MaRIHE
Erasmus Mundus
Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education

Attila Pausits (ed.)

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

2

Edition Donau-Universität Krems

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Published : 2014-10-07

Attila Pausits

Human Resource Management in Higher Education

2014

Edition Donau-Universität Krems

2014

INTRODUCTION TO HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Attila Pausits

In recent years, university policy in Europe has been characterised by increasing reliance on the differentiation of the university system as a modernisation factor, by the catalytic forces of the Bologna Process toward shifts in thinking and acting within higher education institutions (HEI). Meanwhile, these institutions are being granted more autonomy and their behaviour in the resulting competitive situation (Hödl, E.; Zegelin, W., 1999) is expected to become more customer-oriented (Hansen, U., 1999; Nullmeier, F., 2000; Pausits, A., 2006), more cost-aware, and more sensitive towards the needs of society.

The approach adopted by public authorities with regard to universities has essentially transformed, and the shift towards enlarged 'managerialism' (Enders, J. et al., 2005, Pellert A., 1999) has been seriously influenced by ideas of 'academic capitalism' (Slaughter and Leslie, 1997) and 'entrepreneurial universities' (Clark, B. R., 1998).

Enders *et al*. developed three different scenarios for the future of higher education in Europe (Enders, J. *et al*., 2005). The characteristics of Centralia – the first model – would include a state-oriented organisation, European integration, synchronisation and big organisations. The second model – Octavia – would harness institutional and economic developments on the way toward a network economy and focus on control by the academic community as its crucial identity. Thirdly, in contrast to Centralia, attention is focused on a market orientation, small organisations and high freedom for decision-making or integration to describe what Enders *et al*. called 'Vitis Vinifera'. Without predicting which "world" will become reality, it is clear that the wind of change has already arrived at the European higher education landscape.

File *et al*. point out that European HEIs will act in a setting far less secure than that of only a few decades ago. They will benefit from new self-government, which deals with crucial issues such as student selection, influencing tuition fee levels, setting employees' income policies and deciding autonomously which programmes to offer. These will be new aspects of the universities' interior "management existence". Modes of competition for students, staff and contracts will increase significantly. More liberal regulations lead to greater financial independence, further chances and higher risks (File, J. *et al*., 2005). Academic administration and management have become increasingly complex: the institutions have so far become larger and more multifaceted, the tasks have multiplied (modern "multiversities") and therefore the need to provide skilled management and administration has increased (Kerr, C., 2001). More management tasks have to be fulfilled at the institutional level than before. Professional HRM is an important prerequisite to enable the HEI to perceive itself as an autonomous organisation (Bleiklie, I., 2005) instead of being subordinate to central government.

Specific services of HRM have been established and developed during the last decade. Universities as knowledge-based organisation have a strong focus on the quality of their academic staff as they are responsible for teaching and research. Another important prerequisite to a successful university are their services, which highly depend on the quality of the administration and management.

The quality of management and academia will depend on the quality of HRM and functions. Interestingly state of the art literature on HRM is rather rare. Only a few publications deal with this management field in Europe. The following publication is a first set of papers, which cover concepts and functions of HRM at universities. One could argue that there are no differences in function and services of a HRM department in a company and university. Following publication identifies those important elements, which make the work at universities different but also describe issues which are common.

Background information of the creation of the HRM e-book

This e-book is a selected collection of student papers on the course 'Human Resource Management in Higher Education' in MARIHE program. The course 'Human Resource Management in Higher Education', led by Attila Pausits with contributions from Hans Pechar and others, aims to enable students to: 1) understand the theoretical foundations and the strategic role and practical instruments of HRM in HEIs 2) to assess the strategic role of HRM in HEI and 3) to implement some of the most crucial instruments of HR management in their specific institutional context. Through guiding students' self-learning and group-work, lectures and workshops, the course introduces the HR context in HEI – extent of institutional autonomy for HR decisions in HEI in labour market conditions, discusses the current challenges of HR management in Europe and the dimensions of HR, analyses the instruments and methods of strategic HR management, manpower planning, staffing and workload targets, staff recruitment, staff development and appraisal of performance, provides an introduction into the structures, roles and responsibilities for HR management and also into the contracts, remuneration and incentives generally used in this field. (MARIHE; 2014)

Introduction of MARIHE program

In Europe as well as in other regions of the world fundamental transition processes are taking place in the systems of research, innovation and higher education: from regulation to deregulation and competition, from steering to market, from administration to management. Higher education and research institutions need highly trained experts who are able to analyse these new contexts and who have management and leadership skills to deal with the changes. The Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education (MARIHE) is an Erasmus Mundus Masters Course offered by a consortium of Danube University Krems (Austria), University of Tampere (Finland), Beijing Normal University (China) and University of Applied Sciences Osnabrück (Germany).

MARIHE provides students a unique opportunity to develop a sound understanding of higher education systems and university development around the world. Students have the opportunity to study in at least three different universities and countries. During an internship provided by international enterprises and organisations they get insight into fields of practice.

As an Erasmus Mundus Masters Course, MARIHE is supported by the Erasmus Mundus Programme of the European Commission. By these standards, it is one of the leading master programmes in Europe. MARIHE addresses university graduates that want to pursue a career in the higher education and research sector as managers, administrators, consultants, policy analysts, researchers and decision makers. Possible employers are higher education and research institutions, public bodies such as ministries for science and education, enterprises specializing in education, think tanks and non-governmental organizations. Graduates of MARIHE are able take the lead in the future management and development of research and innovation in higher education.

International and European reform agendas have recently focused on a number of measures that are argued to lead to the modernisation of higher education as a sector and turn the HEIs into strategic organisational actors to develop countries and societies. The programme supports the development with respect to the professionalisation of institutional leadership and management functions accompanied by an emerging training and support structure for institutional managers and leaders. MARIHE is a cooperation and mobility programme in the field of higher education that aims to enhance the quality of European higher education and to promote dialogue and understanding between people and cultures through cooperation with Third-Countries. In addition, it contributes to the development of human resources and the international cooperation capacity of HEIs in Third Countries by increasing mobility between the European Union and these countries.

The curriculum of MARIHE reflects on three perspectives on the change logics involved in the worldwide developments in higher education and in HEIs:

- the perspective on Systems in Transition, focusing on general developments and on globalization and regionalization (Europe, Africa, Americas, Asia) in higher education
- the perspective on System-Institution-Interaction (e.g. funding of research and innovation)
- the perspective on Institutional Change (e.g. "change management").

Furthermore, modules on Theoretical Background introduce fundamental issues of higher education management. Another emphasis is given to Transferable Skills (e.g. research methods, presentation skills, languages).

Structure of the e-book

The selected course papers included in this e-book provide important perspectives of HRM concepts and functions in HEIs. The discussion of diverse experiences, contexts provide insights from various corners of the world. The e-book hence is structured in the following manner. The first six chapters focus on specific HRM concepts and theoretical questions, while the following four chapters allow the readers to gain a deeper insight into the functions of Human Resources Management in Higher Educational Institutes.

In the first paper of the e-book authors Paul Green and Aytaj Pashayeva start out by introducing the concept of expert organizations and then provide a convincing argument on why universities can be considered expert/professional organisations. This is followed by an assessment of implicatons and by a summary of different approaches to improve HRM in expert organisations.

In the second chapter Vesna Holubek and Patrik Punčo propose that HEIs can be viewed as learning organisations as they are also subject to constant change. The first part of their paper introduces the concept of learning organisations using the conceptual framework established by Senge (1994), while also shares some critical responses to the concept. In the second part, the authors discuss the special features of universities – pointing out some distinctions when compared to for-profit organizations – and the challenges these institutions were forced to face in the past few decades. The paper conclusion draws attention to the essential role that HRM can play in supporting the culture of learning.

Authors Pei Min and Long Tran Dinh Thanh further elaborate on this important role in the next chapter by providing a detailed list of the instruments and practices used by HRM, paying special attention to performance management and workforce planning.

Next, Michail Balyasin and Haftu Hindeya Gebremerkel shows us how HRM interacts with different units of the universities and suggest ways to enhance HRM interaction. The authors have selected two universities – the Bahir Dar University in Ethiopia and the Siberian Federal University in Russia – to provide specific examples of HRM practice. Drawing on their experiences they formulate a rather negative conclusion about the lack of strategic HRM decisions and suggest a shift in mentality among university leaders.

In the following paper Layla Jorge Teixeira Cesar and Rebecca Maxwell Stuart argue that a balance is required between the multiple roles of academics in order to overcome the current crisis in HE experienced in the Western European countries. By shedding light on the underlying reasons of this crisis, the politics of academia, and the pressure placed on academic professionals either to research or deliver lectures, the authors provide an insight into the question why research is considered to play a more important role at an institutional level. They then go on to give us specific tools and mechanisms – for example teaching awards, better training opportunities etc. – to help to change this perception.

Katsia Mikalayeva, Nguyen Thanh Tung and Inga Zalyevska in the next chapter tackle the sensitive question of the identity struggle of new HE professionals, and the „unnecessary but real polarity between academics and non-academics“. The authors carefully examined and analyzed more than two-hundred UK and US job advertisements in order to clarify whether higher education profession can be considered as a distinctive career.

The second part of the book starts out with a chapter by Natalie Nestorowicz and Joo-Hyun Park, who present the strategies, directions and challenges of Human Resource Development in a HE setting.

Simona Calugareanu and Elif Çelik then analyse the issues related to tenure and tenure-track, providing a historical background and also pinpointing the challenges and opportunities of the system.

In the next paper Qi Sun and Meijia Lu apply the study results from Project MODERN (an EU-funded Structural Network under the Lifelong Learning programme ERASMUS) to analyze the current human resource training in China, pointing to the fact that these days „the higher education system is under the significant transition from academic heartland to modern marketization, which requires the working staffs from top leaders to managers with more competences in HEIs.“

In the last segment of the book Milos Milutinovic and Raihan Mahmood Kadery shift the focus to staff recruitment and evaluate the practice of recruitment policy at the University of Glasgow, UK and the University of Novi Sad, Serbia by providing detailed steps of the process. Their analysis and comparison show two highly distinct practices.

Literature

Bleiklie, I., Politics, Markets, Networks and European Higher Education, In: Enders, J. et al., (eds.) *The European Higher Education and Research Landscape 2020: Scenarios and Strategic Debates* Enschede, Center for Higher Education and Policy Studies (CHEPS) 2005: S. 161-169.

Clark, B. R., *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organisational Pathways to Transformation*. IAU Press/Pergamon, Oxford, New York, Tokyo 1998

Enders, J., File, J., Huisman,J., Westerheiden, D. F., *The European Higher Education and Research Landscape 2020: Scenarios and Strategic Debates*. Center for Higher Education and Policy Studies (CHEPS), Enschede 2005

File,J., Beerkens, E., Leišyte, L., Salerno, C., Vitis Vinifera, the City of traders and Micro-Climates, In: Enders,J. et al., (eds.) *The European Higher Education and Research Landscape 2020: Scenarios and Strategic Debates* Enschede, Center for Higher Education and Policy Studies (CHEPS) 2005: S. 85-94.

Hanft, A.; (eds.), *Hochschulen managen? - Zur Reformierbarkeit der Hochschulen nach Managementprinzipien*. Luchterhand, Neuwied 2000

Hansen, U., Die Universität als Dienstleister: Thesen für ein leistungsfähigeres Management von Hochschulen, In: Stauss, B., Balderjahn, I., Wimmer, F. (eds.) *Dienstleistungsorientierung in der universitären Ausbildung: Mehr Qualität im betriebswirtschaftlichen Studium*, Schäffer-Poeschel Verlag, Stuttgart 1999: S. 369-385.

Hödl, E., Zegelin, W., *Hochschulreform und Hochschulmanagement*. Metropolis Verlag, Marburg 1999

Kerr, C., *The Uses of the University*, 5 edition. Harvard University Press, Cambridge 2001

Nullmeier, F., Moderne Organisationsmodelle und die Zukunft der Hochschulen, In: Hanft, A., (Hrsg.) *Hochschulen managen?* Luchterhand, Neuwied 2000: S. 99-119.

Pausits, A., Student Relationship Management. Universität Flensburg, Flensburg 2006 www.zhb-flensburg.de/dissert/pausits/pausits_srm.pdf (28.09.2007)

Pellert, A., *Die Universität als Organisation: die Kunst, Experten zu managen*. Böhlau Verlag, Wien 1999

Slaughter, S., Leslie, L.L, Academic Capitalism: *Politics, Policies, and the Enterpreneurial University.* Johns Hopkins University Press, 1997

CONCEPTS

1. THE CONCEPT OF THE EXPERT ORGANISATION
2. HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AS LEARNING ORGANISATIONS
3. THE ROLE AND INSTRUMENTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
4. INTERACTION BETWEEN GENERAL MANAGEMENT, HUMAN RESOURCE DEPARTMENT AND OTHER ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS
5. THE DIVISION BETWEEN RESEARCH & TEACHING IN WESTERN EUROPE ACADEMIA ACADEMIC PROFESSION: REQUIREMENTS & CHANGES
6. HIGHER EDUCATION PROFESSIONALS: JOB REQUIREMENTS AND TRAINING OPTIONS

1. THE CONCEPT OF THE EXPERT ORGANISATION

Paul Green and Aytaj Pashayeva

Due to rapid change in the Higher Education market over the past two decades Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) have had to adapt and evolve in order to be effective and efficient. This is not only focusing on teaching and research, but also their resources such as knowledge and skills in more innovative ways. The responsibility of which would naturally lie with the human resources (HR) department in order to provide an environment for knowledge creation and utilisation. Knowledge is a major resource in the world, which stems from the relatively recent development of the knowledge economy; where knowledge is an asset, carrying opportunities for creation, development and management on one hand and a tool for leading the trend among others on the other hand. The challenges for HEIs is to determine what is the best way to adapt to the changing conditions and to maximise its own potential as a Higher Education Institute; one potential solution is the Concept of an Expert Organisation.

Expert organisations, also known as professional organisations can range from a single self- employed person to global corporations, multilateral companies, research and development organisations, think tanks as well as higher education institutions. The major reasoning behind such an approach is that the provision of knowledge can bring advantages over other traditional firm theories. This means it is becoming a more prominent feature of not just the private business environment but also in other sectors such as higher education. Success of knowledge-intensive organisations relies strongly on the efforts of knowledge workers who have high degrees of expertise, education or experience and the primary purpose of their jobs involves the creation, distribution or application of knowledge (Davenport, 2008). Knowledge workers in this context are the assumed role of experts or professionals in HEIs.

This paper views Higher Education Institutions as knowledge-based professional/expert organisations that build their major educational and research activities based on expertise of professionals. This paper will cover 4 key areas when considering the concept, firstly the paper will attempt to define the concept of expert organisation. This will be followed by a view on why universities can be considered expert/professional organisations and any implications of such an approach. There has been much debate on the most appropriate ways to govern and manage HEIs and this paper will assess the reasons why universities would take such an approach over other traditional approaches. The paper will conclude with a summary of various options for implications by different authors to improve human resource management in expert organisations.

The Concept

A professional or expert organisation is one which is not limited to higher education but an organisation in which 'professionals play the central role'; a central role which specifically and directly influences the primary organisational objectives (Scott pg.65, 1965). An example of this in other sectors would be hospitals employing doctors or a firm of lawyers hiring lawyers. These employees are intrinsic to the primary organisational objectives. This can also be said of HEIs, although there may be debate on whether they are classed as organisations or not, there is no denying that hiring professors and lecturers are directly related to HEIs primary objectives. Expertise can be understood more as responsibility over certain tasks and autonomy over one's work (Scott, 1965). Thus, it is believed that experts do not always need to report to somebody. This kind of an approach is more results oriented, which means the focus is on not how a job is being done but rather what results a person/department/institution are getting. This is similar to a professor's job, with respect to research activities which are often decided by the individual not the institution. Compare this to administrative staff in HEIs, who would not be classed as experts; they need to report to seniority regularly and operate in a much more top down hierarchy.

Scott (1965) goes further by explaining that organisations can either be autonomous or heteronomous, however continues to explain that expert organisation are typically autonomous, largely because experts as seen above have more autonomy over their own work. This means that the degree of autonomy can be defined by the degree of autonomy the experts in the organisations are afforded. Taking this notion and specifically applying it to higher education, there are counter arguments as to how the autonomy of a HEI should be defined. Although autonomy of HEIs can be defined based on the internal factors (academic self governance) or external factors (government influence, stakeholder impact), throughout this paper we will approach HEIs as autonomous organisations from the internal management perspective, where duties and tasks are delegated to organisational members. The definition of autonomy in terms of an expert organisation states that an organisation is autonomous if;

"..organizational officials delegate to the group of professional employees considerable responsibility for defining and implementing the goals, for setting performance standards, and for seeing to it that standards are maintained".

Scott pg.66, 1965

According to the author, autonomous organisations usually allow skilled experts to carry out tasks independently and little external surveillance is needed. Nevertheless, autonomy in higher education is a much debated subject, one which is a priority for members of the European Commision for Education. Scott (1965) does explain that universities do fall under the notion of a professional organisation as they hire experts and they are (potentially) autonomous. Not all staff in a university are afforded autonomy but this is accounted for as the aforementioned criteria for autonomy does not discount any type of supervision and also has an appreciation for institutional regulations.

One of the most important elements to understand when looking at the concept of the expert organisations is the place loyalty has in the environment. Wallace (1995) said that experts, within an expert organisation are loyal to their profession and not necessarily their workplace. This is considered more relevant in bureaucratic organisations. This is because experts have a set of strong professional ideals and stronger commitment to their field (Clark, 1983), which may clash with the organisational view. Wallace has highlighted a gap, or an issue which when considered in a HEI environment would need to be addressed by the Human Resources Department. The question is how can this be achieved? Wallace (1995) continues by expanding on Scott's (1965) work, whereby if the expert organisation hires a majority of experts/professionals the goals of the organisation will be largely consistent with the professionals it employs.

What makes HEIs expert/professional organisations?

Work from Scott (1965) infers that HEIs are indeed expert or professional organisations. Seivby (1997), continues on this theme agreeing that along with some intangible assets, people in an organisation are the most valuable. The majority of employees in a higher education institute are considered experts who represent different professional networks and societies which means that their importance supports the concept of an expert organisation. According to Aarrevaara (2005), HEIs are expert organisations, this is because they include many experts and specialists in various fields with a wide network and a specialisation. He also suggested different approaches to experts as a part of human resources management. Aarrevaara also states that HEIs aim to function as professional expert organisations as universities become more autonomous and less dependent on public funding.

The autonomy which is described not only refers to institutional autonomy but also inter-department autonomy. This is because the role of the university is changing and expanding, other services they now provide are research, consulting, conferences, networks and collaborations. This can be characterised by the rising importance of the 'Third Mission', which is the renewed focus on university-based capabilities and activities that can contribute to social and economic development (Gassler et al. 2001). Although this has been directly and indirectly occurring since the inception of higher education, it is now encouraged to become core to institutions when striving the first two missions - teach and research. This means that experts in each area of activity would provide a natural source of self responsibility and subsequent autonomy. All experts in each department are still required to meet quality standards set by the HEIs, which means that overall there is a quality gain relative to other institutions. By viewing a professional organisation's hierarchy and its autonomy structure it can therefore be compared with a HEI. Wallace (1995) analysed a professional organisation in this way and found that professionals/experts do often work in departments which are separate from the traditional hierarchical structure. Just in the same vein as in universities, such professionals must adhere to general business regulation and procedures but do have a firm hold of autonomy in terms of tasks. In practice the HEI experts are not completely autonomous because they are not only salaried but also are dependant on institution's resources/funding to conduct their activities. The resources are a necessary means in order to serve the goals of the institute. However through discretion they are able to leverage control over 'the performance of their professional work tasks' (Wallace, pg. 230, 1995).

Another indicator of the concept of the expert organisation appearing in HEIs can be seen not just at an academic level, but also in the number of expert board members, as this is seen to be increasing (Aarrevaara, 2005). An area of interest with reference to this paper is how HEIs are managed practically speaking. One prominent trend in HEIs noted by Sveiby (1997) is the rise to prominence of the expert managers in human resources departments. It can be said this highlights the importance of the role of HR in the modern day HEI.

The worlds organisations are relied upon in all aspects of life, irrespective of their status, whether it be public, private, profit or non-profit. All organisations are based upon knowledge, however not all organisations focus their efforts on that particular resource. The Expert Organisation, is one which has specialised knowledge in a particular field or fields, this is not exclusive knowledge, but requires superior knowledge of staff who are highly qualified (Tav'car, 2005). These type of organisations can be characterised as 'People Organisations' because of their focus on knowledge of their employees (Tav'car, 2005). Expert Organisations utilise this knowledge within their primary business area usually the area which organisation operated for a long time. For example, a University with a reputable business school is an expert organisation, because of its specialised knowledge in the area of business. This of course can be extrapolated to many other aspects of an institution.

Challenges of HEIs as an Expert Organisation

The Expert Organisation is complex and faces great pressures with regards to knowledge management; experts in HEIs as shown above are often loyal to the profession and not to the organisation. This complexity poses many challenges to the organisations. In order to manage experts and knowledge they firstly must be understood. The complexity and nature of understanding knowledge within an organisation can be linked to reduced flexibility. This can be for a number of reasons, namely because an organisation with a large number of experts who, as mentioned previously largely work autonomously, would not be able to be directed into new areas easily or respond to new challenges effectively. Experts would be more inclined to follow their own interests or desires, such a one dimensional approach may also create a tunnel vision effect, not allowing for fresh perspective. The effects of this can therefore increase the complexity within an expert organisation. The challenge facing Expert Organisations is to be able to provide a balance between maintaining flexibility whilst taking advantage of the their position as an expert organisation, or knowledge based institution.

It has been shown that for the most desired results from knowledge management. A holistic approach may be more suitable (Tav'Car, 2005), organisations in the late 1990's often approach knowledge management from a project based angle. This then limited the organisational knowledge to a specific area or group. Organisations looking to take a knowledge based view are tasked with embedding the strategy throughout the whole organisation otherwise they will increase complexity without an increase in competitive advantage.

