Title of the Thesis:

Leadership and Institutional Adaptation in Turbulent Times:

A study of the survival and expansion of LAU since 1975

Renee Ghattas

UMI Number: U496435

UMI U496435

ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

To my husband, children and grandchildren.

Acknowledgement

Abstract

Title: Leadership and Institutional Adaptation in Turbulent Times:
A Study of the Survival and Expansion of LAU since 1975
By Renee Ghattas

The focus of this research emerged from an interest in education management at university level, aiming at studying the factors leading to the development, growth, and survival of an educational institution, the Lebanese American University (LAU) during the civil war and post war period, i.e., from the year 1975-76 to the year 2000-01.

The researcher used the qualitative research technique in order to explain and understand how and why people at LAU accounted for, took actions, and managed their day-to-day lives during the period under study. The people selected participated in the operations of the university or studied at LAU. The sample included eight people from the management group, eighteen faculty members and twelve alumni. The faculty members and alumni are divided into old-timers and new-timers, and the entire sample is divided into females and males. The semi-structured interviewing technique was used because it was considered more appropriate for cross-referencing and comparisons through interview schedules. In addition, the writer refers to magazines, bulletins issued by LAU, local and foreign journals and newspapers, and other published material.

The systematic investigation of the story of LAU led to the development of three models for understanding leadership. The first model was developed from what theorists have said about the factors affecting leadership. The second model describes the life cycle at LAU. It was reached after a deep analysis of the data collected. The third model is a generalisation of LAU case, theorising about leadership during turbulent times. The findings show that institutions need a strong and rooted team spirit and a transformational, charismatic and distributive leadership (distributed among peer group) in order to face and survive turbulent times. The findings indicate the importance for institutions to adapt and change their internal culture(s) and their leadership style as environmental condition changes. When the force of change weakens, institutions enter a period of consolidation. The leadership style needed then is transformational, transactional, coupling delegated leadership with distributive leadership (distributed among the management group).

Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Chapter 3

Methodology

Chapter 4

Findings

Chapter 5

Analysis and Interpretation of the Findings

Chapter 6

Conclusion

List of Figures

List of Models

Glossary of Terms

BCW	Beirut College for women
F.A1.N	Female Alumnus New Graduate No. 1
F.A1.O	Female Alumnus Old Graduate No. 1
F.A2.N	Female Alumnus New Graduate No. 2
F.A2.O	Female Alumnus Old Graduate No. 2
F.A3.N	Female Alumnus New Graduate No. 3
F.A3.O	Female Alumnus Old Graduate No. 3
F.F1.N	Female Faculty New Timer No. 1
F.F1.O	Female Faculty Old Timer No. 1
F.F2.N	Female Faculty New Timer No. 2
F.F2.O	Female Faculty Old Timer No. 2
F.F3.N	Female Faculty New Timer No. 3
F.F3.O	Female Faculty Old Timer No. 3
F.F4.N	Female Faculty New Timer No. 4
F.M1	Female manager No.1
F.M2	Female manager No.2
F.M3	Female manager No.3
LAU	Lebanese American University
M.A1.N	Male Alumnus New Graduate No. 1
M.A1.O	Male Alumnus Old Graduate No. 1
M.A2.N	Male Alumnus New Graduate No. 2
M.A2.O	Male Alumnus Old Graduate No. 2
M.A3.N	Male Alumnus New Graduate No. 3
M.A3.O	Male Alumnus Old Graduate No. 3
M.F1.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 1
M.F1.O	Male Faculty Old Timer No. 1
M.F2.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 2
M.F2.O	Male Faculty Old Timer No. 2
M.F3.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 3
M.F3.O	Male Faculty Old Timer No. 3
M.F4.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 4
M.F5.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 5
M.F6.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 6
M.F7.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 7
M.F8.N	Male Faculty New Timer No. 8
M.M1	Male Manager No.1
M.M2	Male Manager No.2
M.M3	Male Manager No.3
M.M4	Male Manager No.4
M.M5	Male Manager No.5

Chapter One

Introduction

Introduction

Lebanon is waking up from a major crisis, the civil war, which started in 1975 and lasted a devastating sixteen years. During that period, some institutions were able to find the proper ground for growing and developing whereas, others were not so fortunate. Although many institutions, including schools and universities, were greatly hit by the catastrophes of the civil war, almost like a miracle, the Lebanese American University (LAU), instead of collapsing or shrinking in size, has grown substantially, developing new programs and strengthening old ones. It changed from a small college and one campus to a medium size university with three campuses in different areas of Lebanon.

The writer believes that the case of LAU can shed some light on the leadership of institutions of higher learning during difficult times. Similarly, a number of researchers such as Deal and Kennedy (1988); Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi (1985); Blanchard, Carew and Parisi-Carew (1990); Covey (1999); and Gilmour (2002) used case studies or stories in their work on leadership.

The Purpose of the Study

The focus of this research emerged from an interest in educational leadership at the university level. The aim was to study the factors affecting the survival of institutions of higher learning during turbulent times, such as the internal culture, values and standards of behaviour, leadership style and gender differences, the process of change and the curriculum choice offered.

Aims and Objectives: Importance of the Study

The researcher selected to study the survival of the Lebanese American University during the civil war and the post-war periods, i.e., from 1975 to 2001. She attempted to reconstruct, as accurately as possible, what happened at LAU during that period by studying the factors that have made the survival and growth feasible. Nussbaum,

(2001) talking about September 11 when the two towers of the World Trade Centre and the Pentagon were attacked by three hijacked planes and a fourth hijacked plane crashed in Pennsylvania (USA), reflects that tragedy has the power to transform us but rarely is the transformation permanent. The writer wanted to study the transformation LAU experienced during the war and the effect of such a transformation. She believed that there was, probably, something of interest to be relayed to people elsewhere, especially since the world nowadays is considered a global village where every person has a role to play.

The case of LAU can serve as an example of survival and growth for institutions of higher learning. It may provide sociological insights, which can be directly interpreted and put to use, or which may form an archive of descriptive material rich enough to encourage subsequent interpretations. The need for educational leadership in critical conditions has increased, especially because riots, wars, and financial difficulties have risen dramatically in the world. A study of the internal culture, the leadership behaviour and style, leadership and gender differences, and the curriculum choice offered through turbulent times, at university level, is according to the researcher a virgin land not yet explored.

Because of differences in the socio-economic environment in Lebanon and in the world in general, writers and politicians have been more than ever concerned about the peaceful co-existence of nations. They have concentrated their efforts on the cultural dialogue between people from different educational and/or religious backgrounds. Just as an example, on October 17, 2002, the Francophone Summit was held in Beirut, the capital of Lebanon, in order to discuss the cultural dialogue among different nations speaking the French language (Tueni, 2002). The theme of the summit was "from a diversity of cultures to a culture of diversities" (Gendreau-Massaloux, 2002, p.1). In general, little attempt has been made in the literature to explain the characteristics, functions, types and changes of organisational culture during difficult times.

Many Arab authors have written about women in their daily lives in the village (Nasrallah, 1990, 1995, 1998), or about their contribution to the culture of countries of emigration such as Brazil (Ghattas-Rassi, 1992, 2001) or considered them as a

2

source of satirical anecdotes (Rassi, 1979) or studied employment opportunities and gender differences (Homsi, 2003). Only one study (Khairallah, 1996) cited biographies of successful Arab women who reached top academic and/or administrative positions. None of the authors mentioned above studied the behaviour of women in the context of leadership behaviour and style and gender differences, one of the contexts of this research.

This study is designed to contribute to existing theory in a number of ways:

First, it should provide an evaluation of existing theory through appraising contemporary theory in the light of current practices at LAU.

Second, it should give rich insights into those aspects and conditions under which leadership styles and gender differences, culture and the process of change, can be managed.

Third, by focusing on a single case, LAU, this study is intended to contribute to the growing literature on organisational culture and change, on leadership and culture, on leadership and gender differences, and on curriculum and market demand, by uncovering their specific natures.

Scope of the Study

The researcher used story telling (a narrative account) and a picture-drawing (descriptive account) case study of what happened at LAU from 1975 till 2001. Support for such an approach is found in the work of other researchers such as Bassey (1999), who used a story telling case study "the Nottinghamshire staff development project 1985-1987". Similarly McMahon et al. (1997) used a picture-drawing case study in a work based on a primary school in Bristol, a school which has a vibrant and exciting atmosphere... Chapter three defines story telling and picture drawing case studies in detail.

Position of the Researcher in the Setting

According to Greenfield and Ribbins (1993, p. 63), "What we see depends in large measure on what we believe we are going to see. It may be argued that we see, hear, and feel nothing without first having ideas that give meaning to our experience". The

researcher has been a full-time faculty member at LAU since 1978. She served the university on the Beirut campus, as a faculty member for twenty-five years and assuming administrative positions from time to time. She spent a significant part of her life teaching at LAU during the period under study. At times during the war years she used to be worried about the possible survival of the university. She witnessed not only the survival, but also the growth of the university while living through the difficulties encountered. She has questioned why LAU could grow and survive, whereas other sister institutions could barely keep their positions in the university education market. She has selected the main Beirut campus as the field of study because the other campuses were founded during the war and have smaller enrolment in student numbers.

This work was the distillation product of the researcher's thinking over more than two years of labour. It shaped itself through her professional career at LAU. According to Radnor (2002) insider evaluation is more valid than evaluation carried out by outsiders, on the ground that practitioners have access to their own intentions, motives and feelings. They know the setting first hand and are in a position to gain access to the situation. In general, individuals construct personal meanings in the context of the ideas, thoughts and beliefs, and values provided by the social and cultural environment in which they live. These ideas, thoughts, beliefs, and values can only be made meaningful to individuals to the extent that they make sense to them (Taylor, 1995).

The researcher is in an ideal position to pursue such a study since she is familiar with the people working at the university. She agrees with Radnor (2002, p. 21) that she "can come to know" through her subjective understanding. She realises that she can never reach some kind of objective knowledge that everyone shares in a complete sense, but she can, as an insider, come to an understanding of the reality through negotiating meanings in an intersubjective way. Since she is an old-time faculty member who has held administrative responsibilities from time to time, she shares the same cultural environment of the interviewees and, thus, can make sense of and understand their ideas, thoughts, beliefs and values. A detailed discussion of insider evaluation is included in chapter three.

Historical and Policy Context

Lebanese and Arab Culture

Arab culture is characterised as heterogeneous (Barakat, 1993). Arab countries differ widely with regard to cultural attributes such as ethnic, linguistic, sectarian, tribal, local, and regional. Lebanon belongs to the group of Arab countries that are close to heterogeneity for being more of a mosaic in structure and social composition (Barakat, 1993; Salibi 1976). However, regarding the leadership style of Arab management, Badawy (1980) referred to autonomy, or ample space for action, and strong interpersonal relationships, as the two highest needs of Arab managers.

Gender discrimination is part of Lebanese culture (Nasrallah, 1990; 1995; Homsi, 2003). Because education is highly valued and culturally admired, Lebanese people, both men and women, try their best to pursue their education to the university level (Kibbi, 1995). The reason being that men consider university education as a path for a good career, and women consider it as an asset allowing them to attract qualified husbands (Ghattas Rassi, 2001). This high demand for university education encouraged the foundation of new universities bringing the total number of universities in Lebanon to around 45 in 2002 (Haidar, 2002; Salameh, 2002).

Historical Background of LAU

The Lebanese American University was founded in 1924 by the American Presbyterian Mission (Nicol, 1956) in the RasBeirut area, where the greater part of the foreign community in the city resided and where most of the high-class hotels and foreign embassies were located (Salibi, 1976). It was called at that time the American Junior College for Women. In 1924 "It was just a small gathering of about 100 American Presbyterian missionary educators and Lebanese dignitaries and friends who were beginning to hold a joint venture the founding of the first college for women in the Middle East" (Nassar, 2000, a, p.1). The institution started as a college for women, the Beirut College for Women (BCW) providing higher education, opening new opportunities, bringing western (American) and Christian education to women of the Middle East at a time when this influence was especially needed because such opportunities were lacking (Nicol, 1956). In 1975, because of the high

demand for university education in Lebanon, the institution started accepting male students. Then, the name was changed to Beirut University College, to become finally in 1995 the Lebanese American University (LAU). It changed from a Christian college for women to a secular university open to male and female students (Nassar, 1999). The number of students enrolled increased from around 500 students in 1975, developing into a medium size university with around 4,500 students in 2001, spread among three campuses in different areas of Lebanon (Haidar, 2000, a).

The civil war started in 1975 in the south of Lebanon and very quickly spread all over the country, reaching Beirut, the capital. Shells started falling all over the country, including LAU campus. Militants occupied major university buildings. Some of the students belonging to political groups used to fight at night and attend classes during the day. They often argued with the faculty about the grades they deserved threatening them in case the grade was not up to their expectations. Beirut became more like a ghost town or a military front with no water, no electricity, and no telephone systems working (Makdisi, 1991). The aim of the researcher in describing the situation on campus was not to talk about the war itself and its causes, but to give the reader an idea about what was happening on campus some of the time.

In addition, during the civil war, the Ras-Beirut area was the only area in Lebanon that remained confessionally mixed (Fisk, 1992) (See Figures 1-1 and 1-2). Muslims and Christians the latter basically Greek Orthodox lived together as one community (Khalaf, 1993). In other parts of the country, " a considerable emigration of Christians from Muslim areas, and Muslims from Christian areas had already taken place.... In many parts of the country which remained confessionally mixed, feelings were uneasy; relations between the Christians and Muslims in such areas often became more polite than cordial, and in some instances began to show clear signs of strain"(Salibi, 1976,p.137).

Figure 1.1 From Abraham, A.J. (1996) The Lebanon War. London: Praeger

Religious communities in Beirut, ca. 1945

Mediterranean Sea

Port

AIN MRAISSE

KARANTINA

Martyrs' ASHRAFIEH
Square

RAS BEIRUT

BOURJ
HAMMOUD

MSEITBEH

NABAA

MAZRAA

SINN EL-
FIL

Museum

FAKHANI

Hippodrome

DEKWANEH

SABRA

FOURN
EL CHEBBAK

TEL AL-
ZAATAR

JNAH

Stadium

AIN EL-
RUMMANEH

CHIYAH

| Sunnites | Maronites | Greek Orthodox | Armenian | Boundary of the Municipality of Beirut |

7
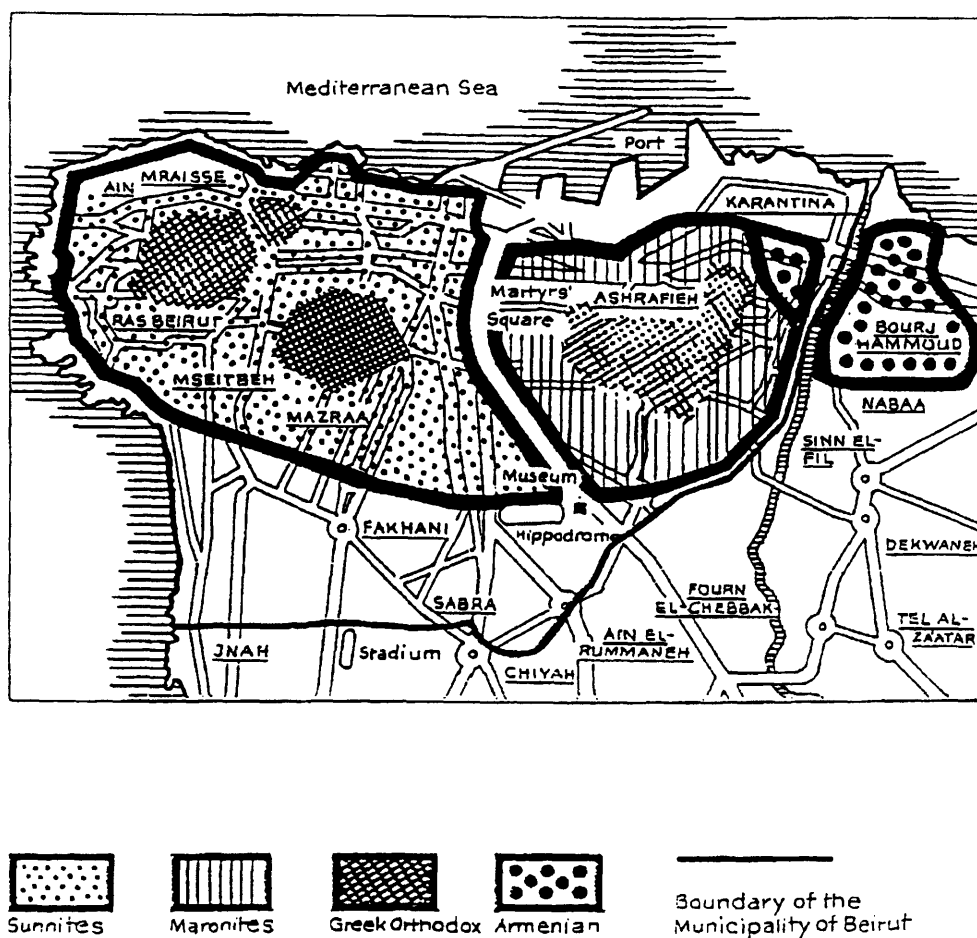
Figure 1-2. From Abraham, A.J. (1996) <u>The Lebanon War.</u> London: Praeger

Religious communities in Beirut by area, 1984

········ 'Green Line'

Palestinians   Shiites   Sunnites   Armenians   Maronites   Greek Orthodox
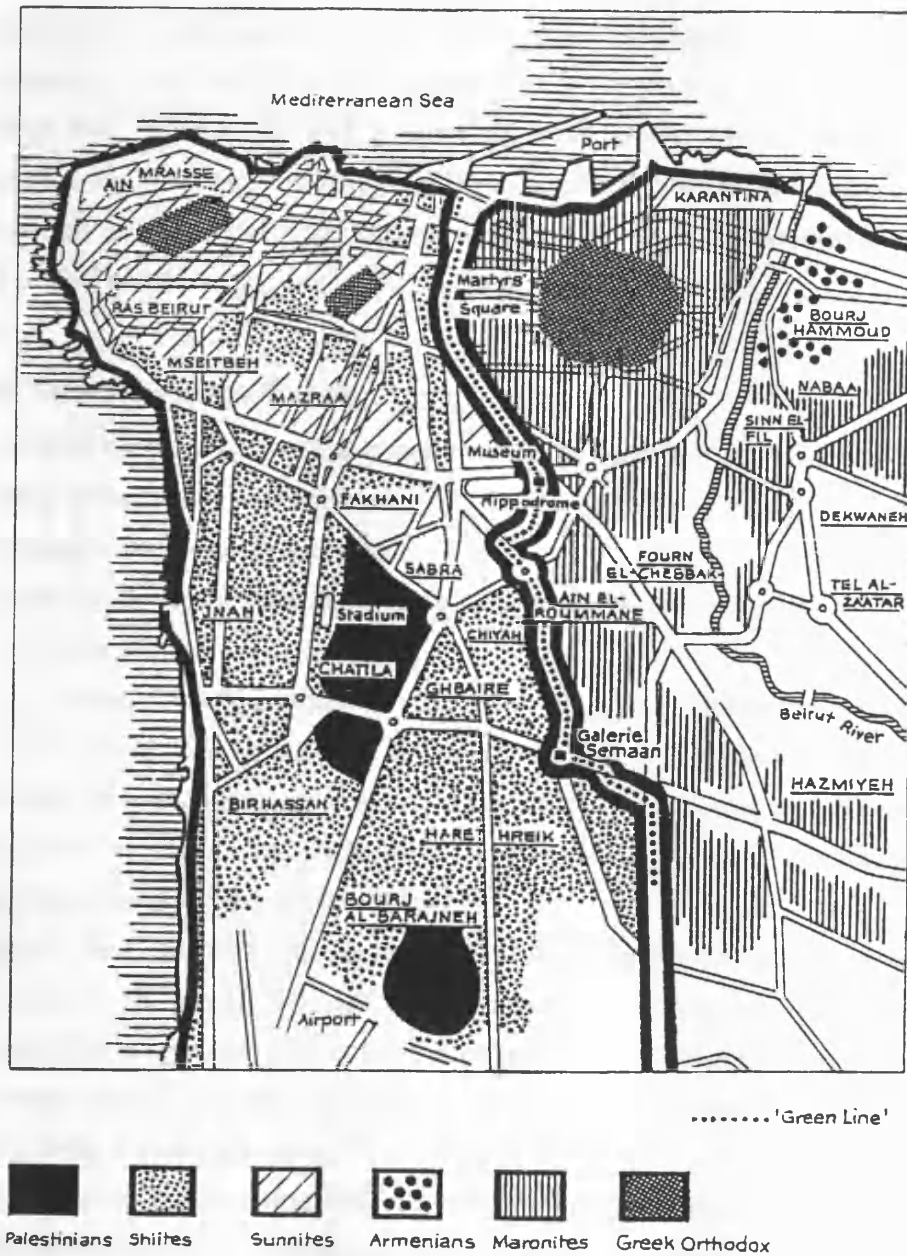
Period Studied

This study divides the life of LAU into two periods. The first period extends from the academic years 1975-76 to 1994-95, and the second from 1995-96 to 2000-01. These periods are not totally separate but exist on a continuum, overlapping each other. The first period covers the civil war and the early post-war years up to 1995 when the college was officially declared a university. The second period, LAU today, represents the life of the university, until the date when the data for this research was completely gathered. For simplification, the researcher refers to the first period as 'the war period' and the second one as 'the post-war period'.

The Structure of the Thesis

The title of the thesis is "Leadership and Institutional Adaptation in Turbulent Times: A Study of the Survival and Expansion of LAU since 1975".

The thesis is composed of six chapters:

-Chapter one deals with the context of the problem, the significance of the study, and the conceptual framework.

-Chapter two reviews the literature. It starts with a discussion of the internal culture of an organisation, the development of teams, the different leadership style, the leadership style and gender differences, the process of change, and the educational program or curriculum choice offered. The chapter ends with a model describing the leadership process and the factors affecting it.

-Chapter three discusses the methodology used. In order to gather necessary information, the researcher used semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis. The sample selected was made of people who have either participated in the operations of the university as members in the management group or as faculty, or belong to the alumni association.

-Chapter four includes the data collected, using the above-mentioned instruments.

-Chapter five presents the analysis and interpretation of the data. The researcher used primary data obtained from interviews supplemented with secondary data obtained from magazines, newspapers, students' contract sheets, and LAU catalogues. The chapter includes a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the issues stemming from the findings and develops a three-stage model representing the life cycle of LAU during the periods studied.

-Chapter six summarises the work done and concludes with a model for understanding the leadership process during turbulent times.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

Leadership makes the critical difference in the success, or otherwise, of organisations across the whole spectrum of life: education, church, business, military, politics and government (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). The field of leadership study has been in a state of confusion for decades (Yukl, 2002). Many different theories and explanations of leadership have been developed because of the interest in leadership as a practice and as a research topic. Since the researcher was studying the leadership, adaptation, and survival of LAU during turbulent times, an attempt was made to integrate a large number of leadership theories into one comprehensive framework. The framework selected focuses on the major sets of variables that influence the leadership process, which is made up of the internal culture of an organisation, leaders' characteristics, traits, behaviour and style, including gender differences, group members or followers' characteristics, the process of change, and the curriculum choice offered.

The issue of leadership has been well researched by different authors. For example, Deal and Kennedy (1988), Damiani (1998), Dubrin (2001), Murphy (2001) and others studied leadership in business organisations, whereas Bolman and Deal (1991), Bush and Colman (2000), Gronn (1997; 1998; 2003), Leithwood, Jantzi, Geijsel and Sleegers (2002), Leithwood, Steinbach and Ryan (1997), Hallinger and Kantamara (2001), Murphy (2001), Heck (1996) and others studied leadership in schools. According to Fullan (1999, p. 31) "schools and business firms are in similar predicaments. Their environments are tumultuous, uncertain and increasingly intrusive". They are, however, different because education is much more explicitly and deeply a moral enterprise, providing schools with an inspirational mandate of a higher order. In this chapter, the researcher considers studies conducted of both business organisations and schools, referring, when necessary, to the type of organisation the theory applies to.

This chapter is divided into four main sections, which in turn formulate the framework of the research.

1. The first section covers a discussion of the internal culture of an organisation, a situational variable affecting the performance of institutions in general and educational institutions in particular. In this research work the term internal culture and organisational culture is used synonymously.

2. The second section deals with leadership behaviour and style. The researcher includes an overview of transactional, transformational, and distributive leadership. In addition, the researcher lists and explains some of the situational variables, which could have a bearing on how effective the leadership attempt can be, such as development of teams, group member characteristics, motivation, and performance. In addition, consideration is also given to leadership and gender differences in behaviour and style.

3. The third section considers the process of change, i.e., the need for change, the basic steps of change, and the reaction to change

4. The fourth section examines the educational programs offered. The researcher starts with a definition of the curriculum and its purpose, followed by a discussion of the market demand for university education.

The Internal Culture of an Organisation

Recent research has shown that a substantial proportion of the variation in effectiveness among schools and universities is due to the variation within the institutions (Busher and Harris, 1999; Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 1997; Coleman, 1966). In fact, there is a link between leadership and the culture of the organisation (Busher and Harris, 1999). According to Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley, and Beresford (2000) culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin because leaders create cultures when they create groups and organisations. Once cultures exist, they determine the criteria for leadership and thus determine who will or will not be a leader. In general, successful institutions spend years cultivating cultures that support innovation and consider their cultures to be part of their competitive advantage (Deal and Kennedy, 1988; Busher, 2001; Gilmour, 2002). Similarly, a healthy culture can promote identification (who we are), legitimization (why we need to do what we do), communication (with whom we talk), coordination (with whom we work), and development (what the dominant perspectives and tasks are) (Robbins, 2001).

