.
- إشراك مؤسسات المجتمع العامة والخاصة في رسم السياسات والخطط وتنفيذها.

- بناء هياكل إدارية فاعلة تحدد الأدوار والمسؤوليات بالشكل الذي يمنح الحق في المساءلة والمحاسبة. وزيادة كفاءة الرقابة على العمليات.
- بناء مؤشرات أداء يمكن تحقيقها وقياسها وتقييمها.
- تعزيز الثقة والمصداقية والعدالة داخل مؤسسات التعليم العالي.
- زيادة جودة مخرجات التعليم العالي وربطها باحتياجات سوق العمل.
- إشاعة الديمقراطية والعدالة ومراعاة حقوق الجميع.
- الحد من استقلال السلطة في غير مصلحة مؤسسة التعليم.
- التأكيد على الالتزام بالأنظمة واللوائح والقانون.

2.4. التنمية المستدامة (المفهوم – العناصر – الأهداف)

ظهر مفهوم التنمية المستدامة في كتابات بعض الاقتصاديين في سبعينات القرن الماضي أمثال سولو (1974 Solow,)و هارتوك (Hartwick,1977)، كما برز هذا المصطلح في مؤتمر ستوكهولم عام 1972، وفي مؤتمر ريودي جانيرو عام 1992، والمسمى بمؤتمر قمة الأرض والذي أقر مبدأ التنمية المستدامة بهدف الوفاء بحاجات البشر، وتحقيق الرعاية الاجتماعية على المدى الطويل، مع الحفاظ على قاعدة الموارد البشرية والطبيعية، والحد من التدهور البيئي، وذلك من خلال خلق توازن ديناميكي بين التنمية الاقتصادية والاجتماعية من جهة، وإدارة الموارد وحماية البيئة من جهة أخرى .

كما برز اهتمام جامعة الدول العربية بهذا المفهوم من خلال مبادرة التنمية المستدامة في المنطقة العربية التي قدمتها إلى مؤتمر القمة العالمي للتنمية المستدامة بجوهانسبرج 2002.وفي عام 2004 اعتمدت القمة العربية المبادرة العربية للتنمية المستدامة، والتي أجيز تنفيذها فيما بعد في قمة الجزائر عام 2005.

وعلى الرغم من وجود كثير من الخلط بين تعريف التنمية المستدامة وشروطها ومتطلباتها، إلا أن تقرير الموارد العالمية الذي نشر عام 1982 وزع التعريفات التي تناولت التنمية المستدامة إلى أربعة أشكال هي: تعريفات اقتصادية، وتعريفات بيئية، وتعريفات اجتماعية إنسانية، وتعريفات تقنية إدارية، ثم بين أن القاسم المشترك لهذه التعريفات الأربع هو أن التنمية لكي تكون مستدامة يجب أن: (منظمة الايسيسكو، 2011)

- ألا تتجاهل الضوابط والمحددات البيئية.
- ألا تؤدي إلى دمار واستنزاف الموارد الطبيعية.
- أن تؤدي إلى تطوير الموارد البشرية.
- أن تحدث تحولات في القاعدة الصناعية السائدة، وتقوم على مبدأ أن التنمية الاقتصادية والاجتماعية يجب ألا تدمر البيئة، وأن تتم ضمن حدود وإمكانات العناصر البيئية.

وحول عدم إمكانية تحديد تعريف واحد للتنمية المستدامة يؤكد جوستافو أوسينسا خبير التربية في منظمة اليونسكو على أن فهم هذا المفهوم بشكل أفضل يحتاج منا النظر إليه بصورة متعمقة، دون الوقوف عند قيده في تعريف معين. وقد ذكر عددا من القواعد التي يمكن أن تعطي تصورا واضحا له؛ أبرزها قوله: بأن التنمية المستدامة هي استجابة لحاجة ملحة من أجل بناء شكل جديد للعلاقات بين الأمم، وفهم جديد للتعايش الذي يشكل أساسا هاما للوجود الإنساني. كما يذكر بأن التنمية المستدامة هي ربط الاهتمامات الاجتماعية والاقتصادية بشؤون البيئة. ويقول أيضا بأن التنمية المستدامة هي رؤية جديدة للمستقبل، تتطلب الأخذ بإجراءات كبيرة لمواجهة مشكلات الاستهلاك والإنتاج، والعمل على تعزيز المساواة، ومواجهة الفقر، ونشر قيم العدالة والديمقراطية، ورسم الاستراتيجيات التنموية لكل شرائح المجتمع، ومواجهة مشكلات البيئة (ماكوين، 2009).