As knowledge based organisations are established upon the expertise and skills of their workers, knowledge work performance and its management remains a key challenge. Major issues related to performance management stem from a lack of fixed measurements, which in turn are generated from the intangible nature of service outputs, complexity of interaction between knowledge worker and customer, which in the case HEIs is interaction between professors and students. Jaaskelainen and Laihonen (2013) believe that in a knowledge based organisation there are at least two specific aspects that have to be taken into account in measurement and management of knowledge-intensive organisations: the performance and well-being of individual knowledge workers and the ability to provide value for the customer. The authors suggest merging individualism in performance management in creativity based organisations with knowledge based organisations and replacing it with a bottom up approach by having the workers set their own individual performance goals. This view is consistent with Scott (1965), whereby experts in higher education would have autonomy with regards to their own activities. This would naturally provide a more bottom up approach to a HEI's structure.

Knowledge-intensive organisations put much effort to make existing knowledge useful for their customers and improving customers' performance. Looking specifically at HEIs, they create and maintain knowledge, which is collated, controlled and produced by experts. This knowledge is then used by customers - students/other 3rd parties - whose performance can be dependent on such information. This does have consequences for the pricing of such service outputs and outcomes. Services by knowledge intensive organisations such as HEIs are usually priced based on the costs of the organisation rather than based on the value that customer defines which causes either too low or too high prices. Thus, it is very rare to see these organisations take into account the customer value whilst designing and pricing their services (Jaaskelainen and Laihonen, 2013).

Implications for Human Resources

According to Scott (1965), experts are less committed to their institutions and more related to their specialisation, discipline, network and societies, in the case of HEIs. For instance, in the research with professors in the US they were asked whether they would prefer to leave their discipline and stay in the institution or leave their institute but stay in the discipline. The majority of surveyed professors chose the second option; leave their institution and stay in the discipline (Clark, pg. 30, 1983). Therefore the implication for HR is the retainment of resources (professors) and therefore the retainment of knowledge/expertise. Aaveraara (2005) suggests that HR should focus on professional expertise development for expert staff (inc. professors). This would then increase loyalty and affiliation with the institution resulting in higher entrainment levels.

Clark also adds that most of the professors are not willing to take up administrative or even managerial positions. Thus, HEIs are organisations whose major activities are built on experts' knowledge are in need of experts to manage the knowledge and experts. According to Sveiby (1997), experts have shown resistance to working under direct supervision, especially if their superior does not hold the same level of expertise. This infers that experts prefer to work with more autonomy and if it is necessary to have a superior then they would at least have the same level of expertise. The role of HR in this instance is that HR provides an additional level within the hierarchy, which is likely to have resistance from other experts. This means that higher education human resource experts are necessary in order to command the same respect as other experts within an organisation.

Another important aspect needed to be considered for the expert organisation is frequency and means of feedback. Scott (1965) explains that although experts prefer to work independently they appreciate timely feedback on their performance to assure that their efforts are responding to the goals of the organisation. The issue for HR is that feedback loops for experts are not viewed as important as for other staff because they see them as experts. According to the author, lack of collective feedback has pointed by experts in organisations as missing element in HR management. Scott (1965) also highlights the importance of motivation and incentives for experts; additional salary and additional tasks to break the routine are crucial in management of experts. These are elements which are not always realised by HR and can be a contributing factor for not realising an experts potential. Aaveraara (2005) discusses this topic further by stating that professionals and experts need a different approach in human resource management. According to the author, professionals and especially experts in higher education are less motivated by financial reward. Their primary motivations lie within organisational conditions and resources such as the working conditions, up-to-date equipments and facilities to perform their research and teaching activities.

While researching universities in the UK, Archer (2005) discovered that the biggest challenge for university staff management is to persuade managers at all levels to accept their role in human resource management. Many surveyed HR heads brought examples of managers who did not seek advice and neglected issues instead. Thus, department heads in universities are often unaware of expert management strategies and issues. This necessitates HR departments to work with department managers to manage experts indirectly by providing trainings for department heads and executive managers.

Moreover, such implications put more responsibility on the shoulders of institutional researchers, as they carry out a role of providing evidence for policy implementation by HR. Terenzini (1993) states that institutional researchers often support all departments of HEIs with analysis as a base for institutional change and improvement. Thus, this imposes necessity on HR departments to work closely with institutional researchers to address expert needs.

Conclusions

The concept of an Expert Organisation is one which has been shown to be an appropriate way in which to describe current Higher Education Institutes. The function of universities very much suits the model of other expert organisation such as the example of a lawyers firm. The paper has shown that the expert organisation is one which operates at its most efficient and effective when taking advantage of its specialised knowledge, the most effective way to identify knowledge is dependent on the experts within the Human Resources department of the given institution.

There are however potential challenges to such an approach, such as the retainment of experts, questions remain over the loyalty of experts and their affiliation with an organisation. By ignoring such an issue the consequences of such are likely to be an easy loss of experts, if there were to be any increase in competition. There are many challenges for HR and across all other management levels, the primary reason being that there is clearly animosity between university experts and superiors (if their level of expertise is different). Although there are other practical issues at the human resources level, these primary issues take precedent. The Concept of the Expert Organisation suits the nature of Higher Education, especially in the modern education environment.

The issues of complexity and the flexibility of the concept of the expert organisation pose problems for universities. The environment is changing, more rapidly that at any other time. This means HEIs need to react and pro-actively respond to these changes. With these potential limitations of the concept, this may hinder a HEI progress over another HEI. Although one thing that remains ambiguous is whether the Concept of the Expert Organisation is a choice or whether it's just a reality that affects certain organisations. Of course, the opposite view to this is that, awareness of the concept brings with it a certain amount of control, and future control over future strategies.

References

Aarrevaara, T. (2005). Managing Experts in Higher Education. Conference on Trends in Management of Human Resources in Higher Education. OECD, Paris, 25 and 26 August 2005

Archer W, (2005), Mission Critical? Modernising Human Resource Management in Higher Education, Higher Education Policy Institute

Clark, B.R. (1983). *The Higher Education System. Academic Organization in Cross- National Perspective*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Davenport, T.H. (2008), "Improving knowledge worker performance", in Pantaleo, D. and Pal, N.

(Ed.), From Strategy to Execution: Turning Accelerated Global Change into Opportunity,

Springer, Berlin and Heidelberg, pp. 215-235.

Davenport, T.H., DeLong, D.W. and Beers, M.C. (1998) 'Successful knowledge management

projects', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 39 No. 2, Winter, pp. 43-57.

Gassler, A. Polt, W., C. Rammer, H. Schibany, and D. Schartinger, 2001.

Benchmarking industry-science relations: the role of framework conditions. *Science and Public Policy* 28 (4):247-258.

Jaaskelainen, A. and Laihonen, H. (2013) Overcoming the specific performance measurement challenges of knowledge intensive organizations. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 62 (4) 350-363

Sveiby, K.E. (1997), T*he New Organizational Wealth. Managing & Measuring Knowledge-based Assets*, Berret-Koehler Publishers, Inc., San Francisco

Tavˇcar, M.I, (2005) A Conceptual Framework for the Creation of an Expert Organization Strategy (47-59) Intellectual Capital and Knowledge Management edited by Zvone Vodovnik, University of Primorska Faculty of Management, Koper

Terenzini, P. (1993). On the nature of institutional research and the knowledge and skills it requires. *Research in Higher Education*. 34, 1, 1-10.

Wallace, Jean E. (1995). Organizational and Professional Commitment in Professional and Nonprofessional Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly* . Jun95, Vol. 40 issue2, p228-255. 28p. 5 charts.

2. HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AS LEARNING ORGANISATIONS

Vesna Holubek and Patrik Punčo

Introduction

Human society can be considered a living organism that changes as time passes (Schön, 1973) and that has character of unpredictability (Iandoli and Zollo, 2008). The same is valid for organisations hence also for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). They are a subject to constantly changing environment where the whole system of factors is once dominated by some attributes and another time the context has changed. On the other hand, the HEIs are also part of the system and interact with their environment on national and international levels.

The HEIs that conceived this ever changing nature of life understand that their operation is a subject to constant change too. The change context in the Higher Education (HE) sector has definitely different dynamics than the industry; however the overriding assumption of changes is valid by default. They must acknowledge that they need to adapt to new conditions and possibly also create better conditions for their own and society's future. We call the process of adaptation and interaction in the system and what it requires in the paper organisational learning. Organisations that mastered this skill are called learning organisation.

The paper is divided into two parts. The first part will give a general introduction to learning organisation definition. The second part is dedicated to the potential of HEIs to become learning organisations.

The Concept of Learning Organisation

Organisations throughout the time of operation come across different obstacles and sometimes they fail. Whether they realise or not they learn using the organisational memory and experience that comes with practice. According to one of the most renowned authors on the topic of learning organisations, Senge, (1994, p. 20) “The most powerful learning comes from direct experience”. And often the best solution for a problem comes built within the obstacle that created the problem.

The concept of learning organisation is closely related to the concept of learning society developed by Schön (1973). It links the need to learn to the experience of environment that implies change. Stable state is an illusion that blinds the society, in reality there is only constant change that calls for constant transformation. This is valid not only for the society but for the organisations as well. Schön (1973) points out that we need to learn to understand, adapt, influence or even manage these transformations. This idea implies the establishment of the notion of learning systems that enable continuing transformation.

The definition of a learning organisation according to Senge (1994, p. 3), is as follows: Learning organisations are “organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together”.

In his definition above we can see two crucial points. First of all, the learning organisation is based on human factor; employees attributed specific capacity of being allowed expansive thinkingness which leads towards organisational learning. This means that, regardless the size of the organisation, the Human Resources (HR) attitude represents a crucial role in the success of creating organisational environment that is able to learn. And secondly, we need to acknowledge the fact that the organisation operates in a system where all the individual players and factors are interconnected and subject to change. This notion is the first step towards becoming a learning organisation.

Senge (1994) further in his work establishes the conceptual framework of the learning organisation theory by defining the five disciplines that represent the cornerstones of his arguments. The disciplines are as follows: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, team learning. In the next paragraph we will explain these terms.

Personal mastery refers to a significant level of proficiency in a specific domain. People who achieved personal mastery are capable to deliver consistent output and become interested in their own learning in long term. Personal mastery addresses looped personal vision profiling and seeking objectives. Senge (1994) objects here that few organisations encourage their employees to reach such a level of professional proficiency. Furthermore, the author suggests that personal learning and organisational learning are interlinked.

Mental models are the assumptions, generalisations and images of desired behaviour. The idea of using the mental models concept is to realise them, so they can be modified and changed towards a better performing model. It calls for an open attitude in conversations with employees dropping criticism of their exposed thinking, but rather taking it as the mirroring of the internal settings of the models that work in the organisation.

Building shared vision is a powerful performance tool. It’s a picture of the favourable future that is shared within the organisation. The vision needs to be well translated and operationalised in order to take effect. It needs to be mentioned nonverbally and verbally, often. Its effect might be supported by a charisma of the leader.

Team learning suggests thinking together. Teams are fundamental learning units in an organisation, not an individual.

Senge puts a special emphasis on the *system thinking* principle, which he calls the fifth discipline, because it is essential that all the disciplines evolve together as a whole, to be able “to see the trees and the forest”, a case when the synergy effect pays off more than applying the instruments separately. (Senge, 1994)

Senge´s argument for why learning organisation is an important concept is to gain and sustain competitive advantage by learning initiatives quicker than the competition. The work of Iandoli and Zollo (2008) discusses the value created by the learning. Learning organisation has a competency building potential that further produces strategic options, importantly, more than the organisation will be able to exploit. Learning organisations are also able to leverage the developed competencies by implementation and exploitation of the available tools and possibilities.

The problem with building competencies via learning within the organisation is that it is not possible to identify, control and develop the competencies by regulations and by directives. They usually emerge in the common workplace and the organisation learns to integrate them organically in order to benefit from this new ability. It is rather not possible to conserve the essence of learning organisation, the potential to create competencies that present future value, in rigid policies and procedures. Iandoli and Zollo (2008) explain that “learning and competencies building are collective processes based on mutual agreement and reciprocal adaptation”. But, as they developed further in their work, they say that learning as collective action is almost always perceived as anomaly and an attempt to “question the status quo” creating a resistance effect on different layers of the organisation.

Naturally, there are also some critical responses to the concept of learning organisation. According to Coopey (1995) there are three main downsides of the concept. The first argument outlines the fact that learning organisation in practice has a political context which is not reflected upon in literature; consequently political activity tends to affect learning goals. Furthermore, in practice, the model of learning organisation does not yield empowered employees to extent suggested by theory because it is in contrast to the managerial resources and informational power position. The last critical point is that the learning organisation is based upon managerial perspective leaving the space for neglecting the position of employees and importing certain ideological preferences.

Here the question is in what scope and depth the HEIs are able and willing to allow such a building processes to take part? At least some of the HEIs are significantly regulated by policies of state or of the rectorate, and even the immense funds cutting trends in HE sector (de Boer et al., 2008) do not provide a fertile ground for such initiatives. On the other hand, the entrepreneurial university like the University of Twente in Netherlands can serve as a good example that the learning at HEIs is also possible. In the relatively small area of Netherlands, the universities have created highly networked knowledge hubs where the HEIs do take notice of the new trends and thinking and are able to incorporate them into building new competencies, like spin-off centres and new educational market exploring, for instance LLL (Life Long Learning).

We mentioned the importance of experience in learning. A concept that is very closely linked to learning organisation and organisational change is the organisational memory. Organisational memory according to Iandoli and Zollo (2008) is a system of shared values and artefacts that suggest the way of common behaviour. They call the relationship between the organisational change and organisational memory the organisational learning. As a contrary to organisational memory there is organisational forgetting. It occurs according to work of Argote (2013) when people leave the organisation, files get misplaced or the technology gets obsolete. The assumption that organisational learning is cumulative, and it persists, might not be hold as true and instead the created knowledge may be a subject to depreciation. These ideas of organisational forgetting and knowledge depreciation are supported in the work of Argote (2013) by empirical evidence.

In the work on learning organisation of Argiris and Schön (1974) an interesting distinction between single loop learning and double loop learning is made. The single loop learning represents operationalization of goals, values, policies and following them by evaluating the current deviations from the desired state. In double loop learning the goals, values and policies might be amended according to changes that occur in meantime. Therefore, double loop learning model seems to be more empirical and practical way of learning because the environment might change dramatically in some cases affecting also the goals setting, the strategic fist action itself.

HEIs as Learning Organisation

Theoretical models of learning organisations are developed mainly focusing on the fields of business and industry. Observing the organisation of HEIs this paper tries to analyse the possibilities of developing the learning organisation in the context of HE.

Tackling the similar problem, Portfelt (2006) argues that there are two crucial characteristics that differentiate university organisations from other organisations (referencing to Baldridge and Birnbaum). First of all, public universities are not profit-oriented organisations. Since 1990s there have been considerable changes in funding schemes of public HE sector in many countries which created new economic environment. The ideas of new public management and entrepreneurial university could be seen as a response to this new economic environment, where the universities are forced to borrow strategies and methods from the business life. Notwithstanding, profit is not the primary goal of a university. The second specificity of university is its mission diffusion. Universities have to meet the needs of various internal and external stakeholders. This leads to diversification and specialisation of universities, making their missions diffused and sometimes conflicted. Therefore, unlike profit-making organisations, universities cannot quantify and measure their performance in relation to their mission, as precisely as for-profit organisations can. (Portfelt, 2006) Analysing this issue, Birnbaum argues that comparing HE and business organisation, there is no metric and goals in HE which are equivalent to money and profit in business. (Birnbaum, 1988, p.11)

The above described characteristics help us to understand the context of university in which we analyse the concept of learning organisation. There are several other aspects of university life that need to be considered, which can be seen as main impediments for development of learning organisation. Kofman and Senge (1993) identify three main factors which also form the basis of learning disabilities in society as a whole: fragmentation, competition and reactiveness. These “cultural dysfunctions” are directly imported from larger society into every organisation (including HEI) and define the way the organisations operate. (Kofman and Senge, 1993, p.7)

Fragmentation, authors explain, refers to analytical approach to solve problems. This involves breaking a problem into components, studying each component in isolation, and then synthesizing the components back into a whole. Thus, we eventually become convinced that knowledge is accumulated bits of information. According to the authors, this sort of linear thinking is becoming increasingly ineffective to address modern problems. In business, they describe the fragmentation as placing walls that separate different functions (or units) into independent entities.

Analysing the HEI as organisation, fragmentation can be recognized as the lack of communication on two levels: horizontal and vertical. Horizontal fragmentation is visible between different departments, faculties and units, while vertical refers to division between managerial, academic and administrative personnel.

Competition is overemphasized in modern society and, as authors claim, there is no healthy balance between competition and cooperation. Overemphasis on competition makes looking good more important than being good. The resulting fear of not looking good is one of the greatest enemies of learning. To learn, we need to acknowledge that there is something we don't know. But in business ignorance is seen as weakness. In response, people have developed defences like working out problems in isolation, always displaying the best face in public, and never acknowledging the lack of information or skill. Overemphasis on competition also reinforces the orientation on short-term measurable results. So there is a lack of discipline needed for steady practice and deeper learning. This quick-fix thinking also blurs the big picture leading to “system blindness”. (Kofman & Senge, 1993, p. 9)

In HE sector the competition is seen within universities (between academics, between departments or units) as well as between them for scarce resources (personnel, finances or prestige). Quasi-market stimulates the competitiveness in the higher education sector. Unlike “real” market where the main criteria for performance evaluation is demand pull from customers, on quasi-market performance is evaluated by peers. (De Boer et al, 2007)

Reactiveness is the third “cultural dysfunction”, as Kofman and Senge defined it. Reactiveness refers to change only as reaction to outside forces. It is a fixation on problem-solving, rather than creation and innovation. People have become accustomed to conditioning by an external authority which leads to another problem – many organisations exercise authority in a way that undermines the intrinsic drive to learn. Many managers are problem-solving oriented and believe that people are willing to change only in times of crisis. Authors argue that there is a necessity to introduce creative rather than reactive learning in organisations.

University as an organisation is a complex system which is in a permanent and dynamic interaction with its environment. It adapts and changes in order to survive and thrive. According to their nature, these changes can be planned or “top-down”, and emergent or “bottom-up” (Halasz, 2010, p.52). The driver of changes can be internal or external. Top-down changes are deliberate and planned (e.g. externally driven generated by government regulation changes) while bottom-up are more spontaneous and emerging (e.g. changes generated by basic-level initiatives, such as department) (Halasz, 2010). The majority of day-to-day activities in university are emergent and internally driven. (Pausits, 2013) This means that the university, as an organisation, also has this “cultural dysfunction” being more reactive and oriented toward solving problems than toward creative learning.

Taking into consideration previous arguments saying that university has all three cultural dysfunctions, as Kofman and Senge defined it, the logical question is: Can university become a learning organisation? We believe it can.

Built on the idea of education (and research), with teaching and learning in its basis, the university as an organisation is a fertile ground for developing into a learning organisation. In a way, the roots of the learning organisation, as a theory, trace back to university, namely academic disciplines such as psychology, pedagogy and sociology, and their theories on learning (individual, group and team learning).

Universities throughout the world have been challenged in various ways in last three decades. Massification, emergence of new teaching and learning methods, change in funding schemes, increased cooperation, but at the same time the competition between universities – all these challenges fundamentally change HE sector. Universities have to adapt to this complex environment, and constantly rethink their position in society in order to become more agile and efficient. New environment requires new, innovative approaches to higher education, such as entrepreneurial university and university lifelong learning. Developing university, as an organisation, into a learning organisation seems a promising perspective, which can improve necessary flexibility and adaptability to cope with emergent situation.

Embracing the initial conceptualisation of the learning organisation by Senge (1994), HEIs should tackle the five disciplines essential to a learning organisation – systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning. Related to HE context Senge’s five disciplines could be ‘translated’ in following manner:

Personal mastery is closely related to the concept of lifelong learning and continuous professional training. It implies that progress and growth of an organisation depend on personal and professional growth of its members.

Mental models, as a concept, are close to Clark's concept of academic belief. (Clark, 1983) Deeply ingrained assumptions and generalizations (or beliefs) about the societal function of the university steer our understanding of higher education and influence our actions.

Building shared vision of the university goals is perhaps the most challenging milestone in developing learning organisation. Often, universities are complex systems with various departments and academic disciplines resulting in mission diffusion. Many universities tend to specialize thus gaining the competitive edge.

Team learning (between university personnel) and a culture of dialogue enables functioning of many research teams. This way of learning encourages cooperation within and between universities. However, the full potential of team learning remains often untapped in the university organisation due to abovementioned fragmentation.

Finally, the crucial, fifth discipline in Senge's theory is *systems thinking*. Observing the university as a whole and overcoming the fragmentation is essential in order to develop previous four disciplines to their full potential.

When talking about organisation, Senge actually talks about people. His vision of a learning organisation is strongly people-oriented and focuses on organisational growth through personal growth. Therefore, the main generator for developing university learning organisation should be HR unit. Embracing the idea that we are all learners, Human Resource Management (HRM) should facilitate the learning of university personnel towards achieving the five disciplines on a personal and consequently on an organisational level.

Creating a bridge between administrative and academic personnel, the position of HR unit provides an opportunity for overcoming the three main impediments for developing learning organisation: fragmentation, competition and reactiveness (defined by Kofman and Senge). Enhancing communication within university cutting across vertical and horizontal lines thus creating new communication channels could decrease the fragmentation. The balance between competition and cooperation within university could be reinforced by specifying in details the profiles and competences of various categories of personnel harmonising their activities and facilitating teamwork. Planning of human resources and human resource development (HRD) would be the two main areas of activities which could lead beyond reactiveness toward strategic thinking.

The full potential of a learning culture within university organisation can be reached only through people learning together. The incubator of this process is HR unit with well-established HRM and HRD. Analysing business organisations Yu Wang (2006) suggests specific strategies that can be adopted by HRM regarding Senge's five disciplines (see the Figure 1).