Culture: Definition and Shared Meaning

Although there is no single widely accepted definition of culture, there appears to be some agreement that such a definition should emphasise the pluralistic and holistic nature of the concept while encompassing its tangible and intangible qualities (Messmer, 2001; Danesi and Perron, 1999). The analysis of culture is not an experimental science in search of a law but an

interpretive one in search of meaning (Weber, 1968). Thus, culture can be defined as the acquired knowledge people use to interpret experience and generate behaviour (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Schein, 1997). It should account for the behaviour of people by describing what it is that they know that enables them to behave appropriately given the dictates of common sense in their community. Thus, culture is the collective sum of beliefs, values, meanings and assumptions shared by a social group and that help to shape the ways in which the members respond to each other and to their external environment (Robbins, 2001; Ogbonna and Harris, 2002). It is a nexus of shared norms and values that express how people make sense of the organisation in which they work and of the people with whom they work. The culture, which people can construct in an organisation, is crucial to their effectiveness (Busher, 2001).

Lang (1999, p. 171) states: "Values are personal and subjective. . . Values move people philosophically, psychologically, sociologically and physiologically". Values are internal and subjective and represent what an individual feels strongest about, what guides his/her behaviour (Covey, 1999). The values embedded in a culture influence the behaviour of leaders as well as the behaviour of other people working in an organisation (Hofstede, 1999). The relationships between people in a society are affected by the values programmed in the minds of these people. People within an organisation have strong influence in shaping the standards and beliefs of that organisation and thus its culture. In her study of the cultures of primary school teachers, Nias (1999) reported that culture represents the values and beliefs of a team, a work group or a community which are expressed in the language, customs, and rituals used by that group and encouraged and emphasized by its leader's group.

In general, the core values, the slogan-like themes, are the most visible parts of a complex system that includes a whole range of beliefs about how the organisation should achieve success (Deal and Kennedy, 1988). Shared values act as an informal control system that tells people what is expected of them. They define success in concrete terms for employees, establishing standards of achievement within the organisation. Companies succeed because their employees can identify, embrace, and act on the values of the organisation. Organisations that have cultivated their individual identities by shaping values, making heroes, spelling out rites and rituals, and acknowledging the cultural network, have an edge. In short, they are human institutions that provide practical meaning for people, both on and off the job (Gilmour, 2002; Hofstede, 1999).

Characteristics of an Organisational Culture

Organisations, just like individuals, have personalities too (Robbins, 2001). They can be innovative and risk-taking, flexible, supportive and people-oriented and team oriented, and/or rigid and outcome-focused. However, organisations can exhibit more than one characteristic at the same time. Figure 2-1 describes the characteristics of an organisational culture affecting the performance of an organisation.

Figure 2-1. Characteristics of an Organisational Culture. Adapted from Robbins (2001).

Innovation and risk-taking	The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks.
Attention to detail	The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision and analysis.
Outcome orientation	The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.
People orientation	The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation.
Team orientation	The degree to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals.
Aggressiveness	The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easygoing.
Stability	The degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

Different Types of Culture

The diverse nature of perspectives on the study of culture has added to the complexity of the concept within organisational theory (Ogbonna and Harris, 2002). Different theories were developed. That is why eminent culture theorists have called for the amalgamation of existing theory into a consolidated body of knowledge on organisational culture (Schein, 1997).

Goffee and Jones (1998) argue that two dimensions underlie organisational culture. The first they call sociability. This is a measure of friendliness. High sociability means people do kind things

for one another without expecting something in return and relate to each other in a friendly, caring way. Sociability is consistent with high people orientation, high team orientation, and focus on processes rather than outcomes. The second is solidarity, often called social cohesion. High solidarity means people can overlook personal biases and rally behind common interests and common goals. Solidarity is consistent with high attention to detail and high aggressiveness. A combination of these two dimensions rated as either high or low create four distinct culture types: the fragmented, the mercenary, the communal, and the network culture (see Figure 2-2).

Figure 2-2. Four Cultural Typologies: Strengths and Weaknesses. Adapted from Goffee and Jones (1998).

Four Cultural Typologies	Strength	Weakness
Fragmented Culture: Low Sociability and Low Solidarity	Commitment is first and foremost to individual members and their tasks.	There is little or no identification with the organisation. Employees are judged solely on productivity and quality of work. Excessive criticism of others and an absence of collegiality.
Mercenary Culture: Low Sociability and High Solidarity	Fiercely goal focused. People are intense and determined with a powerful sense of purpose to meet goals.	Possibly leads to an almost inhuman treatment of people who are perceived as low performers. The focus on goals and objectivity leads to a minimal degree of politicking.
Communal Culture: High Sociability and High Solidarity	Values both friendship and performance. People have a feeling of belonging; it tries to give members a sense of participation and gain more accurate readings on employee performance. Leaders tend to be inspirational and charismatic.	There is still ruthless focus on goal achievement. The downside of these cultures is that they often consume one's total life. Charismatic leaders create disciples rather than followers, resulting in a work climate that is cult like.
Networked Culture: High Sociability and Low Solidarity	Views members as family and friends. Members willingly give assistance to each other and openly share information.	The focus on friendship may lead to tolerance of poor performance and the creation of political cliques.

The researcher considers the above-mentioned division (Figure 2-2) simplistic, for a company may integrate all four types of cultures in their respective departments. There is a fifth type of culture called 'Norm Culture' with average sociability and average solidarity. People in this case do kind things for one another expecting something in return, relating to each other in a friendly

way. They rally behind common interests and common goals if those interests and goals benefit them.

Functions of Organisational Culture

Culture has a powerful influence throughout an organisation, affecting practically everything, from who gets promoted and what decisions are made, to how employees dress and what sports they play (Deal and Kennedy, 1988). It can contribute to clear and effective communication. It can motivate an enthusiastic workforce, lead to better recruitment and retention of employees and can enhance the performance at all organisational levels (Gilmour, 2002). Culture ties people together and gives meaning and purpose to their day-to-day-lives and is fundamental to the way an organisation operates (Schein, 1997).

Fullan (1999) believes that effective collaborative culture is not based on like-minded consensus. It values diversity while helping people get different perspectives and access to ideas addressing complex problems. It combines connectedness with open-endedness leading to better planning and problem solving. It is an important force in shaping teamwork (Gibson, and Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001). Figure 2-3 summarises the functions of an organisational culture as described by Schein (1997).

Figure 2-3. Functions of Organisational Culture. Adapted from Schein (1997).

First	Culture gives meaning to human endeavour.
Second	Culture generates shared values, beliefs and assumptions.
Third	Culture serves as a sense-making device that can guide and shape behaviour.
Fourth	Culture is socially shared and transmitted knowledge of what is and ought to be.
Fifth	Culture ensures consistency of action.
Sixth	Culture conveys a sense of identity for organisational members.
Seventh	Culture serves as social glue that holds the organisation together.
Eighth	Culture provides a common purpose for members by specifying the goals and values towards which the organisation should be directed.

Stoll and Fink (1996, p. 81) point out that "an indispensable part of understanding school effectiveness involves getting to know the culture of the school, the norms and values and philosophy that guide policy, the rules of the game for getting along in the organisation and the feeling and climate conveyed in the organisation". Although incentives such as a competitive compensation and a benefits package are critical in retaining valued employees, there is something else employees look for in their jobs (Messmer, 2001). They look for the internal culture of the organisation. In fact, the way the organisation treats, values, and trusts its employees is typically the deciding factor in whether a worker stays or moves on. Moreover, according to Iverson and Deery (1997), high turnover rates may have a range of negative consequences on the internal culture of an institution.

Strong Culture: An Asset or a Liability?

A strong culture has a great influence on the behaviour of its members because a high degree of sharing and intensity create an internal climate of high behavioural control (Robbins, 2001). Culture is situation-related; thus, there is no right culture in an organisation. Understanding how to build and manage the culture can help management group make a mark on their institutions that lasts for decades (Gilmour, 2002). In general, the success of a chief executive officer depends, to a large degree, on an accurate reading of the culture of the organisation and the ability to shape it to fit the shifting needs of the marketplace (Ogbonna and Harris, 2002).

"The early leaders of American business such as Thomas Watson of IBM, Harley Procter of Procter and Gamble and others believed that strong culture brought success. These builders saw their roles as creating an environment—in effect, a culture—in their companies in which employees could be secure and thereby do the work necessary to make the business successful" (Deal and Kennedy, 1988, p. 5). Success builders had no magic formulas. They discovered how to shape their company's culture by trial and error. The culture they were so careful to build and nourish has sustained their organisation through both difficult and good times. In addition, strong culture is a powerful tool for guiding behaviour; it helps employees do their jobs a little better (Schein, 1997). By knowing what exactly is expected of them, employees waste little time in deciding how to act in a given situation.

The impact of a strong culture on productivity is amazing. A strong culture enables people to feel better about what they do, so they are more likely to work harder (Kemp and Dwyer 2001). Moreover, companies with a strong culture remove a great degree of uncertainty because they

provide structure, standards, and a value system in which to operate (Robbins, 2001). Thus, developing a strong culture can enhance organisational effectiveness and is a prerequisite to organisational improvement and performance. Strong culture is more easily built in smaller units, and these units will behave more cohesively and achieve higher productivity and effectiveness (Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001).

One salient characteristic exhibited by people working in a strong culture is "enthusiasm" or "zeal" (Abdennur, 1987, p. 90). The motivation to act tends to centre on practical action and keeps the relevant intellectual justifications dormant. The concern is to identify the problematic situation at a concrete level where practical help can be prescribed. When an action has a cumulative good effect on the group as a whole, it serves to maintain a positive attitude towards volunteering among the ranks of volunteers. Any questioning or analysis of the implications of the act endangers its credibility in the eyes of the volunteer and the public. Volunteerism, the motivation to act, is characterised by "enthusiasm in lieu of intellect" (Abdennur, 1987, p. 93). The importance and acceptance of the intrinsic value promote an attitude that discourages the questioning of its actual implication. The motive is the opportunity for personal growth and the belief that the effort on the individual level can pull the organisation out of crisis situations. The greatest gain achieved is the psychic income attained by every member of an organisation, which increases his/her sense of dignity and identity, even developing a culture of narcissism, as described by Lasch (1979).

Culture is a liability when the shared values are not in agreement with those that will further the organisation's effectiveness (Abdulnnur, 1987; Robbins, 2001). This problem is most likely to occur when an organisation's environment is dynamic. When an environment is undergoing rapid change, the organisation's entrenched culture may no longer be appropriate. A strong culture, therefore, can be a liability and a barrier to diversity when it effectively eliminates those unique strengths that people of different backgrounds bring to the organisation. Moreover, a strong culture can be a liability when it supports institutional bias or becomes insensitive to people who are different. The stronger the culture, the harder it is to change, which in turn may cause organisational inertia (Busher, 2000). Changing circumstances can push even a strong culture into poor alignment with its environment (Deal and Kennedy, 1988).

Changing the Culture

Weber (1968; 1947) explains that the processes of institution building, social transformation, and cultural creativity, involve crystallisation, continuity, and change of major types of institutions, cultural symbols, and macro societal settings. The process of change involves an analysis of the possibilities and limits of transforming existing institutional and cultural complexes and building new ones.

Gronn (1996) believes that leaders need to coordinate people's responses to cope with situations. In addition, Deal and Kennedy (1988) talk about five situations in which top management should consider the reshaping of their corporate culture. These situations are explained in Figure 2-4.

Figure 2-4. When Changing the Culture is Necessary. Adapted from Deal and Kennedy (1988).

First	When the environment is undergoing fundamental change and the company has always been highly value-driven. Sticking to traditional values may lead to serious decline.
Second	When the industry is highly competitive and the environment changes quickly. In this case it is important to develop a culture that can cope with changing environment.
Third	When the company is mediocre, sticking to old values can lead to bankruptcy.
Fourth	When the company is truly at the threshold of becoming a large corporation. Strong culture tends to keep people moving in roughly the same direction. The original culture and the values that underpin it are often seriously threatened and may require retooling if they are to survive the transition to a large company environment.
Fifth	When the company is growing very rapidly. A company growing at a fast rate should worry as to whether their culture is sound.

Meyerson and Martin (1987) argue that changing culture is a difficult task. They acknowledge that the development of an organisation's culture may be influenced, but not controlled, under specific organisational conditions such as the formation of an organisation, periods of crises, and/of leadership turnovers.

Leadership

Ball (1987) defines leadership style as a form of social accomplishment, a particular way of realising the authority of headship. It is eminently an individual accomplishment, but at the same time it is essentially a form of joint action. Productivity, change, growth, and innovation do not usually occur without the support of individuals (leaders) who are powerful enough to marshal the necessary resources and influence others to support the new approach (Bartol and Martin, 1998).

Similarly, successful leaders earn the allegiance of followers through actions and interactions in trusting relationships, through the shaping of organisational structures, and through processes and practices that enshrine authentic values and standards (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). The key to truly effective leadership lies in mastering a wide range of skills, from implementing and administrating processes to inspiring others to achieve excellence (Ali, Brookson, Bruce, Eaton, Heller, Johnson, Langdon and Sleight, 2001).

Leadership Behaviour and Style

There is nothing like one leadership style (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford, 2000). Leadership is a continuum of different leadership styles. However, most research in the leadership behaviour tradition focuses on the degree to which a leader's style displays concern for the task to be accomplished and/or concern for the people doing the work (Schermerhorn, 2002). Concern for task is sometimes addressed as initiating structure or job-centeredness. Concern for people is also referred to as consideration, employee-centeredness, and relationship orientation. Regardless of the terminology the characteristics of each dimension are quite clear (Dubrin, 2001).

Task behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. A leader high in concern for tasks plans, defines work to be done, assigns task responsibilities, sets clear work standards, urges task completion, and monitors performance results.

Relationship behaviour is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The type of behaviour includes listening, facilitating and supporting the behaviour of others. A leader high in concern for people acts warmly and supportively towards

followers and develops social rapport with them, respects their feelings, is sensitive to their needs, and shows trust in them. In general, the bonding together of people in a special way and the binding of them to shared values and ideas define an institution as a community. This is what Blanchard and Bowles (1998, p. 27) call "The Spirit of the Squirrel: Worthwhile Work" or the ability to make the world, the university in this case, a better place where everyone works towards a shared goal, and where values guide all plans, decisions, and actions.

Blake and Mouton (1964) argue that the most desirable leadership approach involves a high concern for both people and production. In this case, the accomplishment of work is from committed people, interdependent through a common stake in the purpose of the institution, leading to relationships of trust and respect.

Although, leadership is a continuum of different leadership styles, the researcher divides the different leadership styles into four basic categories: the directive or autocratic, the participative or democratic, the supportive or human relation, and the abdicative or laissez-faire (Daft, 1997; Bartol and Martin, 1998; Dubrin, 2001; Schermerhon, 2002). Figure (2-5) summarises the four basic leadership styles.

Figure 2-5. Leadership Styles. Adapted from Daft (1997); Bartol and Martin (1998); Dubrin (2001); Schermerhon (2002).

	Concern for Task	Concern for People
Directive or Autocratic	High	Low
Participative or Democratic	High	High
Supportive or Human Relation	Low	High
Abdicative or Laissez-faire	Low	Low

As mentioned before, different leadership styles lead to number of leadership theories. The researcher examines different theories on leadership in the following order: first, the Trait Theory; second, the Situational Theory; third, the Transactional Theory; fourth, the Transformational Theory; and fifth, the Distributive Theory.

Trait Theory

The trait approach to leadership emphasises attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values, and skills (Daft, 1997). Underlying this approach is the assumption that some people are natural leaders endowed with certain traits. The set of personal traits effective leaders share in common are enthusiasm, tireless energy, persistence, integrity, penetrative intuition, and calm in the face of emotionally charged events (Schermerhon, 2002; Yukl, 2002). Leaders can build a repertoire of styles that allow them to operate in different situations.

Charisma, according to Weber (1968, p. 241), "is a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities ... and on the basis of them the individual concerned is treated as a leader". The holder of charisma seizes the task that is adequate for him/her and demands obedience. It is the duty of the people within the organisation to recognise him/her as their charismatically qualified leader. "However, the more bureaucratised social relations in an organisation becomes, the less room there is for charisma to play a role" (Eisenstadt, 1968, p.38).

Situational Leadership

The situational leadership theory stresses group activity and the concept of teamwork as an important factor in the functioning of a successful organisation (Blanchard and Carew and Carew, 1990; Blanchard and Bowles, 1998; Blanchard and O'Connor, 1997). In general, people do not act towards culture, social structures or the like, but they act towards situations (Blumer, 1969). According to the situational leadership theory, leadership behaviour is a continuum representing various gradations of leadership behaviours, ranging from the autocratic (or boss-centred) approach to the democratic (or subordinate-centred) approach. Leaders, in deciding which behaviour pattern to adopt, need to consider forces within themselves (such as comfort level with the various alternatives), with subordinates (such as readiness to assume responsibility), and within the situation (such as time pressure). The most effective style at any given time depends

23

on whatever conditions exist within the environment (the situation) (Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinback, 1999; Yukl, 2002). Thus, there is not just one style that is effective. Each leadership style is appropriate depending on the situation.

The situational leadership theory explains how to match the leadership style to the readiness of the group members (Schermerhon, 2002). The major situational variables that influence the leadership processes include the characteristics and expectations of subordinates, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the type of organisation, and the nature of the external environment (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Yukl, 2002). This view is labelled the contingency approach, which is a model of leadership that describes the relationship between leadership styles and specific organisational situations (Daft, 1997). This approach assumes that there are wide variations in the context for leadership and that, to be effective, these contexts require different responses (Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinback, 1999). The essence of this approach is that leaders are most effective when they make their behaviour contingent upon situational forces, including group member characteristics (Dubrin, 2001). Similarly, the most effective leadership style depends on the readiness level of group members to accept guidance and thus to work efficiently toward the completion of a certain task and/or the attainment of the goal or goals of the firm (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 1997; Dubrin, 2001). Leaders need to determine what task areas they would like to influence, assess the readiness level of the individual, and select the leadership style that corresponds to that level (Bartol and Martin, 1998).

Deal and Kennedy (1988, p. 48) call situational leaders "situational heroes" because they tend to arise from particular situations within the business; they are heroes of that moment or day, although they can last for years given the right environment. Born heroes are in short supply. The vast majority of heroes in business life are what we call situational heroes, i.e., ordinary people appointed by their peers in recognition of some aspects of their behaviour (Blanchard and Carew and Carew, 1990; Blanchard and Bowles, 1998; Blanchard and O'Connor, 1997). Companies with strong cultures are quite adept at recognising and creating situational heroes.

Transactional Leadership
Transactional leadership is based on the exchange relationships between leader and follower. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange of services for various kinds of rewards that the leader controls (Leithwood, 1992). In general, a transactional leader adjusts tasks, rewards, and structures to help followers meet their needs while working to accomplish organisational

objectives. The role of the transactional leader is to focus upon the purposes of the organisation and to assist people to recognise what needs to be done in order to reach a desired outcome. This approach to leadership places its faith in procedures and hard data to inform decision-making. It is technically driven and geared towards improving organisations through improving systems (Schermerhorn, 2002).

The description of transactional leaders as reported by various authors such as Leithwood (1992), Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford (2000), and Schermerhorn (2002) fits the description of what other authors such as Anderson (1998), Damiani (1998) and others call managers. For example, Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford (2000) consider transactional leadership in schools a form of scientific managerialism, premised upon a number of core assumptions: first, that there are rewards within the system; second, that the leader has control over the rewards; third, that the followers recognise and desire those rewards. The application of this model according to Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford (2000) is limited by the absence of clear tangible rewards within the system of education. However, with performance-related pay the three assumptions highlighted above may be relevant. Although leadership is sometimes linked to vision and values while management is said to relate to processes and structures, the terms 'leadership' and 'management' are often used interchangeably or regarded as synonyms (Bush and Coleman, 2000). This is justifiable, because in schools and colleges, for example, the same people often carry out these activities at the same time. The issue is considered in another section later on.

Transformational Leadership

Leithwood (1994), writing about school leadership, warns against falsely dichotomising transformational and transactional forms of leadership, agreeing with Bass and Avolio (1993) that the latter needs to build upon the former. Leithwood, (1994) argues that transactional and transformational leadership represent opposite ends of the leadership continuum. The notion of leadership as a series of transactions within a given cultural context is replaced by the view of leadership as transformational with the potential to alter the cultural context in which people work (Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach, 1999; Robbins, 2001). In general, transformational leadership, is a process within which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation (Schermerhorn, 2002). Burns (1978) describes transformational leadership as being concerned with exploring conventional relationships and organisational understandings through involvement and participation from all concerned parties. Burn's

conceptualisation of transforming leadership stresses the moral and educative nature of the leader-follower relationship. The accompanying management style is referred to by some authors as transformational, visionary, charismatic or inspirational leadership (Maxcy, 1991; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; House and Howell, 1992; Bryman, 1996). One of the characteristics of charismatic leaders is that they have intuition, a sense of when and how to communicate and with whom (Morris, 2000). They communicate their vision, goals, and directives in a colourful, imaginative, and expressive manner. In addition, they communicate openly with group members and create a comfortable communication climate (Dubrin, 2001). They articulate a vision, use lateral or non-traditional thinking, encourage individual development, give regular feedback, use participative decision- making, and promote a cooperative and trusting work environment (Maxcy, 1991). Several charismatic characteristics are capable of development through practice and self-discipline. For example, most people can enhance their communication skills, become more emotionally expressive, take more risks, and become more self-promoting.

Transformational or charismatic leaders use rituals, the systematic and programmed routine of day-to-day life, as important vehicles for informal communication and mingling across groups (Deal and Kennedy, 1988; Morris, 2000). These ceremonies or rituals provide opportunities for employees to develop a spirit of oneness among the people working for the institution and represent the informal, human side of the business. Weber in Eisenstadt (1968) notes that charismatic personalities or collectivises may be the bearers of great cultural social innovations and creativity. However, Weber adds that the potential creativity of the human spirit may, in some cases, be deranged or evil, leading to deviance, undermining and destroying existing institutions. Similarly, Allix (2000) explains that transformational leadership may be structured more for dominance than democratic engagement. The researcher refers to it as manipulative leadership.

Transformational or charismatic leaders provide a strong aura of vision and contagious enthusiasm that substantially raises the confidence, aspirations, and commitments of followers (Damiani, 1998; Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach, 1999). Transformational leaders, the heroes, reinforce the basic values of the culture by making success attainable and human, by providing role models, symbolising the company to the outside world, by preserving what makes the organisation special, by setting a standard of performance and by motivating employees. They create a work force that identifies personal achievement with the success of the firm. For Starratt (1999, p. 25), transformational leadership is about "building a unified common interest in which

motivation is underpinned by attempts to elevate members' self-centred attitudes, values, and beliefs to higher, altruistic attitudes, values, and beliefs".

Transformational leaders bring about major positive changes in an organisation. As agents of change, they act as catalysts and assume the responsibility for managing the change process (Robbins, 2001; Dubrin, 2001). The motto of transformational leadership is "Nothing succeeds like success" (Deal and Kennedy, 1988, p. 45). MacBeath (1998, p. 9) notes that "leaders are admonished to be risk takers, to have the courage to fail, to learn from mistakes". However, Senge (1990, p.18), referring to disabled organisations, warned "that nothing fails like success". This happens when the leader takes every opportunity to remind people of their status, and who enhanced their own authority by diminishing that of others. Figure 2-6 lists some of activities performed by a transformational leader.

Figure 2-6. The Activities Performed by a Transformational Leader. Adapted from Deal and Kennedy (1988); Robbins (2001); Dubrin (2001); and Damiani (1982).

Transformational Leader

- Rewards: Praises, recognises and rewards employees.
- Employee-centred and appreciative: Encourages employees and lets them know that they are important and their work is appreciated.
- Listens: Listens not only to words but also to every minute signal.
- Keeps employees informed: Communicates the vision and values of the institution and sees that each employee lives the vision and exemplifies the values of the institution,
- Develops people: Stimulates others to think and work like a bee, "bee-ing" the best they can by developing high-performance expectations.
- Tells why and what to do: Explains and sets the example. "The best and fastest way to learn is by watching and imitating a champion."
- Helps others and shares the credits: Provides individualised support; cares and leads by example.
- Tries persuasion: Does not flaunt authority.
- Assumes the best in others: Has a positive attitude and installs in people the feeling that they can and will accomplish objectives that enhance their personal and professional lives.
- Gives square deals: Is fair and does not take advantage of his subordinates; builds relationships.
- Considers before acting: Is not impulsive and thinks carefully before acting.
- Organises: Stimulates culture building in which colleagues are motivated by moral imperatives and structuring; fosters shared decision-making processes and problem-solving capacities.

Similarly, Gronn (1996), summarised the activities of a transformational leader, categorising the agency of the leader in exercising leadership in four Is: Inspiration, Individualism, Intellectual stimulation and Idealised Influence.

Figure 2-7. The Four Is. Adapted from Gronn (1996).

Inspiration: motivating the subordinate through charisma.
Individualism: focusing on the individual needs of subordinates.
Intellectual stimulation: influencing thinking and imagination of subordinates.
Idealised influence: communicating and building an emotional commitment to the vision.

Vision and Transformational Leadership

Vision, the clear view as to where the organisation is going, represents the values, hopes and aspirations which are actively communicated and used as the basis for action (Lang, 1999; Dubrin, 2001). Vision, in the conventional sense, is usually presumed to reach over distant time horizons and serve as an inspirational guide for achieving strategic goals (Yukl, 2002). It is

considered a necessary ingredient in leadership effectiveness and strategic repositioning of organisations (Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Conger, 1992; Champy, 1995). A strong, clear vision provides direct psychological comfort in times of crisis and turbulence. Whether negotiated or shared, a strong vision, deriving its sustenance from organisation beliefs, values, aspirations, and history, is necessary to facilitate clarity of purpose and direction for members of the organisation (Anderson, 1998; Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley, and Beresford, 2000; Schermerhorn, 2002; Bennett, Crawford and Riches, 1992; Blanchard and O'Connor, 1997).