ويعد التعريف الوارد في تقرير لجنة برنتلاند (Brundtland) الذي نشرته اللجنة العالمية للبيئة والتنمية (WCED) عام 1987 من أكثر التعريفات انتشارا لهذا المفهوم حيث عرفها بأنها: التنمية التي تحقق للجيل الحاضر متطلباته الأساسية والمشروعة، دون المساس بقدرة الأجيال القادمة على تحقيق حاجاتها (محمد، 2013). ويندرج تحت هذا التعريف عدد من القضايا الهامة، والتي توصل لها تقرير برنتلاند، وهي :(بوزيد، 2013، ص 77)

- التنمية المطلوبة لا تسعى لتقدم بشري دائم في أماكن قليلة ولسنوات معدودة، بل للبشرية جمعاء، وعلى امتداد المستقبل البعيد.
- هي تنمية تفي باحتياجات الحاضر دون مساس بقدرة الأجيال القادمة على توفير احتياجاتها.
- مستويات المعيشة التي تتجاوز الحد الأدنى من الاحتياجات لا يمكن إدامتها إلا عندما تراعي مستويات الاستهلاك في كل مكان، ومتطلبات الإدامة على المدى البعيد.
- الاحتياجات كما يتصورها الناس تتحدد اجتماعيا وثقافيا، وعليه فإن التنمية المستدامة تتطلب نشر القيم التي تشجع على مستويات استهلاك لا تتعدى حدود الممكن بيئيا.

1.2.4. عناصر التنمية المستدامة

لم يكن العنصر الاقتصادي وقضايا البيئة العوامل المؤثرة دون غيرها في التنمية، بل أصبح الجانب الاجتماعي، وما يرتبط به من صحة وتعليم وثقافة وحقوق، من أبرز اهتمامات وأهداف التنمية المستدامة في رؤية العالم الجديد.

وقد استبدلت الأمم المتحدة في مدينة نيويورك ما عرف بـ "الأهداف الإنمائية" للألفية التي انتهت دورتها بنهاية عام 2015 بمشروع كوني أكبر أطلق عليها اسم "التنمية المستدامة 2030"، وارتكز هذا المشروع على ثلاثة عناصر أساسية هي: العنصر الاقتصادي، والعنصر الاجتماعي، والبيئة.

ويؤكد محمد (2013) أنه لم يعد رأس المال المادي مؤشر مقياس التنمية المستدامة، إذ قام البنك الدولي بتقدير مؤشر اقتصادي كلي للتعبير عن التنمية المستدامة، والذي يتمثل في الادخار الصافي المعدل، ويسمى كذلك بالادخار الحقيقي، والذي يعبر عن التغير في الثروة الإجمالية، ويشتمل هذا المؤشر على تغيرات كل من رأس المال الاقتصادي، ورأس المال البشري، ورأس المال الطبيعي للبلد، فهو يقيس الادخار بمفهومه الواسع الذي يتعدى إلى رأس المال البشري، والطبيعي، ومخزون المعرفة، ورأس المال الاجتماعي.

ويتوافق غنيم وأبو زنط (2006) مع هذه العناصر والأبعاد الثلاثة للتنمية المستدامة،ويعرضونها على النحو التالي:

أ- البعد البيئي: ويشمل إدارة المصادر الطبيعية والتعامل معها بطريقة علمية تستطيع المحافظة على هذه المصادر، فهي الأساس في التنمية المستدامة.

ب- البعد الاجتماعي: ويتضمن حق الفرد في العيش الكريم، وفي بيئة جيدة، وحق ممارسة جميع الأنشطة،إضافة إلى ضمان حقه العادل من الثروات الطبيعية، والخدمات البيئية، والاجتماعية والتعليمية، وتلبية احتياجات المجتمع دون تقليل فرص الأجيال القادمة. وقد جاء تقرير التنمية الإنسانية العربية 2016 ليدعو إلى الاستثمار في الشباب العربي، وتمكينهم من الانخراط في عمليات التنمية، وتبني نموذج تنمية ذو توجه شبابي يركز على بناء قدرات الشباب، وتوسيع الفرص المتاحة لهم، كخطوة مهمة في التنمية الاجتماعية (جهان، 2016).

ج- البعد الاقتصادي: ويقوم على توفير الجهد والمال باعتباره أساساً للتنمية.

من جهته يرى الإمام (1994) أن هناك بعدا رابعا لا يقل أهمية عن الأبعاد والعناصر الثلاثة السابقة، وهو البعد المؤسسي، إذ لا بُدّ من وجود مؤسسات قادرة على تطبيق خطط التنمية المستدامة وتطبيق برامجها.