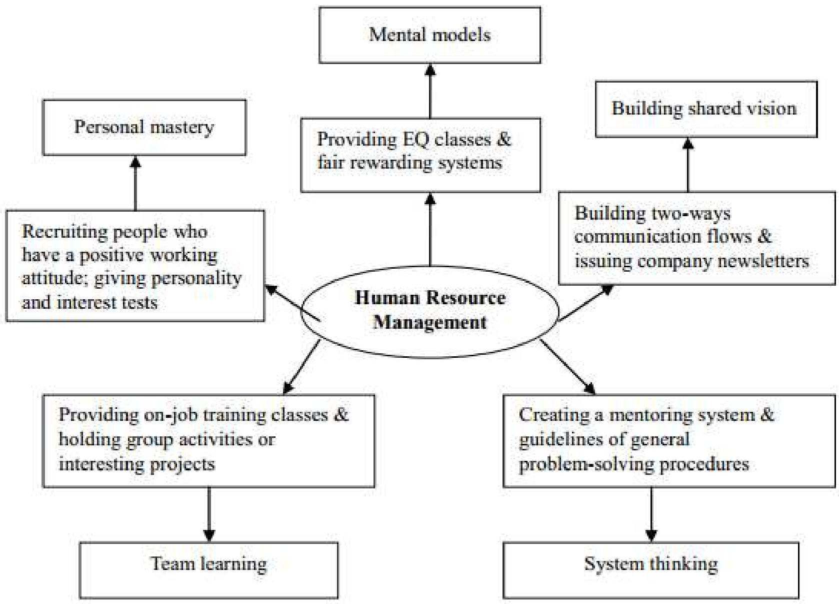

Figure 1: HRM Strategies in the Learning Organisation (Source: Yu Wang, 2006, p.55)

As we can see in the Figure 1, author is mainly focusing on the development of learning organisation from the perspective of company. Nevertheless, he gives us a good framework for developing specific HR tools that can be considered for developing Senge's five disciplines in HEIs, such as:

1. HR planning with emphasis to recruiting of candidates with willingness to learn;
2. Training system targeting establishment and broadening of learning capacities of individuals, teams and, consequently the whole institution;
3. Integrated HR information system serving as a platform for planning, controlling, coordinating and evaluating activities;
4. Sharing information about HEI's performance and challenges on regular basis;
5. Remuneration oriented towards learning objectives.
6.

Conclusion

The idea of learning organisation in the context of university is not completely new. As we elaborated earlier, similar issues regarding functioning of the university have been explored before. Still, the perspective of learning organisation provides a slightly different (managerial) framework for rethinking the organisational issues in HEIs. What we see as the main contribution of this concept to HEIs is the emphasis on professional development through learning with others. HRM plays the essential role in supporting the culture of learning by seeding it throughout the organisation.

Although still underdeveloped in European universities, HRM has a great potential in strategy development of the university by translating it into a strategy for the personnel. (Böckelmann et al., 2010) Strategic orientation of a university towards developing a learning organisation can be successful if realised within HRM. In addition, the list of suggested HRM tools can be further developed and expanded by future studies.

References

Argote, L. (2013), *Organizational Learning: Creating, Retaining and Transferring Knowledge*. 2nd ed. New York: Springer.

Argyris, C. and Schön, D. (1974), *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Birnbaum, R. (1988), *How Colleges Work, The Cybernetics of Academic Organization and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Böckelmann, Ch., Reif, L. and Fröhlich, M. (2010), '*Human Resources Management'*, in J. Huisman and A. Pausits (Eds.), *Higher Education Management and Development – Compendium for Managers*, Münster; New York; München; Berlin: Waxmann, pp. 159-175.

Clark, R. B. (1983), *The higher education system: academic organization in cross-national perspective*, Los Angeles: University of California Press.

Coopey, J. (1995), The Learning Organization, Power, Politics and Ideology Introduction. *Management Learning*, 26(2) 193-213.

De Boer, H., Enders, J. and Schimank, U. (2007), *On the Way Towards New Public Management? The Governance of University Systems in England, the Netherlands, Austria, and Germany*. In: Jansen, D. (ed.). *New Forms of Governance in Research Organizations. Disciplinary Approaches, Interfaces and Integration*. Dordrecht: Springer. pp. 135-152.

De Boer, H., Jongbloed, B., Enders, J. and File, J. (2008), *Progress in higher education reform across Europe. Funding Reform*, Volume 1: Executive Summary and main report. CHEPS: Enschede.

Halasz, G. (2010), *'Organisational Change and Development in Higher Education'*, in J. Huisman and A. Pausits (Eds.), *Higher Education Management and Development – Compendium for Managers*, Münster; New York; München; Berlin: Waxmann, pp. 51-63.

Iandoli, L. and Zollo, G. (2008), *Organizational Cognition and Learning: Building Systems for the Learning Organisation*. London: Information Science Publishing.

Kofman, F. and Senge, P. M. (1993), *Communities of Comment: The Heart of Learning Organizations*, http://www.ebacs.net/pdf/building/4.pdf (05.01.2014).

Pausits, A. (2013), *HRM – From here to there*, (study material).

Portfelt, I. S. (2006), The University; A Learning Organization? – An Illuminative Review Based on System Theory, Karlstad University Studies, http://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:6505/FULLTEXT01.pdf (04.01.2014).

Senge, P. (1994), *The Fifth Discipline - The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation*, New York: Doubleday.

Schön, D. (1973), *Beyond the Stable State*. New York: Penguin.

Yu Wang, P. (2006), Human Resource Management Plays a New Role in Learning Organizations. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning,* 2 (2) 52-56.

3. THE ROLE AND INSTRUMENTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Pei Min and Long Tran Dinh Thanh

The Role of Human Resources (HR)

Role of HR in general

Human Resource Management (HRM) is a significant function in a company, and great importance and value are being attached to it in modern management. Today, people are specially trained in this field to meet the increasing demand of HRM responsibility, which includes planning, organizing, staffing, etc. In this regard, HRM is playing and will continue to play a significant role in a company or an institution.

Objectives and Functions of HRM

A crucial component, HRM touches nearly every aspect of the running of an institution. It aims to create a motivated workforce that is able to complete assigned tasks with the proper amount of expertise, and to establish and maintain desirable working relationships among all the members of the organization and to maintain high employee morale. By providing training and development programs, HRM strengthens and appreciates the human assets continuously. It also creates facilities and opportunities for individual or group development so as to match it with the growth of the organization. To attract and maintain talented employees, HRM provides employees with adequate and equitable salary, other forms of welfare, and necessary measures and recognition for fulfillment of challenging tasks. To boost efficiency and positive competition, it introduces differentiated and competitive wages and incentive bonus. Besides, HRM is also responsible for the provision of fair, acceptable and efficient leadership and favorable entrepreneur culture, and the stability of employment. Today, especially in developing countries, HRM tries to create more employment opportunities to disadvantage groups like women and the middle-age to alleviate inequalities in distribution of income and wealth.

In a word, HRM involves creating a workplace that benefits the employees and leaders of a company, and dealing with hiring, benefits and payroll by helping a business or nonprofit organization to meet its general goals, and a favorable environment is created.

Role of HR in higher education

As Matthew Knight, Universities HR chair and head of human resources at the University of Leeds, points out writing for the Guardian Higher Educational Network, Universities are “people enterprises, the quality of the people working in the sector, the way they work with each other and what they achieve will, over time, mean the difference between institutional success and failure.” (Anyangwe, 2012) This means that HRM, which are responsible for recruiting and nurturing the human capital at universities, has an important role to play in the long-term success of their universities.

But in reality, the role of HR in higher education is yet to be brought into full play. The development of academic and administrative staff, for instance, is confronted with many challenges (University Bocconi, 2007):

- In many countries an ageing cohort of academic staff requires more systematic succession planning and talent development within the institution;
- Increased national and international competition for high quality staff;
- More competitive funding, project management and inter-institutional collaboration require greater managerial and personal skills;
- More autonomy and more proactive strategic profiling of the institution require improved leadership competence.

Instruments of human resource management

There are a lot of instruments or practices introduced to human resource management. They are: performance management, staff development, leadership development, reward management, communications, staff surveys, career/succession management, modernizing HR system, flexible working, workforce planning, competency frameworks, organizational development, well-being/positive culture, diversity, absence management, redundancy policy, etc. (Guest, 2007)

For HRM in higher education institutions, a number of instruments are in place for academic staff:

- Formal training in how to teach for all staff appointed to their post

This training includes new recruitment training and retraining of incumbent staff, and it is one of the most common practices of HRM in universities. Institutions like Center for Faculty Development or Center for Teaching and Learning are established in some higher education institutions for staff in this regards. Usually, experienced professors or lecturers are invited to share their experience or deliver a demonstration. New recruitment training is always intensively held in a short period of time. In some universities, certain experienced professors are appointed to serve as “tutors” or “supervisors” to a number of new teachers. This HRM instrument standardizes teaching and safeguards its quality in some degree.

- Regular appraisal of all staff

Regular appraisal aims to grant all staff members a right to a clear understanding of their department's expectations of them, and an opportunity for detailed discussion of their contribution to the achievement of departmental and institutional goals, to make them feel valued. This HRM instrument is designed to strengthen effective two-way communication and can help to identify training and development needs in the future. Academic staff will be reviewed either by the Head of Department or another senior member of the department. Besides, student feedback is employed as the main tool in many countries. Normally, overall appraisal of academic staff is conducted on a yearly basis, which is in line with incentive mechanism, such as promotion and yearly bonus. This HRM instrument is promoted and strengthened by quality assurance since 1990s.

- All staff systematically informed about the performance of the university

It is important to have all staff informed of the situation of the university and the decision of the leaders, which not only creates transparency but also gives the staff a strong sense of belonging. This is done through an internal network, such as campus email, unified SMS from president’s office. This cultivates a culture that keeps the staff, whatever post they are in, feeling that they are always involved in the on-going of the HEIs.

- Training for all newly appointed heads of departments

Similar to the formal training of academic staff, the training for newly appointed managerial leaders is also intensively held. A good professor does not necessarily make a good leader, so more and more universities separate academic staff from managerial staff. The training of this managerial staff is crucial to the future running of the whole department and the university.

- Flexible pay to attract and retain staff

Flexible pay is viewed as incentives to attract and retain excellent staff and motivate all staff to update their knowledge and skills required in their posts. Flexible pay creates a positive competitive environment for all staff that pushes them to move forward in their career and finally benefits the university as a whole.

(Guest, 2007)

Performance Management

Higher education in many parts of the world such as Europe and Asia are experiencing process of substantial reforms. Performance management, as an instrument of HRM, has been an important factor in the innovation process. Performance management was once described as the “Achilles Heel” to manage human resources because it is the major process “through which through which work is accomplished and should therefore be a top priority for managers to review” (Naha Abu Mansor, Raka Chakraborty, Ke Yin, & Mahitapoglu, 2012). Performance management can be defined as a designated system to facilitate people to do their best of their capacity. (Heathfield, 2006). Moreover, according to her, performance management is “a whole work system that begins when a job is defined as needed. It ends when an employee leaves your organization.” Whenever performance management is mentioned, the number of accomplishments is often thought to be the most important factor to be considered. Actually, when supervise performance of a team and individual in organizations, "both inputs (behavior) and outputs (results) need to be considered and managed.” (Decramer, Christiaens, & Vanderstraeten, 2007). In other words, performance management is not merely about managing, rating or judging people based on their outcomes, but also observing problems occurring during working process, supporting and enabling people to better their performance. According to Heathfield (2006), a performance management system usually consists of the following actions.

- *Develop clear job descriptions.*
- *Select appropriate people with an appropriate selection process.*
- *Negotiate requirements and accomplishment-based performance standards, outcomes, and measures.*
- *Provide effective orientation, education, and training.*
- *Provide on-going coaching and feedback.*
- *Conduct quarterly performance development discussions.*
- *Design effective compensation and recognition systems that reward people for their contributions.*
- *Provide promotional/career development opportunities for staff.*
- *Assist with exit interviews to understand WHY valued employees leave the organization.*

(Heathfield)

However, when it comes to implementing performance management in higher education institutes, the context may affect the implementation. “The purposes of performance management systems (PMS) are of three kinds: strategic, developmental, and administrative.” (Naha Abu Mansor, Raka Chakraborty, Ke Yin, & Mahitapoglu, 2012) and based on this idea, performance management system is supposed to connect employee activities with the organization’s goals. As a result, performance management systems may work as its best in organizations with clearly defined objectives. In complicated organizations with scattering objectives such as universities and colleges, PMS may not have many chances to make positive influence. (Naha Abu Mansor, Raka Chakraborty, Ke Yin, & Mahitapoglu, 2012).

Also, measuring performance, as part of PMS, can create “dysfunctional behavior in that achieving the required outcome can undermine other important areas of an organization’s work”. (Broadbent & Laughlin, 2009). A teacher, for example, instead of devoting an equal time for both research and teaching, they may spend more time for research activities if their performance will be assessed more on the outcome of their research rather than teaching. And students, in this case, would be the direct victims of PMS.

Workforce Planning

Another relatively significant instrument of HRM is workforce planning. However, it is not a “straightforward” but “still evolving” concept in the context of higher education. (Dowds, 2009).

As described by Nicola Dowds, workforce planning is “a systematic, data-based approach to identifying the optimum mix of skills and people needed” to create an effective and efficiency operation of the institution within a preset budget and organization’s strategic objectives. Workforce planning, in a course book issued by University of Ballarat, is defined as “a continuous process of shaping the staff profile” to guarantee that it has the ability to achieve the university’s current and future objectives. (University of Ballarat, 2013). In other words, workforce planning is “a set of procedures that an organization can implement to maintain the most efficient employee/management team possible, maximizing profits and ensuring long-term success.” (Rouse, 2013) Or, it can be summed up in “3 RIGHT”- right people, right place, right time.

Workforce planning is a vital solution and should be used more habitually in managing higher education institution. One of the reasons is that it makes managers to look toward the future, to forecast and deals with surprises, and to consider all the possibilities. (Sullivan, 2002). If key players such as deans, rector and HR managers plan ahead all the possible needs for future lecturers and administration staff, they can prevent problems such as panic hiring or layoff. He also states that workforce planning might be more precisely called “talent planning because it integrates the forecasting elements of each of the HR functions that relate to talent--recruiting, retention, redeployment, and leadership and employee development.”

Succession planning, one of the key component of workforce planning, is fairly useful to HE managers. “Succession planning is a process whereby an organization guarantees that employees are recruited and developed to fill each key role within the company.” (Heathfield, 2006). If key positions in both administration and academic staff such dean, rector, and senior professors are cautiously considered and handled in terms of planning succession, HE institutes will not have to experience much of any disruption in management crisis in the transition time or lack of staff to fulfil knowledge thirst from students.

Among these, the most common instruments being used are formal training on how to teach for staff, regular staff appraisals and computerized HR systems. (Guest, 2007) Besides, surveys are also done concerning the effectiveness of the instruments mentioned above. The result shows that recruitment and retention are selected as the most effective, followed by job evaluation and ability to attract and retain high quality staff, while performance management, managing poor performance and staff/succession planning are at the bottom of the list.

In conclusion, Human Resource Management is undoubtedly one of the “winning cards” in a company. Unless HRM is properly implemented and improved, operations such as planning, organizing and staffing cannot be completed efficiently. Apparently, university as an organization is not an exception when it comes to HRM. Normally, the success of an institution based on the staff’s level of performance, achievement and interaction with each other. There are a number of HRM measures which can be exploited in the context of higher education. However, some adjustments in implementation are probably needed in some instruments due to the difference in the nature of organization, goals and culture of higher education institutes.

References:

Anyangwe, Eliza (2012). `The evolving role of university HR managers`, *The Guardian,* 23 May. Available from <http://www.theguardian.com> [23 May 2012].

Broadbent, J., & Laughlin, R. (2009). *Controlling higher education. Are performance management systems effective in higher education?*

Decramer, A., Christiaens, J., & Vanderstraeten, A. (2007). *Individual Performance Management in Higher Education Institutions.* Innsbruck.

Dowds, N. (2009). *International Experiences of Human Resource Management.*

Heathfield, S. M. (2006). *about.com*. Retrieved 1 4, 2013, from Human Resources: http://humanresources.about.com/od/glossaryp/g/perform_mgmt.htm

HR at universities mean the difference between institutional success and failure

2007 Human Resource Management and University Performance London leadership foundation for higher education

Naha Abu Mansor, a., Raka Chakraborty, A., Ke Yin, T., & Mahitapoglu, Z. (2012). *Organizational Factors Influencing Performance Management.* Elsevier Ltd. Selection and/or peer-review under responsibility of the Asia Pacific.

Role of Human Resource Management

Rouse, M. (2013). *Search Financial Application*.

Sullivan, J. (2002). *Why You Need Workforce Planning.* Workforce.

University of Ballarat. (2013). *Workforce Planning- Toolkit and Templates.*

University, Bocconi (2007). *Human Resource Development in Universities: Its role in leading and implementing change*

INTERACTION BETWEEN GENERAL MANAGEMENT, HUMAN RESOURCE DEPARTMENT AND OTHER ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS

Michail Balyasin and Haftu Hindeya Gebremerkel

Introduction

With switch to entrepreneurial universities and prominence of New Public Management in modern universities, Human Resource Management (HRM) unit is gaining importance as there is a need to optimize expenditures. Another important consideration which elevates HRM unit at the university is the fact that on average universities spend 60-80% of their budgets on staff. Combining these two factors, it is possible to see that HRM unit should be an important part of every university which is looking to become an active player on regional, national and especially world scale.

In this paper, we have looked at how (and if) HRM unit interacts with general management and other academic departments at universities. First part is dedicated to overview functions and roles which HRM unit has in modern university, as well as its position in organizational structure. Since this overview looks at a generic case, second part is dedicated to more practical overview of how HRM unit has found its place in university taking the cases of Ethiopia and Russia. In this section, we tried to show how HRM has been interacting with different units. The aim of the section is then to examine the current practices of HRM interaction and draw out lessons, compare these practices with the theoretical basis we mentioned in the paper and suggest way forward from the lessons learnt to enhance HRM interaction. In doing so, we have selected two universities in which we had experiences in teaching and management. The final part of the article is dedicated to practical recommendations on how to improve current situation with HRM in those national systems.

Role of HRM in universities

There is a very wide range of ways how HRM unit is incorporated and used at any given university. For example, in "very few universities in Central, Southern and Eastern Europe" HRM was established (Böckelmann et al., 2010), while it is much more common to have this unit operating in full force in Western universities (e.g., UK, US). This diversity can be summarized in two somewhat antithetical systems which are mostly common across this spectrum. Each of this model creates a very different outlook of how HRM unit interacts with general management and other academic departments. This classification is not comprehensive, but provides basis for discussion of how HRM unit can evolve from one system to another. Obviously, each system has its own advantages as well as disadvantages and we will mention them only briefly as discussion of those systems may be another chapter in this book.

If we look at Central, Eastern and Southern Europe it is possible to notice that HRM unit as such exists only to supplement function of the university. Usually, this unit is operating only to comply with national and regional labor laws and does not involve itself with business of human resource development or even recruiting. Recruiting is done usually at departmental level and HRM unit is only responsible to enlist this person so that it follows the rules and regulations in place. Disadvantages of this system include reactiveness, as there is no meaningful strategy in place, which means that HRM unit only reacts to external influences. In addition, very low commitment of staff and academics which is not fostered in any meaningful way. For instance, it fosters low level of engagement of staff and academics to institutional mission and goals, and low level of sustainability which means that if university is to operate in more business manner this type of HRM unit won't be good enough to create sustainable organizations for reasons which were discussed in the introduction. Advantages of this system mainly refer to the fact that this system is seen as traditional which means that top-management does not really see the reason to change it. If changes do happen, they are usually performed with top-down approach which brings whole new set of problems as "street-level bureaucrats" (Lipsky, 1980) often times dilute the change to near nothingness. Interaction of HRM unit in this system with other department and general management is limited to a very narrow range of questions of labor law and regulations in place. For example, one of the authors of this paper has interacted with HRM unit of his Russian university handful of times in almost 3 years of his employment and those interactions were strictly confined to requirements of labor law and regulations at the university.

Second type of system is when HRM unit does exist and it operates independently and reports directly to upper-management (not through financial department). As we have already mentioned, this system is pretty much opposite to the first one in that it has human resource development and sustainable growth of organization as its mission. Recruitment and even head-hunting is common, there is usually some sort of appraisal system which is directly tied to promotions and salary increases, each staff member and academic is aware of institutional mission and is using it in his or her everyday work. Some advantages of such system include high engagement of human resources, high degree of interaction between departments and upper-management. Disadvantage of this system is that it is very difficult to create it and that it requires a lot of work from everyone involved: not only HRM unit, but also staff members, academics, and upper-management. However, such system should be a goal of each university in current world of decreasing public funding and increasing competition. Interaction of HRM unit with academic departments and general management is of central importance as it becomes a facilitator of many changes inside an organization and provides a framework for the whole organization.

In the real world, each university will be some combination of those two systems, but if we are to understand how HRM unit should interact with other departments, the first thing is to define the mission statement and goals of such a unit. Should it be an independent unit? Should it be autonomous? What responsibilities should this unit have? What are the rules of engagements and scope of work for it? (Armstrong, 2003) All these questions (and many others) should be answered in order for HRM unit to be productive. This is not a trivial task, of course, in itself, but it lays foundation for how HRM unit should interact with other departments and what intensity, depth, and breadth this interaction should have.

Another set of dimensions which define how HRM unit interacts with various stakeholders in the university is roles and activities which are performed by HRM. These roles and activities are aligned along three main areas which follow each other in chronological order (Böckelmann et al., 2010): recruit-retain-develop.

- **Recruit area** generally can be described as everything concerning human resources issues prior to the employment of the individual. It covers not only recruitment *per se,* but also questions of how many staff members should be employed, what are their responsibilities, gender and minority issues, law compliance, talent management, and so on. Each of this tasks requires various degrees of interaction with other actors in university and it presents HRM unit with opportunities to influence decision-making inside of the university in order for the whole organization to be successful, as well as to create positive image for potential employees.

- **Retain area** is all about getting the most out of the employees while giving them a chance to realize their potential in professional area. Here we ought to consider both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of employees (Zaugg et al., 2001).