Charismatic leaders, what Deal and Kennedy (1988, p. 45) refer to as "visionary heroes", are persistent, obsessed with seeing their visions become reality, and have a sense of personal responsibility for the continuing success of the organisation. Visionary leaders have goals and dreams (Robbins, 2001). However, before they can motivate others, they must motivate themselves and set the example. They encourage and help employees to take actions leading towards the realisation of the vision (Bartol and Martin, 1998). They remove the obstacles that prevent employees from doing so (Bhindi and Duignan, 1997). They use a mission statement or a vision/purpose statement such as a map, which helps people organise and navigate their actions towards the goal, reaching it successfully. Without a map, people are always guessing and taking short cuts, which always become long-cuts and lead toward confusion, stagnation and ultimately failure (Magee, 1998). In addition, the vision people have determines the way they respond to challenging conditions. If they have a pessimistic vision, they might seek only immediate opportunities for gratifying selfish ends. On the other hand, if they have a clear vision of realistic possibilities, they can see new vistas and inspire others to achieve cooperative fulfilment (Burns, 1978; Anderson, 1998).

Distributive Leadership

The term 'distributive leadership' has been used to describe the phenomenon of shared leadership, most often connoting the sharing of leadership between superiors and subordinates (Brass 2000; Day, 2000; Drath, 2001). Bryman (1996) and Burns (1978) express similar views in their description of dispersed leadership. These views of leadership emphasise the inclusion of followers within the sphere of organisation members viewed as leaders. Distributive leadership is based on recognition that top leaders do not and cannot have the capacity to handle all the work; therefore, it is shared and transferred among leaders and followers. Similarly, Gronn (2000, p. 30) argues that "leadership is distributed rather than concentrated. Distribution entails maximising

sources of information, data and judgement, and spreading the detrimental impact of the consequences of miscalculation and risk".

House and Aditya (1997, p.456) recognise three forms of distributed leadership: the delegated leadership, the co-leadership and the peer leadership. In the case of delegated leadership two or more leaders divide several management functions. However, one leader remains firmly in charge. For the co-leadership different people carry out the task and the social roles of leadership. In the case of peer leadership, designated leaders and followers carry out leadership tasks. However, Weber (1968) adds that the possibility of leadership in modern universities is problematic for two reasons. First, the traditional scholarly ethic itself works against leadership in certain respects. Second, the bureaucracy does not allow for leadership, essentially a political one, in administrative positions.

Similarly, Beck and Murphy (1993) observe that the metaphors of school leadership have changed frequently over the years. Historically, schools have been run as bureaucracies, emphasising authority and accountability. It is what Deal and Peterson (1994) call 'technical leadership'. Leaders rely on hierarchical authority. They act as planners, resource allocators, coordinators, supervisors, disseminators of information, and analyst. Today, school leaders choose from at least three broad strategies: hierarchical, transformational, and facilitative. As soon as school leaders have absorbed one recommended approach they are often urged to move to another one.

Gunter (2001, p. 1) notes, "leadership is not an it from which we can abstract behaviour and tasks, but is a relationship that is understood through our experience." Thus, effective leaders are "firm and purposeful" in leading improvement, "participative" by sharing leadership and delegating, and "leading professional" through their pedagogic and curriculum knowledge (Sammons, Hillman, and Mortimore, 1995, p. 8). According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership is a relationship based on an exchange between leaders and followers. Engagement between leaders and followers is a struggle that is controlled through transactional leadership, based on negotiation and motivations leading, according to the researcher, to distributive leadership.

Leaders versus Managers

According to Damiani (1998) the one quality that more than anything else marks managers is decisiveness while leaders, the heroes, are often not decisive; they are intuitive; they have a vision; they take decisions that fit the vision (Burns, 1978). Managers are routinizers; heroes are experimenters. Managers are disciplined; heroes are playful. The commitment to making the organisation strong by treating people well and instilling in them a lasting sense of values even after the leader (the hero) is gone is what distinguishes the visionary, the transformational leader, from other dynamic managers (Deal and Kennedy, 1988). Leadership and management are being redefined, and there are increasing calls for a clear shift away from traditional hierarchical control mechanisms and processes as a basis for influence to notions of leadership as service and stewardship (Bhindi and Duignan, 1997). Gronn (2003) considers that leadership and management are not synonymous. The function of a Leader is to lead whereas the function of a manager is to manage. Organisations which are over-managed but under-led eventually lose any sense of purpose, while poorly managed organisations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporarily only to crash shortly thereafter (Leithwood, 1994).

Leadership and Human Needs

Some understanding of the human needs is required in order to explain the behaviour of the people studied in this research work. Maslow (1970; cited in Schermerhorn, 2002) recognising the importance of human needs, identifies five levels:

1. The physiological needs are the most basic of all human needs
2. The safety needs are needs for security, protection, and stability in the events of day-to-day life.
3. The social needs are the needs for love, affection, and a sense of belonging.
4. The esteem needs are needs for esteem in the eyes of others. They include the needs for respect, prestige, recognition, self-esteem, and a personal sense of competence.
5. The self-actualisation needs represent needs for self-fulfilment, for growth and for the use of human abilities to the fullest and most creative extent.

Maslow's theory is based on two underlying principles. First is the "deficit principle" which means that a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. The second is the "progress principle" which means that a need at any level only becomes activated once the next lower level need has been satisfied. Accordingly, people try to satisfy the five needs in sequence. Scholars such as

Alderfer (1972); McClellan (1985) and Herzberg (1987) do not support the precise five-step hierarchy of needs postulated by Maslow. They view human needs as operating in a flexible hierarchy. They recognise that managers who can help people satisfy their important needs at work will achieve productivity. Research is inconclusive as to the importance of different needs, since individuals vary widely in this regard. Individuals may value needs differently at different times and at different ages or career stages.

McGregor (1960) points out that managers should give more attention to the social and self-actualisation needs of people at work. He calls upon managers to shift their views of human nature away from a set of assumptions he calls Theory X and towards ones he calls Theory Y, where Theory X assumes that people dislike work, lack ambition, are irresponsible and prefer to be led, whereas Theory Y assumes that people are willing to work, accept responsibility, are self-directed, and creative. McGregor believes that managers who hold either set of assumptions can create self-fulfilling prophecies: through their behaviour they create situations where subordinates act in ways that confirm the original expectations. Managers with Theory X assumptions act in a very directive, "command-and-control" fashion that gives people little personal say over their work (Schermerhorn, 2002, p. 101). In contrast, managers with Theory Y perspectives behave in a participative way that allows subordinate more job involvement, freedom, and responsibility leading to high performance. Theory Y thinking is central to the popular notions of employee participation, involvement, empowerment, and self-management. In general, "Delegating boosts morale and builds confidence" (Ali, Brookson, Bruce, Eaton, Heller, Johnson, Langdon and Sleight, 2001, p. 108). Treating everyone equally will avoid causing resentment. The true leader listens to those around him/her, knows who they are and is sensitive to nuance and feeling (MacBeth, 1998). Ouchi (1981), based on the success of Japanese industry, used the term Theory Z to describe a management framework emphasising long-term employment and teamwork. The theory focuses on the possibility of motivating employees who seek work as a self-actualisation need. Figure 2-8 compares the Theory X, Theory Y, and Theory Z concepts.

Figure 2-8. Comparing Theories X, Y and Z. Adapted from Schermerhorn (2002).

Assumptions About	Theory X	Theory Y	Theory Z
Employee Motivation	The Theory X manager assumes that the only motivation that works for employees is financial reward.	The Theory Y manager assumes that employees are motivated by their need to fulfil their social, esteem, self-actualisation, and security needs.	The Theory Z manager assumes that employees are motivated by a strong sense of commitment to be a part of something worthwhile—the self-actualisation need.
Employee Attitude Toward Work	The Theory X manager assumes that the employees dislike work, avoid responsibility, and seek only financial security from work (the paycheck).	The Theory Y manager believes that employees see work as a natural activity and will seek out opportunities to have increased responsibility and understanding of their tasks.	The Theory Z manager believes that employees will not only seek out opportunities for responsibility; in fact, they crave opportunities to advance and learn more about the company.
Managers' Beliefs	The Theory X manager believes that workers will only respond to coercion, control, direction (telling them exactly what to do), or threatening punishment or firing.	The Theory Y manager believes that workers will respond best to favourable working conditions that do not pose threats or strong control.	The Theory Z manager assumes that the average worker wants to be involved in managing a company and that building trust among all organisational members is central to raising productivity. Employees come up through the ranks slowly. An organisation will get the best benefits from its employees by making it possible for them to have "lifetime employment". The result will be strong bonds of loyalty developed by long-term employment and shared responsibility for decisions.

In addition, people are more effective when they are in control, or at least feel in control, of their own destinies (Busher, 2000). Peer-group pressure is widely believed to be the single strongest motivating factor for individuals in this modern world and is the primary mechanism of control in the small work unit. Often people form a perception of equity or inequity by comparing what they give to the institution to what they get back and by comparing this ratio to the ratio they perceive others as having (Moorhead and Griffin, 1998).

Leadership, Groups, and Teams

As mentioned before, styles of leadership can be varied, depending on many factors not only of the situation but also of the people involved as leaders and followers (Busher, 2000). It is another perspective on leadership, which views it as a group process or as an attempt to influence or to affect the behaviour of others (Yukl, 2002). Leadership success depends greatly on how well people work with one another. If employees know what their company stands for, if they know what standards they are to uphold, then they are much more likely to make decisions that will support those standards. They are motivated because life in the company has meaning for them (Blanchard and O'Connor, 1997).

Teams are groups of people working together. It is possible to identify two types of groups: the collectivistic and the individualistic group (Robbins, 2001). Rothstein-Fisch, Greenfield and Trumbull (1999) define collectivism as a cluster of interrelated values that emphasise the interdependence of family members. Within this value system, children (students) are taught to be helpful to others and to contribute to the success of any group they belong to. Rothstein-Fisch, Greenfield and Trumbull add that it is helpful for teachers (the leaders of the class) to understand the importance of helpfulness in collectivistic cultures. Thus, collectivistic groups assume social motivations for membership. Group members expect others in the groups of which they are part to look after them and protect them. Members of that category are usually more responsive to charismatic leaders who emphasise vision and emotion (Pillai and Meindl, 1998). Teams high in collectivism are less task-focused, have fewer conflicts, more cooperating tactics, and fewer competitive tactics than individualistic teams (Oetzel, 1998). Individualistic groups are task-oriented, highly concerned with performance, and focused on maximising the accomplishment of specific objectives. They create individualistic or balkanised cultures where people (teachers in schools) either leave each other alone or disagree without any attempt to solve the differences (Fullan, 1999). Division into two groups alone is a simplistic view. People in general, are subject

34

to a continuum effect, and may belong to one group or the other in different proportion and at different times. Figure 2-9 describes four types of teams: the problem solving, the self managed, the cross functional and the virtual teams.

Figure 2-9. Team Types. Adapted from Robbins (2001).

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Problem Solving Teams	Groups of 5 to 12 employees from the same department who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency, and the work environment.	Rarely are these teams given the authority to implement any of their suggested actions unilaterally.
Self-Managed Teams	Groups of 10 to 15 people who take on responsibilities of their former supervisors. Typically this includes planning and scheduling of work, assigning tasks to members, collective control over the pace of work, making operating decisions, and taking actions on problems. Fully self-managed work teams even select their own members and have the members evaluate each other's performance.	Some organisations have been disappointed with the results from self-managed teams. For instance, they don't seem to work well during organisational downsizing.
Cross Functional Teams	Employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas or departmental lines, who come together to accomplish a task. In summary, cross functional teams are an effective means for allowing people from diverse areas within an organisation (or even between organisations) to exchange information, develop new ideas and solve problems, and coordinate complex projects.	Cross-functional teams are difficult to manage. Their early stages of development are often very time consuming. It takes time to build trust and team work, especially among people from different backgrounds, with different experience and perspectives. Members learn to work with diversity and complexity.
Virtual Teams	Teams that use computer technology to tie together physically dispersed members in order to achieve a common goal. Virtual teams can do all the things that other teams do—share information, make decisions, complete tasks. They can include members from the same organisation or link an organisation's members with employees from other organisations.	Virtual teams often suffer from less social rapport and less direct interaction among members. They aren't able to duplicate the normal give-and-take of face-to-face discussion. Especially where members haven't personally met, virtual teams tend to be more task-oriented and exchange less social-emotional information. Not surprisingly, virtual team members report less satisfaction with the group interaction process than do face-to-face teams.

Leadership Style and Gender

Leadership styles have a clear-cut gendered connotation (Klenke, 1996). The instrumental, task oriented, autocratic styles are considered masculine leadership, while the interpersonally oriented, charismatic, and democratic styles are considered feminine leadership. Many research studies such as Shakesshaft (1989); Eagly, Waran and Johnson (1992), describe the feminine model of behaviour as caring, informal, aware of individual differences, non-competitive, tolerant, creative, intuitive, and subjective. They define the masculine model of behaviour as highly regulated, formal, conformist, competitive, evaluative, normative, disciplined, and objective. It is wrong to generalise that all men and all women fall into one category of behaviour.

Kruger (1996) notes that women leaders in their decision-making are more inclusive than exclusive. Women were found to be more task-focused and visionary (Ouston, 1993) and were known to be more democratic and participatory in their decision-making style than men, more focused on relationships with others. They cared for others and shared power, rather than exerting power over others, as men do (Coleman 1996).

Early survey data indicated that a number of people viewed females as being highly oriented toward interpersonal issues and therefore possibly ill suited for leadership positions (Bartol and Martin, 1998). Males were seen as more oriented toward task issues and more likely than women to be selected as group leaders. Thus, "males getting promoted to management rank would have been considered as more suitable than females because they were considered more businesslike, less approachable and more professional" (Coleman, (1996, p. 172). This could explain why women reaching the highest level managerial positions might overcompensate by acting more stereotypically masculine. According to Rosener, (1990, p. 124) "Men have to appear to be competitive, strong, tough, decisive and in control, while women have been allowed to be co-operative, emotional, supportive and vulnerable. This may explain why women today are more likely than men to be interactive leaders." In addition, hard knowledge areas of sciences and technology are usually associated with masculinity (Blackmore, 1999).

However, other researchers pointed out a lack of significant differences in the leadership styles of men and women (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). In fact, comparative research generally found a lack of significant differences in initiating structure and consideration behaviour between male and female managers (Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Dobbins and Platz, 1986; Donnell and Hall, 1980). Accordingly, female and male leaders are similar in the amounts of interpersonal and task

and performance. In addition, MacBeath, Moos and Riley (1998) note that women manage across a range of boundaries, adopting different management styles to accommodate particular circumstances.

In general, "Masculinity was associated with economic rationality, being strong, making hard decisions" (Blackmore, 1999, p. 4). That is why successful women are considered sometimes as anxious, unfeminine, and selfish. If they display masculine characteristics such as aggression, career-oriented self-confidence, forcefulness and competitiveness, they are classified as unfeminine (Winter, Neal and Warner, 2001). Also, according to Wild (1994, p. 92), " Some women tend to be rather judgmental about other women in senior management". These stereotypes, however, were found to diminish somewhat when male and female managers were described as successful.

Blackmore (1999) argued that women in leadership positions are disruptive. Strong women are difficult and dangerous because they trouble dominant masculinities and modes of management by being different. However, some qualities identified with women, such as being supportive and sharing the decision-making processes, are now recognised as important for a leader (Schein 1997). Women have an advantage in their roles as leaders (Curry, 2000). They are especially up to the responsibilities because of their socialisation. They regularly engage in ways of being related to tasks and transactions more suited to the new corporate cultures. MacBeath, 1998, p.12, notes that in general good educational leaders are "in command of self, effective listeners and good followers. It may not be surprising to find that good leaders are female". However, a woman leader displaying the culturally defined traits of femininity such as being emotional, passive, dependent, nurturing, intuitive, and submissive is considered a poor leader and ineffective in leading large organisations (Gold, 1996). Evetts (1994, p. 88) notes that although "there are difficulties in demonstrating gender differences in leadership style, there is, however, gender difference in the experience of headship".

In Lebanon, women who have achieved success have been considered as displaying masculine characteristics. Writing about successful Arab women, Khairallah (1996) titled her book The Sisters of Men, which is a translation from Arabic of 'unfeminine women'. Makdisi (1991), writing about the civil war in Lebanon, said that women were capable of dealing with militias because they are more co-operative and vulnerable than men.

Transformational leadership theory has ignored the gender issue, even though this style of leadership includes many of the characteristics that are usually associated with a feminine mode of leadership behaviour (Deaux and Lewis, 1984; Coleman, 1998). However, many authors, such as Helgesen (1990) explicitly refer to transformational leadership as a feminine leadership style.

Men and women are both limited by role stereotyping (Acker, 1994). Issues relating to family responsibilities tend to be associated with femininity (Winter, Neal and Waner, 2001). The main burden of domestic responsibilities, including child care, tends to rest with the female partner, which means that women who work outside the home effectively undertake a "double shift", or if they have children, even a "triple shift" (Homsi, 2003; Wirth, 2001). Many women face practical difficulties in managing family responsibilities and a career, especially in Arab society where women are still generally expected to undertake most of the tasks associated with the home and family (Rassi, 1979; Ghattas Rassi, 2001). Similar findings were reported in a study done by ESCWA about employment and gender differences in Arab countries (Homsi, 2003). The stereotypes that form part of the cultural barriers to female career progress may continue to affect women once they have reached leadership positions (Coleman, 1996). Thus, the idea that masculinity is essential to leading is challenged as being part of socially constructed distinctions that value men and women differently and unequally. In general, those stereotypes become more complex when they are situated within divergent family, regional, and national cultures (Reeves, Moos and Forrest (1998). Coleman (1998) and Grogan (2000) mention the lack of empirical evidence to support popular stereotypes about male and female principals. However, according to Kanter (1993; 2001) sex-related differences have been overstated in literature about organisations.

Gender Leadership in Particular Circumstances

The question of gender and leadership in school administration and policy is one that has long exercised the minds of educational researchers (Chisholm, 2001). It is argued that women and men do not experience the same reality. "Given the unique aspects of women's experiences, including workplace discrimination, greater family demands, and non-assertive attitudes, many have maintained that women's careers and development are different from those of men" (Oplatka, 2001, p. 220).

The same type of leadership style should not be expected from both men and women because they are likely to experience different organisational environments (Connell, 1995). According to the situational leadership theory, the leadership styles of women managers who attain high level positions may differ from that of men in similar positions, or women in lower level positions (Curry, 2000). Women in high level positions have experienced different treatment by society than have men in these positions, and have travelled a different professional path than women in lower level jobs. Being one of the very few to achieve the highest level managerial jobs, these women may overcompensate by acting more stereotypically masculine than men in comparable jobs, and less stereotypically feminine than women in lower level jobs. Thus, masculine attributes were found to be a function of position in the organisation; individuals higher in the organisation hierarchy reported having significantly more masculine attributes than those lower in the hierarchy (Fagenson, 1990).

According to Shakeshaft (1995) females are socialised to be good listeners and to pay attention to the emotional needs of others. This different socialisation leads to the seemingly superior and more appropriate management skills found in women. However, the model of managerial excellence encompasses a wider variety of skills and abilities than just task-orientation (Blank, 1995; Yukl, 1989). Thus, opportunities for women's advancement have gradually increased, although at a slow rate. Women may have become more comfortable at being themselves rather than chasing the attainment of a traditionally masculine leadership style (Eagly and Johnson, 1990).

Problems Facing Women as Leaders

At every level of an educational institution or organisation there appear to be barriers to the advancement of women (Coleman, 1994; Wirth, 2001). Such organisational barriers may operate not only against women, but also positively in favour of men. Some of these barriers include taking a career break, applying for a promotion, and managing their expectations especially since in Arab culture women are trained to be submissive and are subject to dominance by male members of their family (Ghattas Rassi, 2001; Homsi, 2003). From early childhood, girls are taught obedience (Minces, 1980). The tradition requires a girl to be docile, submissive, discreet, active, modest and quietly spoken. Similarly, Arab women are not considered as the breadwinners of the family and thus are less concerned with a competitive career path focusing on financial rewards (Nasrallah, 1990; 1995; 1998).

39

"Taking a break for childbearing, euphemistically called career break, also interrupts work patterns affecting work and career prospects" (Kelly, 2000, p. 14). A career break for women is generally perceived as negative especially if the courses taught are scientific and linked to high technology or business studies because of the dramatic changes nowadays in these two areas. Wirth, 2001) wrote that women who have been successful in educational management had minimised or avoided career breaks, thus following a career pattern similar to that expected of males. Evetts (1990) reported that a career break has a dramatic impact on the teaching career of women. Similarly, a study made by ESCWA about employment and gender differences in Arab countries noted the same pattern (Homsi, 2003).

In general, women have to outperform men in order to achieve promotion (Wirth, 2001). Often women face what some call the glass ceiling effect, an invisible barrier or ceiling that prevents women from rising above a certain level of organisational responsibility. Female managers in male-dominated environments are expected to use leadership styles that suit the 'men's world' in order to maintain their status. At the same time, female managers face normative pressure to behave 'feminine' (Cialdini and Trost, 1998; Diekman and Eagly, 2000); balancing this can have repercussions on the well being of female managers (Gardiner and Tiggermann, 1999) and can make it harder for women to reach the top (Powell, 1998). There is general agreement that women face more barriers to becoming leaders than men do, especially for leader roles that are male–dominated. However, there is much less agreement about the behaviour of women and men once they attain such leadership positions (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

The Process of Change

Change: Prerogative for Growth, Competitiveness and Survival

According to Johnson, (1998, p. 45): "Things change and they are never the same again... If an institution does not change, it becomes extinct". Institutions that want not only to survive in the future but stay competitive are constantly changing. In general, innovative companies are especially adroit at continually responding to change of any sort in their environments, when the environment external and/or internal, changes, these companies change too (Fiedler, 1967; Anderson, 1998).

Not all change is improvement, but all improvement leads to change (Fullan, 1991). In general, change for the better is complex and problematic, seldom occurring without struggles or tensions. As an agent of change, a leader should recognise the employees' fear of change by assuming the following roles: catalyst, visionary, spokesperson, empathic listener, problem-solver, negotiator, resource provider, coach and cheerleader, stabiliser, maintenance person and, most importantly, he must have a positive attitude (Damiani, 1998).

A diversity of forces influence change and innovation in organisations (Bartol and Martin, 1998; Daft, 1997; Peters and Waterman, 1982). Some of these forces stem from external factors while others arise from factors that are basically internal to the institution. The external forces create a need for change and innovation; they may pressure institutions to change course, opening up opportunities for application of innovative ideas. The internal forces for change and innovation include alterations of strategies and plans, organisational culture shifts, reorganisations, technological advances, and leadership changes. According to Bryk, Sebring, Kerbow, Rollow and Easton (1998) people who are better prepared for the inevitable confusion and conflict associated with organisational change fare better.

Four Imperatives for Change

Sallis (1991) identifies four imperatives for change which point towards a total quality approach in education. The professional imperative is a commitment to client needs and the obligation to meet those needs by deploying knowledge and skills to the best effect. The moral imperative is the need to match management action with the key purposes of educational institutions. The two other required imperatives are competitiveness and survival. Competitiveness represents effectiveness in the intermediate time period and has to do with an institution's responsiveness to environmental change (Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1994). It refers to an institution's (a university's in this case) ability to remain a viable player in the higher education market and requires flexibility in decision-making because it allows change and welcomes it as part of the productive process.

Heads of organisations are typically involved with two types of change: The reactive change and the planned change (Sherman, 1995; Bartol and Martin, 1998; Johnson, 1998). The reactive change occurs when one takes action in response to perceived problems, threats, or opportunities. There is often insufficient time to analyse the situation carefully and to prepare a well-conceived

response. When heads of institutions operate in a reactive mode, they increase their chances of making serious mistakes because they are continually making changes without proper planning. The planned change involves actions based on a carefully thought-out process that anticipates future difficulties, threats, and opportunities. Johnson (1998) considers that most effective people engage in planned or managed change whenever possible. When they notice small changes early they can adapt to bigger changes that are to come. If they imagine themselves enjoying new 'cheese' (a metaphor representing opportunities) even before finding it, lead them to it. Successful people are those who, when the situation changes, they change and move ahead.

Basic Steps towards Change

Earlier approaches divide the change process into three steps: initiating, implementing and institutionalising (Fullan, 1991) or unfreezing, changing, and refreezing (Huse and Cummings, 1985) (Figure 2-10):

Figure 2-10. The Process of Change: Three Steps. Adapted from Huse and Cummings (1985) and Fullan (1991).

The first step Initiating or Unfreezing	Involves developing an initial awareness of the need for change.
The second step: Implementing or Changing	Focuses on learning the new required behaviours.
The third step: Institutionalising or Refreezing	Centres on reinforcing new behaviours usually through positive results, feelings of accomplishments, and rewards from others.

Usually people need an unfreezing period before they are willing to change (Huse and Cummings, 1985). They need a refreezing element is order to reinforce and maintain the desired change. To overcome the resistance to change, education and communication are necessary. This

involves providing adequate information, making sure that the change is clearly communicated to those whom it will affect.

A later approach recognised that heads of institutions are likely to be more effective in providing satisfaction to an institution's stakeholders and in bringing up change and innovation when they follow eight basic steps (Bartol and Martin 1998). Figure 2-11 summarises the basic steps of change.

Figure 2-11. The Eight Basic Steps of Change. Adapted from Bartol and Martin (1998).

First step	To gain recognition of an opportunity or a problem.
Second step	To line up powerful sponsors.
Third step	To develop and communicate a vision.
Fourth step	To empower others to act out the vision.
Fifth step	To overcome resistance.
Sixth step	To plan for and reward visible progress.
Seventh step	To consolidate improvements and facilitate further change.
Eight step	To monitor and institutionalise the changes.