.2.2.4 أهداف التنمية المستدامة

على الرغم من تعدد المصادر التي تحدثت عن أهداف التنمية المستدامة، فقد رسمت القمة الأممية في سبتمبر 2015 أهداف التنمية المستدامة لخطة التنمية حتى 2030، والتي بدأ تنفيذها في فاتح يناير 2016، وقد بلغت هذه الأهداف (17) هدفا، وحددت لها (169) غاية من خلال مجموعة من المؤشرات التي اعتمدتها اللجنة الإحصائية، وجاءت هذه الأهداف على النحو الآتي (الأمم المتحدة، 2018):

1. القضاء على الفقر بكل أشكاله في كل مكان.
2. القضاء على الجوع، وتحقيق الأمن الغذائي، وتحسين التغذية، وتعزيز الزراعة المستدامة.
3. الصحة جيدة والرفاه، وضمان حياة صحية للجميع، وفي كل المراحل العمرية.
4. تعليم ذو جودة، وتعزيز فرص التعلم مدى الحياة للجميع.
5. المساواة بين الجنسين، وتمكين جميع النساء والفتيات.
6. مياه نظيفة وصحية، مع ضمان الوفرة والاستدامة للمياه والصحة.
7. طاقة متجددة، وبأسعار معقولة، والحصول عليها بأسعار مناسبة.
8. فرص عمل مناسبة ولائقة، وتعزيز النمو الاقتصادي الشامل والمستدام.
9. تعزيز الصناعة والابتكار، وبناء بنية تحتية مرنة وشاملة.
10. الحد من أوجه عدم المساواة داخل البلدان، وفيما بينها.
11. المدن والمجتمعات المستدامة، وجعلها شاملة للجميع، وآمنة ومستدامة.
12. الاستهلاك والاستخدام المسؤولان للموارد.
13. العمل المناخي، والتصرف العاجل لمكافحة التغير المناخي وتأثيراته.
14. الاستخدام المُحافظ والمستدام للمحيطات والبحار والموارد البحرية.
15. الاستخدام المستدام للأرض، وحماية واستعادة وتعزيز الاستخدام المستدام للموارد الأرضية، وإدارة الغابات بصورة مستدامة، ومكافحة التصحر، ووقف تدهور الأراضي واستعادتها، ووقف فقدان التنوع البيولوجي.
16. السلام والعدالة، وتعزيز بناء مؤسسات فعالة وشاملة وقابلة للمساءلة، واحترام حقوق الإنسان وسيادة الأمن والعدل والديمقراطية.
17. تنشيط الشراكة العالمية من أجل التنمية المستدامة بين الحكومات، والقطاع الخاص، والمجتمع المدني.

وكانت الدول العربية ضمن الدول التي التزمت بالأهداف التي أقرها مؤتمر قمة الأرض، ومؤتمر القمة العالمي للتنمية المستدامة بجوهانسبرج 2002، وذلك من خلال المبادرة التي قدمتها وهدفت فيها إلى إبراز جهود الدول العربية في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة، ومواجهة التحديات التي تعيق ذلك، من أبرزها النقص الحاد في الموارد المائية، ومحدودية الأراضي الصالحة للاستخدام، والاستخدام غير العادل لمصادر الثروة الطبيعية. وتأكيدا على دور التعليم في هذه الأهداف؛ كان من أبرز مضامين هذه المبادرة التأكيد على برامج تعليم متميزة، والاستفادة من التكنولوجيا ونظام المعلومات في تعزيز هذه المبادرة.

.3.4 العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية المستدامة

يتجاوز المفهوم الحديث للتعليم من أجل التنمية المستدامة الفهم التقليدي له، باعتباره مرادفا لمفهوم التثقيف البيئي القائم على الفهم القاصر للتنمية المستدامة، على أنها تهتم فقط بالبيئة، فالتعليم من أجل التنمية المستدامة يتسع مفهومه

ليشمل الاهتمام بكيفية إعداد الناس للحياة، والاستجابة لمتطلبات مجتمع سريع التغير، وللتغيرات التكنولوجية التي تؤثر على كل جوانب الحياة، والسعي لتحقيق الرفاه الاجتماعي (العتيقي وحماد، 2016).

وإذا كانت المهام التي يؤديها التعليم هي في الأصل مهام اجتماعية واقتصادية وثقافية وسياسية، فهو الوسيلة لتحقيق جميع الأهداف الإنمائية، كما أكدت ذلك اليونسكو (1994). ولقد تحول المنظور إلى التنمية من التركيز على النمو الاقتصادي كهدف أساسي واستخدام الأفراد كأدوات للإنتاج، إلى جعل الأفراد هم هدف التنمية، والنمو الاقتصادي وسيلة لتوسيع الخيارات أمام البشر (محمد، 2011).