    - With extrinsic motivation HRM unit is in charge of determining the salary of individuals, as well as conditions for salary raise or promotion. Here an important instrument is performance management with what often takes form of performance agreements for each individual. The choice of indicators to be included in those contracts is again more of an art, than strict science since what works in a university down the road may not be applicable to any given university, but those indicators should be aligned with strategic goal of a university (Burke, 2002). In this area, HRM unit has a lot of potential to influence decision-making process as indicators are usually based on top-down process when general management decides on strategic goals, but indicators themselves and how they are measured can be decided by HRM unit in interaction with both general management and academic departments.

    - Intrinsic motivation is much more difficult to define and hence to measure. Here HRM unit is in charge of creating an atmosphere where each employee (be it administrative or academic) should maximize his or her potential. It is also important to consider that often relying just on extrinsic motivation may be not sustainable since it might lead to unintended consequences from employees. While extrinsic motivators (e.g. salary) are important to functioning of an organization, it is intrinsic motivators (e.g., self-fulfillment, work-life balance etc) which are usually come to a forefront in a long run (Zaugg et al., 2001). HRM unit should be an active actor in identification and analysis of possible changes in work place (e.g., flexible timetable, possibility to work from home etc.) in order to create sustainable organization.

- **Development area** is about providing learning opportunities for employees so that they can better themselves. This is mutually rewarding process as employees get the chance to better themselves, while university gets more motivated and educated worker who creates more value. The tools which can be used in this are numerous and, arguably, this is the biggest area for HRM are to be active at university. For instance, organization of seminars, continuous professional education and career planning can be an area where HRM unit interacts most heavily with academic departments and administrative staff.

The role of HRM unit in university can be extremely diverse. With models that we have outlined above its influence on organization can range from minimal to becoming an integral part of an organization. In next chapter, we will show what role exist for HRM units in real world examples, as well as provide some suggestions on how to enhance this role for those universities.

HRM Interaction with other units: Cases from two universities

Now let's see how HRM is functioning in these two cases from Ethiopia and Russia.

Bahir Dar University, one of the biggest universities in Ethiopia with 40,000 students and 2500 staff has HRM office under the Business Administration and Development vice president. HRM office structurally reports to this office. The office, however, accomplishes many of the activities in collaboration with academic vice president for academic affairs indirectly. The office, when seen in terms of structure, has no direct influence on college and faculty deans and their department units. Its relation with planning and finance office is horizontal belonging to same office for reporting and getting direction. Hence, this makes it structurally weak with no major influence on ground. As one of the authors of this paper was director for academic affairs of the university, it was his daily observation that HRM's main activities were limited to routine activities of recruitment where the office is represented by one of its members with no voting power in a recruiting committee mainly composed of department heads. The representative from the HRM office is secretary of the committee dedicated to compiling what has been said and taking the issue to the HRM office for further implementation. Final recruitment of academic staff is approved by the vice president for academic affairs. The HRM office has three case teams: capacity development and training, HR needs and recruitment and HR utilization and monitoring. As can be seen from the case teams, the HRM office is responsible for recruitment, retaining and development of HR which are basic for any HRM as mentioned above. However, the office is far from accomplishing these activities. This is because, for instance, the HRM office has never been engaged in needs assessment for planning future staffing for this activity is the role of deans of colleges and faculties. Besides, the staff development particularly enhancing the knowledge and skills of staff is overtaken by another office (Academic Development and Resource Center) which is under the vice president for academic affairs. Academic staff appraisal is also conducted independent of the HRM office by deans and department heads. The HRM office only asks academic staff appraisal when a certain academic staff needs promotion. This result is sent by the dean to HRM office annexed with other required documents and the HRM office communicates the decision made by the academic vice president to all units in the university. However, the office is active enough in following up and taking measures on academic staffs who left the university without fulfilling the procedure and on daily attendance of administrative staff. This practice makes the office a guard for leavers than managing the existing and future talents. Another element of interaction is the communication the HRM office has with other units. Attributed to its structural problems, there is poor communication between the HRM office and other units. For instance, it is common to see academic staffs who have stopped working in the university but whose salary are still transferred to their bank account.

Similarly, when we see the experience of HRM practice in Siberian Federal University, located in Krasnoyarsk Region, Russia, it has no as such different experience from the university mentioned above. Siberian Federal University has 36, 500 students and 3300 professorial staff. In this university, the HRM duty is mainly concentrated on compliance to Russian law on employment. In addition, the tasks and responsibilities of the HR function are confined to very routine activities such as keeping the tables of workdays and vacation times and has little interaction with staff in recruitment in any way except handing and taking documents. Concerning people development and training activities, there is no development or training activity organized by the HR department. In general, interfaces between general Management, HR and other functional departments are connected to filling-in weekly reports about what have been done in a week. And, in the process of interaction, there was no or little feedback on those reports.

Lessons learnt and way forward

From the experiences of the two universities, it is possible to deduce that HRM is dully immersed in working routine activities and no mention could be made as strategically relevant activity. It is also possible to say that HRM offices in both universities are not empowered in terms of structure and are serving as mediators which in fact are adding layer of bureaucracy to the system between the university management and faculties. Positioned in the middle, where it has not as such significant decision making power, makes HRM office to be seen as unproductive. Despite the existence of solid literature in the area that shows HRM as the blood cell of any organization, it seems far from true in the two universities. In addition, literature from other countries also show similar experiences that supports our argument. For instance, Evans and Chun (2012) in their recent report indicated that public higher education (HE), unlike private industry, has been sluggish to realize the impact of strategic human resources on organizational success, despite the fact that human capital investments represent the largest expenditure in today's. In general, strategic HRM - aligning the management of HR with the strategic content of the business and HR strategy on one hand and designing and implementing a set of proactive HR polices to ensure an organization's human capital contributes to the achievements of its corporate objectives (Walker, 1992 and David, Chin and Victor, 2002 in Muogbo, 2013) on the other hand is overlooked in both universities. Then, the question is, if HRM needs to contribute to the above mentioned strategic roles, how should the interaction with other units in universities be organized? What mechanisms should be deployed that are suitable to HE context? How can HRM attract the university management and academics to show its irreplaceable place? How can HRM be a useful instrument in the face of budget cuts and external pressures on universities? In this regard, many puzzling issues could be added to the list and in fact it is hard to suggest a panacea to all these problems. However, from the theoretical views of HRM's interaction in university that we mentioned in the aforementioned section of this paper, we need to indicate some issues that need to be considered as a way forward to advance HRM's function in universities.

First of all, it should be underlined that strategic HRM is an important and indispensable tool for any organization or institutions performance and for any organization or institution that wants to gain competitive advantages over others (Muogbo, 2013). In this regard, HR's strategic contribution to university-wide organization development is delineated in the areas of strategic training and development, employee relations, performance evaluation, leadership development, and employee assistance programs (Evans & Chun, 2012). Particularly, in a university, HRM could play a significant role in managing talent and performance of staff by developing polices of HRD. HR needs to portray itself as a significant body part in university and to do so needs change on HR thinking and its operation. It is because strategic HRM emphasizes the need for HR plans and strategies to be formulated within the context of overall organizational strategies and objectives, and be responsive to the changing nature of the organization’s external environment (Manning, 2010).

HR needs to appear as strategic partner and decision maker. It needs to contribute in clearly defining tools that will help guide leadership, appraisal, and other activities. It needs to show concrete results through evidence and should look beyond confining itself to guarding government decrees and regulations. HR needs to deploy systems that preserve precious talents. Many educators assert that talent management should be the priority agendum for HRM in universities. For instance, according to Böckelmann, Reif, and Fröhlich (2010), universities can only develop in a planned strategic direction if individual professors, the research staff and the employees in administration at least partially align themselves with the institution’s goals. To these scholars, HRM is essential and needs to include: strategic recruitment of staff, professionally maintained recruitment techniques, transparent career options, competencies to use modern instruments of HRD and systems of payment and incentives to sensibly reward performance. Seen against these strategic issues, HRM in HE institutions seems a long to go. However, HR offices and its staff cannot change these bold strategic objectives unless it is supported by senior and middle management in and outside university. So, we believe that unless there is a shift in thinking from university leaders, it will be mere rhetoric to expect HR to appear as strategic partner. The leaders need not only appreciate HR's role but also need to deploy appropriate infrastructure and fund. HR needs to get appropriate structural place, as we mentioned above, and empowerment. Hence, HRM's interaction with other units in University could be strengthened if and only if HRM gets its proper recognition and decision making power.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have shown that HRM has an indispensible role for the effectiveness and efficiency of universities. We believe that the heyday of HRM is coming as universities these days are struggling to realign resources and programs to fulfill their educational mission on one hand and comply to external pressures on the other. In addition, universities are in pressure to maintain their talents in this mobile world that particularly needs strategic approach of HRM. We have also shown the theoretical roles and interactions HRM needs to have in universities. Attempt was also made to show HRM practices in universities by taking two cases and lessons were drawn that implied the need for shift in HRM thinking and operation. HRM needs to get appropriate attention and place from concerned bodies. Particularly, we underlined that if HR has to contribute to today's HE, it needs to be transformed from routine HR operation to strategic HR.

References

Armstrong, M. (2003). *A handbook of human resource management practice.* Kogan Page Limited.

Böckelmann C., Reif, L. and Fröhlich, M. (2010*)*. Human Resources Management. In H, Jeroen & P. Attila (Eds.), *Higher Education Management and Development Compendium for Managers* (*159-173*). Münster: Waxmann Verlag GmbH.

Burke, J.C. (2002). *Funding public colleges and universities for performance: Popularity, problems, and prospects.* Rockefeller Institute.

Evans A. & Chun, E. (2012). *Creating a tipping point: Strategic Human Resources in higher education*. San Francisco: Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Lipsky, M. (1980). *Street level bureaucrats*. Nova York: Russel Sage.

Manning, K. (2010). Strategic Human Resource Management And The Australian Public Sector Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences, No. 30E/2010 pp. 150-161 http://www.rtsa.ro/en/files/TRAS%20-%2030E%20-%2011%20-%20MANNING.pdf

Muogbo, S. U. (2012). The Impact of Strategic Human Resource Management on Nigeria Universities (A Study of Government-Owned and Private Universities in South East Nigeria) http://psrcentre.org/images/extraimages/513668.pdf

Zaugg, R.J., Blum, A., Thom, N. (2001). Sustainability in Human Resource Management. Evaluation Report. Survey in European Companies and Institutions. Arbeitsbericht des Instituts für Organisation und Personal der Universität Bern und des eidgenössischen Personalam

5. THE DIVISION BETWEEN RESEARCH & TEACHING IN WESTERN EUROPE ACADEMIA ACADEMIC PROFESSION: REQUIREMENTS & CHANGES

Layla Jorge Teixeira Cesar and Rebecca Maxwell Stuart

Introduction

Higher Education systems in Western Europe are currently putting such enormous pressure on the academic profession that it may even endanger the survival of the very identity of academics and universities. Notedly, one of the main reasons for that crisis is the expansion of student enrolment that took place over the past decades and drove a change from the intellectual discourse of teachers to a structure of organized curricula and instruction techniques. Along with that, the formation of a knowledge based economy, brought higher education to a central position in producing techological innovation, contributing to dissociate teaching and research functions. (Kogan & Teichler, 2007).

The raising of international rankings increased pressure for efficiency. Evaluation is based mainly on research outputs, measured by its most tangible form: publishing. Within institutions there is a clear overload of functions on academic professionals, divided between the compromise to traditional ideals and the new pressures for productivity.

On recent decades, new activities are increasingly adding to that dichotomy, such as management and administrative functions or community services, that will also fill the working hours of academics and intensify the opposition between teaching and research, as less time is available for both.

The multiple roles of academics are not necessarily in conflict, and finding balance among them is necessary to overcome the current crisis. In the present paper, the issues of teaching and research will be specially focused.

This paper aims to clarify the link between research and teaching in what concerns the academic profession, addressing the following main questions:

- How do the politics of academia influence the focus of the academic profession?
- What are the pressures put of the academics to deliver research versus pressures to deliver teaching?
- What practices should be considered in institutional level in order to promotethis culture shift, so that teaching is as valued as research is?

The scope of analysis is reduced to those institutions centred in Western European countries, as it makes possible to offer a more accurate approach. The area holds a relatively uniform social and economic development level and may be pointed as the cradle for the predominant model of university that has spread around the world, having been central in defining the so called modern era and establishing higher education paradigms. This paper will focus on the nexus of research and teaching at an institutional level, in order to provide sufficient conclusions.

The Politics of Academia

The mutual beneficial nexus between basic research and academic teaching was a paradigm created in the German university reform of the 19th century (Enders, 2007). The systemic expansion that would follow on the 20th century, though, raised a big tension between these two poles, as the emergence of the modern academic profession was characterized by an overload of functions (Schimank & Wines, 2000).

Enders identifies a few elements that have contributed to raising this tension in many industrial societies after the World War II, such as the boom of the economics of education (meaning that educational investment should aim economic growth), along with the belief that scientific and technological innovation should serve societal needs.

Currently, the fiscal constraints on higher education, related to the economic crisis that affected the EU on the beginning of 21st century, have contributed to opposing research and teaching activities as it divides the sources of funding: resources for teaching have been reduced to the number of students, whereas research funding becomes more subjected to market influence. (Enders, 2007)

As research gains centrality, institutions become oriented towards a common mission of climbing up international rankings, allowing academic content of both teaching and research to be moderated through conferences and publication systems. Authority on the coordination of the university shifts from its teachers and departments to its managerial board, and, in a bigger scale, from the institution itself to external quality assurance systems. (Kogan and Teichler, 2007)

As a consequence of that scenario, there are a few changes on the focus of academic profession, influenced by the current politics of academia in Western Europe, such as a loss of professional autonomy and power to shape its organisational environment and an increasing pressure of external societal expectations and external control of their performance. (Kogan and Teichler, 2007)

The dimension of such consequences, nevertheless, may vary according to its local context, and that could not possibly be covered by the present paper. There are numerous social settings contributing to shaping the academic profession, among the most evident of which are: (a) its national higher education system; (b) the type of institution, whether it is private or public, technically, vocationally, or research and teaching oriented; and (c) the different disciplines and fields of studies that it relates to, building differences even inside a same institution (Clark, 1987). In this sense, it is not possible to define a universal profile of academic professionals for the entire Western Europe, but only to identify general trends.

Pressures of Research Versus Pressures of Teaching

In the past few decades, the academic profession has become not only the most influential in shaping other professions and sectors (Perkins, 1987), but also a category that stretches and expands more than any other (Clark, 1987). That is mostly due to the rise of the knowledge society and the expansion and diversification of higher education in the modern western European societies.

The centrality of technological innovation in promoting economic growth makes the university a key institution for the generation of capital, and it is remarkable the increasing pressure on institutions to invest predominantly on research, making teaching a secondary activity. Not only is there a stronger focus on research outputs; administrative and managerial duties are prevalent and leaving little room for teaching enhancement.

This translates into practice through most quality assurance mechanisms applied to higher education evaluation at international level, that focus mainly on publishing and other research aspects as the greater institutional output. Times Higher Education, for example, dedicates 65% of its evaluation to research and industrial innovation aspects, only 30% being oriented towards teaching activities. If we take Jiao-Tong ranking, the difference increases to 80% of focus on research outputs and only 10% on teaching outputs.

Another important reflex of the distinction made between research and teaching refers to the amount of investment put in each area. In this year of 2014 will officially have start Horizon 2020, the European Union Framework Programme for Research and Innovation, which aims to inject at least €80 billion on research over the course of 7 years and have universities as a main target, whereas no similar material and immaterial investment is being made in terms of stimulating teaching at higher education level.

In itself, this cannot be judged as a bad or good distinction. Technology has advanced more in the past few decades than in any other western era, and, from this innovation perspective, the positive effects of investing in research are more than evident. Besides, the main reason why university has been able to endure the past eight centuries of history as an institution is its ability to transform and adapt itself to new environments, while preserving its institutional identity, and the present historical moment points towards the growing importance of research as a function of higher education.

The multiple roles of academics haven't necessarily got to be in conflict, and it is possible that a professional dedicate itself to different activities inside its home institution. Focusing on a single one, nevertheless, will mean less time available for others. Finding balance may be a hard conciliatory and administrative task, although it is a mostly fundamental one. Defining institutional goals for how academics should distribute their working hours may have a strong impact both at institutional level, affecting the quality of work, as at individual level, on the way these professionals will run their daily activities.

In order to measure such impacts, Ruth Neumann (1994) conducted a study to understand students perceptions of the teaching and research nexus. The aim was to verify their awareness of teachers research responsibilities as well as the impact it had on the quality of the education they received. As a result, Neumann pointed that, with only one exception, all the academics identified by the students as good teachers were also active researchers. The contrary, though, was not true: not all active researchers were identified as good teachers. Such conclusions, she affirms, suggest that active research involvement is a necessary but not sufficient condition for good teaching.

This highlights the importance of teaching within higher education, especially when it comes to the quality of education that students receive. Possibly, researchers are not valuing teaching for the very system they work in won’t stimulate them in such direction, or on the flip-side, that the system in which the profession exists does not perceive teaching as being as valuable as research. This could also, in a long term, make the universities incapable of feeding themselves, as good researchers may be pressured into focussing on research outputs rather than teaching the future academics.

When asked about it, academic professionals have identified such pressures. In the UK, a survey conducted by UCU (2013) found that over a quarter of respondents felt that they did not have enough time to prepare their teaching because of the need to focus on their Research Excellence Framework (REF) outputs. It also found that a number of institutions are warning academic staff not included in the REF that they face capability procedures, denial of promotion or progression to the next grade or transfer to a teaching-focused contract. The fact that universities are threatening academics that they will be moved to a teaching-focused contract highlights the marginalisation occurring between these two key activities in higher education. This affects the existence of academic freedom as how can stakeholders perceive teaching to be equal to research when the culture is to threaten teaching as a punishment and not an honour.

What practices should be considered in institutional level in order to promote this culture shift, so that teaching is as valued as research is?

Perkin’s (1987) argued that in the past, university teaching was extremely important in society as academics were “the educators and selectors” of other professions. He went on to state that this ‘winning streak’ is on a downhill slope, particularly after the recent recession. As much as things are no longer like they were in the past, we must now look into the future and see the figurative academic phoenix rise out of the turbulent economical ashes that have laid waste in the past decade. By developing strategies within institutions to promote the element of teaching within the academic profession, this will help implementing the culture shift that is needed in order to adapt to the higher education systems of today.

It is important to note that the academic profession can vary depending on the setting. In terms of academia, there is no one size fits all, especially considering the diverse range of subjects that one HEI alone can deliver. Due to this reason, it can be difficult to address human resource issues, such as the teaching and research dilemma. For example, if something was put in place in an ancient, research-intensive university such as Oxford, the solution would not suit a younger university that focuses on the applied sciences. Therefore, the following solutions and measures that are discussed in this section are generic and can be adapted to suit the context.

So far, this paper has covered the politics of the academic profession and the reasons as to why research is perceived to play a bigger role in higher education compared to teaching. But what is now needed is to answer the question: how can this change? The following could be considered to help change the perception that research is more important at institutional level:

- Development of teaching awards
- Promotion and incentives for excellent teaching
- Redesigning contracts to suit teaching workload
- Better training opportunities
- Creating stronger linkages with unions

Development of teaching awards:In recent years, teaching awards are becoming more established in higher education systems. Canada has well-established teaching awards within their institutions for over a decade, with the establishment of the 3M National Teaching Fellowship in 1986. In comparison, the UK only has one Teaching Fellowship through the Higher Education Academy which is awarded to 55 academics a year, and very few institutions have designated teaching awards. In contrast, the amount of research rewards and fellowships within the UK, and beyond, are numerous. Student Led Teaching Awards (SLTA) are on the increase, however, these are run by the students, in which they are recognising good teaching and engaging with quality. Academics are calling for university management to recognise teaching excellence and award appropriately (Goldberg, 2013).

Promotion and incentives for excellent teaching:Moving on from teaching awards, universities can help raise the importance of teaching within the academic profession through robust procedures for promotion due to teaching excellence. Currently, the focus of gaining tenure or a promotion is based on how many publications an academic has, and where these have been published. This could be adapted for teaching excellence through the use of robust student feedback mechanisms on teaching, class grade results and appraisals. One of the problems here is that teaching outputs are more intangible than being published in a certain journal. However, through consultation with academics, managers and students, a suitable paradigm can be established.

*Redesigning contracts to suit teaching workload:*As mentioned earlier, there is a lot of pressure on academics to deliver on research outputs, especially for quality measuring tools such as the Research Excellence Framework (REF) in the UK. This means that a large amount of time and effort is spent on these activities, with teaching taking up the remainder of the time. Teaching contracts are being used to threaten ‘under-performers’ of research, when what is needed for universities, and higher education systems in general, to promote the opportunity of teaching and allow suitable time within contracts to suit the academic’s responsibilities.

Better Training Opportunities: Another method to promote teaching within higher education is to offer significant training opportunities and support to academics. Teaching qualifications is not mandatory in most HEIs in order to obtain lecturing responsibilities; and within doctoral education as much as the focus is on research, there does not have to be an element of teaching in order to become a doctor. This, further, strengthens the divide between teaching and research, if early academics are told that research is better recognised than teaching. This needs to change by integrating teaching -and training- into all PhD programmes, and early academic career paths. Robust training will also help remove the stigma of teaching, as more academics will feel confident in their ability to pass on their knowledge and understand the values and rewards of teaching.

Creating stronger linkages with unions: This includes both staff trade unions, and student representative unions and associations. Institutions that have strong connections with these bodies will have a closer understanding to the needs of their teaching staff as well as the needs of the students that are being taught. Academic trade unions, such as University and College Union (UCU) in the UK, represent the views of university staff in terms of research and teaching. In order to better understand the thoughts and feelings of the academics that deliver the teaching and research outputs. What can be perceived as an issue at the top level of an institution in terms of teaching, may be completely different to what the chalk-nosed lecturer perceives to be the issue. Consultation is key when it comes to implementing changes, in order to reduce resistance. Therefore, by working in partnership with staff through academic trade unions, senior management and the HR department can address the needs of their academia. Not only should there be stronger linkages with academic staff trade unions, but there should also be collaboration with student unions and student reps. These organisations represent the learner, who has direct contact with the issues caused by the disproportionate focus on research compared to teaching in Western European higher education. Students can be partners (see: Bovill et al., 2011; Gibbs, 2012; Harrison, 2012; Wenstone, 2012) in improving the system and helping to promote the excellent teaching that is provided at universities, as well as have a great understanding of why research plays a crucial role in higher education.