The processes of unfreezing, changing and refreezing are what the eight steps of change of Bartol and Martin (1998) represent (Figure 2-10 and Figure 2-11).

Reaction to Change

Reece and Brandt (1987, p. 355) mention that "when faced with an unexpected or possibly threatening situation, human beings like animals react with the fight or flight syndrome. Unlike animals, human beings have a third choice, the ability to adapt consciously to the new situation, i.e., to change". Not only are people capable of choosing their responses to a situation, they can also think about the consequences of their choices. In general, people experience a shift in thinking when they face a crisis or a life-threatening situation and suddenly see their priorities in a different light (Covey, 1994).

The key to active adaptability is the realisation that adjusting quickly to any situation, no matter how problematic, is the only constructive choice one has, even if the initial event appears to be very negative (Reece and Brandt, 1987). Active adaptability not only helps individuals and organisations adjust to change but also strengthens human relations. "This feeling of being in control, rather than being controlled, builds the individual's self-esteem, and positive self-esteem helps promote teamwork among coworkers as they face unusual situations"(Reece and Brandt, 1987, p. 355).

The path towards change and innovation can reverse itself very quickly unless it becomes part of the corporate culture (Bartol and Martin, 1998). Thus, it is important to keep pointing out the need for new behaviours and their connection to the organisation's success until it becomes an integral part of the way in which things are done. One way of maintaining the momentum of change is to start with some projects or phases that are likely to be successful in the very near future (Covey, 1994; Johnson, 1998). Moreover, providing celebrations, recognition, and other rewards sends the message that the changes are important and keeps attention focused on the vision. In general, people should watch what is happening, sense when change is going to occur and keep moving.

Resistance is itself a normal part of the political process (Busher, 2001). In general, "people want things to stay the same and they think change will be bad for them. When one person says the change is a bad idea, others say the same" (Johnson, 1998, p. 93). One reason for resisting change is self-interest (Plant, 1987; Busher, 2001). If a person perceives change to be unfavourable for him or her, he/she will exert effort to resist it. The amount of resistance exhibited depends on how strongly the individual feels his or her self-interest is affected. Another reason for resisting change is misunderstanding and lack of trust. Figure 2-12 lists the reasons for the resistance to change.

Figure 2-12. Reasons for the Resistance to Change. Adapted from Plant (1987).

1.	Fear of the unknown
2.	Lack of information
3.	Misinformation
4.	Historical factors
5.	Threat to core skills and competence
6.	Threat to status
7.	Threat to power base
8.	No perceived benefits
9.	Low trust
10.	Poor relationships
11.	Fear of failure
12.	Fear of looking stupid
13.	Reluctance to experiment
14.	Custom bound
15.	Reluctance to let go
16.	Strong peer group norms

Mistakes Part of the Change Process

One of the attributes that characterise excellent innovative companies is that the standard operating procedure is do it, fix it, then try it (Covey, 1994). The spirit is that "mistakes are not the spice of life. Mistakes are life itself. Mistakes are not to be tolerated. They are to be encouraged. And mostly, the bigger the better" (Peters, 1997, p. 104). The attitude is "if you have got a problem, put the resources on it and get it fixed" (Peters and Waterman, 1982, p. 50). Similarly, Johnson (1998, p. 11) states: "Life is no straight and easy corridor along which people travel free and unhampered but a maze of passage . . . a blind alley, through which they seek their way, lost and confused". But, if people have faith and a vision of the future, a door will open for them, not perhaps one that they themselves would ever have thought of, but one that will ultimately prove good for them.

Organisation Interface

Fullan (1999, p. 39) says that the biggest problem facing schools is fragmentation and overload. It is worse for schools than for business firms. Both are facing turbulent and uncertain environments, but only schools are suffering the additional burden of having a torrent of unwanted, uncoordinated policies and innovations raining down on them from external hierarchical bureaucracies. Fullan uses the example of the best Chicago schools, which integrate innovations into school improvement plans. When new ideas or policies come along they ask not only whether the idea is potentially good for them, but also how they can integrate it with what they are already working on. These schools are concerned about cumulative continuity, and because they have a growing conception of what they are looking for, they do achieve greater coherence.

However, Bryk, Sebring, Kerbrow, Rollow and Easton (1998, p. 287) talk about the "Christmas tree schools". These schools engage in aggressive efforts to bring many new programs and services to their schools; little attention is given to quality implementation of these initiatives or how well each new option relates to what is already in place.

According to Gunter (2001) organisations possess a life-world, i.e., the unique relationships, understanding and meanings constructed in a particular setting, and a system-world representing the management designs, processes and protocols (Habermas, 1987). When there is a colonisation of the life-world by the system-world the results are detrimental to those working with and within the organisation. When the system-world dominates, goals, purposes, values, and ideals are imposed on schoolteachers, faculty in the case of LAU, and on the students. Gunter (2001) argues that as the system-world dominates, what counts is determined more narrowly by those outside the school than those within it. She recommends the reorientation of leadership knowledge towards the life-world of the school. In general, successful organisations need both effective leadership that provides the values and the purposes, and good management sources of methods and skills (Bolman and Deal, 1991).

Weber (1958) writes about bureaucracy as the means of carrying community action over into rationally ordered societal action. He notes that bureaucracy, "inevitably accompanies modern mass democracy in contrast to the democratic self-government of small homogeneous units" (Weber, 1958). However, Anderson (1998) views the issue differently. For him the highest act of leadership is institutionalising a leadership development culture. When an organisation becomes

46

institutionalised, it becomes valued for itself, not merely for the goods or services it produces. It acquires immortality. When an organisation takes on institutional permanence, acceptable modes of behaviour become largely self-evident to its members.

Curriculum

Educational institutions are engaged in continual adaptation to changing environmental conditions and circumstances. In general, all major internal and external resources such as source of funds, faculty characteristics, facilities, markets demand, and organisational structure affect the curriculum choices (Beane, 1997). The curriculum for an educational institution represents the means for attracting students. The programs offered show the key values of the school or the university, and how it positions itself in the higher education market. In addition, the curriculum which faculty constructs or deliver to the students is one of the major aspects in the internal processes of leading and managing educational institutions (Busher, 2001). Thus the curriculum and the educational programs offered are important variables to consider.

Curriculum is a set of intentions regarding what experiences are to be offered through organised education (Miel, 1996). It involves all the activities leading to learning in a program, normally resulting in a qualification such as a certificate, a diploma or a degree. It refers not only to the official lists of courses offered by the school (the official curriculum), but also to the purpose, content, activities, and organisation of the educational program actually created in a university by the faculty members, students, and administrators (Walker and Soltis, 1997). In general, the curriculum is taken to be all those activities designed or encouraged within the school's organisational framework to promote the intellectual, personal, social, and physical development of students. Busher (2001) notes that the curriculum aspect of a school's process, in this case a university, is itself a political phenomenon, representing a particular set of values, in both its formal or subject components and in its informal or hidden components of preferred social norms and behaviours. The curriculum, then, and the pedagogy used to deliver or create it, are the outcomes of political processes that have been negotiated between a variety of social groups inside and outside the university. In general, the curriculum offered by an educational institution requires a commitment to clients (the students and the community) needs. There is an obligation to meet those needs by deploying knowledge and skills to best effect (Wilkinson, Redman, Snape and Marchington, 1998).

Profession Driven Subjects

Although there is a continuing market demand for an undergraduate education that de-emphasises functional employment during the undergraduate years, more weight is given nowadays to profession-driven subject matter in the overall university curriculum as a reaction to the changing population (Kushner, 1999). Breneman (1994, p. 139) refers to it as a "dominant strategy needed for survival". The academic program or curriculum is one way where universities differentiate their offerings to prospective students, who select among institutions of higher learning the one offering programs agreeing with their choice. Kotler and Murphy (1981) and Dill (1999) suggest that program modification is one element of response to product-market environment in higher education. Similarly, Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994) referred to competitiveness as the ability of a university to remain a viable player in the higher educational market. It requires flexibility in decision-making because it allows change and welcomes it as part of the productive process.

Oblinger and Verville (1998) believe that because a majority of college graduates are employed in the business sector, regardless of a student's academic major, higher education must be concerned with the educational needs of business. The reason is that the business community nowadays is faced with an unprecedented rate of change that creates a need not only for the traditional cognitive and affective development of students, but also for some very specific intellectual and social skills (Fife, 2000). The business community needs graduates who have been trained to think analytically, creatively, and practically. Without acceptance of the education expectations of the community, higher education will not effectively meet one of its most important societal obligations, which is to help develop a productive citizenry (Oblinger and Verville 1998).

Conclusion

Model 2-1 is developed from the literature review. It represents the leadership process, which seems to be related to the internal culture of an organisation, to the leaders' characteristics, traits, behaviour and style, to the group members or the followers' characteristics and behaviour, and the other contextual variables. The desired outcome of the framework, is the survival and growth of organisations.

The model is non-linear and flows in all directions among the interrelated variables. Thus, there exists a reciprocal relation among the denoted variables, which is represented in the model through the arrow linkage. The internal culture of an organisation, the leadership characteristics, traits, behaviour and style and the group members' characteristics directly affect the leadership process, and are in turn directly affected by each other and by the external environment and by the leadership process itself. Though the organisational situation affects the leadership process directly, it nonetheless affects it indirectly through both the internal culture and the group members' and leader's behaviour.

Model 2-1 The Leadership Process
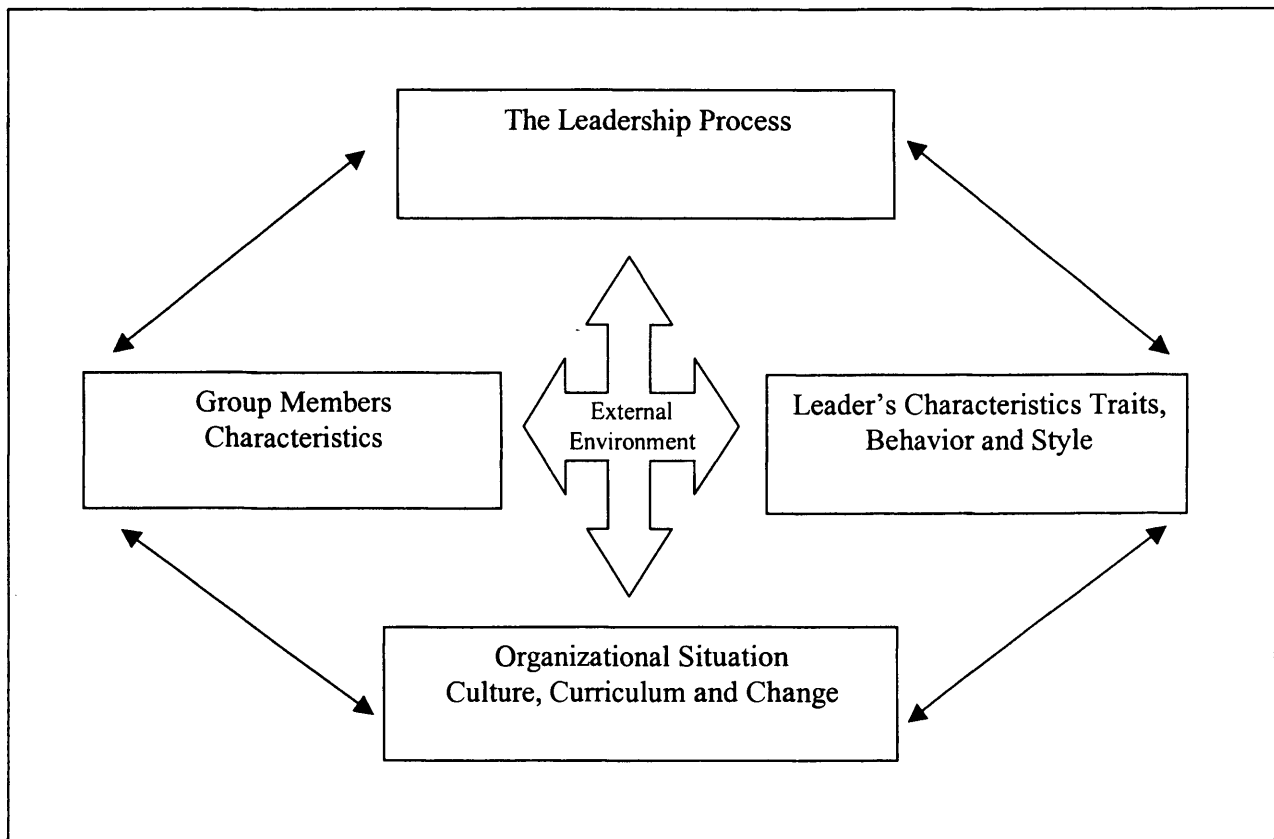
The research questions developed are based on the model, and were studied and analysed in relation to the survival and adaptation of LAU during turbulent times. Thus this study investigated the factors that have made possible the survival and growth of LAU, focusing on the interactive changes in the internal culture, the leadership style and gender differences, and the curriculum choice offered. Based on the literature review and Model 2-1 the researcher asked three key questions. They explored how the managing team, the faculty and the alumni perceived the internal culture of the university, its leadership style and gender differences, the curriculum choice and the changes, if any, during the period under study. Responses to the key questions were expected to help understand the leadership process and the interactive influence of the key contextual variables at LAU. The following research questions were raised:

One, what type or types of culture(s) prevailed during the two periods under study? Did it/they change according to situational variables? What effect did it/they have on the performance of the university and on the behaviour of the management team, faculty and students?

50

Two, what type or types of leadership style(s) prevailed during the period studied? Did it/they change with changing environmental conditions? Did gender differences determine the management style or did other environmental factors influence the management style of women and men in leadership positions? What role did women play in the leadership of the university? Did the difficult external conditions enhance the power of women? Did the leadership style of men and/or women in managerial positions change according to gender differences and/or the situations encountered?

Three, how did LAU meet the requirements of a competitive educational market for higher education? What were the additional academic programs offered?

Chapter 3
Methodology

Introduction

According to Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p. 21) "ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; and these, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection".

Ontological assumptions concern the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated, "the reality or the sense of being" (Morrison, 2002, p. 11). Epistemological assumptions "concern the very bases of knowledge—its nature and forms, how it can be acquired, and how it can be communicated to other human beings" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p. 6). The reality studied in this research was the life at LAU during the civil war and the post-war periods. The central research questions were framed as an empirical examination of how the university could survive and grow during difficult times. Factors affecting that survival such as the internal culture of the university, the leadership style and gender differences, the process of change, and the curriculum choice offered were studied.

As mentioned before, ontology and epistemology affect the methodology that underpins researchers' work. "Epistemological and methodological concerns are implicated at every stage of the research process" (Morrison, 2002, p. 11). Crucially, methodology provides a rationale for the ways in which researchers conduct research activities. The aim of methodology is to describe and analyse the research methods used, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences. A range of approaches is used in educational research to gather data, which are used as a basis for inference and interpretation, and for explanation and prediction (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000).

In this chapter, the researcher is involved in the development of the methodology of the thesis, based on the conceptual framework from chapter 2. Starting with the purpose of

the research (see chapter 1), the factors to be considered, and the research questions (see chapter 2), the researcher explained the research methodology used mentioning the anticipated problems encountered. She referred to the importance of the validity, accuracy and comprehensiveness of the data, and to the ethical rules followed in this research.

The Choice of Case Study

Case studies help understand complex social phenomena (Yin, 1994). It is a preferred strategy when how or why questions are posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. According to Bassey (2002) an educational case study is conducted within a localised boundary of space and time and covers interesting aspects, in their natural context, of an educational institution. Case study researchers should help build scaffolds for other researchers to climb, with the hope that ultimately the "climbers will be able to inform those who follow them" (Bassey, 2002, p. 110). The strength of case study lies in its attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case (i.e., its singularity) (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Philips, 1998; Yin, 1994).

This research was based on the case of LAU. It was carried out on the Beirut campus and studied the life of the organisation, its growth and survival, from 1975 till 2001. The case-study approach was used because it focuses on inquiry around an instance, and is much more than a story about or a description of an event or state (Bell, 1996). The purpose of such observation was to probe deeply and analyse intensively the various phenomena that constitute the life cycle of LAU. The case study approach was used to develop theoretical propositions. As in an experiment, the researcher's goal was to expand and generalise theories (analytical generalisation) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalisation). The LAU case was descriptive and explanatory. It allowed the researcher to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events. It was what Bassey (2002) defined as story-telling and picture-drawing case study, an analytical account of the life at LAU, aiming at illuminating theory. In this

work, the researcher tried to generalise the findings to theory, similar to the way a scientist generalises from experimental results to theory (Yin, 1994). She wanted to use a previously developed theory as a template (a resonance) with which to compare the empirical results. If two or more cases were shown to support the same theory, replication could be claimed. Thus, the relatability of the LAU case was more important than its generalisability (Bassey, 1999). The researcher hopes that this work will be a major contribution to educational research. Future researchers (the climbers) can build on the findings going beyond the scope of this research.

Quantitative versus Qualitative Research Method

Research involves rigorous and systematic empirical inquiry that creates a database (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The task of an educational investigator is very often to explain the means by which an orderly social world is established and maintained in terms of its shared meanings. Traditionally, the word 'method' refers to those techniques associated with the positivistic model eliciting responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements, describing phenomena and performing experiments. Nowadays, "methods and methodology include not only the methods of normative research but also those associated with interpretive paradigms such as participant observation, role playing, non directive interviewing, episodes and accounts" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p. 44). Methods refer to a range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inferences and interpretation, for explanation and prediction. Information is transformed into data by the process of analysis. Information is collected in a range of forms, as qualitative or quantitative information, or a combination of both. Each method has its strengths and weaknesses and each is particularly suitable for a particular context (Bell, 1996). The approach adopted and the methods of data collection selected depend on the nature of the inquiry and the type of information required. Since "Case study research has no methods of data collection or of analysis that are unique to it" (Bassey, 2002, p. 118), the researcher had a choice between the qualitative and quantitative methods, depending upon the desired answers to the research questions.

Quantitative research is often conceptualised as having a structure in which theories determine the problems to which researchers address themselves in the form of hypotheses derived from general theories (Morrison, 2002). Theories provide a backdrop to empirical research because hypotheses can be generated from them, in the form of postulated causal connections. Quantitative research has been heavily influenced by the application of the scientific method, which has in turn been seen mainly in positivist terms (Bassey, 2002). Positivists do not consider themselves as inside the research milieu they investigate and assume that other researchers handling similar data would come to similar conclusion. They consider the people studied as objects. They believe that the observation of the past may enable the prediction of what will happen in the future. Feelings, as the objects of educational research activity, are ruled out unless they can be rendered observable and measurable. In general, quantitative research is deductive (Morrison, 2002). It emphasises the measurement and analysis of causal relationships among variables. This emphasis helps in comparing and contrasting alternative groups of individuals in terms of differences of certain known variables (Zikmund, 1991).

Qualitative researchers stress the importance of the subjective experience of individuals in the creation of their social world (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993; Silverman, 2001). They do not know in advance what they will see or what they will look for (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). They consider the social world environment as variable and human-created. The image of the social reality is created through natural phenomena marked by gradual changes leading toward particular end results (Richardson, 1996). Qualitative researchers using an interpretive approach focus on how various participants see and experience life situations; they search for the meaning participants give to the experiences they have. "For an interpretivist there cannot be an objective reality which exists irrespective of the meanings human beings bring to it, though they may disagree about the extent to which reality is reconstructed by researchers" (Morrison, 2002, p. 19). The core task of an interpretivist is to view research participants as research subjects and to explore the meanings of events and phenomena from subjects' perspectives. The approach taken is that researchers can only make sense of the data collected if they are able to understand the data in a broader educational, social, and historical context.

Qualitative research deals with multiple realities based on 'rich' description of the contextualized behaviour (Shaw, 1999; Silverman, 2001; Morrison, 2002). Some of the characteristics of the paradigm of qualitative research are that humans actively construct their own meanings of situations (Lincoln and Guba, 1989). Behaviour and data are socially situated, context-related, context dependent, and context rich. To understand a situation researchers need to understand the context because situations affect behaviour and perspectives and vice versa. Inquiries are influenced by the values of the inquirer as expressed in the choice of a problem and in the framing, bounding, and focusing of that problem (Woods, 1992).

Social research examines situations through the eyes of the participants and grasps the point of view of the participants as they view the world and their relation to life (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). This research examined, through the eyes of the participants, LAU people (see the section on sampling) the life at LAU during the period under study. The focus is on the factors that have affected the survival of the university during this period. The interest was to understand the reality of the university as a whole (i.e., the processes of changing from a small college to a university) and to identify the characteristics behind such growth.

Since the researcher is neither comparing nor contrasting alternatives or groups of individuals in terms of differences on certain known variables nor measuring or analysing causal relationships among variables, choosing quantitative analysis did not seem appropriate (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). However, since qualitative data can provide rich insight into human behaviour, and since the main task of qualitative research is to explain the way people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and manage the day-to-day life (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994), using qualitative research techniques seemed appropriate for this research especially because the researcher was interested in understanding and interpreting the life of LAU during the period under study.

"Qualitative research is conducted through an intense and/or prolonged contact with a field or a life situation" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 6), in this case life at LAU. The story of LAU may provide sociological insights, which can be directly interpreted, and put to use, or they may form an archive of descriptive material rich enough to encourage subsequent interpretation (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Bell, 1996; Phillips, 1998 and Bassey, 1999). In summary, the researcher searched for understanding, rather than knowledge; for interpretations rather than measurements; for values rather than facts. Taking an interpretivist position, she decided to use qualitative paradigms, seeing the situation at LAU through the eyes of the participants. The methodological rationale, understanding the situation at LAU during the period under study, provided the researcher with reasons for conducting interviews and using documentary analysis based on newspapers, magazines, LAU academic catalogues and internal reports.

Sampling

Finding the right people to interview is critical to a descriptive, qualitative study (Bell, 1996; Hancock, 1998), and it is ethically problematic (Busher, 2002). It was not practical to obtain data from all LAU people because of time and accessibility (Cohen and Manion, 1994). That is why the researcher decided to collect information from a smaller group representative of the total population. She examined the academic catalogues for the years (1978-79, 1980-82, 1982-84, 1985-87, 1990-91, 1992-93, 1996-97 and 1999-2000) and decided to use stratified proportion sampling (Balian, 1994) from the LAU community. To obtain a stratified sample she specified in advance, as part of her research design, which sub-groups of the whole sample are important (Wragg, 2002). This was usually decided on the basis of her professional judgement. The variables of gender, years of service, and position or status or category at LAU, were the stratifying variables upon which the sample was proportionately controlled. A purposive sample was selected, called by Gay (1996) judgmental sampling. It consisted of individuals whom the researcher believed would be representative of those found in a given population and are sufficiently knowledgeable about the phenomena being studied (Wiseman, 1999).

In order to ensure proportional representation, the researcher chose a sample consisting of three groups. The first one was the managing team, consisting of eight people: five males and three females, representing the current distribution of males and females in the upper and middle management, i.e., 31 percent of the members of the managing team were females (Figure 3-1). The second group included eighteen faculty members from different educational disciplines and the third one was composed of twelve alumni also from different educational disciplines.

According to LAU catalogues, the managing team selected in the sample has served the institution as faculty members and/or administrators for at least fifteen years. Thus the researcher did not feel the need to divide the sample representing the managing team into two categories: people who served the institution during the civil war period and people who served it after the civil war period.

From the academic catalogues for the years mentioned earlier, the researcher selected the faculty members and the alumni to be interviewed according to their seniority in years of service. 'Old' refers to people who have taught or graduated between the years (1978-79 to 1991-92, 1992 being the end of the civil war period). 'New' refers to those who have taught or graduated between (1992-93 to 1999-2001). Haidar (2002a, p. 9) said, "Two-thirds of the total faculty corps have been recruited in the last eight years". Accordingly, six of the eighteen faculty members selected were old-timers who served the institution during the civil war period, and the remaining twelve were new faculty members (Figure 3-2). Since the percentage of female to male during the civil war period was around 50 percent, three males and three female old-time faculty members were included in the sample. The twelve newly recruited faculty members in the sample included eight males and four females, representing the current distribution of females to males, i.e., 32 percent.

The number of male and female students graduating from LAU ranges between 52 percent males and 47 percent females (Academic Affairs Report, Spring 2000, p. 10). An average of 50 percent female and 50 percent male was considered a representative sample

of the graduates from LAU. Twelve alumni, six females and six males, out of which three were from each category, who graduated during the civil war period (referred to as old) and three after the civil war period (referred to as new) are represented in the sample.

The sample grouping, old and new did not refer to the age of the participants. Most of the old-timers, who had been working at LAU during the war period, were middle-aged. However, the new faculty did not necessarily belong to the young generation because some of them joined the university after a long career abroad. The same reasoning applied to the alumni. Thus, age as a variable affecting the behaviour of the participants was ignored in this study. Similarly, many old-time faculty members had retired or left the country, limiting the choice of the researcher in the selection process to the ones still teaching at LAU. The selection of the people to be interviewed was based on an opportunity sample consisting of those available to be interviewed and willing to talk. The staff members were purposely left out of the sample studied because they were a minority during the civil war period, with little effect on the performance of the institution.

This heterogeneous group of people was selected on purpose: different gender, age groups, and backgrounds were chosen in order to get diversified views about the life at LAU, and to test for differences in opinions and behaviour. The researcher did not allow for a common stratified sampling mistake, which would have involved too many stratifying variables on inadequate sample size. The smallest strata consisted of three people, which was a reasonable number to interview in one category (see Figure 3-3). The sample consisted of diversified populations in terms of respondent background, age, gender and status at LAU. The desire to know more about the people in the sample, was essential in the quest of the writer to synthesise historical and sociological methodologies in the urge to develop a scope and a pattern of behaviour (Phillips, 1998; Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Figure 3-1. Distribution of Males and Females in the Upper and Middle Management—Presidents, Vice Presidents, Deans and Acting Deans, Directors and Assistant Directors, and Chairpersons.