ويؤكد عاشور (2014) على أن معظم الأدبيات المتعلقة بالتنمية تشير إلى أن التعليم يعد حجر الأساس في عملية التنمية، وأن نجاح التنمية يعتمد بشكل كبير على نجاح النظام التعليمي، والمجتمع الذي يحسن تعليم وتأهيل أبنائه يساعد في توفير الموارد البشرية القادرة على تشغيل وإدارة عناصر التنمية، ولا تستطيع التنمية أن تحقق أهدافها إلا إذا توافرت القوى البشرية المدربة والمؤهلة.

من جهته يؤكد مدكور (2009) على أن الاستثمار في المعرفة أصبح ضرورة فارقة بين التقدم والتخلف، فمجتمع اليوم يتطلب التنمية المستدامة وبدورها تتوقف على الاستثمار في المعرفة، أي الاستثمار في النمو غير المحسوس، وهذا يعني الاستثمار في تقنيات المعلومات والاتصالات والهندسة الوراثية والتكنولوجيا الحيوية، أي لابد من الاستثمار في تثقيف العقل البشري إضافة إلى الأرض والمصانع بشكل لا يسمح بهدر الموارد.

وفي تأكيد أهمية العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية المستدامة يذكر حسن (2009) بأن كل المؤتمرات العالمية ابتداء من مؤتمر قمة الأرض 1992م ،وحتى مؤتمر جوهانسبرج 2002م قد أقرت بأهمية التعليم، واعتباره عاملا حاسما في تحقيق أهداف التنمية المستدامة، ومكافحة الفقر، وزيادة قدرة الأفراد على مواجهة قضايا البيئة، حيث انتهت النظرة إلى التعليم في قمة التنمية المستدامة بجوهانسبرج 2002م،والتي تبنت قرار حقبة التعليم من أجل التنمية المستدامة الممتدة في الفترة 2005م حتى 2015م على أن التعليم هدف قائم بذاته، وأصبح وسيلة لتحقيق ما يلي:

- إعداد أفراد مدركة وواعية ومعدة لتساند الاتجاه نحو التنمية المستدامة.
- نشر المعرفة والمهارة المطلوبة لجعل أنماط الإنتاج والاستهلاك مستدامة.
- تحسين إدارة الموارد الطبيعية والزراعية والصناعية والطاقة.
- تغيير القيم والسلوك وأسلوب الحياة التي نحتاج إليها لإنجاز التنمية المستدامة وتحقيق الديمقراطية والسلام العالمي.

من جهته يؤكد كاظم المشار له في (حسن،2009) أن تحقيق التنمية المستدامة يتطلب مخرجات تربوية على مستوى عال من الجودة سواء في المعارف والمهارات، أو أنماط السلوك اليومي .ومن هنا فإن محتوى المنهج الدراسي ينبغي أن يقوم على بناء الفكر، وتطوير القدرات العقلية والجسمية والوجدانية، من خلال توجيه المعلمين نحو مصادر المعرفة المختلفة وأساليب الاستفادة منها ، واعتماد البحث العلمي، والمشاريع والأنشطة كأساليب تعلم، واعتبار امتداد عملية التعلم من المهد إلى اللحد، كما ينبغي أن يكون هذا المنهج قادرا على استيعاب هذا الكم من المعلومات والمعارف، وتنظيمها وتوظيفها بصورة تؤدي إلى المساهمة في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة .

وقد أبرزت كثير من البحوث والدراسات التي تناولت العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية مدى إسهام التعليم في تحقيق النمو الاقتصادي والاجتماعي والبيئي، ونادت بضرورة الاهتمام بكثير من قضايا التعليم المرتبطة بالتنمية، من أبرز هذه الدراسات على سبيل المثال لا الحصر دراسة براح وبلعباس (2013) حول تطوير التعليم العالي لتحقيق التنمية، والتي أوصت بضرورة تطوير المناهج وطرق التدريس إلى مناهج تساعد على إحداث التنمية، والتنوع في مؤسسات التعليم والاهتمام بالبحث والتطوير. ودراسة أبو سليم (2013) عن العلاقة بين التعليم والتنمية المستدامة في المجتمعات العربية، والتي أكدت على ضرورة التركيز على التخطيط التعليمي، والرؤى، ومواكبة التحولات والمستجدات العالمية، واحتضان

الكفاءات، والبحث العلمي ذو النوعية العالية. ودراسة عمران ولبني (2014) حول تلبية الاحتياجات التعليمية المرتبطة بالتنمية المستدامة، والتي أوصت بضرورة اهتمام التعليم بتعميق الوعي بالقيم والمفاهيم والممارسات المرتبطة بالاستغلال الأمثل لموارد الطبيعية لضمان التنمية المستدامة.