Conclusions

A growing disengagement between research and teaching can be witnessed today, within HEIs. As pointed out previously, there is a historical connection bonding the two areas, and yet in more recent times teaching has been marginalised and undervalued as more focus has been put on the reputational and monetary benefits of universities concentrating on research.

This is the result of a shift in western European societies, from an economy based on the production of goods to another based on the production of information and technological innovation. On top of this, the beginning of the 21st century has also dealt with an economic crisis that affected fiscal constraints on EU's higher education, contributing to oppose research and teaching activities as it divides the sources of funding, reducing the resources for teaching to the number of students, whereas research funding becomes more subjected to market influence.

Even though this paper has focussed on improving the aspect of teaching, it is important to note that this perspective does not undermine the importance of research within univeristies. The main characteristic that has allowed university to survive as an institution for over eight centuries is its ability to transform and adapt itself to new environments, and the present historical moment points towards the centrality of research as a function of higher education, alongside management and administrative duties.

Extremism, nevertheless, may have negative effects on academia, leading, for example, to a crisis in the way academic profession is now structured. Not only is there a visible overload of functions to academics but also universities may be losing their capability of feeding themselves with high quality teachers and researchers, as they seem to be reducing the input on the next generations of students.

A balance between teaching and researching is required if a university is to keep on attending the societal needs for highly qualified education, promoting not only technological but also social innovation. Therefore, establishing formal or intentional linkages between research and teaching – or definitely blurring the lines between the two – is a current necessity, as it updates the social function of higher education institutions.

This paper has also concentrated on the aspects of improving the reputation of teaching in the academic profession -within an institutional context-, describing mechanisms to promote teaching, and bring it to the forefront of higher education. Among the most relevant strategies, are the development of teaching awards, the promotion and incentives for excellent teaching, redesigning contracts to suit teaching workload, better training opportunities and the creation of stronger linkages with unions. None of these, though, may succeed if there is not a general change in attitude, not only should with individual institutions, but also within government departments, research councils, society, rankings and individuals. Within systems, higher education needs reform, so that teaching excellence is recognised as equal with research excellence.

References

Bovill, C., Cook-Sather, A. & Felton, P. (2011) *Students as co-creators of teaching approaches, course design, and curricula: implications for academic developers, International Journal for Academic Development,* 16:2, pp. 133-145.

Clark, B. (1987) Introduction. In: Clark, Burton. R. *The Academic Profession. National, Disciplinary, and Institutional Settings.* University of California Press.

Gibbs, G. (2012) *Implications of 'Dimensions of Quality' in a market environment.* Higher Education Academy; York

Goldberg, M., (2013). *Students see teaching's value: shame managers don't. Times Higher Education*, [online] 18th July. Available at:

<http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/comment/opinion/students-see-teachings-value-shame-managers-dont/2005763.article>

[Accessed on 20 September 2013]

Harrison, T. (2012) *Gathering student feedback: How can it make a difference?* In: EUA (2013) How does quality assurance make a difference: A selection of papers from the 7th European Quality Assurance Forum. Belgium

Kogan, M. & Teichler, U. (eds.) (2007) K*ey Challenges to the Academic Profession. UNESCO Forum on Higher Education Research and Knowledge.* International Centre for Higher Education Research Kassel (INCHER-Kassel). Paris and Kassel

Neumann, Ruth. (1994) *The Teaching-Research Nexus: Applying a Framework to University Students' Learning Experiences. European Journal of Education,* 29:3, pp.323-338

Perkin, Harold. J. (1987) *The Academic Profession in the United Kingdom.* In: Clark, Burton. R. *The Academic Profession. National, Disciplinary, and Institutional Settings.* University of California Press.

Schimank, U. & Winnes, M (2000). *Beyond Humboldt? The relationship between teaching and research in European university systems.* Science and Public Policy 27(6), 397-408.

UCU (2013) *The Research Excellence Framework (REF) UCU Survey Report.* [online] October. Available at:

<http://www.ucu.org.uk/media/pdf/0/q/REF-survey-report-September-2013.pdf>

[Accessed on 6 January 2014]

Wenstone, R. (2012) *Five questions about students as partners*. WonkHe: [online]http://www.wonkhe.com/2012/09/13/five-questions-about-students-as-partners/ (15.11.2013)

6. HIGHER EDUCATION PROFESSIONALS: JOB REQUIREMENTS AND TRAINING OPTIONS

Katsia Mikalayeva, Nguyen Thanh Tung and Inga Zalyevska

The identity of non-academic professionals in higher education institutions

With growing accountability demands on higher education institutions (HEIs), it is inevitable that the number of managerial and administrative staff is increasing (Gornitzka & Marheim Larsen, 2004 and Blümel, Kloke, Krücken, & Netz, 2010). Kehm (2012) also notices the growth and defines the new groups:

> "This is the growth in numbers of new groups of mostly highly qualified professionals to support organizational change and decision-making. These persons are not primarily active in research and teaching themselves but entrusted to prepare and support decisions of the management, establish services, and actively shape the core activities of the organization. We have called this group the new "higher education professionals" (p.1-2).

While there is a significant body of literature on the academic profession, there is little analysis of these new higher education professionals (Allen-Collinson, 2010). Such analysis is needed in three main areas: entry of new HE professionals into the field and development of their professional identity; reconciling the tension between academics and their non-academic managers; and emergence of 'third space professionals' (Whitchurch, 2008) who maneuver in and out of managerial and academic projects, and fill in new roles as they emerge.

There are several contributing factors to the identity struggle of new HE professionals. One of them is absence of a sense of belonging to the workplace environment. For most young HE professionals, the existential question "what am I doing here?" is unavoidable when their activities do not fall neatly into one of the institution's core missions be it teaching, research or community service. Additionally, in the world of academia, it is considered that the academics are the elite class, the core of the system and the native with full citizenship. In contrast, many think the others are second-class citizens or even foreigners, being there just to support (or un-support) academics.

This unnecessary but real polarity between academics and non-academics creates tension between academic and managerial staff. As Daxner (2010, p.22) notices, often 'a condescending attitude is developed by the academic staff' towards the non-academics due to the perceived inferiority in the division of labor. Consequently, academics tend to hold their 'other' colleagues in little respect and not value the work accomplished by them. In another aspect, with the rise of new public management some academics view HE professionals as adversaries who put extra bureaucratic work on them or interfere in academic affairs (Kehm, 2012). As a result, some academics feel that their academic freedom and self-governance are in jeopardy and use what is left of it to confront their perceived enemies. This evidently impedes the effectiveness and efficiency of HE professionals' work as well as the development of the institution. To worsen the situation, there has been a current of literature criticizing the evolution of HE profession as a 'management fad' (Birnbaum, 2000) or as the cause of 'the fall of the faculty' (Ginsberg, 2011), which hurts its image and practitioners' confidence.

And, finally, the third phenomenon that merits attention is the emergence of cross-boundary, or unbounded, professionals in HEIs as identified and described by Whitchurch (2008, 2012). These people perform multiple and complex types of activities at the same time, and the description of their job is constantly evolving. Their emergence may be due to a new strategy of the institution or the changes in its environment which have never existed before. Those who are blended professionals, working in the third space, often carry the double identity of both an academic and a manager, their career resembling a portfolio of experiences and skills rather than a vertical ladder.

It is a mark of an established profession if there is a set of skills associated with it, as well as a qualification obtained as the result of specialized training. Our paper intends to contribute to the conversation on professionalization of higher education by analyzing the demands placed on higher education professionals by the labor market and the training options available to them. We will focus on US and UK as instances of higher education systems where new public management is well developed and a the professionalization of higher education services is at an advanced stage.

Analysis of UK and US advertisements for higher education professionals

In order to determine whether higher education profession is a distinctive career, UK and US job advertisements were analyzed. The Times Higher Education (THE), an influential and respected web source in the field of higher education, was used for this analysis. The THE is well-known for its World University Rankings and is a reputable source covering news and issues related to higher education. Additionally, job announcements on an authoritative American higher education website, the United States' Chronicle of Higher Education, were examined to observe whether the state of the higher education profession differs in the United States and the UK.

Four key questions formed the basis for this analysis:

- What employment positions exist for higher education professionals?

- What are the academic requirements for these positions? Do they ask for Master's degrees in higher education management or any degree may suffice to obtain the advertised jobs?

- What are the skills and work experience demanded by employers?

- Is university teaching experience required in addition to management practice?

Answers to these questions are seen to be demonstrative of the condition of the higher education profession. Naturally, it is of utmost importance to specify what types of positions are reserved for higher education professionals. The question about academic requirements for advertised positions shows the level of professionalization of the higher education career. If a formal degree in higher education is required, the level of professionalization is undoubtedly high, proving higher education management as a legitimate profession. If, on the contrary, any master's degree is acceptable as far as applicant possesses sufficient managerial experience, a conclusion can be drawn that the profession has not yet achieved its independence. The question on skills is directly related to applicant's previous experience acquired both in the academic and work environments. Demonstrative of the level of professionalization of the higher education profession are the requirements of previous experience in higher education institutions specifically against experience in any institution where a similar skill set can be acquired. The former evidently favors independence of the higher education profession, while the latter indicates the lack of its professionalization. The last question aids in resolving whether higher education administration is still tied to the academe or has its own professional standing.

The analysis of over 80 higher education job advertisements in the UK and more than 150 in the United States has shown interesting results. In the first place, the complex presentation of job advertisements immediately catches one's eye suggesting the intricate structure of administration of contemporary higher education institutions. A plethora of categories and subcategories of various administrative and executive higher education positions reflects the complexity of the structure of modern universities, the abundance of professional roles, tasks, and, accordingly, job opportunities for higher education professionals (Jobs.timeshighereducation.co.uk, 2014; The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2014).

Based on the job advertisement categories on the two websites, higher education administration professions can be divided into two main groups: executive professions and general administrative jobs. Deans, directors, heads of departments, provosts, chancellors, presidents and their deputies belong to the first group and represent highly authoritative positions in higher education institutions. Administrative positions belonging to the second group cover a vast area of activity within HEIs. According to the THE, these positions belong to such various areas of university administration as human resources, international activities, student services, admissions, registrar's office, development, estates and facilities management, alumni relations, and finance and procurement (Jobs.timeshighereducation.co.uk, 2014). Positions in these areas of HE administration are umpteen, ranging from admissions administrators and assistants and human resources managers to international student advisors and business development managers. As for the United States, higher education institutions have yet further opportunities for HE administrators in the areas of management of distance education programs, adult and continuing education programs management, career services, and institutional research (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2014). Moreover, due to the high level of societal diversity, there are special higher education units dedicated to affirmative action and equal opportunity administration and minority and multicultural affairs management. Unlike in the UK, administrative jobs at financial aid offices of American HEIs are common. High tuition fees force students to seek financial aid consulting and services thus creating new job opportunities for higher education professionals.

Higher education professionals undoubtedly have an abundance of choices of employment in the UK and even more so in the United States, determined by the complexity of the structures of higher education institutions and the multiplicity of administrative tasks. But does the existence of diverse job opportunities for higher education workforce necessarily translate into the establishment of professional identity of the higher education expert? To suggest the answer to this question, academic and professional requirements in the job advertisements have to be considered.

After careful examination of the advertised positions, a clear picture of the state of the higher education profession came into sight. Before revealing the conclusion of the advertisement analysis, it is essential to point out that academic and professional requirements for executive and general administrative jobs differ considerably, as might be expected.

Deans, provosts, chancellors, presidents, directors, and other executive staff both in the UK and the United States are required to have an advanced degree, generally doctoral, extensive managerial experience, proven successful academic record, and teaching experience, while excellent interpersonal, communication and leadership skills are a given. As an example, a candidate for president's position at San Jose Community college is required to have at least a Master's degree, three years of experience in higher education administration, effective leadership and communication skills, and experience in classroom instruction and teaching English to non-native speakers (Vitae | The Chronicle of Higher Education, President, San Jose City College, 2014). An advertisement of a vacancy of director of Academic Law at the University of West England requested a candidate with high achievement in the areas of research, teaching, and administration in academic or professional law, experience of academic leadership, and effective leadership skills (Jobs.timeshighereducation.co.uk, Director of Academic Law, 2014). Importantly, none of the analysed job advertisements for executive positions asked for advanced degrees in higher education administration specifically. For deans of schools and heads of departments it is necessary to have advanced degrees in the subjects taught in the departments in question, like marine biology, psychology, or law, for instance. Curiously, to take a high executive post at an HEI an applicant does not need a degree in higher education administration. Extensive managerial experience in a higher education setting, leadership and communication skills, teaching experience, and an advanced degree in any subject (with the exclusion of heads and directors of specific academic units) are sufficient to land a job as a high rank executive in an HEI.

As for the general administrative positions, the requirements for these jobs are generally more demanding in the United States in comparison with the UK. In the UK a necessary skill set including excellent organizational, interpersonal, time management, IT skills and ability to be a team player, together with some administrative experience, will suffice to land an entry or middle level job in a higher education setting (Jobs.timeshighereducation.co.uk, 2014). Importantly, an academic degree is rarely asked for. In the United States, on the contrary, at least an Associate's degree is requested in order for an applicant to be eligible for a position in higher education administration, while a Bachelor's qualification is essential in the majority of advertisements (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2014). Besides, the skills and abilities for general administrative positions are more specific and directly related to applicants' previous experience in a certain area of higher education administration. The jobs in institutional research are a special case, as they require a combination of high-level technical skills (knowledge of SQL, SPSS, advanced statistical skills, etc.) as well as managerial and communication skills, and a global understanding of higher education policy and issues in order to interpret and communicate the data.

The answer to the main question of this analysis, whether a degree in higher education administration is requested for general administrative positions, is a "no" in most of the advertisements both in the UK and in the US. International education positions in the United States served as an exception to this general rule, where job advertisements asked for advanced professional higher education degrees or listed them as preferred. For instance, a Master's degree in higher education administration is preferred for a potential assistant director of the Center of Global Education at the University of Wisconsin. (Vitae | The Chronicle of Higher Education, Assistant Director, 2014).

The analysis of the job advertisements suggests the answers to the questions proposed in the beginning of this section. Academic teaching experience in combination with a terminal degree in one's field is an obligatory requirement for obtaining high executive positions in higher education, proving that higher education administration at high level of authority remains strongly linked to the academics. This might be evidence of the lack of trust in managers without academic qualifications that we discussed in the first section of the paper. Positions at the entry and mid levels of higher education administration do not ask for academic instruction experience. Academic requirements for the positions vary in the levels of academic degrees, but, most importantly, the vast majority of the jobs do not require a professional degree in higher education administration. As for the skills and work experience, general administrative positions in the UK have very basic requirements for the abilities of potential employees and find any prior administrative experience sufficient. In the United States employers look for a more specialized set of skills and demand previous administrative experience directly in a higher education institution. For executive jobs both in the UK and the US, extensive managerial experience and effective communication and leadership skills are two main assets that qualify applicants for advertised positions.

To summarize these findings, the higher education profession in the UK does not prove to yet have its own independent standing. Acquiring administrative jobs in higher education setting does not require specialized professional degrees, the demanded set of skills is either very basic or attainable through previous administrative experience, and those who apply for high executive positions have to demonstrate previous teaching experience. Analysis of the British advertisements thus contributes to the opinion that HE profession is not yet professionalized enough and, consequently, the identity struggle of a higher education professional is ongoing. In the United States the level of professionalization of the profession is higher, showing a possible direction that the development of the profession can take in Europe.

Degree programs in higher education

As a complementary aspect of our analysis, we will look at degree programs in higher education management in the US and UK. The question we intend to answer in this part of the analysis is as follows:

- How do training programs in higher education relate to the employment requirements in the labor market?

In terms of career orientation, programs in the US and UK are generally of two types – with a broad analytical focus, and with managerial orientation. Examples of the first type would be MSc in Education (Higher Education) program offered at Oxford University or MA in Higher and Professional Education at the Institute of Education in London. They are aimed at a range of professional tracks – in academia, policy-making, research and management. Program outcomes are typically described in terms of 'gaining critical insights into a range of theories, methods, and methodologies for studying policies and practices in higher and professional education' and 'using research to analyze and evaluate current structures and future reforms of higher education' (program specifications and websites).

Another type of program targets people who hold positions in higher education management – these are either stand-alone MBA programs in higher education management or a specialization within an MBA course. Institute of Education at the University of London offers this type of program as well – MBA in Higher Education Management. The approach taken by this program is decidedly business-like, with universities described as 'multi-million pound organisations which require effective management to meet their objectives, whether academic, financial or their wider commitments to society' (Programme Specification, MBA Higher Education Management). The choice of final assessment – a consultancy project – also reflects a business orientation of the program. However, at closer look, this program is also largely based on coursework and the typical teaching methods – lectures, readings, class discussions and written papers. In fact, the learning outcomes are mostly phrased in terms of reflective and analytical abilities that the students will gain, rather than management-related skills. In this sense, there is not a dramatic difference from the academically oriented programs. This program is conceptualized as an enhancement to already advanced careers in university management, rather than a stepping point into one.

In the US, there is a similar division of programs, but we see a more nuanced profiling with concentrations offered in various aspects. For example, the program in Higher Education Administration at Vanderbuilt University is aimed specifically at students who wish to enter administrative roles in universities. This focus is already quite specialized compared to the broad approach taken at Oxford, for example, but the students are able to specialize even further in one of the five areas – student affairs, enrollment management, higher education policy, international higher education or general administration.

A few schools in the US attempt to answer the need for both theoretical and managerial training by offering dual MA/MBA programs in Higher Education (e.g., University of Michigan, Stanford University, Boston College). Part of the coursework leads to an understanding of HEIs from theoretical perspective, and part – to understanding management of universities. Again, however, descriptions of courses on the MBA side of the program point to learning 'about' management in universities rather than developing a demonstrated skill set. For example, the course 'Managing to Outcomes in Education and Other Sectors' (from Stanford MA/MBA program) is described in the following terms: 'we will examine the challenges of managing to outcomes in various contexts', 'we will focus on interconnections among strategic planning, performance budgeting, and performance management', 'we will also look at experiments with new funding vehicles'. The language used in the description does not lead one to believe that students will come out of the course with a skill set, but perhaps instead with knowledge about management.

Universities are not the only venues for professional development in higher education. Association of University Administrators (AUA) in the UK offers a Postgraduate Certificate in Professional Practice, developed a framework of professional competencies in the field of higher education (AUA Continuing Professional Development framework) as well as supports the practice-based Graduate Programme for University Leadership. The latter is unique in the sense that it consists entirely of paid work placements at partner universities with one course module called The UK Higher Education Sector taken alongside the placements. Competencies and knowledge required for university administration are, thus, developed directly in the field whether it is finance, alumni relations, career services or academic research centers.

Based on our analysis of job ads in the previous section, for executive positions at universities, experience (especially in management, external relations and fundraising) and a PhD in one's field are the basic requirements. For administrative positions, expertise in one's own field (whether accounting, library management, human resources or any of the other support services) is sought after. In this context, if the goal is to train university executives, the AUA Graduate Programme for University Leadership offers a key asset that graduates of traditional programs might find themselves lacking – practical experience and demonstrated abilities to achieve results for an HEI.

There are, thus, a variety of training options available to those who are considering a career in higher education administration. However, most university-based programs, even those that aim to train managers, have a strong analytical orientation – a useful enhancement and refreshment to a working professional, but hardly a priority to anybody applying to jobs from outside the sector. As such, university programs might be a good choice for somebody considering a career in higher education analysis or consulting, but hardly a good choice as an entry point into university administration.

Conclusion

Our discussion leads us to conclude that higher education administration is on its way to professionalization, but without clear-cut entry criteria yet. UK is making strides in this direction, e.g. through the development of the AUA CPD framework. In both UK and US labor markets, a strong link between academic and managerial career tracks still exists at the highest executive level, while there are few job advertisements that specifically require training in the field of higher education administration. At the same time, there are high-quality training programs for professionals in the field of higher education: academics, policy makers, and managers. There are better and more plentiful choices among university programs for those who are analytically-minded and considering a career in policy, research or consulting. However, in the absence of specific degree requirements for HEI managers, most of the training and networking is still best gained on the job. If universities intend to really cater to all the diversity of career tracks and prepare professionals as well as analysts, it is necessary to diversify the teaching methods and forge a closer link between learning outcomes and the necessities of the labor market.

References

Allen-Collinson, J. (2010). Just 'non-academics'? Research Administrators in Higher Education and Contested Occupational Identity. *Academic and Professional Identities in Higher Education: Blurred Boundaries and Emerging Spaces* (pp. 9-11). SRHE Annual Research Conference.

Birnbaum, R. (2000). *Management Fads in Higher Education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Blümel, A., Kloke, K., Krücken, G., & Netz, N. (2010). Restrukturierung statt Expansion. Entwicklungen im Bereich des nicht-wissenschaftlichen Personals an deutschen Hochschulen. *Angenommen zur Veröffentlichung in: Die Hochschule*.

Daxner, M. (2010). Understanding Higher Education Management. In J. Huisman, & A. Pausits, *Higher Education Management and Development, Compendium for Managers* (pp. 13-26). Waxmann.

Ginsberg, B. (2011). *The Fall of the Faculty.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Gornitzka, A., & Marheim Larsen, I. (2004). Towards Professionalisation? Restructuring of Administrative Work Force in Universities. *Higher Education 47/4* , 455-471.

Kehm, B. M. (2012). The Academics and the Higher Education Professionals. *Changing Conditions and Changing Approaches of Academic Work.* Berlin.

Whitchurch, C. (2008, 05 22). Shifting Identities, Blurring Boundaries: The Changing Roles of Professional Managers in Higher Education. *Research and Occasional Papers Series* .