*No material was available for the years 1979-80, 1984-85, 1987-1990, 1991- 92, 1993-96, 1997- 99.

Data Collected from LAU Catalogues

Years	Management group				Management group				Percentage of Females to Males
	President and Vice Presidents		Deans and Acting Deans		Directors and Assistant Directors		Academic Chairpersons		
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	
1978-79	1	1		1	5	2	2	1	62%
1980-82	1	1		1	5	3	2	3	50%
1982-84	1	1	1		5	3	2	3	56%
1985-87	1	1	1		8	5	1	4	52%
1990-91	1	2		2	10	5	4	5	52%
1992-93		3	1	2	12	8	6	2	56%
1996-97	1	3		2	8	9	3	3	41%
1999-2000	1	4	2	6	11	14	2	12	31%

Figure 3-2. Full-time Faculty Members as Distributed between Males and Females.

Years	Full-time Faculty Members		Percentage of Females to Males
	Females	Males	
1978-79	19	19	50%
1980-82	28	26	52%
1982-84	32	27	55%
1985-87	29	24	55%
1990-91	38	30	56%
1992-93	39	61	39%
1996-97	44	72	38%
1999-2000	46	98	32%

Figure 3-3. Sample Summary

Managing Team — 8P — 5M, 3F

Faculty — 18P — 6 OT (3M, 3F), 12 NR (8M, 4F)

Alumni — 12P — 6 OG (3M, 3F), 6 NG (3M, 3F)

Legend
P .... Persons
M ...... Males
F .... Females
OT ..... Old-Timers
NR ...... New Recruits
OG ..... Old Graduates
NG ..... New Graduates
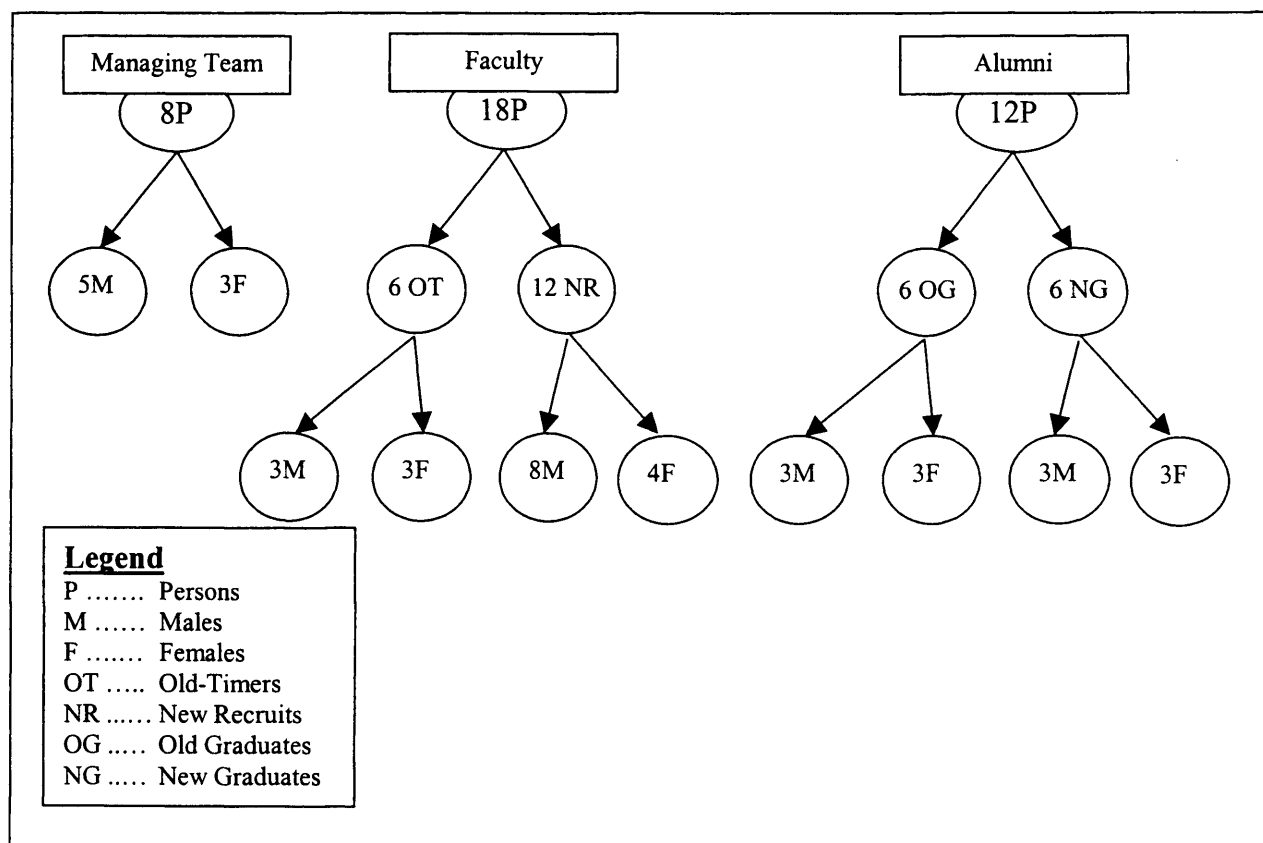
Authenticity: Reliability, Validity, and Triangulation

Reliability and Validity

Reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or methods would produce identical or similar results (Bell, 1996; Bush, 2002). In other terms, reliability is the consistency of the results obtained when using different measuring instruments, including the human observer, the researcher. In general, reliability depends on a highly structured instrument (Bush, 2002). Structured interviews (explained later in the chapter) are similar to questionnaires in their design and both may be regarded as methods within the positivist tradition and both provide for reliability. However, unstructured, or semi-structured interviews, which are used in this research study, assume great diversity in both the design and use of the research instrument and in the nature of responses from participants which may limit the scope of reliability while enhancing validity (refer to section on data collection). Similarly, Bassey (1999, 2002) dismissed the notion of reliability for case studies and substituted for it the concept of trustworthiness. According to him, the tests of probity in case study research involve tests for trustworthiness and tests involving respect for persons. The test of respect for persons is explained later on in the chapter in a section called Ethical Consideration. In this section the researcher focused on the test of trustworthiness as applied in this research. She followed the recommendations of Bassey (2002) and answered the test of trustworthiness (Figure 3-4).

Figure 3-4. Test of Trustworthiness. Adapted from Bassey (2002, p. 120).

1- Has there been prolonged engagement with data sources?
   - *Yes. The researcher has worked at LAU for around twenty-five years and is familiar with the participants and the documents used in this study.*
2- Has there been persistent observation of emerging issues?
   - *Yes. The researcher has worked on the data for around two years.*
3- Have data been adequately checked with the sources?
   - *Yes. The researcher is an insider. She was able to check the data easily.*
4- Has there been sufficient triangulation of data leading to analytical statements?
   - *Yes. Refer to chapters 5 and 6.*
5- Has the emerging story been systematically tested against analytical statements?
   - *Yes. See chapters 4, 5, and 6.*
6- Has a critical friend tried to challenge your findings thoroughly?
   - *Yes. The researcher discussed her findings with Mrs. Janine Zakka, a CPA holder and director of student affairs, a friend and an old-timer at LAU.*
7- Is the account of the research sufficiently detailed to give the reader confidence?
   - *Yes. Reporting the results of two years research is quite enough for an educational research study.*
8- Does the case record provide an adequate audit trail?
   - *The researcher has kept the interview transcripts. See the section dealing with ethical consideration.*

The principal purpose of research is to produce findings that are valid to the group(s) under study (internal validity) and to produce inferences from those findings that can be applied to other populations (external validity) (Wiseman, 1999). The internal validity relates to the extent that research findings accurately represent the phenomena under investigation and how correctly the researcher portrays the phenomena it is supposed to portray (Bush, 2002), i.e., establishing causal relationships, where certain conditions are shown to lead to other conditions (Yin, 1994a). The external validity is related to the extent that findings may be generalised to a wider population, which the sample represents, or to other similar settings (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). As mentioned before, external validity in case study research is problematic because during the conduct of the case the emphasis is on its uniqueness. Bassey (1999, p. 12) talks about fuzzy generalisation arising from singularities adding, "generalisation may become less fuzzy if several similar case studies are undertaken". Investigators generalise a particular set of

results to some broader theory. The same theory will help to identify the other cases to which the results are generalisable (Yin, 1994b). Since the questions, findings and interpretations are considered subjective, it is impossible to duplicate or replicate exactly the study for later confirmation.

Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the inferences researchers make based on the collected data (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). It refers to the degree to which evidence supports any inferences a researcher makes. It tells whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe (Bell, 1996). It is a label applied to an interpretation or description with which one agrees (Smith and Heshusius, 1986). In qualitative research, validity is often replaced by authenticity (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998a). Similarly, Hammersley (1992, p. 68) says; "the function of research is to provide information that is both true and relevant to some legitimate public concern". However, truth and relevance are not always in harmony. False claims can be useful, and it is difficult to anticipate the future usefulness of true but apparently trivial claims. In addition, Hammersley (1995), points to the need to resolve disputes regarding the validity of research in terms of their plausibility and credibility. Plausibility means consistency with existing knowledge the validity of which is taken to be beyond reasonable doubt. Credibility refers to the likelihood that the process, which produced the claims, is free of serious error.

In social science research evaluators do not make decisions at a single point in time, but they build up their findings from small choices, small options and the gradual narrowing of available alternatives (Radnor, 2002). There is a possible diffuse and an indirect infiltration of research ideas into the understanding of the world. This explains what Jessor, Colby and Shweder (1996) call 'decision accretion and knowledge creep'. Different inquirers make different decisions even when confronted with similar circumstances. Radnor (2002) recognises that human actors in society do make sense of their environment and different humans make sense differently. They impute symbolic meaning to others' actions and take their own actions in accord with the meaning of the interpretations they have made. Gadamar (1976) adds that in order to understand social

actions, individuals need to learn the language of the society in which they live. Taylor (1995) explains that people can not know what others think and mean in the same sense that they know themselves. They can only know others through their actions and the words they speak, i.e., through the interpretation of what they see and hear. Although the researcher has served LAU for a number of years and speaks the same 'language' as the interviewer, she was still concerned with the question of validity and reliability of the data collected. The issue is discussed in the next section.

Triangulation

According to Busher (1999, p. 1) there is "a need to establish the authenticity or trustworthiness of the personal perspectives given or the personal stories told both in terms of the factual events which are said to have occurred and in terms of the values, beliefs, and actions claimed by the participants". One of the procedures used for checking on or enhancing validity and reliability, reducing what Jessor, Colby and Shweder (1996) call 'decision accretion' and 'knowledge creep', is to use a variety of instruments to collect the data. In fact, when a conclusion is supported by data collected from a number of different instruments, its validity is enhanced. This kind of checking is often referred to as triangulation. Triangulation is fundamentally a device for improving validity by checking data, either by using mixed methods or by involving a range of participants (Bush, 2002). "Triangular techniques in the social sciences attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint" (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p. 233). Bush (2002, p. 68) recommends using "methodological triangulation," i.e., using several methods, and "respondent triangulation," i.e., asking the same questions of many different participants.

The researcher utilised methodological triangulation (using interviewing and documentary analysis) and theoretical triangulation (comparing the results of the study with what theorists and historians have written about the topic) in order to check and enhance the validity and the reliability of the data collected. She also used respondent triangulation by interviewing members from the managing team, faculty members and alumni in order to respond to the multiplicity of perspectives present in the case of LAU.

The researcher believed that by gathering data using various instruments was valuable for enhancing cross-checking (Douglas, 1976) or triangulation (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994), enhancing consistency and validity.

Pilot Testing: A Validity Tool

Three hazards affect the validity and reliability of the data collected. They are the self-fulfilling prophecy, the Hawthorne effect, and the halo effect (Balian, 1994, p. 127). The self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when interviewees answer attitudinal questions by giving answers, which reflect the way they like to see themselves. Similarly, the Hawthorne effect occurs when respondents alter their normal pattern or response due merely to their knowledge that they, themselves; are being studied. In addition, the tendency of participants to answer the same way regardless of their true attitudes towards the questions is called the halo effect. In addition, attitudes and behaviour may transform dramatically over time, a phenomenon which researchers call "function fluctuation" (Wragg, 2002, p. 147). The optimum time to investigate the possible existence of the three hazards is during the formal pilot testing of the instrument, giving the researcher an opportunity to measure objectively the validity and reliability of the instrument. According to Cohen and Manion (1994), the sources of bias are the characteristics of the interviewer, the characteristics of the respondent, and the substantive content of the questions. Pilot testing can give a rough idea about the amount of time needed (Bell, 1996).

Defining the research questions is the most important step to be taken in a research study (Yin, 1994a). Based on the conceptual framework of the study (the literature review) the purpose of the research, and the factors to be considered, the researcher derived the interview questions. In order to improve the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the data, the researcher paid special attention in wording the questions to make them clear and unambiguous, encouraging the cooperation of the participants to answer as closely as possible, giving what they considered to be the truth.

The interview questions were tried out on one dean, two faculty members and two alumni from different religious backgrounds, with similar experiences to those of the population under study. The complete interview schedule was used in the pilot study. After every interview with the pilot sample, the researcher modified the interview schedule when necessary in the light of the comments made. The modified version was tried again on another sample from the pilot study. After pre-testing the interview questions the final form was prepared (see Figures 3-5).

Through piloting the study, the researcher set around thirty minutes for answering the entire interview questions and fifteen minutes for introduction and warm up. She asked the participants in the pilot study whether a major topic had been omitted, whether any of the questions were unclear or whether the interviewees had an objection to answering any of them. This pre-testing of the research questions showed that no significant differences in behaviour resulted because of differences in religious affiliation. The researcher believed that education seemed to have smoothed over basic differences in behaviour. Thus, testing for differences in behaviour due to the multi-ethnic society at LAU was not needed. Language is an especially important issue in a multicultural setting where several different mother tongues might be spoken (Wragg, 2002). The researcher used English because all the participants understand the language well.

Figure3- 5 Interview Schedule

One of the Interview Schedules:

Questions addressed to the managing group, the faculty and the graduates

LAU has grown substantially developing from a small college with few students to a three-campus university with more than 4,500 students.

1) What were the leadership skills exercised during the different environmental conditions governing the daily life at LAU? Explain gender difference in behaviour if any.

    1-1 During the civil war period.

    1-2 During the post war period.

2) Can you describe briefly the different values and standards of behaviour used during the different stages of the life of the institution i.e., from 1975 to 2000?

    2-1 During the civil war period.

    2-3 During the post war period.

3) Can you define the type of culture exhibited at LAU, explaining how it was created, sustained, and learned?

    3-1 During the civil war.

    3-3 During the post war period.

4) Can you list the factors that have triggered the growth of LAU?

5) How did the university meet the challenge of changing from a small college to a university?

    4-1 How did the institution meet competition?

    4-2 How did the institution manage its academic programs?

    4-3 What were the additional academic programs offered, if any? Explain and give examples.

6) What was your vision for the future development of the university?

    5-1 During the period of war.

    5-2 Now.

7) How important the following concerns were?

    8-1 The satisfaction of the student body.

    8-2 The satisfaction of the faculty.

    8-3 The satisfaction of the community.

    8-4 The satisfaction of any other group.

8) What impact did the external environment i.e., the war condition, have on the operations of the university? Explain and give examples.

9) How does being an LAU faculty or officer or graduate fit your expectations? Explain and give examples.

Ethical Considerations

To be ethical, a research project needs to be designed to create trustworthy (valid) outcomes if it is to be believed to be pursuing truth (Busher, 2002). Moral and ethical codes apply equally to quantitative and qualitative research methods (Busher, 2002). Ethical problems emerge in all methodologies, although much of the discussion of ethics in educational research is focused on interpretative, critical, and feminist paradigms. The basic principles of educational research are commitment to honesty (Pring, 2000), respect for the dignity and privacy of the participants, and avoidance of plagiarism. Researchers should strike a balance between the demands placed on them as professional scientists in pursuit of truth, and their subjects' rights and values potentially threatened by the research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Writing up the results of the research also has to be done so that the presentation of the data both respects participants' rights to privacy and sustains the right of society to know about the research (Burgess, 1989). In general, in human subjects, research issues of subject confidentiality or anonymity need strong consideration. A respondent's understanding of the issues of confidentiality and anonymity not only provides better data for the study, but actually is a researcher's ethical and legal responsibility to human subjects under survey (Balian, 1994).

As mentioned before, the tests of probity in case study research include tests of respect for person and an agreed arrangement for either identifying or concealing the contributing individuals (Busher, 2002; Bassey, 2002). These tests include permission given by an appropriate manager to conduct the research work and to publish the case report. It is important for researchers to protect their right to publish, so long as the identity of other stakeholders is protected by anonymity. A permission to undertake this research and publish the work in the form of a thesis was granted by Dr. Riyad Nassar, the president of the university. Similarly, the researcher gained the informed consent of the participants involved and tried to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants as recommended by other researchers such as Busher (2002) and Bassey (2002). The researcher explained to the respondents that their answers were very confidential and that in order to preserve the anonymity of the interviewees, she used the following coding

system when referring to them: the first letter defines the gender of the interviewee. ('F' represents a female and 'M' a male). The second letter, followed by a number, indicates the individuals in terms of their positions at LAU. ('M' represents a member of the managing team, 'F' a faculty member and an 'A' an alumnus). The third letter represents the period she/he served or studied at LAU. ('O' stands for old-timer and 'N' for new-timer. For example, (M.M1.) defines a male manager number one. (F.F2.O.) represents a female faculty member number 2, an old-timer. (M.A3.N) stood for a male alumnus, number 3, a new graduate. Although the researcher was using the above-mentioned coding system, she agreed with Lincoln and Guba (1989) that confidentiality and anonymity cannot be guaranteed in naturalistic inquiry. If one were familiar with the life of LAU, he/she could guess the name of the participants from the quotations made in the findings.

Similarly, research done by an insider carries a number of ethical problems. One of them is related to the fact that the researcher can use information made available to her/him for one purpose, and use it for other purposes (Johnson, 1994). Similarly, document-based research contains a range of ethical dilemmas for researchers, particularly when documents written for one purpose or for a particular audience are used for other purposes by the researcher (Busher, 2002). In addition, documents allow researchers to invade the lives of the participants in a research project, gaining insights into participants' views, values and attitudes.

The documents used in this research include quotations from the local press, from reports prepared by some members of the managing team, minutes of university meetings, university catalogues, and other internal university documents. Being a faculty member, an insider at LAU gave the researcher privileged access to data that an external researcher might never have gained. She asked the permission from the president and other concerned people to use the information available in the documents.

As mentioned before, the researcher is a senior faculty member at LAU. This situation can challenge the trustworthiness of the data given since some participants might have

been more willing to talk to her, perhaps because they perceived her as understanding their situation, and others less, because they feared what the researcher might do with any information given. Busher (2002) explains that interviews carried out by insiders in an organisation carry ethical problems heightened when the researchers are formally powerful people in it. In such a case, questions are raised about the nature of the consent that participants have really given when asked to take part in the research, and the quality of the data collected.

Participating in any research involves risk to the individuals concerned (Busher, 2002). In order to minimise the risk and allow participants to choose whether or not they want to take part in the research project, the researcher used an explanatory letter and a pre-interview explanation.

Similarly, educational researchers are advised to destroy the data after the work is done. The storage of data after the end of a research project, particularly when linked to the personal information of the participants, raises the possibility of harm being done to the participants especially if those data are used for purposes other than the original research (Raffe, Bundell and Bibby, 1989). In order to keep an audit trail (Figure 3-5) and eliminate the risk of harming the participants in any way, the researcher will destroy the interview schedules once the thesis is completed and the corrections are made.

Data Collection

The collection of data is an extremely important part of all research endeavours, for the conclusion of the study is based on what the data reveals. It requires an inquiring mind (Yin, 1994a). Researchers must constantly ask themselves why events appear to have happened or to be happening. "The kind(s) of data to be collected, the method(s) of collection to be used, the scoring of the data need to be considered with care" (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993, p. 100). As mentioned earlier, the researcher uses primary data obtained from interviews supplemented with secondary data obtained from local and foreign newspapers, magazines, and reports and bulletins issued by LAU. As Bassey (2002) advises, two rules were followed: First, the researcher systematically recorded the

data by noting days, time and place of collection and kept back-up files, one in the computer and the other on paper. In addition, the researcher kept almost all of the rough notes and draft reports. Second, the researcher started analysing the data as they came in and did not wait until they were all collected.

According to Watling (2002), information gathering, analysis, conclusions, recommendations, and implementation can take place more or less simultaneously. He recognised that data analysis is rarely a separate or distinct activity in its own right but takes place throughout the entire research process. The researcher followed the same trend. A faculty member at LAU since 1978, she was familiar with the life of the university. She started analysing parts of the data while she was designing the project, and when she was conducting the interviews, while reading the documents, and when she was storing, retrieving and handling the records, when she was building theories, and when writing the thesis.

Interviewing

The researcher selected the interviewing technique as the appropriate tool for handling this study because it has the potential to provide greater depth of understanding, and because it is a very flexible technique suitable for gathering information and opinion, and for exploring people's thinking and motivation (Drever, 1997). Interviewing is frequently used in case study in order to capture the meanings and intentions of the interviewees, the main actors (Bell, 1996; Radnor, 2002).

Wragg (2002) distinguished three kinds of face-to-face interview: the structured, the semi-structured and the unstructured interview. A brief definition of the above-mentioned methods follows (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993; Drever, 1997; Phillips, 1998; Bell, 1996; Cohen and Manion, 1994):

The structured interview is a formal type of gathering data through verbal questionnaires. The questions are designed and organised in advance with limited sets of response categories. It is useful when many questions are to be asked which are not particularly

contentious or deeply thought provoking. If the questions require more profound deliberation the respondent may become irritated at being forced into one word or one category answers. This type of interview gives little flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals or in adjusting it to special circumstances. Also, the use of standardised wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of the questions and the answers. The researcher believes that using structured interviewing was inappropriate for this research because it would limit the reliability and validity of the data.

The unstructured interview, an informal interviewing type of gathering information, can be matched to individuals and circumstances. It is called by Burgess (1984), conversation with a purpose, and often, though not always, is used by researchers working in an interpretive paradigm. Researchers keeping in mind the purpose of the study may change the content, the sequence, and the wording of the questions. However, most researchers consider this technique the most difficult one because it is hard to preserve the same meaning of a statement when one changes the wording. Also, interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording the questions can result in different responses and different perspectives for the same issue, which reduces the comparability of the responses.

The semi-structured interview is more formal than the unstructured one. Researchers using this method set up a general structure by deciding in advance what ground is to be covered and what the main questions to be asked are. The detailed structure is worked out during the interview. The interviewee answers in his/her words and the interviewer responds using prompts, probes and follow-up questions to get the interviewee to clarify or explain, in more detail, certain issues. A semi-structured interview schedule tends to be the one most favoured by educational researchers as it allows respondents to express themselves at length, but offers enough shape to prevent aimless rambling.

Since the researcher was planning to interview people from different ranks and backgrounds and wanted to dig into their personal life, looking deeper than what is apparent, using the semi-structured and sometimes the unstructured interviews seemed to

the researcher the most appropriate technique to use. In an interpersonal encounter people are more likely to disclose personal aspects of themselves, their thoughts, their feelings and values, than they would be in a less human situation (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Conducting the Interviews

In education, the face-to-face interview is still the most frequent form of discourse, as both parties often want to see each other when talking about human affairs (Wragg, 2002). Conducting an interview in comfortable chairs, perhaps in someone's own room or home, can lead to a relaxed atmosphere. Thus, the researcher contacted the people to be interviewed by e-mail, informing them about the purpose of the study and asking them to set a date for the interview. The interviews were carried out on the premises of the institution, in the office of the interviewee, or, in the case of alumni, in the interviewer's office.

Most people if approached properly will agree to be interviewed (Drever, 1997). In order to make the interviewees more at ease, and thus tell without reservation or constraint their stories, the researcher started each interview by introducing herself and by explaining to the interviewees the purpose of the study. She explained that the information provided was important and useful as a model of survival during difficult times. She assured them about the confidentiality of the information provided. The researcher asked the interviewees to read and sign a 'consent to participate letter', an ethical issue dealing with informed consent (Silverman, 2001). It summarised the purpose of the study, the importance of the data, the conditions followed while conducting the work, and the risks and benefits involved (see Appendix, Figure 1). Participants were requested to sign the letter as an indication of agreement to participate in the study. A copy of the letter was kept with the interviewer and another one with the interviewee. For every interviewee a personal information form was completed (Appendix, Figure 2). All the interviews were tape recorded, in order to check the authenticity of the interviews and to keep a reliable reference.

Wragg (2002) notes that the style used in interviewing should be a balance between friendliness and objectivity. Because the researcher was using the semi-structured interview, unexpected areas of interest arose, leading to other questions worth asking. The researcher was concerned about establishing a good rapport with the interviewees. She tried to read the situation in which she was interviewing, and sometimes she began in a different place in the interview schedule or phrased the questions differently. In order to cover all the main areas she was seeking information about, she tried to obtain the information as naturally as possible, going with the flow of the conversation and the context to make the respondent as relaxed and comfortable as possible (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Radnor, 2002). Human memory can also be very frail, especially about emotive issues. To reduce the halo effect, the researcher reversed the wording on various items and asked the same question at the beginning and at the end to allow a kind of rest period between the questions. This represented test-retest reliability. The researcher noted that some interviewees reacted negatively when asked the same question twice considering the repetition a lack of attention on the part of the interviewer, or even an insult to their intelligence. The emergent themes of each interview influenced the investigative structure of the following interviews, thus allowing in-depth exploration and elaboration of emerging themes as the study progressed.