وتعد مؤسسات التعليم العالي المتمثلة بالجامعات أحد أهم مؤسسات المجتمع التي يجب أن تمارس دورها الفاعل في عملية التنمية، من خلال رفد سوق العمل بما يحتاجه من قدرات بشرية مؤهلة وقادرة على تطبيق البرامج التنموية بأشكالها المتعددة، بما تمتلكه من قدرات ومهارات تستطيع التعامل مع المستجدات، في ذات الوقت تعد مراكز بحثية هامة لإنتاج المعرفة وتطبيقها، الأمر الذي ينعكس إيجابا على مشاريع التنمية في كل جوانبها الاقتصادية والاجتماعية والبيئية، إضافة إلى دورها الثقافي والفكري والأخلاقي الذي يجب أن تبنيه لدى المجتمع الذي تتواجد فيه.

4.4. دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاجتماعية

لم تتجاوز التنمية الاجتماعية في الوطن العربي مستويات التراجع التي أظهرتها التقارير الدولية، وكشف عنها الواقع الاجتماعي للفرد العربي، فقد جاء تقرير برنامج الأمم المتحدة الإنمائي حول تحديات التنمية في المنطقة العربية 2011 ليكشف عن الدوائر الأربع للحلقة المفرغة التي تمثلت أولا بالحرمان والتهميش الاجتماعي، وثانيا بالتهميش الاقتصادي وتراجع فرص العمل، وثالثا التهميش والحرمان السياسي وسيادة مركزية الحكم، أما الرابعة فتتعلق بالخلل الشديد في موارد المياه والتربة والطاقة، وارتباطها باستدامة النمو والعجز في الموازنات الحكومية، وعلاقتها بسوق العمل، والتي تشكل عائقا كبيرا في تحقيق التنمية المنشودة في الوطن العربي (الدردري،2011).

وفي الوقت الذي يشكل فيه الإنسان محور الارتكاز في التنمية المستدامة؛ شكلت النتائج الاجتماعية والعوائد الخاصة بالأفراد أهم المطالبات التي ينادي بها كثير من الباحثين المطالبين بحوكمة التعليم (الخطيب ومعايعه،2006، ص35)، والتي تركز على التأهيل المناسب للأفراد لشغل الوظائف المتاحة لهم، والاستجابة لمتطلبات سوق العمل، إلى جانب الإعداد السلوكي للاندماج في المجتمع الذي يعيشون فيه.

ووفق تقرير التنمية البشرية الصادر عن برنامج الأمم المتحدة للتنمية 2015، أكد على ضرورة الاهتمام بالفرد، وأن يكون الرجال والنساء والأطفال محور الاهتمام، فيتم نسج التنمية حول الناس، وليس الناس حول التنمية، وذلك للأجيال الحاضرة والقادمة (جهان،2015). كما أكدت تقارير الأمم المتحدة أنه لا يمكن اختزال التنمية المستدامة في البعدين السياسي والاقتصادي فقط، بل لابد من مراعاة الأبعاد الاجتماعية، والثقافية والفكرية للمجتمعات.

من جهة أخرى تمثل الحوكمة أحد أهم مؤشرات نجاح التنمية البشرية التي هي أساس التنمية الاجتماعية، فقد قدمت العديد من الدراسات التي كشفت عن ارتباط إيجابي قوي بين تطبيق معايير الحوكمة ومؤشر التنمية البشرية المنشود، حيث أكدت دراسة أحمد وسليم (Ahmad & Saleem,2014)، ودراسة ساميمي وجهادي (Samimi & Jahadi,2010) على وجود ارتباط بين عدد من معايير الحوكمة المتعلقة بفاعلية الحكومة، ومكافحة الفساد، والإطار التنظيمي من جهة، وبين التنمية البشرية من جه أخرى، وهي ذات النتيجة التي أكدتها دراسة سن(Sen,2014). كل ذلك يؤكد على أن البعد الاجتماعي يعد الأساس في قياس مستوى التنمية من بين أبعاد التنمية المستدامة الثلاث: الاجتماعي والبيئي والاقتصادي، وذلك من خلال التركيز على زيادة كميّة الإنتاج، عبر ضمان زيادة الطاقات من جيل إلى آخر، والأهم تحقيق حاجات الإنسان الأوليّة. أما البعد البيئي فيتمّثل في أن استمرار سلوك الإنسان سيؤدّي إلى تغييرات تنعكس على الجنس البشري، وتهدّد استمراريته (أبو جودة، 2011).