FUNCTIONS

7. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION
8. TENURE TRACK - CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES
9. INSPIRATIONS: FROM MODERN PROJECT TO HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT TRAINING IN CHINA
10. STAFF RECRUITMENT - POLICY AND PRACTICE

7. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Natalie Nestorowicz and Joo-Hyun Park

Introduction

The development of human resource has become a pivotal strategy of organizations to make their employees adaptive to a changing environment. Fast-paced changes in tasks, tools and technologies create a working world in which a basic education or one-time training is replaced by a constant updating of skills. These circumstances urge employees to become lifelong learners. Even entire organizations embrace lifelong learning as their new philosophy and transform into so-called, learning organization.[1]

Also, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) undergo fundamental changes due to globalization, growing competition for funding and staff as well as increasing institutional autonomy. These changes are linked to new responsibilities requiring greater managerial and leadership competences (Pellert 2007). Especially the university's responsibility towards its employees has changed - from simply administering to managing staff. In order to successfully adapt to this institutional shift and become more competitive in a complex environment, more and more HEIs adopt different strategies to better deploy their human resource. In view the fact that the investment for employees accounts for the largest share of university expenditure, human resource is the most valuable asset of HEIs and gains in importance in university affairs (Evans & Chun 2012).

The following paper focuses on human resource development (HRD) activities in higher education. The paper consists of two parts each highlighting a different aspect of HRD. The first one focuses on the narrow and more commonly used meaning of HRD relating to the measurements an organization undertakes to develop their staff. Within this part the definition of the term HRD and the challenges of establishing HRD strategies in universities will be discussed. According to the authors' view a limitation to the conventional understanding of HRD as staff development falls too short in the context of universities. Therefore, the second part of this paper proposes an extension of the meaning and use of HRD within universities by taking into account also the development of students.

Definition of Human Resource Development

There are various definitions of HRD, which differ in focus, purpose and goals according to the context. Despite numerous attempts in literature to define HRD, a consensus on a specific definition does not exist. However, two strands of definitions can be identified: one referring to a broader and the other to a narrower understanding of HRD. In the broad sense HRD seeks to develop people's "knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/ team gain, or for the benefit of an organisation, community, nation, or ultimately, the whole of humanity." (McLean & McLean 2001).

In the narrow sense HRD is used as a generic term for systematic and planned activities implemented by an organization to enhance the professional qualifications of its employees with regard to the objectives of the organisation. This interpretation of HRD is usually equated with Training and Development and forms the most widely practiced one within organisations (O'Donnell, McGuire & Cross 2006).

Apart from the different understandings of HRD there is also confusion over the boundaries delineating Human Resource Development from Human Resource Management (HRM). The terms HRM and HRD are often used interchangeably, both in theory and practice (O'Donnell, McGuire & Cross 2006). Usually, however, HRD is considered a subset of HRM. In order to make a clearer distinction between these two terms, McLagan (1989) has delineated the various dimensions and functions of both in the so-called "human resource wheel". The functions of HRD depicted in the wheel can also be found in the most popular among the definitions of HRD, defining it as "the integrated use of *training and development, organization development, and career development* to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness." (McLagan 1989).

Functions of Human Resource Development

According to McLagan's human resource wheel, HRD comprises three distinct functions: training and development, organization development and career development.

Human resource wheel (source: McGuire & Jorgensen 2011)

Training and Development

Training refers to reactive and short-term activities that focus on changing or improving knowledge, skills or attitudes of individuals to perform a particular job or task. These activities mostly comprise skills, which are immediately needed and have an immediate benefit, whereas development activities concentrate on new skills and abilities aiming for future job opportunities. Usually Training and Development (T&D) measures comprise three major competence areas:

- methodological competence (teaching, administration, IT- Systems, Finance, Legal know-how, Safety and Security, etc.)
- self-confidence and social competence (personality and soft skills, Time management, Work-Life Balance, languages, etc.)
- management competence (Leadership development, project management, etc.)

Another effective T&D tool regards employee orientation or induction, where a new employee learns about the organizational values, norms and tasks. The induction of new employees includes activities such as:

- the mentoring by a colleague of the same hierarchy level that cares for the new colleague and is responsible for his/her integration or
- a well defined induction program for the first months of employment or
- simply a “employee handbook” to facilitate the orientation.

Furthermore, various individual measures such as on-the-job training, mediation, mentoring, coaching and counselling for organisational units, project groups or individuals are included in T&D actions. While coaching refers to activities where employees are treated as partners in achieving both personal and organizational goals, counselling supports employees to deal with personal problems that could prevent them to achieve these goals (Böckelmann, Reif, Fröhlich 2010; Werner & DeSimone 2012).

Organization development

The second functional area of HRD refers explicitly to the development of the organization. Its purpose is to improve the relationships and processes between and among units, groups and individuals. Organizational development activities relate more to long-term strategies aiming for a holistic development of the organization in order to increase its overall efficiency (Werner & DeSimone 2012).

Career development

Career development includes both career planning and career management. Career planning refers to skills assessment through counsellors, who assist employees in pursuing their career plans. Career management on the other hand is responsible for actually taking the necessary steps to achieve these plans. In the university context the tenure track model is one example of designing adequate career paths for university teachers to eventually obtain a high level of professional stability (Werner & DeSimone 2012).

Ultimately, all HRD measures intend to cause a greater efficiency and effectiveness through fully committed and skilled employees, who perform their work in alignment with the goals of their organization.

Purpose of HRD

The three core functions of HRD perfectly illustrate that HRD affects both the development of individuals and organizations. Therefore, the purpose of HRD is twofold. One the one hand it provides opportunities for employees to improve their skills on the other hand it aims for an efficient utilization of human resource in order to meet organizational objectives. The HRD discourse is dominated by the instrumental understanding of HRD that puts emphasis on organizational goals and economic performance. Some scholars criticize that HRD puts the interests of the organization above the individual benefit and thus turning the organization into the main beneficiary of HRD activities. At best, organizational and personal needs match, resulting in a mutual gain agenda (O’Donnell, McGuire & Cross 2006).

Challenges in the university context

Despite the high expenditures of HEIs on their staff a systematic application of strategic planning, managing and developing of human resources is only poorly established in the university context (Pellert 2007). HRD is mainly practised indirectly, unintendently and intuitively. It is the university’s idiosyncrasy that makes it especially difficult to implement strategic human resource development.

First of all, HEIs differ from other organizations. Universities are described as fragmented, loosely coupled organizations (Weick 1976) with a lack of shared institutional standards. The reason lies in the weak identification of academics with the university at which they are employed. Usually, academics identify more with their discipline and international scientific community than with their department, faculty or university. Furthermore, most HRD activities such as induction, training and development are still performed informally and through socialisation within the discipline (Pellert 2007). These specific academic conditions contradict the concept of HRD that is strongly oriented towards the organization. However, more and more HEIs are establishing their own HRD units to prepare their staff adequately for current or future position. But still, HRD mostly affects only young university staff, as it is still rare that a professor takes advantage of training and development activities.

Strategies and directions to develop HR in HE

HRD activities strive towards activities that advance staff members’ competencies so they have the skills to assume tasks aligned with the strategic direction of the university. If the strategic direction is not clear or HRD activities are not in alignment with the strategy, HRD activities become inefficient and useless, even if they are excellent. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the role of higher education and the current flow of their change to figure out what role career development should play in HEIs.

In general, HE carries out two functions: research and teaching. Teaching includes academic education as well as vocational education. Vocational education is more likely to be included in HRD, but also teaching can be included in HRD in a large sense. Nowadays, the governments and HEIs emphasize the function of research in HEIs more and more. Popular ranking systems are considering the performance of research more than teaching when they assess the competitiveness of HEIs.[2] Also, the evaluation of faculties takes research achievements more into account than teaching achievements. Under these circumstances HEIs and professors put a greater focus on research to achieve a good reputation and good evaluation results. As a result of this, teaching and vocational education, the essential and fundamental roles of HEIs, are often ignored and degraded.

On the other hand, HEIs have the chance to develop their teaching area as the demand for vocational education and training (VET) is increasing. With the advent of the knowledge-based economy, the VET system, which enhances knowledge and skills of workers, became more important for high competitiveness and employment rates. Moreover, the emergence of an aging society and the need for lifelong learning generate a higher demand for VET. In particular, small and medium sized companies cannot provide their own VET programs for their new and current employees. Therefore, HEIs are becoming more and more important in their function as VET providers. They can provide the necessary skills for both young people, who are preparing for future jobs and for aged people, who need continuing education for their current or new jobs. In this respect, the government should spend more of its HE budget on the implementation of vocational education in HEIs. But also HEIs must put more energy into highly qualified VET programs in order to meet the needs of the economy and the society. To fulfil this new role, HEIs have to intensify their relationship with industry in organizing curricula for VET. However, this can be quite a challenging task for faculties and staff, who are accustomed to the traditional academic education. In this sense, HRD activities within HEIs should be made with the prospect that VET would be a big chance as well as challenge for HEIs.

Also, HEIs need a strategy to collaborate with industry more effectively in order to prepare well-tempered VET curricula.

HRD for students

HEIs are by their very nature institutions for HRD since they teach students and scientific employees, and lectures in each discipline can be related to individual skills. Stephan Vincent-Lancrin identifies three factors as individual skills for innovation: subject-based skills which refer to know-what and know-how; behavioural and social skills, which relate to self-confidence, energy, perseverance, passion, leadership, collaboration and communication; and skills in thinking and creativity, which involve critical thinking, ability to make connections, imagination and curiosity (Vincent-Lancrin 2011). This strongly implies that all the contents in HEIs can be related to individual skills and HRD. Moreover, in the changing world of work, the distinction between academic and vocational/practical work becomes blurred.

However, in most countries academic education and vocational education are differentiated from each other, and in any case it is believed that VET courses in HEIs are directly related to HRD. Therefore, vocational education in HEIs can be another part of HRD along with that for their employees. In fact, VET courses in HEIs are offered to their students including those for degrees and those for continuing programs. Also, employees at HEIs are able to attend these VET programs with the students of the courses. Thus, VET courses in HEIs can serve as HRD for students.

Many countries have their own vocational education system within HEIs. The USA has developed a community college system, which has two to three year courses with a curriculum adapted to the needs of the local community. The UK has FE (further education) colleges supported by the local government with one to two year- courses. Korea has junior colleges with two to three year course and polytechnics with less than one year. Whereas the VET courses of higher education in most countries are established and funded by the government, in Korea 136 of the 145 junior colleges are private. About one fourth of HE students in Korea are attending junior colleges. Germany has university of applied science with a curriculum of four years, where about a third of students are studying. The applied-science universities are supported by the central government as well as by companies. This system was adapted in Austria and Switzerland, too. France has tertiary-level colleges of technology with two-year course designed as a direct preparation for work. Also, the bachelor diploma at university is divided into a general diploma and a vocational diploma. The master degree is divided into a professional master and a research master. The French vocational diploma at university-level was introduced in 1999, and combines theory-based study with practical workplace experience. Furthermore, it requires the completion of a mentored project (Cedefop 2008). Finland has a very strong polytechnic system. The curriculum of polytechnics takes 3.5 to 4 years, and the degree is equal to that of universities. After the 1990s, as an innovation of HEIs, Finland united the nationwide existing 250 vocational skill training schools into 29 polytechnics. This process took ten years. The Finnish polytechnics are intended to keep the balance between the research for industry and vocational training for industry with a strong connection to the local industry. Finnish polytechnics enter into a contract with the Ministry of Education and the local government. Based on these contracts their funding is allocated. (Davies et al. 2009; OECD)

As seen above, there are several types of vocational education in HEIs, such as community college, FE College, junior college, vocational diploma, university of applied science, and polytechnics. They can be classified into two groups according to their specific features. In Anglo-American-style and Asian countries vocational training in HEIs is carried out in a short time and their social recognition is rather low. However, as these countries become more interested in the development of vocational competences, they shift towards emphasizing the importance of higher vocational training institutes in tertiary education. Germany and other European countries determine the career path relatively early as vocational training already takes place within the secondary education. However, with the advent of the knowledge economy developed and the increase of unemployment, the focus of vocational training is shifting towards the level of higher education. The Finnish polytechnic system is a successful example of how HEIs managed to strengthen their HRD system through innovation. There are more countries where higher vocational education institutions are rather public than private, and their funding is also heavily reliant on the government, especially the state or local government. Also, adult continuing education is emphasized and the general tendency is to expand recognition of credits and various curricula (OECD 2009).

Conclusion

The importance of human resource development strategies for employees has already been recognized in the university context and universities are already in progress of developing adequate measures. Many universities have even established special HRD departments and their activities range from mentoring new employees to developing leadership skills of managers. Despite the increasing efforts of university management to implement HRD strategies in their institutions, university staff does not willingly accept their interventions. The reason for this, it is believed, is the fact that HRD activities are closely linked to the organization's own goals, whereas academic staff is lacking a strong attachment to the organization, respectively university, they work for. But HEIs could make a virtue out of necessity. They could expand their HRD strategy and offer courses that are less tied to the organizational objectives but rather directed towards VET in general. That way they would not only increase the attractiveness of HRD among their employees but would also appeal to another target group, the students. So far, there are no efforts to integrate students in the universities HRD plans. HEIs can take up the blue ocean market by establishing high-qualified vocational education programs and courses for students including also adult learners. With the introduction of vocational training programs, HEIs would signalize that they actually meet the needs of economy and society. Certainly, for faculties and administrators, who are already for a long time adapted to the academic curriculum, it would be a challenging venture to establish VET courses in cooperation with the fast-moving industry. In this respect, HEIs need to prepare well-designed HRD activities for their faculties and staff in order to cope with the challenging task of creating vocational education programs with companies. Also, they need to strengthen the role and the ability of the HRD department. It would be a very promising innovation for HEIs to connect both sides of their human capital - HRD for employees and HRD for students – in their HRD strategies. By offering a specially designed VET program for both employees and students HEIs could "catch two birds with a stone".

References

Böckelmann, C.; Reif, L.; Fröhlich, M. (2010) Human Resources Management. In: *Higher Education Management and Development. Compendium for Managers*. Münster: Waxmann. S.159-173.

CEDEFOP (2008) *Vocational education and training in France, Luxembourg*: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 27-35.

Davies, J.; Weko, T.; Kim, L.; Thulstrup, E. (2009) OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education (Finland), OECD.

Evans, A.; Chun, E. (2012) Creating a Tipping Point: Strategic Human Resources in Higher Education, *ASHE Higher Education Report,* 38 (1).

Kumpikaite, V. (2008) Human resource development in learning organization, *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 9:1, 25-31.

McGuire, D.; Jorgensen, K.M. (2011) *Human Resource Development: Theory and Practice.* London: Sage.

McLagan, P. (1989) *Models of Human Resource Development Practice*, Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.

McLean, G. N.; McLean, L. (2001) If we can't define HRD in one country, how can we define it in an international context? *Human Resource Development International,* 4(3), 313-326.

OECD (2009) Learning for Jobs, OECD Reviews of Vocational Education and Training (Korea), OECD. Available at: www.oecd.org/edu/learningforjobs.

O'Donnell, D.; McGuire, D.; Cross, C. (2006) Critically Challenging some Assumptions in HRD, *International Journal of Training and Development,* 10 (1), 4-16.

Pedler, M.; Burgoyne, J. and Boydell T. (1991) *The learning company: a strategy for sustainable development*. McGraw-Hill.

Pellert, A. (2007) Human Resource Management at Universities. In: Pellert, A. /Pausits, A. (eds.): *Higher Education Management and Development in Central, Southern and Eastern Europe*, Waxmann.

Spottl, G. (2013) *Permeability between VET and higher education – a way of human resource development,* University Bremen.

Vincent-Lancrin, S. (2011) Innovation Strategy for Education and Training: some reflections for Finland, OECD.

Weick, K. E. (1976) Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 21, 1-19.

Werner, J.M.; DeSimone, R.L. (2012) *Human resource development* Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage.

---

[1] By definition an organization becomes a learning organization when it "facilitates the learning of all its members and continuously transform itself " (Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell 1991) and "has an enhanced capacity to learn, adopt and embrace the culture of LLL" (Kumpikaite 2008).

[2] The OECD is carrying out a Feasibility Study for the Assessment of Higher Education Learning Outcomes (AHELO). The OECD explains that the narrow range of criteria used in university rankings creates a distorted vision of educational success and fail to capture the essential elements of an education: teaching and learning. Also, it says that AHELO widens the scope of criteria and evaluates an education, which will allow HEIs to set their own priorities, concentrate on their strengths, address their weaknesses, and plan their futures as they see fit.

Tenure and tenure-track problematic around the world

Simona Calugareanu and Elif Çelik

Outline

This paper will analyse the issues of tenure and tenure-track and identify the challenges and opportunities of the phenomena. Based upon literature, it will first provide the definition of the tenure-track and give the basic characteristics of this system. Focusing on American tenure-track system, the paper will also touch upon different implementation of the system in some countries in order to provide broader knowledge about the topic, making reference also to other systems, such as the Humboldtian one. The issues of tenure will be generally mentioned throughout the paper. Besides, understanding of evaluation and rise of tenure-track system is critical; hence, it is both criticised and adopted from different parties and countries. Eventually, tenure-track system faces with some challenges and utilises some opportunities that emerged in changing nature of higher education. The key findings about those will be discussed in the paper.

What is tenure and tenure-track?

Many changes have been identified worldwide in the academic workplace in the past years. Major trends like massification, increased focus on accountability, higher competition between universities for resources, diversification in financing, less funds from the public sources and more other problems that have affected the working conditions and career paths of academics. Part-time positions started to be more popular and the long-term appointments are harder and harder to get, making the full-time permanent academic professor position increasingly rare. Even when reaching the full-time tenured position, it is no longer as secure as the traditional one when academic staff could be dismissed only in very rare cases. Now universities have the possibility to abolish it for different institutional reasons like program reorganization, financial problems, negligence of the responsibilities or violation of university policy (Altbach, 2000, p. 17). On the one hand, many academics see this insecurity and changes as a deterioration of the terms and conditions of academic employment leading to uncertain future prospects, but on the other, there are those who believe they are necessary for universities to better fulfil "the needs of a new century" (Altbach, 2000, p. 9). Despite all these different opinions, having a tenured position is considered to be very important for professors because of the intellectual freedom it can give to scholars in trying new ideas in research and teaching, following their interests in their fields with the intent of preserving the university as a place where the ideas flow freely.

Tenure-track system has been developed by the American research university and it regards the path that an academic professor has to follow in order to obtain a permanent position. This system is very demanding for junior academics but also it allows a clear view of the risks to take and the chances in further proceeding with the academic career, having three main stages: assistant, associate and full professor. Enders (2001) is describing it as a collegial-based type of organization where the lower rank academics have almost the same attributions as the full professors, their level being evaluated according to publicly recognized qualifications and expertise (Enders, 2001, p. 12). The probation period of non-tenured staff is short and the junior academics that want to follow an academic career have to pass a rigorous evaluation after the completion of their doctorate in order to receive a tenure-track position. When the tenure-track position is awarded, in the American system, a mobility period for experiencing a new environment away from the old networks and mentors is mandatory. At the end of this period, another evaluation – "six year up-or-out" – will be performed which will decide whether the candidate is eligible for a tenured position or is better to look for another career (Pechar, Park, 2012, p.9).

Forms of tenure and tenure-track around the world

Considering the diversity of the higher education systems around the world, American tenure-track system has been embraced by many countries but not exactly in the form presented above. The patterns to reach tenure vary considerably from country to country also because of the degree of centralization o f higher education systems. In the United States the higher education system is less centralized, meaning that universities have more freedom in organizing their activities and budgets, but throughout Europe and much of the rest of the world the academic systems are more connected to their governments, higher education being mostly public, controlled and financed by the state. This means that universities are not always free in giving permanent positions, but have to respect state imposed boundaries and regulations regarding the administration of human resources within the institutions.

The track in promoting a junior academic is not the same in much of European countries as in America, because of a wide gap between junior positions and senior ones. It's more common in Europe for a junior academic to have the security of the tenure, on a lower position, as assistant for example, but no guarantee of promotion like in America where the system provides more continuity. In Europe the promotion is more difficult because of the traditional and rigid chair system still used in many of the countries, mostly in Central and Eastern Europe where it had a major impact and it promotes usually one very powerful full professor for each department – the Humboldtian and Napoleonic variations. In this model, the untenured staff share is much wider than the one who holds a tenured position, the "chair holders" (Enders, 2001, p. 12). Reaching the position of a full professor it brings great increase in status and prestige, access to more resources and independence, but is a difficult process because of the need of a vacancy first in order to get a promotion. For example, in Germany, professors are "called" when a vacancy is opened; they cannot apply by themselves for this vacancy that is not even advertised, instead they have to wait for an invitation to be made to them that represents the application (Pechar, Park, 2012, p. 10). A large part of the junior academics have no chance to be promoted, as Pechar and Park (2012) are explaining, because of the limited professorship positions where each professor has around two assistants with habilitation (the second thesis after the doctorate) and six without it. In the North American system, this situation does not exist; the relation between these levels is more or less one to one.

With a very diverse landscape, the share of permanent positions in Europe vary from country to country; In Portugal is the lowest, less than 40 percent, in Germany and Finland tenured staff is around 40 to 50 percent, in Austria, the Flemish part of Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain it varies from 50 to 60 percent, in United Kingdom and the French speaking community of Belgium the permanent positions represent between 60 and 70 percent and the highest proportion is in France and Ireland, around 80 percent and in Italy around 90 percent (Altbach, 2000, p. 18). The structure of the staff also varies, in each country being characterized by different positions that have specific requirements mentioned in the university regulations in order to advance from one level to the other or is decided by special comities in the case of higher positions, on the basis of research performance, the quality of teaching and also administrative skills (Huisman, Bartelse, 2001, p. 93).