Because the writer used interpretive research, she resorted to what Radnor (2002, p. 60) calls "active listening". In order to improve the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the data gathered, the researcher, at the end of each interview, asked the participants if they had anything to add and whether they had given her an accurate picture of the events mentioned. She created an atmosphere that encouraged the interviewees to talk freely and be clearly understood by asking for concrete examples, explanations and expansion of what was initially said. She asked the interviewees to repeat a statement or a story in order to check her understanding of what the participants were saying, or when there were some doubts about the completeness of the story. She asked the interviewees, for example, to reiterate what they were saying, e.g., "If I understand you correctly, you are saying?" Or, "Let us go over what you have said". The researcher realised that as a good listener, she should involve herself in the conversation without giving her opinion,

searching, however, for the interviewees' meanings and practices. This encouraged the interviewees to add new information or to clarify old statements. While doing the interview, the writer explained any ambiguities and corrected any misunderstandings of the questions. Also the researcher probed for clarification in case the answers were unclear, going beyond the questions in various ways so as to obtain the sort of answers wanted (Silverman, 2001; Drever, 1997). During the interview the researcher observed critically the behaviour of the participants and studied their body language, which helped the researcher in conducting the interview and interpreting it later on. Each interview session lasted between half an hour and one hour.

According to Sharan (1988, p. 120), "Rigor in a qualitative case study derives from the researcher's presence, nature of the interaction between researcher and participants, the triangulation of data, the interpretation of perceptions, and rich, thick description". The researcher was conscious that it was not easy to use interviewing in order to find out what was going on in the minds of people because each interviewee had a different social history, personality, culture and perspective of the world (Cortazzi, 1993). Because the researcher is the key instrument in the collection of the data and its analysis, and because no instruments or machines or carefully codified procedures were used, the writer was very careful and extremely self-conscious about her relationship to the setting. She attempted to seek out her own subjective state and its effect on the accumulated data, but she might not have been completely successful because all researchers can be affected by observer bias". To guard against this observer bias, the researcher recorded detailed field notes that included reflections on her subjectivity. According to Bogdan and Biklin (1992, p. 47) "qualitative researchers can never eliminate all of their own effects on subjects or obtain a perfect correspondence between what they wish to study—the natural setting—and what they actually study—a setting with a researcher present". Similarly, the researcher was aware that the participants were asked to recall past events, seeing them through a filter affected by their subjectivity.

The researcher carried out around two interviews per week and prepared the interview transcripts the same day in order not to forget any minor detail (Miles and Huberman,

1994). While preparing the transcripts the researcher recorded a few notes related to a change in tone when certain events or names were mentioned. Reports were written from the data collected in the interviews and through observations of the behaviour of the participants while being interviewed (Radnor, 2002). During the interviews, theories started to form in the researcher's mind (Watling, 2002); some were dispensed with; others adapted and retained and others were considered as key elements in the final analysis.

The researcher was the instrument (Richardson, 1998, p. 347) in this research work. She was aware that personal observation bias might distort the information obtained. As a faculty member at LAU, the researcher was alert to the possibility that she might have interpreted or categorised events on the basis of an assumed shared knowledge within the culture. To minimise possible observation bias, the researcher used to discuss her findings with friend and colleague Janine Zakka, keeping all the time the name of the participants anonymous. She also resorted to crosschecking the data obtained from interviews with information gathered from newspapers, magazines, and LAU catalogues, documents and reports. The above-mentioned steps were a type of triangulation used in this work.

When participants were asked to talk about past events, particular high-profile events might be recalled (Busher, 2002). However, there were unanswered questions about whether other, possibly equally important events, had been overlooked because participants did not consider them important. The researcher tried to address this problem in an attempt to protect the trustworthiness of the findings and interpretation of the study by using a number of participants, each telling his/her stories and versions of the events (see the section on sampling).

Data Reduction, Display and Analysis

In the analysis of qualitative research, researchers have to make a series of deliberate, critical choices about the meanings and values of the data gathered, making sure that the decisions can be justified in terms of the research, the context in which it was carried out,

and the people who were involved (Watling, 2002). Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p. 3) described this collection process as "bricolage" leading to "petite generalisation" which may occasionally refer to wider populations or "grand Generalisation" as Stake, (1995, p. 20) explains. The researcher, the bricoleur, was the artist who performed a large number of diverse tasks, ranging from interviewing to observing the people being interviewed, to interpreting documents, to reflecting intensively.

Case study research usually produces a great deal of data; analysis is needed to condense them into meaningful statements (Bassey, 2002). In addition, words can be organised to permit a researcher to contrast, compare, analyse and present patterns (Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Morrison, 2002). In fact, "Verbatim transcription of recorded interviews provided the best data base for analysis" (Sharan, 1988, p. 82). Since this study was based on interpretive research, the emphasis was on words rather than numbers. The researcher prepared the interview transcripts, which were entered into a computer system using Microsoft Word. Every transcript was given a reference number similar to the coding system used when referring to the interviewees. The researcher printed the transcripts of the interviews, using letter coding and sometimes word coding, for each different idea, i.e., L was used for leadership accompanied with S for style. The researcher kept enough space in order to be able to add more notes and comments. The transcripts were read, edited for accuracy, commented on, coded, and content analysed in order to identify commonalties in nature, focus, implementation, acceptance, and evaluation methods. After preparing the interview transcripts, the researcher sent two copies to the interviewees, asking them to acknowledge what they had said and send back one copy to the researcher after signing it. This procedure is called by Radnor (2002, p. 62) "respondent validation". It gives the interviewees the opportunity to review what they have said, make corrections, add points and so on before the analysis began. The researcher kept the second copy of the interview transcript for authenticity and relevance.

The interview transcript needs to be subject to content analysis. Similarly, it was important for subjective content analysis and the selection of illustrative quotations for the report to be doubled-checked, wherever possible. The researcher tried to deduce from

reading the interview transcripts for the first time what the participants were stressing. After around ten days, she read the transcripts a second time and made a list of the salient points raised by the interviewees. Missing areas or areas of disagreement were considered and analysed. The final report was analysed using content analysis.

The researcher coded the data systematically, relying on identification numbers or codes for data editing and tabulation. Through the process of constant comparison, the researcher engaged in a second-order analysis, organising and aggregating concepts into broader conceptual categories and themes (see Figure 4-2, 4-3 and 4-4). After the researcher had a good sense of the emergent themes, she identified areas of convergence and divergence across informants, determining the themes along which informants agreed and disagreed, and why they did. The researcher also asked questions raised as a result of her consultation with the literature review. For example, the difference in opinion between the old male faculty members and their female colleagues surfaced, but the researcher wanted to know why. What was the difference between them? With what areas or themes did they agree? And in what areas did they disagree? In what ways and in which period under study did LAU people feel like 'part of a family' and in what ways and in which periods did they feel like outsiders?

The data analysis in this work involved identifying key terms and concepts in the data via a process of constant comparison across informants. As the study evolved, the researcher moved back and forth between analysing the data, searching relevant literature and engaging in a link between them. After analysing the data and writing an initial descriptive narrative, the researcher consulted with some of the interviewees to seek their validation and/or revision of her observation, interpretation and conclusion (Lincoln and Guba, 1989; Wragg, 2002).

Data collection and analysis is a simultaneous activity in qualitative research (Sharan, 1988). The interview transcripts, along with the documents collected from various articles, newspapers, catalogues, and unpublished reports were carefully read, examined and consolidated, and the data compressed into units and categories. The researcher,

reflecting on a first round of statements and going back to the data, looked for deep analytical statements. From the emerging data similarities and differences were observed and displayed in the form of contact summary, multiform matrices in order to compress the information because better displays are a major avenue to valid qualitative analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This data reduction reduced, focused, and organised the information on a single page rather than in extended text. The reduction helped in summarising, analysing, interpreting, and comparing the results; in noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configuration, causal flows, and propositions, and in drawing inferences and developing theory. The analysis and the data-testing was an iterative process, which continued until the researcher felt confident that the analytical statements produced were trustworthy (see section on validity).

Conclusion

Using the recommendations described in this chapter, the researcher collected, summarised and analysed the data, linking the results with what other researchers have said. This is presented in the coming two chapters. Chapter 4 includes the findings and chapter 5 the analysis.

Chapter 4

Findings

Introduction

As previously mentioned, the life of LAU was divided into two periods. The first period extends from the academic year 1975-76 to 1994-95, and the second from 1995-96 to 2000-01. These periods are not totally separate but exist on a continuum, overlapping each other. The first period covers the civil war and the early post-war period up to 1995 when the college was officially declared a university. The second period, LAU today, represents the life of the university till the date when the data for this research was completely gathered. For simplification, the researcher refers to the first period as 'the war period' and the second one as 'the post-war period'.

When the data was compressed into units and categories, certain themes kept coming up and patterns began to form. Two main dimensions were considered. The first one dealt with the internal culture at LAU and its impact on leadership behaviour, gender differences and the process of change exercised during the two periods under study. The second one involved the educational programs and the curriculum choice offered (the service LAU made available to its community). The researcher considers the changes in the academic program and the development in the curriculum, as the consolidation of the efforts of the college in becoming a university. She believes that the growth of the university (i.e., the growth in enrolment) is related to the post-war period. Thus the process of change and the curriculum issue are discussed in separate sections in this chapter.

As explained in chapter three, and in order to gather the research data, the researcher used semi-structured and sometimes unstructured interviews (open-ended questions), and documentary analysis from newspapers, magazines and LAU internal reports. The sample in this research is made up of three groups: the managing team, the faculty and the alumni (see Figure 3-3). The managing team is composed of eight members, five males and three females. The eighteen faculty members consist of three males and three females who are old-timers and eight males and four females who are newly recruited faculty members. The alumni are made up of twelve members, three males and three females who are old-time alumni and three males and three females who are new alumni. When there was a difference in opinion between what the male and the female interviewees said, the researcher quoted each group separately. However, when there was no difference in opinion, the researcher

talked about what the interviewees said without distinguishing between the females and the males.

Interviewees' reflections were highly affected by the period of time during which they worked or studied at LAU. When asked about the civil war period, the managing group, the old time faculty members and the old-time alumni, contributed greatly, since they were present at LAU during that period. On the contrary, the newly recruited faculty members and the new alumni did not have much to say about the civil war period or about the growth of the institution, since they were new at LAU. The discrepancy between the old-timers and the newly recruited members was not evident when asked about the post-war period. Accordingly, in the sections dealing with the civil war period, the researcher will quote only the managing teams, the old-time faculty, and the old-time alumni.

The Internal Culture

The Internal Culture during the Civil War Period

Unanimity among LAU Members

Members of the Managing Team

All members of the managing team agreed that the strong group feeling present during the civil war period provided a kind of security against misfortunes, threats and danger (see Figure 4-2). A male management team member emphasising the strong unanimity during the civil war period stated:

> The faculty members living on campus, the gate men, the janitors and the president of the university, used to spend many hours sitting next to each other in the shelter, days and nights, hiding from the bombs. They used to spend their time discussing politics and the daily problems and procedures necessary to face the damages caused by the war . . . making possible the survival of the academic operation. M.M1.

Another male management team member confirmed:

> Each faculty member, staff and even student found himself or herself doing something for the university: cleaning the broken glass and removing the dirt caused by the shelling, teaching and sometimes talking to groups of fighters who wanted to occupy some of the buildings. This gave the people at LAU a common purpose and a feeling of solidarity. M.M2.

A female management team member stated:

I believe that the feeling of trust and interdependence were the secret of endurance and resistance to the destructive factors brought about by the civil war. Our team spirit was a shield protecting the university from the external conflicts. F.M1.

Another one added:

Leaving the ship, (i.e., LAU), sink was out of the question because we would sink with it . . . Events occurred rapidly . . . The aim was to help the university navigate through difficult seas. F. M3.

The Old-Time Faculty Members

Four of the six old-time faculty members, two males and two females, stated that the feeling of belonging, the mutual respect, and the sharing of responsibilities among LAU people during the difficult times formed the solid reason behind the survival of the university. One old-time male faculty member commented:

No one knew what tomorrow was hiding for us. Our strength was in the unity of our faculty, students and staff. Our growth and success was the outcome of our creativity, teamwork and commitment . . . Decisions had to be made quickly. Since it was difficult for one person alone to handle the problems, each member of the managing team and the faculty, at that time, felt responsible and ready to act without waiting for permission because they were not afraid of being blamed. M.F2.O.

Another one supported the above, stating:

During the difficult times of the civil war period, the feeling of togetherness was very important in motivating and encouraging people at LAU in their struggle for the survival of the institution and their families. M.F1.O.

Two-old time female faculty members agreed with their male colleagues, saying:

The cooperation, the mutual support, and the many sacrifices made by the LAU family were the reasons for keeping the institution alive and well. F.F3.O.

Because of the dangerous situation outside the campus, most of the members of the managing team spent most of their time with the faculty and staff members and thus were directly in contact with them, sharing their problems and participating together in the decision-making process. Our team spirit was the cause of some stress-reduction and a drive for better performance and achievement. F.F1.O.

However, two old-time faculty members, one male and one female, had a different point of view:

Let us not exaggerate. Yes, we tried to help each other. But we had to think about our family first . . . My kids were young. I was worried about their survival . . . I was always contemplating the possibility of moving to the United States of America specially after a rocket injured my wife. M.F3.O.

I really did not pay much attention to what was going on, on campus. I taught my courses, got my salary and went home. My worry was how to keep my family alive and well. F.F2.O.

Old-Time Alumni

Four out of six old-time alumni, three males and one female, had similar comments when responding to the statement regarding the solidarity and unity of LAU during the civil war period. In response to the following the male old-time alumni said:

The faculty, the administrative group and the students used to meet regularly to discuss the problems encountered. These shared obligations and duties gave us a lot of strength and a determination to protect LAU. M.A1. O.

The war environment gave people at LAU a common purpose and a sense of belonging. The strength of the university at the time was in the unity of the faculty, the administrative group and the students. M.A2.O.

The university was like home for us. Defending it was a normal endeavour. M.A3.O.

One old-time alumna shared the same point of view as her male counterpart.
She said:

Going to the university was the only positive reality in our daily life . . . We believed that keeping the university opened was important for our future and our survival. F.A3.O.

However, two female alumni did not participate nor enjoy the life on campus during the war period. The lack of political stability and the lack of security in the country forced them to spend little time on campus. They explained:

My parents would allow me to go to the university, only to attend classes. They wanted me back home as soon as possible. . . When I was young I was looking forward towards my future university life. Unfortunately, I was not able to enjoy it. I spent little time on campus because I was scared of the shelling and I wanted to be safe at home. F.A1.O.

Because of the existence of different political groups on campus. . .I was scared to mix with the students and even with the faculty. F.A2.O.

The Standards of Behaviour

When asked about the standards of behaviour required from the faculty during the civil war period, all the members of the managing team and old-time faculty members talked about flexibility and change of behaviour, courage, hard work and motivation as tools for improvement. The alumni had a different opinion (see Figure 4-2). Listed below are what some of them reported:

Members of the Managing Team

I believed that the faculty and my colleagues in the management group could do things in a way completely different from the way I usually did them. The important point was to get things done. The aim was to reach the main goal of the institution. M.M1.

A faculty member could decide to try an unusual procedure while performing his/her work. As long as it did not hinder the learning process nor affect the image of the university, the administrative staff and myself had no objection. I trusted my people . . . F.M2.

Now when I think about the dangerous behaviour I used to exhibit, I am stunned. F.M1.

Old-Time Faculty Members

The flexible attitude exercised by the administrative group, during the war period and the early post war one, was a significant cause of satisfaction and a source of enrichment to us faculty members and to the students. M.F1O.

Twenty years back, during the difficult period of the civil war, some of our students were involved with political groups and even some of them were fighting on the front line. The administration wanted to keep a peaceful atmosphere on campus. The faculty member who was able to adjust and avoid problems regardless of the procedure followed was highly appreciated. When the civil war ended around 1992, the vice president of academic affairs declared that the improvement of our academic standards so as to insure accreditation of our programs is our target. The faculty member who was strict in grading and tough with the students when it comes to academic affairs, was considered by the administration successful. F.F1.O.

During the difficult times created by the civil war period, our contribution was immediately felt and appreciated. We were highly motivated, ready to work very hard for the welfare of the institution. M.F1.O.

However, according to one faculty member flexibility was sometimes a cause of trouble.

Students thought that the faculty could break the academic rules and regulations . . . Sometimes they exercised pressure on us in order to change a grade . . . F.F1.O.

Old-Time Alumni

The opinion of the alumni on the subject was somehow different. Two of them thought that the flexibility in applying the rules and regulations of the college was a source of trouble. One of them said:

We knew that the rules and regulations could be broken . . . And that the faculty would adjust to outside pressure and do what we wanted . . . M.A2.O.

The remaining alumni talked about strict rules and regulations followed by the faculty. As one female and one male put it:

> The faculty used to be very strict in applying the rules and regulations of the college. It was a good way to avoid pressure from students and to protect themselves against any coercion from militants . . . F.A3.O

> Our concern was to graduate . . . We used to follow the rules carefully in order to avoid trouble. M.A1.O.

The Internal Culture During the Post-War Period

Individualistic and Materialistic Feelings

Members of the Managing Team

The managing team considered the substantial change in size (see Figure 4-1) to be the cause of a change in the internal culture of the university after the war (see Figure 4-2). As some of them put it:

> Now that the university has grown substantially in number of students and in physical facilities, i.e., three campuses, it is difficult to stay on one campus most of the time. I have to spend more time planning and less time with the faculty and staff members. M.M1.

> We have activated the role of councils. Each full-time faculty member from different areas of specialisation serves in at least one university council or committee. Each council or committee has a specific function . . . The members are not the decision-makers. They come with proposals. The members of the management group, the only members in the Executive Council, take the final decision. F.M2.

> The managing team now has to spread its efforts and time among the three campuses. Even though we believe in an open door policy in order to remain in contact with the faculty and staff members, it is difficult to keep the same closeness we had during the war. M.M2.

> The university's councils and committees are the decision-makers. Members exchange information, and coordinate complex projects. M.M5.

> LAU is taking an institutional permanence, a life of its own apart from its members. F.M3.

Old-Time Faculty Members

Three male and two female old-time faculty members agreed with the members of the managing team that the internal culture of LAU has changed and were not satisfied with the change. Talking about the issue some of them reported:

Now that we are a university and have grown substantially in size, our contribution to the welfare of LAU is barely noticeable. It is like a drop of water in the sea. M.F1.O.

Nowadays we do not participate any more in the decision-making process. It is true that we serve on university and campus councils but our input is rarely taken in consideration . . . The old feeling of belonging to the institution is no more there. F.F1.O.

With the addition of three professional schools and the increase in faculty members with professional training, i.e., in business, pharmacy and engineering, faculty members teaching social science courses thought they were losing their former role as main contributors and educators at LAU. They felt that teachers with professional training were becoming more in demand. M.F2.O.

Only one female faculty member saw no change at all. She said:

If one does his work well and abides by the rules of the college, then there is no problem at all. F.F3.O.

When asked to comment about their work at LAU, four old-time faculty members, three males and one female, were not fully satisfied. They complained about the heavy work done, expressing however, some loyalty to the university. Some of the comments were:

We carry a heavier course load than our colleagues at other sister institutions. We teach four courses instead of three and we have more students in our classes . . . but we stick to LAU. M.F1.O.

It is true that our salary and other benefits as a package are good compared to other universities. But like other universities it is not enough to carry our teaching load efficiently; it is similarly important to do research work. There is always a risk of being laid down as in other sister institutions where the faculty faces the paradox of publish or perish and 'hired to teach, paid to publish'. In the past, we were hired to teach only; now we are hired to teach and to publish. M.F3.O.

There are more formal communication channels . . . and less flexibility in behaviour. There are fixed rules and regulations required of the faculty to follow . . . M.F2.O.

Since it became a university the relationship between LAU people, i.e., the management group and faculty members, became more formal, even indifferent. Each follows the rules and regulations, does his/her work without fighting or resistance. F.F2.O.

The two remaining female faculty members were, however, fully satisfied. They said,

Working at LAU is not bad compared to working for other universities located in Lebanon. F.F1.O.

I like working at LAU. F.F3.O.

Newly Appointed Faculty Members

Eight out of twelve newly appointed faculty members expressed more individualistic and materialistic feelings towards the university than their old-time colleagues. Some of them said,

If I get a better offer, i.e., better salary and other benefits, I leave. M.F5.N.

A colleague of ours, from the business school, joined another competing university where he was offered almost twice his present salary for a full time position of faculty and dean. I would do the same if I had the chance. M.F8.N.

One should examine his future career options carefully. M.F4.N.

The nice words we hear on and off from the management team can not be discounted in the bank. We want more tangible appreciation. M.F7.N.

However, four newly appointed faculty members, one male and three females declared that they like their work at LAU. Listed below are some typical comments:

I think LAU is a very good employer . . . M.F3.N.

I expect to have a smooth career path . . . F.F3.N.

I enjoy my work; it is well respected and well paid . . . F.F2.N

The Alumni

Members of the old-time alumni did not have much to say about the subject. The majority of the new graduates referred to the friendly atmosphere on campus. However, two of the new graduates complained about the lack of flexibility in the application of the academic rules and regulations. One of them expressing his dissatisfaction said,

I wanted to take twenty-one credit one semester in order to graduate. I was not allowed because according to the academic rules I need to have a high average. My GPA was lower than the required one. I lost a semester taking two courses only . . . M.A1.N.

The other four alumni thought that the lack of flexibility and the increase in control was a way of improving the academic standards. As one of them said,

LAU has to follow strict rules and regulations if it wants to compete with AUB . . . The friendly atmosphere on campus is one of the assets of the university. M.A3.N.

Documentary evidence supported and explained the comment made by the new alumni about the friendly atmosphere on campus. In the minutes of the executive council meeting held on March 5, 2002, the president commented,

> LAU has always enjoyed an open door practice towards students since they are the raison d'être of the University. Faculty and staff are urged to deal with students in a very mature way and keep a positive and friendly attitude. Dealing in this way with students does not mean compromising quality or standards. Close cooperation and communication among offices is also urged when dealing with students. (Nassar, 2002, p. 1).

Figure 4-1 Growth in Enrollment: Data Gathered from LAU Catalogues
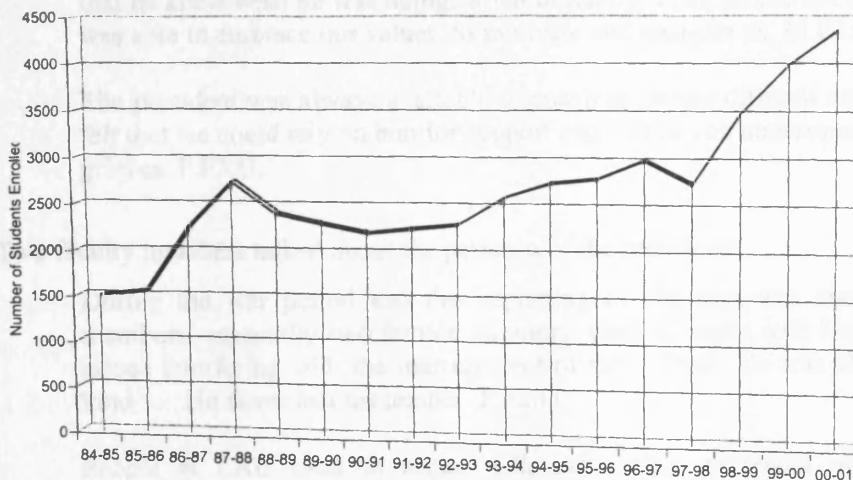
Total Enrollment, 1984-2001. Taken from a report prepared by the vice president for academic affairs.

Leadership

Leadership Behaviour and Style during the Civil War Period

Leadership Characteristics, Traits and Style: The President

According to seven out of eight members from the managing team, five out of six old-time faculty members and three out of six old-time male alumni, the president played his role as the leader of the university well, like the captain of a ship navigating through difficult seas (see Figure 4-2).

Members of the Managing Team

> When one of us achieved good deeds it was a chance for celebration. But if something went wrong, he (the president) would encourage us and would try to help. We could associate easily with him . . . F.M1.

However, one member from the managing team was more critical of the behaviour of the president:

> The president was sometimes too patient and too kind, allowing some of the faculty members to criticise rudely his endeavours. F.M2.

Old-Time Faculty Members

> Our president was very close to us. . . He was modest, kind and human. He showed enthusiasm and determination, encouraging us to do our best. F.F1.O

> During difficult times, our president was our role model. He gave us the feeling that he knew what he was doing, when in reality, I bet, he did not know much. He was able to embrace our values, to motivate and energise us. M.F2.O.

> The president was always available to coach us during difficult times. We always felt that we could rely on him for support and that he can understand our needs and grieves. F.F3.O.

Two faculty members talked about the patience of the president:

> During the war period and the beginning of the post war one, some faculty members, especially two female directors, used to argue with him about various issues interfering with the management of the college. He was always calm and kind . . . He never lost his temper. F.F2.O

> People at LAU used to argue with each other on trivial matters, but this disagreement rarely lasted because the president would interfere. When the issue was related to the welfare of the university the president helped us stick to each other . . . M.F1.O.

However, one male faculty member complained, saying,

> The president was not always available on campus in Beirut. We had to take decisions all by ourselves. Because of the political condition in the country at the time and because one student threatened to kill him he left the campus for a period. M.F3.O.

The organisation chart during the war period, as prepared by the researcher (Appendix, Figure 3), explains the informal communication channel between the president and the faculty members. It confirms the remarks made by the interviewees.

Old-Time Alumni

Talking about the president, three old-time alumni said,

When we used to fight with each other, the president was the peacemaker. M.A1.O.

The president was available and ready to discuss with us any problem or any topic of concern to us. M.A2.O.

He was very patient . . . He was a good listener. F.A3.O.

The remaining alumni, one male and two females, had a different point of view:

I never tried to see him. F.A1.O.

When I saw him on campus I just said 'Hi' to him. F.A2.O.