وانطلاقا من هذا الواقع الذي يكشف عن العديد من جوانب القصور في مجالات التعليم والصحة وفرص العمل والمشاركة الديمقراطية وحقوق الإنسان والرأي ... في المجتمعات العربية (تقارير التنمية البشرية ، 2016، 2015، 2011)، واستنادا إلى ما أثبتته هذه الدراسة وغيرها من الدراسات من أهمية كبيرة للتعليم ومؤسساته في تحقيق التنمية،

وعطفا على الدور الهام الذي يمكن أن يلعبه نظام حوكمة الجامعات في هذا الشأن، فإنه يمكن الحديث عن الأدوار الإيجابية المتوقعة لتأثير نظام حوكمة الجامعات ودورها في تحقيق التنمية الاجتماعية في الوطن العربي،من خلال إبراز علاقة حوكمة الجامعات بأبعادها المختلفة بالتنمية الاجتماعية على النحو التالي:

- تستند حوكمة الجامعات على المشاركة الفاعلة لجميع الأطراف داخل هذه المؤسسات أو خارجها، وهذا بدوره يتيح الفرصة لتلمس حاجات الأفراد من جهة، ومعرفة الاحتياجات المرتبطة بسوق العمل من جهة أخرى، ومن ثم بناء البرامج الأكاديمية بالشكل الذي يتوافق مع هذه الحاجات والاحتياجات معا، ويعمل على تلبيتها. كما يقود التزام الجامعات بمبدأ المشاركة لخلق مجتمع يعي أهمية هذه المشاركة في مختلف المجالات الاجتماعية والسياسية والاقتصادية. يضاف لذلك أن المشاركة كعامل فاعل ومبدأ هام من مبادئ الحوكمة يمكن أن يقود الجامعة للبحث عن حلول للمشكلات التي تواجه المجتمع بصورة أكثر عمقا وفهما، ويقدم حلولا أكثر واقعية وقبولا.
- تقوم الحوكمة على إطار عام يتضمن أهدافا واضحة ومدروسة تتوافق مع متطلبات المرحلة، وحاجات المجتمع، وسوق العمل، بالشكل الذي يحقق التنمية المستدامة المنشودة بأعلى درجة ممكنة من النجاح.
- تساعد الحوكمة على بناء أساس جيد لطبيعة العلاقة بين كل الأطراف (إدارة، وطلبة، وأعضاء هيئة تدريس، ومؤسسات مجتمع) قائمة على وضوح حقوق وواجبات كل طرف، مما يسمح باستثمار الإمكانات المتاحة، ويرفع كفاءة الأداء، وجودة المنتج (علي،2012).
- تؤكد الحوكمة على استقلالية الجامعات؛ الأمر الذي سيدعم التنافس بين تلك الجامعات للارتقاء بخدماتها المقدمة للمجتمع، من خلال تطوير هذه الخدمات وتميزها.
- الحوكمة تؤدي إلى ضرورة استجابة الجامعة الفاعلة لحاجات التعليم والتدريب المتغيرة والمتطورة، من خلال تأكيد الحوكمة على الفاعلية التنظيمية وتحديد المسؤوليات وجودة الأداء. وهو مطلب من مطالب التنمية الاجتماعية المستدامة.
- تعمل إجراءات حوكمة الجامعات على تحسين أداء إدارة الجامعة من خلال مساعدة المجالس والإدارة في وضع استراتيجيات سليمة وموجهه ومدروسة بعناية، وبناء مؤشرات أداء يمكن قياسها، والتأكد من سلامتها، وقدرتها على الاستجابة لمتطلبات التنمية.
- تتطلب الحوكمة تخطيط استراتيجي متميز يستطيع استشراف المستقبل ويوازن بين حاجات المجتمع وإمكاناته.
- تشتمل الحوكمة على معايير الكفاءة والفاعلية التنظيمية والقانونية التي تحافظ على حرية الأفراد، وتحفظ حقوقهم، وتسمح بمشاركتهم في صنع القرارات التي تؤثر في حياتهم.
- مع تعقد المعرفة وتزايد حجم المنافسة، والتغير السريع والمستمر في كافة المجالات؛ تعمل حوكمة الجامعات على تشجيع التعاون بينها وبين مؤسسات المجتمع المختلفة، من خلال استفادة تلك المؤسسات من الخبرات الأكاديمية المتخصصة بالجامعات (عبد الفتاح، 2010).
- تؤسس الحوكمة لترسيخ قيم الالتزام لدى المجتمع، وتؤكد على مبدأ العدالة الذي يتيح الفرصة للجميع، وهوركن أساس في التنمية الاجتماعية.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على فاعلية النظام التعليمي من خلال جودة المخرجات ونوعيتها، والمتمثلة بالخريجين، مما يتيح لهم الحصول على فرص عمل مناسبة تحسن من مستوياتهم المعيشية.
- تؤثر حوكمة الجامعات على دخول الأفراد المادية، ومستوياتهم المعيشية بما تضمنه من تأهيل وتوافق مع احتياجات سوق العمل، الأمر الذي ينعكس على التنمية الاجتماعية ويطورها.