In Europe, most of the systems embraced elements from both, the US tenure model and the Humboldtian one in different degrees. In Germany the system is defined by the Humboldtian model but changes according to the American tenure model in the postdoctoral junior staff positions and changes regarding their independence are being noticed. Austria has also adopted a version of form of tenure-track inspired by the US model. The staff organization and career levels distinguish between assistant, associate and full professor with permanent employment possibility if the candidate succeeds. Germanic features are preserved too, mainly in promoting the internal recruitment and not mandatory mobility period, being possible to follow the whole career path in a single institution. Also, the tenure track stops at the associate professor level and it does not lead to a full professorship like it does in the American model (Pechar, Park, 2012, p. 21). Ireland, Norway at some extent and UK that abolished the permanent tenure positions, are following a more regular career pattern similar to US tenure track model. In UK the academic ranks are term held, around five years, with periodic evaluation that is rarely leading to the loss of a position, and the reappointment procedures (Altbach, 2000, p. 16). Greece also moved more towards the tenure model by structuring the academic staff in assistant, associate and full professor positions and abolishing the traditional chair system. In Spain, the chair system is the core, but also brought some tenure model elements by introducing a department structure. Chair model was also influent in Belgium, Finland and Sweden, but by supplementing professional and assistant positions by stable teaching positions brought similarities with tenure model. In Dutch universities the staff structure is similar to US tenure model by embracing three professional ranks and also permanent positions for assistants in teaching and research areas (Enders, 2001, p. 13).

Many changes have been encountered in higher education in the last years regarding tenure and tenure track. Even though in some countries like Greece, Ireland or Italy the tenured positions have been emphasized, in others, there is a debate around the future role and the meaning of it. Due to major changes that are influencing higher education around the world like the raising of accountability requests, increased competition for resources and funding, stricter control of academic performance through different quality assurance tools or institutional leadership, the reduction of permanent positions and the introduction of full-time untenured ones with specific time limits, or the growth of part-time posts are the new trends in academic human resource management.

Challenges and opportunities of tenure-track system

Tenure-track faculty position system derived from United States is spreading out the world in mostly adjusted way. It is becoming increasingly an issue in the European higher education that it can be considered as a new model for academic position in European universities. However, there are both various challenges and opportunities that should be taken into consideration.

Due to the fact that tenure-track is an “up or out” system (Pechar, Park, 2012, p.9), insecurity of the job is one of the most important drawbacks of the system. Junior academics on tenure-track have to show high performance in different field such as teaching, research, publishing and servicing to community. It is longwinded and exhausting probationary period that might result with the termination of the engagement in the further academic career for those on tenure-track. However, in some cases, probationary faculty members spend seven years of their life on average after finishing the PhD and then they can get fired if their results are considered not proper for fulfilling the criteria of being awarded a tenured position. A survey of American faculty revealed that, in a typical year, about one out of five tenure-track academics was denied tenure and lost his or her job (National Education Association, n.d.). Although it is said that tenure-track provides higher probability to obtain a tenured position, at the end, when comparing with the Humboldtian system, the risk of job termination brings also a degree of insecurity to it. Those on tenure-track cannot continue their academic career as junior faculty member. If they cannot pass the tenure review, they become unemployed in their 40s when a new career path is really difficult to be drawn.

Another challenge, which tenure-track system is facing with, is one of the general problems of the academic world – the diminishment in the proportion of academics pursuing a tenured position. The reason behind this shrinkage lies with both personal preferences of PhD graduates and institutional strategy of the universities. Firstly, solely a minor proportion of PhD graduates remain on the path of their academic career. Depending on the discipline, barely 40% of the post-graduate students plan an academic career due to attractive job opportunities outside of the academia. Most of them are employed either in private research institutions or in business, government or non-profit organisations (Huisman, Bartelse, 2001, p.45-77). The amount of salary is the major factor reducing attractiveness of tenure-track. Generally the average salary within the academia is lower than for economists, lawyers and engineers in many countries (Huisman, Bartelse, 2001, p. 47). Notwithstanding that higher education sector has low salary level, junior lecturers within the tenure-track receive even less than tenured positions. A person qualified for a tenured position has high probability to be successful in private sector as well, and able to get greater amount of salary in a shorter period. Therefore, the private sector becomes more and more attractive. Secondly, universities prefer less tenure-track agreements which promise academics tenure position at the end of probation period. For instance, Stankowski (2007, p10) indicated in her book that traditional university system has been changing towards one consisting of contract positions instead of tenure-track lines in United States. Due to the fact that higher education institutions have become more limited in financial and programme related issues, alternative appointment types, in which termination of the position is easier, has been increasingly emerged. Thus, the number of tenure-track agreements is decreasing while the number of full-time, non-tenure track faculty appointments is increasing. Although it brings financial and institutional flexibility to universities, it might threaten the quality of research and academic freedom and drive universities away from their core reason of existence. Therefore, personal preferences of PhD students towards job market outside of higher education institutions together with human resource strategies of universities results in a decrease the number of tenure-track agreements.

Uncertainty of determinants for obtaining tenured position that creates stress to junior faculty member is another important issue of tenure-track. Tenure obligations that have to be achieved consist of three main fields: teaching, research and publication, and service activities. They are all important activities that require certain amount of time and effort to spend on. Regarding limited time that a human-being has, being excellent in all three is challenging. Tenure-track faculty members need to make a balance between them; however, it is usually ambiguous for junior academics which activities are most important. Therefore, they just devote themselves on these activities blindly without being sure whether they are on the right track or not (Stankowski, 2007, p 21). A survey of 4,500 tenure-track faculty members conducted by the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education in 2006 revealed that there is a general discomfort with the clarity of tenure on their campuses. They rated tenure standards, tenure criteria and tenure process. On a scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 is “very clear”), they received scores as 3.3, 3.53 and 3.63 respectively. The clarity about tenure is less for those at private institutions than those at public ones (Frogg, 2006).

Besides the difficulties tenure-track has, there are also some positive points of it. One of the important features of tenure-track is its comprehensive and reliable evaluation process for tenure position. Reaching tenure and ensuring the job security is not easy on tenure-track. Probation period for tenure is long and rigid. Since the institution has enough time to oversee a tenure-track faculty member, there is less risk of “person misrepresenting themselves-their basic attitudes, work habits, goals, etc. – in order to obtain tenure and showing their ‘true colors’ afterwards” (Finkin, 1996). Moreover, there is a bigger chance of having a tenured position when following the tenure-track, yet there is also a risk of losing one’s job if the requirements are not properly fulfilled. Therefore, it increases the motivation of junior faculty members to improve their performance to be able to retain and promote their positions. Tenure-track system both protects the institutions to employ inactive and inadequate faculty members for longer-term and leads junior faculty to be more productive and eager to perform quality academic activities. Moreover, it is the period of juniors to prove themselves as independent researchers representing an important factor in the evaluation process since this is what is expected when they become tenure.

In United States and most of the European countries, mobility is required to have a tenured position. Academics are supposed to change their home institution where they have accomplished their research training. They are expected to prove themselves in a new environment, separate from their old networks and academic mentors. However, the mobility is obligatory at different stages in academics’ career in different systems and countries. For instance, in Humboldtian system, mobility should take place in the beginning of tenured position when academics are in their 40s typically. On the other hand, in the tenure-track system, young academics have to move after they complete their PhD, in the beginning of tenure-track position which corresponds to their early 30s on average. Their academic career begins in a new environment independently from their academic mentors. However, the mobility taking place in early stage in their academic career is better for both the institution and the person since adaptation to new institution is easier (Pechar, Park, 2012, p. 10). Moreover, academics have generally more freedom and less responsibility in terms of family in their early age; therefore, tenure-track system is more convenient for academics.

Academic freedom is one of the core values that universities want to have. Although it is achieved in some countries giving the universities autonomy to choose their own research area, in some systems junior academics do not have academic freedom. Despite the fact that assistant professors have high qualifications, they still assist full professors literally that leads junior academics to depend on professors' research topic. However, on tenure track, junior academics have to prove themselves as independent researchers who follow their own research. The freedom of choosing their topic creates more creative and diversified research environment within the university. That also boosts the motivation of academics who usually like to pursue their own curiosity.

Conclusions

Academic career around the world has encountered many changes driven by different social and economical factors. A decrease of permanent academic professorship positions and a higher insecurity level has been spreading out in exchange of more part-time and fixed time contract positions. Even though these trends become more popular, tenure positions remain important for the academic world, preserving the universities as places where the ideas flow freely when protecting the intellectual freedom in teaching and research activities.

A successful path in achieving tenure has been identified by the American research university. In this system, tenure-track is more collegial-based and follows three main stages, assistant, associate and full professor, providing a clear view upon the risks and chances in further proceeding with the academic career and assuring a tenured position to those who fulfil the requirements. This system has been lately embraced by many countries around the world, but in different ways. Because of particularities and the great diversity of the systems of higher education, in most of the countries can be identified elements from the American tenure-track in a unique mixture with the local governmental regulations and other traditional systems of tenure like the Humboldtian and Napoleonic ones dominating mostly in Central and Eastern Europe.

Tenure-track system had to face some challenges like the decreasing numbers of PhD graduates interested in following an academic career also due to the reduction of attractiveness that this path offers in contrast with others from the private sector. Also a degree of insecurity due to the "up-or-out" evaluation that can end the academic career of junior academics after years of engagement can affect the attractiveness of following an academic career and engaging in the tenure-track. Another important challenge in following the tenure-track is the uncertainty of the determinants for achieving the tenured position that sometimes can mislead junior academics from focusing on the right and most important activities.

Important features can also be identified in the tenure-track system like offering some protection to the institution when hiring tenure position academics by promoting juniors that have proven themselves as suitable for the job. American tenure-track system also awards freedom to junior academics in following their own research, giving them almost the same tasks as the full professors and perceiving them as in probation period rather than as assistant under the strict guidance of a senior professor.

Reference:

Altbach, Philip G. (2000), *The changing Academic Workplace: Comparative Perspectives*, Massachusetts: Boston college Center for International Higher Education.

Enders, Jürgen, Weert, de Egbert (2003), *The International Attractiveness of the Academic Workplace in Europe*, Berlin: Harnak-Haus.

Enders, Jürgen (2001), *Between State Control and Academic Capitalism: A Comparative Perspective on Academic Staff in Europe*, Westport: Greenwood Press.

Finkin, M. W. (1996), *The Case for Tenure*. New York: Cornell University Press.

Frogg, P. (2006), *Young Ph.D.'s say collegiality matters more than salary*, The Chronicle of Higher Education.

Huisman, Jeroen, Bartelse, Jeroen (2000), *Academic Careers: A Comparative Perspective*. Report - http://doc.utwente.nl/7812/ [Last accessed 07.01/2014]

National Education Assocation.(n.d.), *The Truth About Tenure in Higher Education.* Available: http://www.nea.org/home/33067.htm [Last accessed 06.01.2014]

Pechar,Hans, Park, Elke (2012), *Academic Careers during the Massification of Austrian Higher Education.Radical change or persistence of long-standing traditions*, Heidelberg: Springer.

Stankowski, R. H. (2007), *Contract Employment Vs. Tenure-track Appointments: Faculty at Master's Degrees Universities Speak About Their Choices*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: ProQuest Information and Learning Company. p10-21.

Inspirations: From MODERN Project to Higher Education Management Training in China

Qi Sun and Meijia Lu

1. Introduction

Human resource management has gained popularity in the area of higher education management recently; it refers to "those activities undertaken by an organization to effectively utilize its human resources" such as: recruitment, staff development, performance management, compensation, rewarding and training (Dowling, Festing & Engel, 2008). Among these activities, human resource training is appealing to some researchers, especially in the field of higher education. Human resource management training in higher education is usually related to leadership or management training.

The MODERN project, European Platform Higher Education Modernization, leading by ESMU (European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities) is a programme aiming at the study of current issues of human resource management in European higher education. It conducted surveys on higher education management in Europe and also provided some new ideas on human resource training.

In this paper, the study results from Project MODERN will be applied to analyze the current human resource training in China. Although China has its specific situation on human resource management, the inspirations from Project MODERN might still be able to bring some new thoughts of training to China.

2. The MODERN Project

The MODERN project is an EU-funded Structural Network under the Lifelong Learning programme (ERASMUS). The project is a consortium consists of around 40 partners joining forces providing a structured answer concerning the supply of management support to HEIs and encouraging the professionalization of higher education management at various levels (MODERN Leaflet, 2014). Partners are all associations and/or providers in the field of higher education management. The purpose of this platform is to assist solving the managerial problems brought by educational reform in HEIs in Europe. In order to increase the attractiveness and the competences of HEIs in Europe, "MODERN contributes to raising awareness in European higher education institutions on the strong need to invest in people, to support potential leaders and to encourage management training at all levels" (Maassen & Pausits, 2012, P5). One part of the MODERN project is Mapping The Field, which consists of three surveys (ibid, P10):

- The demand for higher education leadership and management training aiming at developing general leadership and management competences and skills in higher education;
- The supply of leadership and management training programs in HEIs;
- The second round needs analysis which was an extension of the first survey.

The first questionnaire mainly includes the background information of the HEIs and the working staffs from different groups in HEIs, main training challenges and needs, institutional investments and actions concerning leadership and management training needs, major gaps, priorities/urgency and management training needs of new managers and senior academic staff. The second questionnaire is made up of the following contents: basic information of the provider, study and training programs, the target audiences, contents, mode of study and training activities.

3. Inspirations From The MODERN Project

According to the study and results shown in MORDERN project, there are three perspectives underdeveloped in China : training targets, training contents and training forms. The following part will analyze those in detail.

3.1 The targets of the training should be clearly defined.

Maassen and Pausits had conducted surveys of the demands of the management training and the current provision of management training, and also analyzed the gaps between them. The survey groups were from several European HEIs and the groups were divided into four major categories with various sub-categories: institutional leaders (rectors, deans, administrative leaders, etc.), senior managers (central and faculty level senior administrative staff and senior administrators at departments and research centers.), new administrative staff from faculties, departments and research centers and the academic staff (ibid, P12-13). The project indicates that the trainings are designed to train the staff in HEIs to have better skills or strategic concepts of leadership, governance and management. These three perspectives contained in management trainings in HEIs merged by external and internal factors. The internal reforms include the competence ability, the transition from academic heartland to strategic thinking, and the keen requirements of highly performed abilities of leadership, management and governance. The eternal needs are from the gradually raising public duties and self-governance in HEIs. HEIs need the professional management skills to balance the different demands from publics and to control the power following the self-governance. All these perspectives lead the demands of modern HEIs to train management staff to know how to scientifically deal with policies or decisions, as well as the top leaders and the skills on strategic management and decision-making.

In the past, the targets of management training activities were narrowed by the demands of the central government in China, decision-making is not included especially. This might be caused by following reasons: First, the specialization of higher education in China resulting in the consequence that even a rector or dean in HEIs had limited right to conduct policy decision-making; Second, the role of the administrative staff is still under the influences from Mao’s period when the political and academic dimension appears to be more significant than culture, economic or other administrative factors (Cao, 1998, P30). Thus, the targets of training in China were mainly political. How to be politically correct to achieve a promotion is the target , while how to be a good leader after the promotion is not taken into account. So does the staff, even though they have the willingness to improve their management skills, the target of political correctness is overwhelming. The concepts of quality and structure of higher education are unlike those defined in western countries related with decision-making and administration. In contrast, for both political perspective and professional perspective, the targets of training are narrow. Regarding political perspective, the target is to pursue ‘insistence on socialist consciousness’ while the professional target focuses on teaching and training skills (Cao, 1998, P30). However, as already indicated in the external and internal factors, the target should meet the needs to promote governance autonomy, competition, and financing autonomy in University. Compared with the demanding targets showed in the survey, HEIs in China need to rethink what kind of leadership and management a university required. The leaders and managers need to acquire strong strategic thinking and vigorous decision-making process, in order to understand the different values and solve the complicated tasks (Burquel, 2012, P7).

In recent years, efforts have been made to formulate the target of training in China scientifically. However, the effect is not significant and this is obvious to see from one existed problem of higher education management training in China: the training activities and curricula are still not designed according to the different demands of the clients. For example, top leaders will not use some basic management skills and academic staff have no chance to make a decision or to use the leadership skills in China. However, the same training activities are provided to the two different level trainee groups. This may lead to a problem that parts of the training contents are useless to the trainees and lead the training per se gradually losing its attractiveness. If HEIs can not make a widely and clearly target at the beginning, it would be very hard to define a wider sub-targets to design the details.

3.2 The contents of the training activities should be well-designed.

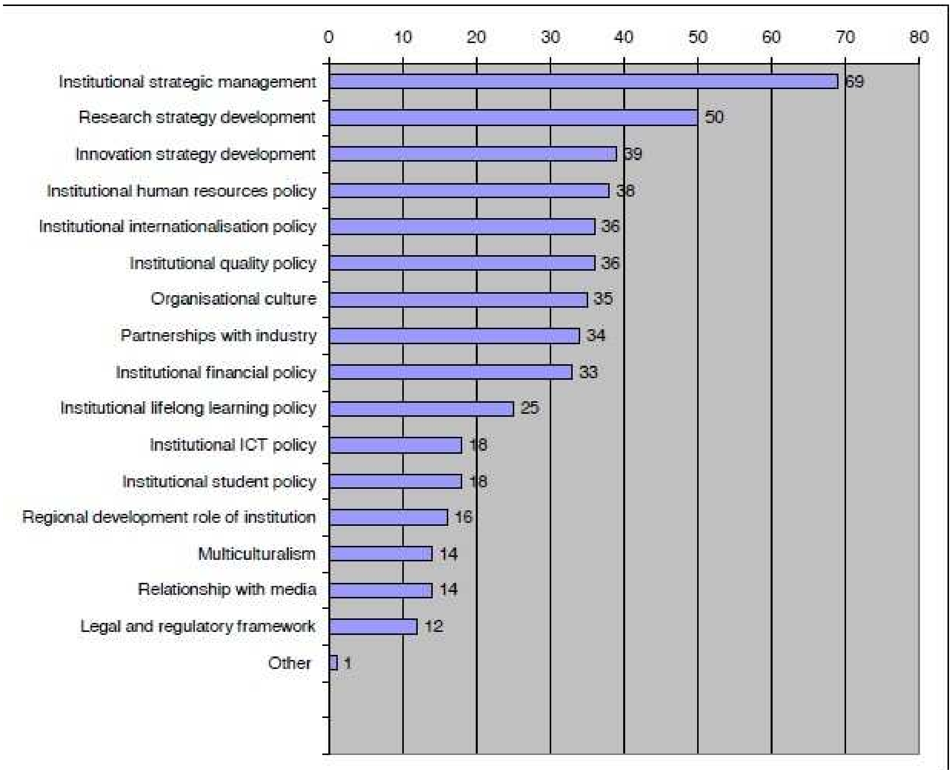

Figure 1. Areas of training needs for institutional leadership (source: Maassen & Pausits, 2012, P17)

From the survey of the needs in MODERN (Maassen & Pausits, 2012, P16-18), it is clear to see that training in strategic tasks is of high value for the leaders in HEIs while training activities concerning operational tasks are of great importance to managers. If we look at the Figure 1 in detail, the needs for institutional strategic management, research and innovation strategy development are at the top among the areas of needs for institutional leadership, followed by policies of human resources,

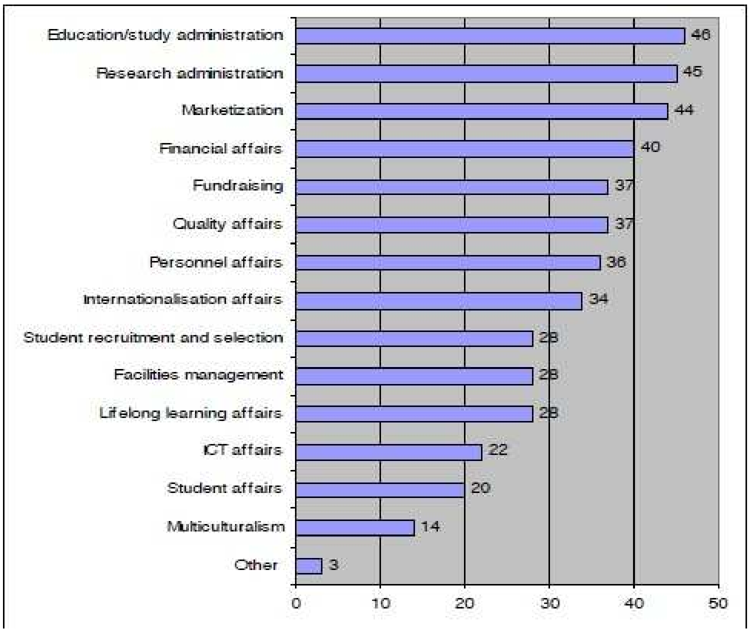

Figure 2. Areas of training needs for institutional managers (source: Maassen & Pausits, 2012, P18)

internationalization, institutional quality and finance. Those ranking top among the areas of training needs for institutional managers (Figure 2) are education and research administration, marketization and financial affairs, followed by fundraising and affairs of quality, personnel and internationalization. It is obvious to see from above that despite the differences between the two training fields, areas concerning human resources, finance, internationalization and quality were of great significance for the training activities both in institutional leadership and managers. Besides, the survey also analyzed the desired areas of leadership training from individual perspective (ibid, P21), where strategic management and innovation strategy again rank high among other options, following is the human resources policy, research strategy development, organizational culture and internationalization policy. These three survey results are also more or less suitable for HEIs in China.

Nowadays in China, the higher education system is under the significant transition from academic heartland to modern marketization, which requires the working staffs from top leaders to managers with more competences in HEIs. For instance, in the past, leaders in HEIs mainly followed the directions and instructions from the central government in academic, financial and other areas from day to day. However, HEIs could not survive without well-prepared leaders and managers. In order to realize the modernization of different types of HEIs with various focusing areas in China, leaders in HEIs need to develop their specific strategic plans which suitable for their own HEIs, as well as in line with the directions from the central government, which could only be achieved when leaders in HEIs are well equipped with the knowledge of institutional strategic management and research and innovation strategy development. Besides, financial issues are also of great importance to HEIs in reform. For example, there are more stakeholders in HEIs currently than before, which make the financial issues in HEIs more complicated than the past. Funding came mainly from the government in the past in Chinese HEIs. However, governmental funding is only a part of the HEIs nowadays, others come from the tuition fees from students, funds from industries and so on, that is one of the reasons why the option of training activities in partnerships with industry also ranked quite high in the areas of training needs for institutional leadership. As mentioned above, issues concerning finance were of great value from both perspectives of leaders and managers. That is also true in China, since from top leaders to senior managers and academic staffs, financial issues are inevitable. Only when the top leaders make wise decisions, managers implement the decisions and distribute the funding reasonably, academics use the funding for research activities effectively, the funds could be made the most of by HEIs without unnecessary wasting. Internationalization is another important issue for Chinese HEIs. With the Open Door Policy carried out in China, Chinese HEIs seek more cooperations with international HEIs in order to be able to engage more with the whole world and to achieve the aim of developing a number of world-class top universities. Thus, when designing the contents of the training activities for leaders and managers in HEIs in China, the areas mentioned above should be taken into consideration, other than the usual unpractical contents for the training activities.