I rarely spoke to him . . . M.A3.O.

Planning and Decision-Making

When asked whether the managing group, during the war period, showed concern with the attainment of predetermined and well-defined goals, all the members of the managing team and the old-time faculty members agreed that it was difficult to have well defined plans (see Figure 4-2).

Members of the Managing Team

The members of the managing team said that they were aware of the need for change. They developed contingency plans that focused on anticipated changes. Quoted below are examples of what some of them reported:

During the war our target was survival. The goals were not very clear and kept on changing according to the environmental change. F.M1.

Our philosophy during difficult times was to cross every bridge as we came to it. M.M3.

No planing was possible . . . At that time it was impossible to have a detailed plan for the future. We had only ideas about what the future might look like. However, because we were a small college at the time, the management team could take decisions quickly, adding new programs and starting new schools . . . M.M2.

When faced with a big problem or a dangerous situation, each member of the managing team, of the faculty and of the students, available on campus, felt responsible. M.M4.

We not did have a master budget . . . But rather prepared three cash budgets for the same period: A pessimistic, an optimistic and a most likely one. The pessimistic budget assumed a low enrolment, the optimistic budget assumed the highest possible

enrolment rate, and the most likely one assumed an average enrolment. We could move from one budget to the other according to real life conditions. M.M5.

Planning during the civil war period was like writing the scenario of a war film where the hero has to come up with the proper answers. It was pure guessing. F.M2.

Old-Time Faculty Members

Similarly, the faculty members mentioned the difficulties of forecasting the future. They stressed the importance of quick decision making and adjusting to unforeseen situations. As one of the male faculty members said,

The situation was very difficult and we were scared. Each one of us tried to imagine ahead of time the problematic situations we might encounter. We looked for a proper solution for every eventuality. M.F1.O.

Other comments:

I think that our goals and objectives were clear. It was to grow and survive. But the university did not have a clear operating plan for the future. M.F2.O.

Planning, during the civil war period, was a luxury. M.F3.O.

The female faculty members said,

People at LAU, like all the people of Lebanon at that time, had no alternatives except to adapt and face the problems they encountered together as one strong front. F.F2.O.

It was impossible to have clear plans for the future . . . Every day brought its problems . . . Decisions had to be made quickly. Since it was difficult for one person alone to handle the problems, each member of the managing team and the faculty, at that time, felt responsible and ready to act without waiting for permission because they were not afraid for being blamed. F.F1.O.

Old-Time Alumni

The old-time alumni did not have much to say about the subject. However, one woman talked about changing times and the difficulties involved:

The political condition and the life condition kept on changing . . . It was an inevitable fact of life . . . No planing neither on personal matter nor at the college level was possible. F.A1.O.

Documentary evidence supported what the majority of the interviewees said: mainly that during the civil war period the main goal was the survival of the university, and that it was almost impossible to set specific plans for the future. The director of financial affairs at the time (the vice president of financial affairs nowadays) wrote in his Long Range Plan,

At LAU the process of preparing a long-range plan document was interrupted during the war. Survival of LAU (ex BUC) was the main objective then. This is the first

time, in twenty years or more, that this exercise is being carried on a wide scale to include all academic and administrative units of LAU. (Baz, 1999, p.1).

Leadership and Gender Differences during the War Period

The Role of Women

When asked about the role women played in leading and teaching at LAU during the civil war period, the interviewees had different opinions. Seven of the eight members of the managing team (four males and three females) and five of the old-time faculty members (two males and three females) and all the old-time graduates, agreed that women have played an important role in the life of the institution (see Figure 4-2). Talking about the opportunity of women in leading LAU and about the leadership style adopted, some of the interviewees said,

Members of the Managing Team

Although in our culture women are trained to be submissive, which makes them less qualified than men to lead, many women have led LAU since its foundation. F.M2.

During the civil war period, because of the unpredictable conditions and tight budget, the college was very careful in hiring more part-time faculty. We hired few male faculty members, but we were constrained because of their work schedules. Women were more available and more reliable. M.M1.

During the civil war period, it was safer to have women in leadership positions, because in our culture, they are less susceptible to kidnapping and assaults than men. In general, women are considered weak and looked at as a sister or mother. F.M3.

When four faculty members from LAU were kidnapped, Dean Irene Faffler was immediately released when the kidnappers found out she was a woman. This incident strengthened the role of women at LAU at that time. M.M5.

LAU was good for my wife to teach in, for my girls to study in. It was not good enough for me to teach in or for my son to study in. M.M3.

Talking about her leadership style, one female manager added:

To be taken seriously, we had to be firm and even authoritarian at times. F.M2.

However, one male member of the managing team believed that women at LAU seeking the right opportunity, promoted themselves to leadership positions. He said,

Women have seized the opportunity to be in control . . . M.M2.

93

Old-Time Faculty Members

Trying to explain why women played an important role in leading LAU, two of the interviewees said,

> Before the war, when the university was still a small college, qualified male faculty members considered working at LAU degrading. F.F3.O.

> Women provided a cheap source of labour that was capable of flexibility through part-time work. M.F1.O.

Another faculty member added that women in leadership positions were able to protect the university from the militias and thus contributed to keeping the university operating:

> At LAU, during the difficult times of the civil war, women in managing positions protected their male colleagues from being kidnapped and protected the university from the militias. Without the support of women LAU would not have been able to continue operating during the turbulent times . . . F.F1.O.

Below are some comments on the leadership style exercised by women in leadership positions:

> Women in leadership positions ended up by considering LAU as belonging to them. They became possessive about their responsibilities, difficult with their colleagues and subordinates. M.F2.O.

> Women in general like gossiping. They have a tendency to exaggerate any minor issue. M.F3.O.

> During the civil war period women in leadership positions used to blow things out of proportion. They tried to imitate men by being stubborn and opinionated, main characteristics and values of manhood highly appreciated in our Middle Eastern culture. F.F2.O.

Old-Time Alumni

The comments made by the old-time alumni were not very different from those made by the managing group and the faculty members:

> During the war period, there were more women in leadership and teaching positions than men. M.A1.O.

> Women in leadership positions have played the role of the nurturing and caring mother at one time or the role of highly professional, possessive, difficult and authoritarian at another. F.A3.O

> During difficult times women in leadership positions at LAU were fearless. M.A2.O.

The Leadership Behaviour and Style during the Post-War Period

The Role of the Managing Team

When asked to reflect on the leadership of LAU during the post war period each of the interviewees phrased his/her comment differently (see Figure 4-2).

Members of the Managing Team

Seven of the eight members of the managing group talked about motivation as a driving force for improvement. They expressed their appreciation of the efforts made by the faculty members and were not shy in stating it:

> I keep on telling the faculty that the quality and the good work they have performed are the number one factor in the newly established reputation of LAU. M.M1.

> The various points of strength that this institution can claim these days would not have been possible without a qualitatively very able, very caring and very dedicated faculty corps. . . We can still improve . . . M.M.2.

> I am proud of where the faculty have brought this institution today. F.M3.

> Nothing succeeds like success . . . Any story of success, and I believe we are one, has its own characters. As time passes by, I am convinced that the leading characters in our story were and continue to be vision, faculty, and adaptability to change. M.M5.

> Each one of us should be proud of the collective achievements and each one of us should derive further confidence from past successes . . . F.M2.

Similarly, the vice president for academic affairs expressed his appreciation of the work performed by the faculty in an e-mail (a document) sent as Christmas greetings on December 20, 2002. He seemed satisfied and contented with the performance of the university:

> This past year was like the preceding years. Full with achievements . . . Our outreach has reached unprecedented levels . . . Our enrolment is at an all time high. . . Our reputation is moving from a point of strength to a higher point of strength...Our faculty research is soaring . . . Our faculty involvement in professional and international conferences is at a record high . . . But above all, our confidence and pride in LAU, in ourselves and in our mission has taken firm roots in our souls and minds. (Haidar, N., 2001).

However, only one member of the managing team thought that there was still a lot to do. He warned LAU against possible stagnation. He said,

> Let us not be conceited about our work . . . There is still a lot of work to be done. M.M4

95

Old-time Faculty Members

Five of the old time-faculty members, two males and three females talking about leadership at LAU during the post war period complained about the lack of communication with the president.

> Nowadays we see very little of him . . . F.F1.O.

> The president does not encourage us to go directly to him. He wants us to go first to the chairperson, then to the dean, and later to one of the vice presidents for academic affairs. F.F2.O.

> Since the college became a university with three campuses the president is rarely available. M.F1.O.

Only one male faculty member was indifferent about the issue. He said:

> I do not even think about it . . . I do my work . . . M.F2.O.

Newly Recruited Faculty Members

The newly appointed faculty members did not complain much about the lack of communication between the president and the faculty. They said:

> If I want something, I have to see the chairperson of my department first, then the dean of the school and then the vice president of academic affairs. It is normal. F.F2.N.

> Like in any large institution, the president and the chairman of the board are seen either on television or in big receptions . . . M.F6.N.

Old and New Alumni

The majority of the new alumni talked about their close relationship with the faculty. They expressed their satisfaction saying,

> We can take an appointment with the president and the vice president anytime we want. M.A1.N.

> We talk to the faculty and discuss various issues with them all the time . . . In general they are available to listen to us and help us . . . F.A2.N.

The organisation chart taken from the internet home-page of LAU (Appendix, Figure 4) supports the comments made by the interviewees. It clearly shows a larger managing force and more formal communication channels. It also displays the abolishment of all informal channels of communication.

Leadership and Gender Differences during the Post-War Period

The Role of Women

When asked why the percentage of women in managerial positions and as faculty members dropped from 62 percent in 1978-79 to 31 percent in 1999-2000 for the managing team, and from 56 percent in 1990-91 to 32 percent in 1999-2000, for the faculty (Figure 3-1 and 3-2), the interviewees expressed different opinions. They agreed, however, that the proportion of women holding senior posts at LAU, especially after the war and after the university grew in size, was much lower than the percentage of women holding lower positions (see Figure 4-2).

Members of the Managing Team

Five members of the managing team talked about the availability of qualified male candidates. They said that, in general, women major in arts and sciences while very few major in engineering and pharmacy which are the areas LAU has grown in substantially. Some of the comments:

> We have more men with PhDs in business, engineering and pharmacy than women. The Schools of Business, Pharmacy and Engineering have started during the last twenty years. Thus it was normal to have more male faculty members and administrators . . . M.M4.

> In our country, girls seeking postgraduate studies prefer to major in areas of social sciences such as psychology, philosophy, sociology and human resources management. However, most of the young Lebanese men seeking postgraduate studies prefer to major in business, engineering, medical sciences or pharmacy. That is why it is easier to find male faculty members in these areas . . . M.M3.

> With the launching of the engineering and pharmacy programs, we hired male administrators and professors because of their availability. F.M3.

> It is true that we do not have as many women faculty members in the Schools of Pharmacy or Engineering, but there is women predominance among the faculty in the School of Arts and Sciences. F.M1.

Three members of the managing team referred to the difficulties career women face:

> In Lebanon, women often carry the major responsibility within the home. Even where a couple set out consciously to be a dual career family, the woman is likely to carry the greater load of household responsibility. M.M2.

> Women have to take care of their kids. . . The majority of women who reached top management positions at LAU were either not married or divorced, and if married they had grown up children and few family responsibilities. F.M2.

When asked about the leadership style they exhibit, two female managers said that they have accepted themselves as women leaders and have behaved accordingly. According to them, being natural and acting feminine was the name of the game.

I dress like a women and I act as such. F.M2.

I have no problems showing my feelings to my colleagues and subordinates F.M3.

Old-Time Faculty Members

The old-time faculty members referred to a change in the image of the institution. They believed that in the past, when LAU was a small college, it did not attract qualified male faculty members and administrators. Now that the university has grown substantially, qualified male candidates are interested in joining the university and competing with women.

Because LAU is now a reputable university, qualified male faculty are interested in joining it . . . F.F3.O.

Talking about women in leadership positions at LAU, one old-time faculty member said,

At LAU the female role model was the one of the female missionaries, unmarried, and leading a small college for women. M.F1.O.

Two old-time female faculty members talked about the difficulties encountered in

reaching leadership positions. The comments:

At the age of 23, I got married and started having children. Because of the economic condition in the country, I needed to work in order to support my family. It was very difficult for me to mix my family life with my teaching career. To be eligible for a leadership position was next to impossible. F.F1.O.

When I decided to have children, I took a part-time load of one course per semester. To accept administrative responsibilities was out of the question. F.F3.O.

However, two male faculty members put the blame on women:

Women are women. They cannot get rid of the nurturing, motherly characteristic. You see very often a female peeling an apple for a colleague, caring for him/her as if he/she was her son or daughter. This looks very nice but not professional. M.F2.O.

Very often, women do not take themselves seriously. They are satisfied with lower faculty positions. M.F1.O.

The New Faculty Members

The newly appointed faculty members were reserved in commenting on the role of women during the civil war period, but were blunt in expressing their opinion about women's leadership at LAU today. Two female and four male faculty members were very critical about women in leadership positions. Some of them said:

> Mrs. X, is she a woman or a man? I have a problem defining her sex. F.F4.N

> You ask me about women in leadership positions at LAU. Which one of the women in top management can be called feminine? M.F3.N.

However, one female faculty member, when talking about two women who have been in leadership positions for more than ten years, referred to them as good listeners, successful, pleasant and friendly. According to her they have exhibited typical feminine behaviour.

> She cried when I was telling her my problems. F.F3.N.

The remaining faculty members did not see much difference between the leadership

style of women and men:

> There is no basic difference in leadership behaviour between females and males in managerial position at LAU. M.F5.N.

> To be honest, I did not notice any differences in leadership behaviour between males and females neither as faculty nor as administrators. M.F7.N

The four female faculty members talking about their experience as women said:

> I had to set my priorities right, although I believe that women can do exactly what men can and that they are entitled to a career. When I became a mother, I took a leave without pay for three years, until my daughter went to school. F.F4.N

> When men in my community ask me about the courses I teach and they discover it is accounting they look at me in a funny way. Accounting, they say is for men not for women. They expect me to have a moustache and a rough voice, and not to be a normal female . . . In order to keep the image of an effective person devoted to her career, I used to claim that I don't cook nor do any housekeeping . . . A common comment I keep hearing is that I only go to work to keep myself busy and entertained even though I am in the professorial rank and my family depends on my salary for living. F.F1.N.

> Although teaching at LAU for a woman was considered prestigious . . . , my husband used to tell me, "You should thank God that I am allowing you to work (i.e. to teach at LAU) . . ." F.F2.N.

My children blame me, not my husband, for not giving them enough time. You love your work more than you love us they say. I am developing guilt feelings, but I cannot take a career break for financial reasons. I try to compensate by giving them all my spare time doing various activities together. It is exhausting. F.F3.N.

Old and New Alumni

Reflecting on the performance of women in leadership positions five old-time alumni and two new alumni expressed their appreciation whereas the remaining members did not have much to say about the subject. Listed below are some of the comments made.

At LAU women in leadership positions were very serious, hard working, reliable, and helpful. M.A3.O

Women in leadership positions were very helpful. F.A3.O.

Women at LAU played a major role in solving the problems encountered by the students... In general they go out of their way to help. M.A1.N

Women in management or faculty positions could understand our problems better than men. M.A2.N.

Gender Discrimination

The majority of members of the managing team and nine male and four female faculty members, new and old, agreed that the university does not discriminate based on gender when promotion or appointment is concerned. The alumni did not have much to say about the subject.

Members of the Managing Team

The managing team was very positive about the lack of gender discrimination at LAU:

We are an American institution. Discrimination is not allowed. F.M2.

Gender discrimination does not exist at LAU. M.M.3.

The culture of the institution is imbued with the concept of equal opportunities, aware of gender composition in the selection process. M.M4.

Old-Time Faculty Members

Three male and one female old-time faculty members agreed that gender discrimination does not exist at LAU. One of them reflected:

At LAU, the culture is that women can play an equal part . . . M.F3.O.

Two female faculty members disagreed stressing that at LAU women in general had to work significantly harder than their male colleagues in order to be taken seriously and get promoted. They said:

> Only the fittest of the fittest will get promoted. F.F2.O

> When I complained, years back, about my salary, I was told that I got a lower increase in salary than my male colleague because I was not the breadwinner of the family. My colleague got a higher salary just because he was a man. This is pure discrimination. Salary should be based on merit only. F.F1.O.

Newly Appointed Faculty Members

The newly appointed faculty members had similar reflections about the issue of gender discrimination. Six males and three females thought that equal opportunities exist regardless of gender. One typical comment:

> There are strict rules and regulations regarding promotion and hiring based on qualifications, i.e., Ph.D. quality publications and good teaching experience. M.F2.N.

One female faculty member disagreed, stressing the fact that women at LAU have to work much harder than men in order to attain promotion:

> It is very hard for women to reach top professorial positions. F.F4.N.

However, the remaining two newly appointed male faculty members disagreed, claiming that female faculty members were enjoying certain advantages over their male colleagues. They said,

> When it comes to promotion, I believe that sometimes people at LAU are more lenient with females than with males because they want to have more females in the professorial rank in the schools of Business, Engineering and Pharmacy.M.F3.N.

> Women keep complaining about gender discrimination. When promotion is concerned, they end up having more advantages.M.F6.N

The Process of Change: The War period and the Post-War One

Flexibility and Adaptation

When asked to comment about the growth that took place at LAU during the post-war period and about whether the realisation of such growth occurred smoothly, some of the interviewees talked about the physical growth of the university while others talked about changes in leadership style (see Figure 4-2).

Members of the Managing Team

Five members of the managing team believed that the institution was able to survive because

it was a small college at the time. They stressed that the growth of LAU was the outcome of

a normal phenomenon in nature. According to them everything starts small and grows later.

As some of them put it,

> We were small at the time and did not attract the attention of the militants. M.M4.

> LAU was starting from scratch. There was nothing to change but just to move ahead. F.M.3.

> When you build a new house you can design anything you want. But if you are renovating an old building you are constrained in your design by the old architectural form. . . Because we started small, it was relatively easy for the institution to start new programs and appoint new faculty. M.M1.

> The continuous growth of LAU can be compared to a snowball. When a snowball starts rolling on snow, it grows in size as more snow accumulates on it. M.M3.

The remaining three members of the managing team mentioned the difficulties encountered:

> It took a lot of sweat and tears to achieve the growth. We were not well prepared for such a drastic and rapid growth. M.M2.

> At the beginning, the faculty could not cope with such a pace of change. They were questioning every single step we were doing. . . Later things improved. F.M1.

> When the war ended, it was time for change, i.e., adding new programs, recruiting new faculty members. It was difficult. Now it is time to put our house in order. M.M5.

Old-Time Faculty Members

Similarly, all the old-time faculty members talked about the growth of the university.

Following is a typical comment:

> It is now the time for consolidation. During the war period it was difficult to keep updated with the new research . . . When the war ended, the faculty members were encouraged to do research and to participate in international conferences . . . It was quite an awakening . . . M.F1.O.

However, two males and one female old time faculty member, explained the process of

change saying,

> During the first eight years of its supernormal growth, LAU looked like a child outgrowing his/her own clothes. Afterwards with the improvement of the physical

102

facility and the availability of more qualified manpower things changed. Now we are a full-fledged university. M.F3.O.

LAU is continuing to grow by pure inertia, like a car rolling on a slope. M.F2.O.

The change in the management style is due to the changing environmental conditions . . . Now that the university is well established in the community and has its reputation as a good academic centre and in view of the high competition it faces, the interest has shifted to satisfying the students. The faculty member who is able to attract more students to his classes is hailed. F.F1.O.

Newly Recruited Faculty Members

The new faculty members did not have much to say about the subject. However, one male and one female faculty member commented,

Change is a normal process. Nothing remains the same. When an organisation does not change it will collapse. M.F1.N.

If LAU had not grown, changing from a college to a university, it would not have been able to survive competing with other universities located in Lebanon. F.F3.N.

Alumni

The alumni talked about changes in the curriculum. This is discussed later in the section dealing with the issue.

Educational Programs and Curriculum Choice Offered: The Civil War Period and the Post-War One

The curriculum for a university represents the means for attracting students. The programs offered show the key values of the university and how it positions itself in the higher education market. LAU's vice president for financial affairs, in a report dated December 29, 1998, said, "The mission of the university is to be responsive to the needs of Lebanon and the area in offering programs where there is proven need and the university is capable of doing exceptionally well. In carrying out this mission, the university will serve all academically qualified students, without discrimination as to ethnic origin, age, gender, religion or nationality". (See Figures 4-2, 4-3 and 4-4).

A Competitive Educational Market

The interviewees referred to the educational programs and the curriculum choice offered, reporting the need to meet the requirements of a competitive educational market for higher

education. Most of them stressed that the curriculum offered at LAU represented the product or the service the university was providing, or 'selling', to its stakeholders. In order to attract more students, thus more funds, the university offered diversified specialisation areas accompanied with flexible teaching patterns to accommodate the need of working students and the need of the business community.

Members of the Management Team

Four male members of the managing team considered the university as a business organisation, needing to provide quality education in order to meet the competitive market demand for higher education. As some of them reported,

> Like in every business endeavour, the university should offer a product meeting the market demand. The purpose is to offer the Lebanese and foreign markets professionals tailored to the specific needs of the business world. M.M3.

> University education is a prosperous business in Lebanon. We have more than forty-four universities. Many of them provide programs similar to ours. Our tuition fees are high; that is why we have to provide an academic program meeting the expectations of the students and the community. M.M5.

> Because the students and their employers are becoming more demanding, and in order to meet the demand for university education, we became very conscious in adjusting our areas of emphasis, adding new programs when we see the need. In Lebanon people want their children to be either an engineer or a pharmacist or a medical doctor or a businessman. The university has started an engineering school, a School of Pharmacy and has recently launched an MBA executive program. The university will open the School of Medicine in the year 2003. M.M1.

However two female members from the management team were more concerned with serving the students and the community. They said,

> Historically Lebanese people have been emigrating to the United States of America, to Brazil, to Canada and even to Africa, looking for new opportunities in life. This trend was exaggerated because of the civil war in Lebanon and because of the deteriorating economic condition in the country. LAU tries to offer an educational program meeting the demand of the local and international market as well. Our aim was to achieve brain-drain reversal by creating opportunities for studying in Lebanon and thus decreasing the chances for our young men and women to go abroad and stay there . . . Similarly families who left the country during the civil war are given a reason to return-offering to their children the opportunity to acquire good education. F.M2.

> We were aware that good education was the only thing we could give to our children. We want to graduate entrepreneurs, the impresarios of the future . . . Because of the deteriorating economic conditions in the country, the majority

of our students wanted to major in professional fields of specialisation such as business, engineering and pharmacy. F.M3.

When talking about the growth of the university, five members of the managing team, regardless of gender differences, referred to change, flexibility and quality as tools for providing an educational program meeting the needs of the students and the community. Quoted below are some reflections made by members of the managing team:

> LAU adjusts its academic programs, reviewing the requirements regularly, adding new programs and new emphasis areas, whenever there is a need. The administrative group is always ready to experiment with new ideas and processes after studying them carefully. M.M.2

> The aim of the university is to capitalise on the strength that LAU has in terms of faculty, their research, and national and international visibility, to build academic programs that can compete with the best offerings in Lebanon and the region, i.e., adding new emphasis areas whenever qualified faculties are available and there is a need for such a program. M.M4.

> We believe that university education should be available to every qualified young person. Our main campus is in Beirut. We saw the need to grow in size and accordingly two branches, one in Saida, in the South of Lebanon, and another one in Byblos, in the eastern region of Lebanon, were established. F.M1.

> Our objective was to offer students employment opportunities in a new economy whose principal pillar is human capital. M.M1

Old-Time Faculty Members

All the old-time faculty members agreed with the managing team. They mentioned flexibility and competitiveness as tools for meeting the market demand for higher education. Some of them said,

> The world nowadays is like a big village, because of the development of the communication industry through Internet, airlines, etc . . . That is why our academic programs should compete with other reputable universities around the world . . . M.F2.O.

> LAU should have the same academic standard of highly accredited universities around the world . . . The quality of our programs is focused on the need to meet the business community's requirements and student satisfaction. M.F3.O.

> The schools are offering courses scheduled late in the afternoon in order to accommodate part-time faculty and working students. M.F2.O.

Newly Appointed Faculty Members

The comments made by the newly appointed faculty members were similar to those of their old-time colleagues.

> LAU is aware that an international world of learning is emerging in which academic quality must be defined in terms of merit against fast-moving, worldwide competition. F.F4.N

> Most of our graduate programs and some of our undergraduate programs are specially designed to suit the timing of the students. Courses are offered late in the afternoon or on a condensed basis on weekends. M.F5.N.

> LAU has started an MBA executive program. It is specially designed to suit the timing of the graduate students, as the courses will be offered on a condensed basis, one credit per course given, on weekends. M.F8.N.

> In order to attract more qualified students, the university offers diversified specialisation areas accompanied with flexible teaching patterns to accommodate working students. M.F2.N

Old and New Alumni

The majority of the alumni acknowledge the above, recognising the flexibility of the academic programs offered:

> I was able to schedule my courses either very early in the morning or late in the afternoon. It was convenient because I needed to work in order to help pay my tuition fees. M.A3.O.

> I was able to shift from the business program to the engineering program without losing much of the credits I had already taken. M.A2.N.

Documentary evidence supported what the interviewees reported (see Figure 4-3 and 4-4). What the press wrote focused on quality, flexibility, change and improvement geared towards meeting competition and providing satisfaction to the students and the community.

"We focus on constant improvement of our programs," said the president. "We believe that only competitive universities with the ability to change quickly will be able to attract qualified students, grow and survive." R.N. 6/3/2000, p.19.

"Competition is a drive for improvement . . . R.N. 9/5/2000, p.10.

"Our graduates have to compete with graduates from foreign universities in the national and international job market." L.N. 6/9/1999, p. 4.