- ترسخ الحوكمة لمبدأ المساءلة والمحاسبة، الذي ينعكس بدوره على ترشيد القرارات، ودراستها ومشاركتها مع جميع الأطراف، والقضاء على المركزية، والبيروقراطية التي تعيق خطط التنمية وتقوضها.

5.4. دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية

تمثل التنمية الاقتصادية مجموعة السياسات التي يتخذها مجتمع معين، وتؤدي إلى زيادة معدلات النمو الاقتصادي استنادا إلى قواه الذاتية، مع ضمان تواصل هذا النمو وتوازنه لتلبية حاجات أفراده، وتحقيق أكبر قدر ممكن من العدالة الاجتماعية (بوزيد،2013).

ولقد زاد الاهتمام بمفهوم الحوكمة لتحقيق التنمية في معظم الاقتصاديات المتقدمة والناشئة خلال العقود الماضية، وخاصة بعد الأزمات الاقتصادية والمالية التي شهدها العالم، والتي برزت نتيجة للفساد المالي والإداري ، وضعف عمليات المساءلة والرقابة والمتابعة، الأمر الذي قاد العديد من الخبراء والاقتصاديين إلى دراسة الحوكمة في قطاع الشركات، وتأثيرها على الجوانب الاقتصادية والاجتماعية، وتحقيق التنمية الشاملة في كل من الدول الناشئة والدول المتقدمة على حد سواء ، والتي امتدت بعد ذلك إلى مؤسسات المجتمع المدني كله ومن ضمنها الجامعات. وإذا كانت مؤسسات القطاع الخاص والشركات تتحمل جزءا هاما من عملية التنمية الاقتصادية، فإن أهمية قطاعات الدولة الأخرى، والتي من أبرزها مؤسسات التعليم العام والعالي لا تقل أهمية عنها.

وقد برزت الحوكمة كنظام فاعل ومهم في تحقيق تقدم حقيقي في التنمية الاقتصادية، وأصبح ينظر إليها كجزء رئيسي من عملية التنمية خصوصا في الدول النامية التي تفتقد لتطبيق المعايير التي تنادي بها الحوكمة كالمساءلة والشفافية والرقابة والمشاركة، وفي هذا الصدد يؤكد براون (Brown,2002) على أن الحوكمة تمثل الحلقة المفقودة للنمو والإصلاح الاقتصادي الناجح في الدول النامية.

وفي الوقت الذي يؤكد فيه قسم التطوير الدولي بلندن (Department for International 2007 Development,) على أن الحوكمة أساس في رفع قدرة وكفاءة الدولة، وجعلها أكثر فاعلية، فإن هناك اتفاق في المنظمات الدولية والدول المتقدمة على أهمية الحوكمة الجيدة، واعتبارها شرطا أساسيا لتحقيق التنمية المستدامة وخفض الفقر (Speth,2005).

وإذا كان التوجه العالمي الحالي هو تبني نظام الحوكمة لكل مؤسسات الدولة الخاصة والعامة، فإن من شأن التطبيق والممارسة السليمة لحوكمة الجامعات أن يؤدي إلى الكفاءة في استخدام الموارد، وتعزيز القدرة التنافسية، والمساهمة في تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية.

ومع أن هناك تشابك وتداخل كبير بين التنمية الاجتماعية والاقتصادية، فكل منها تقود إلى الأخرى، إلا أننا يمكن أن نقدم مجموعة من المؤشرات التي تبين دور الجامعات في تحقيق التنمية الاقتصادية على النحو التالي:

- تؤكد الحوكمة على مبدأ المشاركة الذي يفتح الباب لتحقيق استفادة الجامعة من التعاون مع المؤسسات الصناعية والتجارية والخدمية، ورسم خطط التعاون مع هذه المؤسسات لتوفير فرص للبحث، والمنح البحثية للطلاب، والقيام بتمويلها وتسويقها.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على استقلالية الجامعة المالية والإدارية، وتدعو إلى خلق مصادر مالية ذاتية لها، وهذا بدوره يقود إلى أن تكون الجامعة منتجة لتحقيق هذه الموارد الإضافية والتمويل الذاتي، من خلال عدد من الوسائل كالتعليم المستمر، والاستشارات، والبحوث التعاقدية، والتدريب، ومن ثم تشكل داعما للتنمية الاقتصادية في المجتمع.
- المشاركة والاستقلالية من مبادئ الحوكمة التي تعد وسيلة هامة لتحقيق الإبداع البحثي، واستثمار مخرجات البحوث، من خلال الاعتماد على الذات، والشراكة بين القطاع الخاص والصناعة والحكومة والجامعة.
- تفعيلا لمشاركة والمساءلة والرقابة كمبادئ حوكمة يقود إلى زيادة الإنجازات التقنية والمعلوماتية داخل الجامعة.