3.3 The forms of the training activities should be reasonable arranged.

In the survey, four major training activities (master programme, short-time courses, conferences and seminars) were listed in the questionnaire to compare which is more efficient and which is the most popular one. The results show that the most efficient and ideal modes of training activities are master programme and short-time courses. While the conferences and seminars had a higher rate of support from the interviewees. However, these preferred form of training activities, such as conference or seminar chosen by the four-layer participants, were not the best way to develop the expertise. This kind of gap also exists in current Chinese higher education management training activities. In the speeches from the leader of Wuhan Textile University, Shang (2011) mentioned that the current management training activities in Chinese HEIs are limited mainly in two modes: conferences and courses, which had not achieved the expected goal of training. Indeed, Chinese higher education has its own features, however, the top leaders and managers prefer to choose a way which takes less time and will be more easier to continue studies. These gaps could be explained in a certain way under the Chinese special situation: professors sometimes took over the administrative work at full level, to persuade the staffs at the professor-title level to participate in the further training is quite difficult and this is also a main trouble confronting higher education management training (Hall, 2009, P20). Thus, the short-time conferences or simple courses are more persuasive, due to the fact that it will take shorter time and the form of the activities is discussion rather than teaching. Compared with China where Master level training is seldom provided, there are Master level training programs containing well-designed training activities in the USA and Europe. However, as stated, conferences and seminars are not the best methods to train staff with leadership and strategic management skills. The Master programs should be introduced into the management training system in China, and it could start from the senior management staff or the new coming staff who are eager to develop their managerial abilities.

Conclusion

Higher education management training is quite a new field of human resource development, but it has already gained more and more attention nowadays. In Europe and China, the higher education reforms are the incentive to raise management training in HEIs. The modernization of human resources management in HEIs meets the demands of the enhancement of competence, attractiveness and the satisfaction of stakeholders. However, management training in HEIs in Europe and China developed later than that in USA and has not perfected the training system yet. Thus, the necessary of complementing each other is required. Especially, higher education management training in China had been limited and restricted by old training patterns; the development has more deficiencies than that in Europe. The clear target division, modern and diversified mode of training activities, and the professional curricula design are all absent in higher education management training in China. Through the survey from the MODERN project, how the mapping of management training should be draw in China could be inspired. The gaps of governance, management and financing skills, as three main parts of higher education management training, should be filled if the training activities expect scientific developments on its organization of trainees, curriculum and patterns.

Higher education management training in China will have longer way to go compared with western countries, and this is decided by the specific higher education system. Will the experiences learnt from Europe and the USA be suitable for Chinese situation? This still need time to testify. It could be considered to establish an international management training platform, for instance, MODERN can cooperate with some Asian HEIs to set up a higher education management training platform. This might attract more resources and investments to MODERN as well as provide a boarder data for worldwide analysis of higher education management training. Moreover, for developing countries like China, they will have the chance to get involved in the more efficient management trainings directly. This may help some of the leaders or academic staff to change their inherent and conservative opinions on higher education management training. Last but not least, since higher education management training becomes more and more important worldwide, we hope the experiences and inspirations extracted from MODERN will be of great value not only to the management training development in China but also to other areas and countries.

Reference

Burquel, N (2012), Training university leaders and managers – why and how? *Leadership and Governance in Higher Education*, Volume No. 1, 2012

Cao,X.N. (1998), The Strategic role of Faculty Development and Management, *The Higher Education in Post-Mao China.* Hong Kong University Press, Hong Kong.

Hall, A. (2009), *Getting to Grips with Human Resource Management Resources for Governors of UK Universities and Higher Education Colleges.* Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, London.

Maassen,P.& Pausits, A.(2012), *MAPPING THE FIELD: Report on the Needs and the Supply of Higher Education Leadership and Management Training in Europe.* MODERN Platform Working Document

Peter J. Dowling, Marion Festing, Allen D. Engle(2008) *International Human Resource Management: Managing People in a Multinational Context*, Thomas Learning, London.

Shang,G. (2011), *A speech: Emphasizing the Higher Education Management Training.* (党委书记尚钢同志在培训班上的讲话：重视高校行管人员培训), WuHan Textile University. http://xcb.wtu.edu.cn/webs/study/view.asp?id=87

MODERN Leaflet, http://www.highereducationmanagement.eu/images/stories/MODERN_Leaflet.pdf (05.01.2014)

10. STAFF RECRUITMENT - POLICY AND PRACTICE

Milos Milutinovic and Raihan Mahmood Kadery

Introduction

Employees represent the most vital part of almost all organizations. Success or failure of an organization highly depends on the quality, skill and effectiveness of its employees. Organizations must, therefore, pay close attention to recruiting the right people and utilizing their capacities. Thus, the recruitment process is crucial for the organization's success. It is more vital for the universities because the major tasks of the universities, i.e. teaching and research, are mostly conducted by the academics. Universities must have knowledgeable academics to provide quality teaching and apply for ever competitive research grants thereby attracting the best students. Universities also need skilled administrators to ensure better learning environment by well integrating all the available resources. Universities should, therefore, have sound policy for recruiting both academic and non-academic staff. It should be mentioned here that only having good recruitment policy cannot ensure the good recruitment if the policy is not put in a good practice. The practice of recruitment policy differs from university to university based on the geographical, social, economic, and historical context of the university. This paper will concentrate on the practice of recruitment policy in European context. To do so, we will evaluate the practice of recruitment policy at the University of Glasgow, UK and the University of Novi Sad, Serbia. We selected those two universities because they are representative of the recruitment practice at universities in the UK and Serbia respectively. The reason behind choosing the UK and Serbia as the country context of our evaluation is that recruitment practices in those two countries exemplify two different notions of higher education system and recruitment practices in European Higher Education Area. For this reason, we believe that a comparison between those two contexts will help us better understand two different European recruitment perspectives in higher education. The discussion of the mentioned recruitment practices will be followed by a brief discussion about the concept of recruitment in higher education (HE) sector.

CONCEPT OF RECRUITMENT IN HE

Defining recruitment is not so easy because there is no single definition of recruitment style. Breaugh and Starke (2000) argued that “it is difficult to define the term recruitment and to distinguish what falls within the definition” (p. 431).

Recruitment can be viewed from different perspectives based on the types and contexts of the organizations. Recruitment policies and practices also depend on what type of organization it is and how the organization views the concept of recruitment. In this paper we will only concentrate on the recruitment policies and practices from the universities’ perspectives.

Recruiting staff has become a significant issue in higher education institutions because of the contemporary changes e.g. globalization, massification, mobility in higher education sector. Globalization of higher education is forcing the universities to increase technical and information literacy, make collaboration with other universities and create good branding (Wilen-Daugenti and McKee, 2008). Massification of higher education has caused a boost in the participation rate of school leavers and adult learners in higher education that created challenge for the governments to allocate full public funding for the universities. In this situation, universities now must rely on the industry and public agencies for additional funding. According to Davies (1998), all of those changes and external pressures shifted the universities from ‘teaching organization’ to ‘learning organization’. This new shift made the universities to reform their staffing policies because it is not possible for the universities to become ‘learning organizations’ without strong staff motivation, excitement and commitment (Davies, 1998).

“HR Policy presents specific guidelines to HR managers on various matters concerning employment. It states the intent of the organization about recruitment, selection, training, promotion, compensation and other aspects of human resource management” (Durai, 2010, p. 133). According to Middlewood and Lumby (1999), effective Humane Resource (HR) Policy is the key to the high quality educational experiences as it can improve quality, commitment, and performance of academic and non-academic staff within the universities. They also argued that educational institutions need effective HR policy because it provides a proactive and strategic background that can manage the rapid and complex change within education. However, making effective HR policy is still problematic and challenging in the university perspective because concepts of professionalism, professional autonomy and collegial approaches to decision-making within the universities resist the idea of ‘teachers to be managed as resource’ (Middlewood and Lumby, 1999).

We will now present the practices at two European universities and try to understand how they apply their recruitment policies.

RECRUITMENT POLICY AND PRACTICE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW (UK)

University of Glasgow is the fourth oldest university in the English-speaking world which was established in 1451. It is a broad-based and research intensive university with a global reach. This university has more than 23000 undergraduate and postgraduate students from 120 countries worldwide. There are more than 6000 staffs, including 2000 active researchers in University of Glasgow.

Policy of Recruitment

The aim of the University of Glasgow recruitment policy is to provide a well planned and executed recruitment and selection process that is timely and merit based and results in the appointment of high quality academic and non-academic staffs who meet the needs of the strategic direction of the university and is a positive experience for all involved. The major recruitment policies of University of Glasgow are as follows:

- University of Glasgow believes in Equal Employment Opportunity where all individuals are treated based on their merits and abilities. Throughout the recruitment process, no academic or non-academic staff will be discriminated on any unfair or unlawful grounds i.e. sex, race, disability, marital status, religion and/or belief. Even part-time and fixed-term academic and non-academic staffs should be treated similarly. By doing so, the university wants to ensure that in all cases the best candidate for the position is appointed.

- All who are involved with the recruitment and selection procedures are expected to ensure that their actions are consistent with the principles of recruitment policies. In order to ensure that all members of each Appointing Committee must have to undertake training in recruitment and selection. In addition, HR Department will be continuously monitoring the transparency and accountability of all the recruitment and selection procedures.

Practices in Recruitment

The recruitment practices of University of Glasgow go through following steps:

- Planning and preparation: If the university needs to replace a post, a staff request is completed on HR Payroll system by the department that needs to replace the post. In case of the replacement vacancy, university usually inputs the existing job description already held in the system. In some cases, university re-assesses the content of the current job position and modifies something if needed. When the university needs to create a new job position, the relevant department writes the job description and upload the job description in the university's e-recruitment system once financial clearance has been provided by the finance department. E-recruitment system of University of Glasgow allows all job seekers to look for their desired position and job description.
- Writing the job description: The content of the job description in University of Glasgow clearly reflects the duties, skills and experience required for the post. Every job description needs the final confirmation by the HR department before being uploaded in the E-recruitment system. A fully detailed and clear submission of a job description, in standard format, usually takes four working days to get the confirmation from HR department. In some cases, HR department asks for further information before giving the final confirmation.
- Advertising: After getting the confirmation from HR department, job posts are advertised on the University of Glasgow website. However in most Research and Teaching cases, vacancies are advertised globally i.e. in international publications, global websites and job boards like Euraxess portal, in order to ensure get attention of the strongest possible candidates.
- Forming the appointing committee: Members of the appointing committee are nominated by the Head of School/RI/Service or appropriate recruiting manager. When appointing the committee, careful consideration is given to take account of principles of Equality and Diversity. It is also ensured that at least one member of each sex has been appointed in the committee. Moreover it is mandatory for each member of the committee to take training in Recruitment and Selection.
- Shortlisting: The Appointing Committee identifies the essential and desirable criteria according to the job description, and compares and assesses evidence in each application form against those criteria. Based on this assessment, the Appointing Committee reaches a shortlist of candidates who are called for final interview.
- The Interview: Before the interview, each member of the Appointing Committee reviews job description, assesses the application form/CV, and bears in mind the essential and desirable criteria to decide which areas to explore and in what sequence. The Appointing Committee also ensures that all shortlisted candidates are interviewed on the same day and all candidates have a positive experience from the interview. In most cases of the academic recruitment, candidates need to make presentations during the interview session. Based on the interview and presentation session, interview panel members make separate ratings against the pre-determined essential and desirable criteria from the job description. The HR department takes the final decision about the recruitment based on the ratings of interview panel members.
- Recommendation and Induction: After making the final selection, the HR department does the pre-employment checks by verifying the qualifications and references of the selected candidate. After that University of Glasgow invites the new employees for induction in order to make them feel welcome in their new environment and to settle quickly into their new roles. During the induction period, the university provides the new employees information about Glasgow, accommodation, bank accounts and more. In addition, new employees are introduced with their colleagues, students, and workplace and job roles during the induction period.

RECRUITMENT POLICY AND PRACTICE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NOVI SAD (SERBIA)

The University of Novi Sad is the second largest university in Serbia with little over 45000 students and about 4900 academic and non-academic staff. According to the date from December 2012 there were around 3600 academic or research staff employed and some 1300 non-academic staff. The University comprises 14 faculties located not only in Novi Sad but also in other cities of the Autonomous Province of Vojvodina and its academic offer covers all major scientific fields (humanities, social sciences, technical sciences, natural sciences, and medicine), as well as arts. The University of Novi Sad sees itself as a university of regional importance and strives to improve its position by reaching the top 500 universities on the Shanghai ranking, but on the other hand its recruiting policies and more so practice have not changed much in last 30 years. Therefore – although there is no official statistics – it should not come as a surprise that the number of foreign researchers and academics at the University of Novi Sad is extremely low.

Policy of Recruitment

Under the current Law on Higher Education in Serbia universities are autonomous in the area of employment of academic as well as non-academic staff. The Law only prescribes types of academic ranks, general conditions for employment, and duration of employment for each academic rank, which are (from the lowest to the highest): teaching assistant, teaching fellow, assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor. Employment of non-academic staff is not regulated by Law and is part of the autonomy of the HEI. (Law on HE, 2005) Number of positions paid by the state is regulated by the Ministry bylaw based on inputs. HEI may employ additional staff, which they finance from own sources. (Bylaw, 2002)

Due to the nature of Serbia's HE system all staff, except the Secretariat of the University are actually employed at the level of the Faculty, which are usually legal entities. Regarding the employment of lower level academic staff (teaching assistant and teaching fellow) and all non-academic staff faculties can employ them following their own procedures. However, the appointment of all professors (from the assistant professor onwards) is done at the university level – by the university Senate – and according to university regulations covering the appointment of university teachers and after fulfilling the minimal conditions for appointment. Those minimal conditions are set by the National Council on Higher Education. (Law on HE, 2005: Article 11) The University has laid down general procedure for appointment (UNS, 2013a), but each faculty, additionally, specifies exact procedures and actions for appointment of all academic staff (professors and teaching assistants) (UNS, 2013c). These variations in regulations have tendency to create issues in quality between different fields and faculties.

Serbian system of employment of academic staff can be viewed variation of the American tenure track where only the full professors are actually 'tenured' – employed indefinitely – but the occasions where those on lower levels are either not reappointed or not promoted to higher rank are extremely rare. The Law on Higher Education (2005) and the procedure for appointment of professors, of all ranks, as well as teaching assistants (UNS, 2013a and UNS, 2013c) specify that only full professors are employed indefinitely, while all other academics are employed on 5-year contracts subject to reappointment or promotion to higher rank after the appointment period has ended. In order to be promoted to higher rank candidate needs to fulfil a set of criteria (scientific work, teaching work, mentorships (master and doctoral thesis), and contribution to the academic community (taking part in committees, scientific projects and management). Although in theory this promotes competition, in practice there is very little competition except for the entry positions, and thereafter the road towards achieving the status of full professor is just about straight forward.

Practices in Recruitment

At the University of Novi Sad following procedure is applied (UNS, 2013a and c):

- **Planning and preparation**: Dean makes the decision to open a vacancy either on his or her own or following a decision of the department confirmed by the Teaching and Scientific Council of the faculty. By rule this is done at least 6 months prior to end of appointment period. As faculties do not have HR departments it is usually up to legal department to formulise the job description and handle procedures.
- **Advertising**: All positions have to be advertised, but usually only in local papers and in the listing of the State Employment Agency; there is little or no actual interest in attracting competition, so therefore they are never advertised on University, faculty or Euraxess website. Indeed the competition is uncommon and appointments are commonly a shoe-in for the already working person. (UNS, 2013b)
- **Forming the Appointing Committee**: Faculty Election Council forms an Appointment Committee. Committee is comprised of 3-5 university professors from the same field and institution, and at least one from different institution; all should be of equal or higher rank than the position which is advertised. Majority of members must be from the scientific field for which the position is open. Members of the Committee normally do not have nor does university/faculty offer training in recruitment and selection.
- **Drafting the report**: Appointment Committee drafts a report on all candidates who applied for the position and makes recommendation for appointment. There is usually a 60-day deadline to draft the report but no concrete consequences are stipulated in case of delays. No shortlisting or interview process is foreseen and candidate(s) is/are judged based solely on their CVs. All committee reports are published in the University journal which is available online for 1 month and anyone can lodge a complaint in this period, thereby providing transparency of the process. Looking at the official Journal of the University of Novi Sad (2013b) in the period between 1 September and 15 December 2013 there were 251 open positions. Only 27 percent had more than 1 candidate applying and only 10 percent if it was appointment of a professor (assistant, associate or full). In cases where multiple candidates applied it was mostly 2-3 and never above 7. There was not a single case where the candidate who was already working at the faculty was not recommended by the Committee, as the indicators for appointment are set in such a way that discourages and prevents outsiders to stand any realistic chance of being selected. It is also not uncommon that for the position of assistant professor or lower the head of the appointment committee has numerous joint publications with the recommended candidate, and there are no regulations that address this direct conflict of interest. Most outside candidates were coming from industry and would therefore lack the previous teaching experience and/or contribution to the academic community that would disqualify them from being real contenders. It is generally uncommon for Serbian academics to change universities during their careers (except for going abroad), which lowers potential competition.
- **Final selection**: The recommendation is then sent to the Faculty Appointment Council, which can adopt the recommendation or oppose it in which case the appointment procedure is re-started. If the recommendation is adopted this is then sent to the University Senate, which makes the final decision after getting the opinion of the appropriate Expert Council for the field the appointment is made.
- **Induction**: At the end the candidate signs the work contract with the dean of the faculty. There is no official induction of any kind. Appointed professors do not officially hold first lecture.

When it comes to the recruitment of non-academic staff there are no regulations and procedures except those indicated in general laws. Job vacancies are usually not advertised and appointments are made by the dean directly. In a country that has official unemployment rate of 26%, this non-transparent process represents a major issue for quality and potential for corruption. It also leaves the recruiting policy in hands of few influential people.

COMPARISON

The two recruitment practices that were described in this paper are in many ways opposite to each other. In both instances we have observed similar general appointment procedures in case of hiring of academic staff. However, the practices and purpose of the procedure at the University of Glasgow were clearly aimed at improving recruitment, attracting as many applicants as possible, and ensuring the very best are appointed. In contrast, the practices at the University of Novi Sad were clearly aimed at retaining the current staff – indicated by the number of applicants per open position. In addition, the University of Novi Sad, including its faculties, does not have an HR department, which suggests that the recruitment policy and practice is, at the moment, not of high enough importance. At the University of Novi Sad there were no procedures for hiring of non-academic staff to speak of, thus we can only conclude that its use as a political tool takes precedence over the ensuring transparent and fair system, as well as providing quality administration. Comparing these two systems, we must also take into account the language of instruction at both institutions, which, in case of University of Glasgow, clearly contributes to the competitiveness.

CONCLUSIONS

Looking at the procedures and practices for recruitment of staff at the University of Glasgow and Novi Sad we concluded that these two institutions represent two poles of the spectrum. One highly transparent and competitive aimed at attracting and selecting only the very best and the other a closed system with very little or no competition from the outside. Following the definition of recruitment by Breaugh et al. (2008), the University of Novi Sad, in policy and practice, does not strive to create a pool of applicants; rather it is aimed at maintaining the status quo and retaining the current staff. On the other hand, the fact that Serbian is not a widely spoken language, poor financial situation, and lack of English-taught programs act as deterrent to competition from abroad. General reluctance of university teachers in Serbia – as well as in former Yugoslavia – to change work, limits the potential pool of suitable candidates. Internationalization can be seen as a way to change and improve the current situation at the University of Novi Sad.

References

Breaugh, J. A., Macan, T. H. and Grambow, D. M. (2008). Employee recruitment: Current knowledge and directions for future research. In G. P. Hodgkinson and J. K. Ford (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 23, pp. 45-82). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Breaugh, J. A. and Starke, M. (2000). Research on employee recruitment: So many studies, so many remaining questions. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), pp. 405-434

Bylaw on norms and working standards on public-financed universities and faculties/ *Uredba o normativima i standardima uslova rada univerziteta i fakulteta za delatnosti koje se finansiraju iz budžeta* (2002). Službeni glasnik RS, br. 015/2002.

Davies, J. L. (1998) The Shift from Teaching to Learning: Staff Recruitment and Careers Development Policies for the Universities of the Twenty-First century. *Higher Education in Europe*. 23 (3). P. 307-316

Durai, P. (2010) *Human Resource Management*. New Delhi: Pearson Education India.

Law on higher education/Zakon o visokom obrazovanju, (2005) Službeni glasnik RS, br. 76/05, 100/07, 97/08, 44/10, 93/12 i 89/2013.

Middlewood, D. and Lumby, J. (1999) *Human Resource Management in Schools and Colleges*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

The University of Glasgow (2013). *Human Resources: Recruitment and Induction* [Online]. Available from: http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/humanresources/recruitment/ [Accessed: 15th December 2013]

The University of Novi Sad (UNS) (2013a). *University regulations for appointment* [Online] Available from: http://www.uns.ac.rs/sr/statut/pravilnici/davanjeSaglasnosti.pdf [Accessed: 28 December 2013]

The University of Novi Sad (2013b). *Official Journal of the University* [Online] Available from: http://www.uns.ac.rs/sr/izborZvanje/bilten1448.html [Accessed: 28 December 2013]

The University of Novi Sad (2013c). *Faculty of Economics appointment procedures for academic staff* [Online] Available from: http://www.ef.uns.ac.rs/pravilnici-uputstva-formulari/pravilnik-o-izboru-nastavnika-i-saradnika-v1.pdf [Accessed: 28 December 2013]

Wilen-Daugenti, T. and McKee, A. (2008). *21st Century Trends for Higher Education*. [Online] August 2008. Available from: http://www.cisco.com/web/about/ac79/docs/wp/21st_Century_Top_Trends_POV_0811.pdf [Accessed: 8th February 2014]