- الحوكمة عملية إدارية فاعلة تقود إلى الربط الجيد بين التنمية والمنجزات العلمية والتقنية الحديثة، والذي ينتج عنه تأثير أكبر لمخرجات البحث العلمي وانعكاساته على التنمية.
- تؤثر الحوكمة من خلال صورة اتخاذ القرار الذي يتم عبر المشاركة، ويمر عبر قنوات متعددة، على النشاطات الاقتصادية داخل وخارج الجامعة.
- تعمل حوكمة الجامعات من خلال مبدأ الشفافية والإفصاح على جذب المزيد من مصادر الأموال المحلية والعالمية، مما يعزز مكانتها، ويدعم قدرتها على تبني المشروعات البحثية التي تحتاج إلى دعم مالي وتنعكس بدورها على التنمية الاقتصادية في البلد.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على السيطرة على الفساد، وهذا يقود الجامعات على الاستثمار الأمثل لمواردها وطاقاتها في مصلحة العملية التعليمية والأهداف المرسومة لها، ويدعم برامج التنمية المستدامة.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على بناء أجهزة رقابية تستطيع استثمار موازنات التعليم بأقصى درجة من الحكمة، وأقل نسبة من الهدر، وتوظف هذه الموارد التوظيف الأمثل الذي يحقق أهدافها.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على تفعيل موارد الجامعة الذاتية وتحويلها من مؤسسات استهلاكية إلى مؤسسات إنتاج، تتبنى انتاج المعرفة والاكتشاف، وتوظفها لزيادة النمو والدخل، وتقلل من الانفاق المتزايد على التعليم من قبل الدولة، والذي ينعكس سلبا على الاقتصاد العام.
- تستند الحوكمة على مبادئ الشفافية والمساءلة والرقابة المؤسسية، والتي بدورها تمثل أساسا للتنافسية بين الجامعات على المستوى المحلي والعالمي، مما يفتح المجال للإبداع العلمي والبحثي.
- تنادي الحوكمة بتوفير البيانات، وإتاحتها للمهتمين بشكل شفاف وواضح، الأمر الذي يساعد الجامعات على اتخاذ قرارات رشيدة تتوافق مع متطلبات التنمية الاقتصادية.
- تؤكد الحوكمة على الفاعلية التنظيمية واللامركزية في صنع القرارات الأمر الذي يتيح المجال للجامعات للمنافسة في تحقيق التميز.

6.4. مقترحات تفعيل دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي

من خلال ما تم عرضه من بيان لدور حوكمة التعليم العالي المتمثل بالجامعات في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في المجال الاجتماعي والاقتصادي تحديدا، والانعكاسات الإيجابية التي يمكن أن تنتج عن تبني هذا النظام في مؤسسات التعليم العالي في الوطن العربي على برامج التنمية، وانطلاقا من الدور الكبير والفاعل للتعليم ومؤسساته في العلمية التنموية؛ يمكن تقديم مجموعة من المقترحات التي تساعد على تفعيل دور حوكمة التعليم العالي في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في الوطن العربي، والتي يمكن استعراضها على النحو التالي:

- تنمية وعي وإدراك القائمين على الجامعات ومؤسسات التعليم العالي بالوطن العربي بأهمية الحوكمة ودرها الفاعل في الضبط والرقابة والمتابعة، من خلال العمل المشترك واللقاءات والمؤتمرات.
- اعتماد رؤية واضحة واستراتيجيات تعليمية تتبنى حوكمة الجامعات في الوطن العربي، وتراعي الواقع الاجتماعي والثقافي للمجتمعات العربية.
- سن وتطوير التشريعات والأنظمة والقوانين التي ترتقي بأداء الجامعات في الوطن العربي، وتسهل لها تطبيق مبادئ الحوكمة المرتبطة بالمشاركة والمساءلة والشفافية والرقابة الفاعلة.
- توفير البيئة المناسبة لتطبيق مبادئ الحوكمة بما فيها من أطر عامة، وقوانين، والعمل على خلق أرضية سياسية مناسبة تستطيع تقبل مبادئ الحوكمة القائمة على الديمقراطية، والحرية، والمشاركة، واللامركزية وتؤمن بها.

- تفعيل التعاون المشترك والتبادل المعلوماتي والتقني بين الدول العربية فيما يخدم الجامعات، ويرتقي بأدائها ومخرجاتها.
- الاستفادة من الخبرات والتجارب العالمية في تطبيق مبادئ الحوكمة في الجامعات، مع مراعاة الهوية الثقافية والاجتماعية للمجتمع العربي.
- زيادة الوعي بأهمية نظام الحوكمة، ونشر ثقافة الحوكمة على أكبر نطاق لدى شرائح المجتمع، وبكل مستوياته.

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