"Change is a must for growth . . . We at L.AU offer diversified programs preparing graduates to meet the demand of a competitive global market. N.H. 4/2/2000, p. 8.

"I believe that competition is good because it urges us to improve our academic programs and serve the community more efficiently." R.N. 6/3/2000, p.18.

Figure 4-2: Matrix Summary. Comparing the data gathered from the interviews

War Period: From the academic year 1975-76 to 1994-95

1-Internal culture

❖ **When asked about the unanimity among LAU members**

The Management Group (M.G)	The Old-Time Faculty (O.T.F)	The Old-Time Alumni (O.T.A)
All members of the managing team agreed that the strong group feeling present during the civil war period provided a kind of security against the misfortunes, threats and danger.	Four out of six, two males and two females, agreed that the feeling of belonging, the mutual respect and the sharing of responsibilities among LAU people during the difficult times were the solid reason behind the survival of the university.	Three males and one female had similar comments to the one made by the M.T. and the O.T.F. when responding to the statement regarding the solidarity and unity of LAU during the civil war period. However, two females said that they did not participate in nor enjoy the life on campus. The lack of political stability and the lack of a secure condition in the country forced them to spend little time on campus.

2-The standard of behaviour

❖ **When asked about the standard of behaviour**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old-Time Alumni
All members of the M.G., talked about flexibility and change of behaviour, courage and hard work as tools for improvement.	The majority of the O.T.F. agreed with the M.T. that flexibility and loyalty to the university were the standards of behaviour followed during the civil war.	The opinion was different. Two out of six, thought that the flexibility in applying the rules and regulations of the college was a source of trouble. However, the remaining four disagreed saying that the faculty was very strict in applying the rules and regulations. It was a way to avoid pressure from students. Students followed the rules in order to avoid problems.

3- Leadership

❖ **When asked about the leader's (the president's) characteristics and traits**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old-Time Alumni
According to seven out of eight M.G. members, the president played well his role as the leader of the university, or the captain of the ship navigating through difficult seas. He showed determination, kindness and patience. However, one blamed him for being too kind and too patient allowing some of the faculty members to criticise rudely his endeavours.	Five out of six O.T.F. agreed with the majority of the M.G. members adding that he was modest, patient, kind and a role model for them.	Three out of six O.T.A. agreed with the M.T. Some added that the president was a peacemaker. He was patient and a good listener.

4-Leadership and gender differences.

❖ **When asked about the role of women at LAU and their leadership styles**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old-Time Alumni
Seven out of eight of the M. G. members agreed that women played an important role in the life of the institution during the turbulent years. However, one male member of the managing team added that women at LAU promoted themselves to leadership positions, seeking the right opportunity. Other comments were, Women were more available and reliable. They were less susceptible to kidnapping and assaults than men. They were, as leaders, firm and authoritarian.	Five out of six O.T.F. agreed with the M.G. that women in leadership positions played an important role during the civil war. Some of the interviewees stressed that they were able to protect the university from the militias and contributed towards keeping the university operating. Two O.T.F. members thought that Other comments were, Women in leadership positions used to blow things out of dimension. They were stubborn and opinionated.	The comments of the old-time alumni members were not different from those of the managing team. Other comments were, Women in leadership positions played the role of the nurturing and caring mother at one time or the role of the highly professional, possessive, difficult, authoritarian at another. During difficult times they were fearless.

5- Planning and decision making

❖ **When asked about the planning and the decision making process**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old-Time Alumni
All the members of the M.G. agreed that it was difficult to have well defined plans. They recognised that during the civil war period, the management group of the university developed contingency plans that focused on anticipated changes.	All the O.T.F. members agreed that it was difficult to have well-defined goals. The faculty members mentioned the difficulties of forecasting for the future. They stressed the importance of quick decision-making and adjusting to unforeseen situations.	The O.T.A. said little about the issue. One woman said that things were changing rapidly. She added that it was difficult to plan for the future.

Post War Period: From 1995-96 to 2000-01

1-Internal culture

❖ **When asked about the substantial change in size**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old-Time Alumni
All the members of the M.G. considered the substantial change in size, the cause of change in the internal culture of the university. Some comments were, The university's councils and committees are the decision-making bodies.	Three males and two females agreed with the managing team. Some comments were, Our contribution is barely noticeable. We do not participate in the decision-making process. However one female member saw no change at all.	The O.T.A. did not comment on the issue.

❖ **When asked about their work at LAU**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	Old and New Alumni Members	Newly Appointed FacultyMembers
Did not comment on the issue.	Four out of six O.T.F. members were not fully satisfied. They complained about the heavy work done and the lack of communication, expressing however some loyalty to the university. However, two female faculty members were fully satisfied.	The six O.T.A. did not have much to say. Two of the new graduates complained about the lack of flexibility in the application of the academic rules and regulations. Four of them were in favour of applying strict rules and regulations recognising, however, the friendly atmosphere on campus.	Eight out of twelve expressed more individualistic and materialistic feelings towards the university than their old-time colleagues. However, the remaining four, one male and three females, liked their work at LAU.

2- Leadership behaviour and style

❖ **When asked about the role of the managing team**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	Newly Recruited Faculty Members	Old and New Alumni Members
Seven out of eight members talked about motivation as a driving force for improvement. They expressed their appreciation for the efforts made by the faculty members. However, one member of the M.G. warned LAU against possible stagnation.	Five out of six O.T.F. members complained about the lack of communication with the president. Only one male faculty member was indifferent about the issue.	They did not complain about the lack of communication with the president. They considered it as normal.	The majority talked about their close relationship with the faculty.

3-Leadership and gender differences.

❖ <u>When asked why the percentage of women in managerial positions and as faculty dropped</u>

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	The Old and New Time Alumni	
Five members from the M.G. said that in general, women major in arts and sciences while very few major in engineering and pharmacy, which are the areas LAU, has grown in substantially.	The majority of the sample interviewed commented that in the past when LAU was a small college, it did not attract qualified male faculty members and administrators. Now that the university has grown substantially, qualified male candidates are interested in joining the university, competing with the women.	Five old and two new alumni considered women in leadership positions at LAU as serious, reliable and helpful. They were problem solvers. The remaining alumni did not have much to say about the subject.	

4-Gender Discrimination

❖ <u>When asked about the leadership style of women, gender discrimination and the problems encountered</u>

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	Members of Newly Appointed Faculty
The majority declared that there is no gender discrimination at LAU. Three members of the managing team referred to the difficulties career women face. Two female managers said that they have accepted themselves as women and behave as such. One of them said that she has no problem in expressing her feelings.	Three males and one female O.T.F. agreed with the members of the M.T. that gender discrimination is not allowed. However, two females disagreed, stressing that at LAU women have to work significantly harder than their male colleagues in order to be taken seriously and get promoted. One male said that the model of a female leader at LAU was an unmarried female or a missionary. Two females talked about the difficulties encountered from their own experience, i.e., taking a career-break and part-time work. Two males blamed women for these difficulties .	Six males and three females thought that equal opportunities exist regardless of gender. One female disagreed, stressing that women have to work harder than men to attain promotion. However, two newly appointed males disagreed, saying that female members enjoyed certain privileges over their male colleagues when promotion was concerned. Three females and four males considered women in leadership positions as unfeminine and acting as men would act. However, one female referred to two women in managerial positions as pleasant, friendly and good listeners. All the female faculty members talked about the difficulties they experienced in managing their family lives and their careers.

War and Post-War Period

1-The Process of Change

❖ **When asked about the growth of LAU**

The Management Group	The Old and New Faculty	The Old and New Alumni
Five members of the M.G. believed that the institution was able to survive because it was a small college at the time. They stressed that the growth of LAU was the outcome of a normal phenomenon in nature. According to them everything starts small and grows later. The remaining three mentioned the difficulties encountered.	Similarly the old faculty members said that the changes in the management processes were a normal phenomena due to changing environmental conditions. Some of them described the change that took place. The majority of the new faculty members did not say much about the subject. Two of them considered change, in general, as normal for survival.	The majority of the old and new alumni talked about changes in the curriculum.

1-Educational Programs and Curriculum Choice

❖ **When asked about educational programs**

The Management Group	The Old-Time Faculty	Newly Appointed Faculty Members	Old and New Alumni
Four male members considered the university as a business organisation needing to provide quality education in order to meet the competitive market demand for higher education. The female members referred to serving the community and the students. Five members referred to change, flexibility and quality as tools for providing good educational programs meeting the needs of the students and the community.	They stressed the need to meet the competitive education market. They agreed with the members from the managing team that flexibility and competitiveness are tools for meeting the market demand for higher education.	Their comments were similar to those of the old time faculty.	They agreed with the O.T.F. members The majority appreciated the flexibility in the academic programs offered.

112

Figure 4-3: Documents

<u>**Standard of Behaviour**</u>:

> "LAU has always enjoyed an open door practice towards students since they are the "raison d'être" of the University. Faculty and staff are urged to deal with students in a very mature way and keep a positive and friendly attitude. Dealing in this way with students does not mean compromising quality or standards. Close cooperation and communication among offices is also urged when dealing with students." (Nassar, 2002, p.1. Minutes of the executive council meeting held on March 5, 2002).

<u>**Planning and Decision-Making:**</u>

> "At LAU the process of preparing a long range plan document was interrupted during the war. Survival of LAU (ex BUC) was the main objective then. This is the first time, in twenty years or more, that this exercise is being carried on a wide scale to include all academic and administrative units of LAU." (Baz, 1999. Long Range Plan Report).

<u>**Recognition of the Efforts of the Faculty:**</u>

> "This past year was like the preceding years. Full with achievements . . . Our outreach has reached unprecedented levels... Our enrolment is at all time high . . . Our reputation is moving from a point of strength to a higher point of strength . . . Our faculty research is soaring . . . Our faculty involvement in professional and international conferences is at a record high . . . But above all, our confidence and pride in LAU, in ourselves and in our mission has taken firm roots in our souls and minds." (Haidar, N., 2001. Email sent to the faculty as Christmas Greetings on December 20, 2002).

<u>**The Mission of the University:**</u>

> "The mission of the university is to be responsive to the needs of Lebanon and the area in offering programs where there is proven need and the university is capable of doing exceptionally well. In carrying out this mission, the university will serve all academically qualified students, without discrimination as to ethnic origin, age, gender, religion or nationality." (Haidar, N., December 29, 1998, Long Range Plan Report).

<u>**Focus on flexibility, competition, change and improvement: Data gathered from newspapers.**</u>

> "We focus on constant improvement of our programs," said the president. "We believe that only competitive universities with the ability to change quickly will be able to attract qualified students, grow and survive." R.N. 6/3/2000. p.19

> "Competition is a drive for improvement..." R.N. 9/5/2000. p.10

> "Our graduates have to compete with graduates from foreign universities in the national and international job market." L.N. 6/9/1999. p. 4

> "Change is a must for growth . . . We at L.AU offer diversified programs preparing graduates to meet the demand of a competitive global market." N.H. 4/2/2000. p. 8

> "We believe that only competitive universities with the ability to change quickly will be able to attract qualified students, grow and survive." R.N. 6/3/2000. p. 19

> "I believe that competition is good because it urges us to improve our academic programs and serve the community more efficiently." R.N. 6/3/2000. p. 18

113

Figure 4-4: Comparing Data Gathered from Newspapers and Catalogues with Data Gathered from the Interviews

Data gathered from newspapers and catalogues.	Data gathered from the interviews
➤ We focus on constant improvement of our programs. *Interview with the president, Al- Nahar daily newspaper, 6/3/2000. No. 20595.* ➤ Change is a must for growth . . . We offer diversified programs preparing graduates to meet the demand of a competitive global market . . . *Interview with the vice- president of academic affairs, Al-Nahar daily newspaper 4/2/1999. No.20569.* ➤ We believe that only competitive universities with the ability to change quickly will be able to attract qualified students, grow and survive . . . *Interview with the president, Al-Nahar daily newspaper 6/3/2000 No. 20595.* ➤ Our graduates have to compete with graduates from foreign universities in the national and international job market. *Interview with the vice-president of students affairs, The Daily Star, daily newspaper 6/9/1999. No. 10003.* ➤ Competition is a drive for improvement.. *Interview with the president AL-Safir, daily newspaper 9/5/2000 No.8593.* ➤ I believe that competition is good because it urges us to improve our academic programs and serve the community more efficiently. *Interview with the president, Al-Nahar daily newspaper 6/3/2000. No. 20595.*	➤ In order to attract more qualified students, the university offers diversified specialisation areas accompanied with flexible teaching patterns to accommodate working students. LAU adjusts its academic programs reviewing the requirements regularly, adding new programs and new emphasis, and experimenting with new ideas and processes . . . LAU is aware that an international world of learning is emerging in which academic quality must be defined in terms of merit against fast moving world wide competition.

➤ Improving and changing the programs and the processes at LAU requires flexibility in decision - making.
➤ Meeting competition through responsiveness to environmental change. Leading to the satisfaction of the students and community.

Conclusion

Three major themes emerged from this study:

The first theme is about organisational culture and its role in shaping the behaviour of LAU people. It involves the changes in the internal culture of the university as time changes. Flexibility is the major attribute adopted by the administrative group and the faculty members.

The second theme is the process of change in the leadership behaviour and style and gender differences. Similarly, changing times had an impact on the leadership characteristics, on gender difference, on the level of satisfaction of the faculty and on the planning and decision-making processes.

The third theme is the changes in the educational program offered. Meeting the competitive educational market through a flexible and competitive curriculum can lead to the growth and survival of institutions of higher learning.

In the forthcoming chapter the researcher goes over these themes and relates them to the existing literature and to the conceptual framework as presented in chapters 2 and 3.

Chapter 5

Analysis and Interpretation of the Findings

Introduction

The researcher analysed and interpreted the data gathered from the interview transcripts, local and foreign newspapers, magazines, internal reports, and catalogues issued by LAU (see Figure 4-2, 4-3 and 4-4). The information gathered painted a remarkably consistent picture of what the people of LAU did and even more important, why they did it. Four dimensions emerged. The first one dealt with the internal culture at LAU and the second one with leadership behaviour and style, and leadership and gender differences. The third dimension was related to the process of change and the fourth involved the educational programs offered the product LAU made available to its community.

The internal culture, leadership behaviour and style, leadership and gender differences were examined during the war and the post-war period. The researcher considers the process of change and the development in the academic programs as war and post-war events. They are considered as such in the chapter.

The Internal Culture
The Internal Culture at LAU during the War Period
Unanimity among LAU Members
People at LAU gave a dramatic description of their struggle for the survival of the university during the difficult war years. Invariably the management group and four out of six old-time faculty members and alumni talked about their team spirit, their unity of purpose and their sharing of a common destiny in handling the problems encountered as a big family. They had to perform unusual activities, such as cleaning up the broken glass, removing the dirt caused by the shelling and sometimes talking to groups of militia who wanted to occupy some of the buildings (chap. 4, p. 82). The motivating factor driving

the LAU family during the difficult years was similar to what Blanchard and Bowles (1998, p. 27) call "The Spirit of the Squirrel: Worthwhile Work". It represented the ability to make the university a better place, not a reflection of the external war environment at the time, but a place where everyone worked towards a main shared goal, the survival of the university, and where the feeling of belonging guided all efforts, actions and decisions. The war environment gave people at LAU a common purpose and a sense of belonging (chap. 4, p. 83), which were the secret of endurance and of resistance to the destruction brought about by the civil war.

The situation at LAU at the time required the survival of the group and not the survival of the fittest. Vice President for Financial Affairs, Elias Baz, talking about the civil war period in the performance report prepared in May 1999, p. 1, wrote: "Survival of LAU (formerly BUC) was the main objective then". Similarly, the majority of the managing team and old-time faculty members stated that as long as the university was operating each one of them had a job and thus an income for his/her family, and the students had a chance to get a proper university education. Similarly, the interviewees considered the survival of the university a safety boat against the dangerous conditions in the country. One member of the managing team compared LAU to a ship navigating through difficult seas (chap. 4, p. 83). Bringing the 'ship' into safe water represented the survival of the university and of the people working in it.

The need for safety forced LAU people from different ranks to communicate directly with each other (see Appendix Figure 3). They overlooked personal biases and rallied behind common interests and common goals. They had a strong feeling of belonging coupled with a focus on goal achievement (the survival of the university). Blanchard and O'Connor (1997) noted that when employees feel that the life in the company has meaning for them and that they are an important part of the organisation, they are motivated to perform. These findings agree with McGregor (1960), Theory Y, which assumes that people are creative, willing to work, and that they accept responsibility and are self directive (see Figure 2-8).

During the war period the strong group feeling created an aggressive and defensive strength which gave the management group, faculty members and students the willingness to fight. Sometimes they even put their lives in danger for each other (chap. 4, pp. 83-84). These values were both intensely held and widely shared by the majority of LAU members, creating a strong culture, a source of great commitment to those values and to the institution, especially since LAU was a small college at the time (chap. 4, p. 102 and Figure 4-1). Such findings are supported by Busher (2000), who acknowledged that peer group pressure is widely believed to be the strongest motivating factor for members and is the primary mechanism of control in small-working units. Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001) add that a strong culture is more easily built in smaller units, and these units will behave more cohesively and achieve higher productivity and effectiveness. Because LAU was a small college at the time, the shared values acted as an informal control system guiding behaviour and leading to the survival of the college.

The organisational culture at LAU during the difficult war years was high in sociability and in solidarity, exhibiting a high level of friendliness and task orientation, called by Goffee and Jones (1998) 'communal culture' (see Figure 2-2). It focused on high people orientation and high team orientation. It generated shared values and a common purpose. It gave meaning to the work done, guiding behaviour, conveying a sense of identity for the university. This strong culture was dynamic and created through the interactions of people, contributing to clear and effective communication. The greatest gain achieved was the psychic income to every LAU member, who increased his/her sense of dignity and identity leading to what Lasch (1979) calls a culture of narcissism, an asset during the war period.

The literature has noted similar findings. Schein (1997), for example, recognised that a strong culture could guide behaviour, enhance organisational effectiveness, and lead to organisational improvement according to the functions of organisational culture (see Figure 2-3). However, in spite of the strong culture prevailing at the time, some faculty members and directors used to argue with the president, interfering with the management of the college (chap. 4, p. 91). This contradicts the view of Goffee and Jones (1998) that

communal culture creates disciples rather than followers', resulting in a work climate that is almost cultlike.

As mentioned in the previous section, a strong culture is an important driving force of the behaviour of people. At LAU, the communal culture prevailing during the war period created an attitude linking the survival of the university to the survival of each member of the group. This intrinsic value promoted an attitude that discouraged questioning the behaviour of people and its actual implication. For example, one female member from the managing group said that she was stunned when she recalled the dangerous behaviour she used to exhibit (chap. 4, p. 85). She did not question or analyse the implications of her actions. She associated the survival of the university with her own survival. Her motive was based on the belief that her effort could pull the university out of crisis situations. Thus, the motivation to act or to volunteer centred on what was considered good for the group as a whole. The researcher argues like Abdennur (1987), that volunteerism was characterised by enthusiasm in lieu of intellect, leading to dangerous behaviour and high-risk-taking. However, two female alumni reported that they did not participate in or enjoy the life on campus, one because her parents wanted her back safe home and the other because she was scared to mix with other students and even the faculty (chap. 4, p. 84) . The researcher's findings agree with Nasrallah (1990, 1995 and 1998) and Homsi, (2003), that in Arab culture, women, in general, tend to be more submissive to parental domination than men. The female alumna was not bothered about talking about abiding by her parents' rules.

The majority of the faculty members, when faced with a threat of losing their jobs with no other alternative available, focused on security needs, i.e., having a job and a steady income, as well as on belonging needs, as defined by Maslow (1970) in his hierarchy of needs. However, one male and one female faculty member felt differently. The male faculty member was worried about his family staying in Lebanon and was considering other options than working for the university. After a rocket injured his wife, he was planning to go to the United States (chap.4, p. 83). Similarly, the female faculty member, worried about keeping her family alive and safe at home, used to spend little time on

campus (chap. 4, p.84). For one of the interviewees the security need was to leave the country and for the other was to go home.

The growth and survival of the institution was the outcome of the creativity, teamwork and commitment of LAU people who shared their problems and joys with each other, and faced difficulties as one cohesive and collective group ready to face any eventuality (chap. 4, p. 83). According to Oetzel (1998) teams high in collectivism have fewer conflicts and more cooperating tactics. Keeping the university operating and not letting the militias affect the management process of the university became the binding factor among the LAU family

The Internal Culture at LAU during the Post-War Period

Individualistic and Materialistic Feeling

As organisational units at LAU during the post-war period became geographically dispersed on three campuses, formality and rigidity increased. The trust and the team spirit that had prevailed during the war period among the faculty and the management group were difficult to preserve. The old-time faculty members talked about formal communication channels (see Appendix, Figure 4 and chap. 4, p. 87). Some of the new alumni complained about the lack of flexibility in the application of the academic rules and regulations while others considered this lack of flexibility as a way of improving the academic standards (chap. 4, p. 88-89).

During the post-war period, the wartime feeling of belonging to the institution was not as strong as it was during the difficult war years. The old-time faculty members started complaining about the heavy load they carried, comparing their salaries to those of other universities in Lebanon (chap. 4, p. 87). Similarly, the majority of the newly appointed male faculty considered their work at LAU a pure business endeavour. As long as their salary and other benefits were good, they were ready to continue working at the university. This fits with the findings of Moorhead and Griffin (1998) that people form a perception of equity or inequity by comparing what they give to the institution to what they get back and by comparing this ratio to the ratio they perceived others as having

120

(chap. 4, p. 87). The researcher believes that at this time the old faculty members were more loyal to the institution than the new ones, 'sticking' to LAU (chap. 4, p. 87). This attitude was due to their past history of shared experience, team spirit, and collaboration among the management group, the faculty members and alumni during the civil war period (see previous section). During the post-war period, the faculty members developed an attitude of individualism based on personal achievement and material success. The team spirit that had prevailed in dark war years was almost completely dismantled. The value of organisational culture as an independent variable was significantly lessened because each member of the faculty and management group probably had a different interpretation of what was happening at LAU. The dominant work values became ambition and loyalty to career and to oneself rather than toward the university. They became more individualistic and materialistic, orienting themselves toward their own self-achievement and rewards, the outcome of the weakening of the organisational culture.

In addition, during the post-war period each faculty member at LAU served on at least one council and/or committee (chap. 4, p. 86). They played an advisory role while the president, vice president, deans and chairpersons, the management group took the final decisions. The majority of the old-time faculty members interviewed still had problems in accepting their diminished role as advisers and in not being active participators in the decision-making processes. They considered their contribution to the welfare of the university insignificant and complained that even though they served on university committees and councils, their input was rarely taken into consideration. It was like 'a drop of water in the sea' (chap. 4, p. 87). LAU's councils and committees can be called cross-functional teams, according to the description of Robbins (2001). The members of the councils and/or committees represent a heterogeneous group of people with different age group, background and past experience. As explained in Figure (2-9), it takes time to build trust and team work among people from different backgrounds and experience, which was the case at LAU.

As the turbulent years passed and the small college developed into a university, the internal culture of LAU also changed. The managing team acknowledged the need for change (chap. 4, p. 86) especially since the university was experiencing significant growth in enrolment during the post-war period (Figure 4-1). The literature notes similar findings. Abdulnnur (1987), Deal and Kennedy (1988) and Busher (2001), for example, recognise that when an environment is undergoing rapid change, the organisation's entrenched culture becomes no longer appropriate; sticking to traditional values could lead to organisational inertia or other serious decline problems. Also, Schein (1997) and Trice and Beyer (1993) consider the shared values of culture as the potent device that guides and shapes behaviour. At LAU, during the post-war period this potent device between the management group and the faculty members was missing, leading to a decrease in the loyalty of the faculty towards the university. The strong culture that had prevailed at LAU during the war period became a liability and a barrier to diversity. The researcher believes that the management group and the faculty members during the war period were entrenched in their values. She considers the reshaping of the internal culture of LAU was needed. She agrees with Deal and Kennedy (1988) that because the university environment was undergoing fundamental change, sticking to traditional values could lead to serious problems. Also, because the university was growing at a very fast rate the strong culture of the war years was no longer in agreement with the needs of the university. These issues are discussed in more detail later on in the chapter.

The culture at LAU during the post-war period was a fragmented culture (low on sociability and low on solidarity) fitting the definition of Goffee and Jones (1998) (see Figure 2-2). LAU during the post-war period was developing into what Weber (1958) defines as bureaucracy. The university was being transformed from a democratic self-governing small college into a bureaucracy. In the language of Gunter (2001), there was a colonisation of the life-world (the unique relationship among LAU people) by the system-world (the management designs, processes and protocols).

Leadership

Leadership Behaviour and Style during the Civil War Period

Leadership Characteristics, Traits and Style

Leading LAU during turbulent times required special leadership skills. As mentioned in the section dealing with the internal culture at LAU during the war period, LAU management group, faculty members and alumni shared collective responsibility in facing changing environmental conditions. Each member felt responsible for acting on behalf of the college. The members considered that the leadership of LAU during the difficult times depended on the use of multiple leaders for capable decision-making and action taking (chap. 4, p. 82). The leadership responsibility was unofficially distributed among the management group, the faculty and the students. Other researchers such as Brass (2000), Day (2000) and Drath (2001) recognise that top leaders do not and cannot have the capacity to handle all the work; therefore, leadership is shared and transferred between leaders and followers as was the case at LAU. Burns (1978) and Bryman (1996) call such a leadership style 'dispersed leadership'. Using the definition of House and Aditya (1997) of the three forms of distributive leadership, the researcher calls the leadership style exercised at LAU during the civil war period 'co-leadership' because different people carried out the tasks and the social roles of leadership.

Even though the president was sharing the decisions with the faculty members, he still played a primary role in the decision making process. The leadership style at LAU during the war period was charismatic and transformational leadership based on supportive behaviour, involving listening to people, providing support and encouragement for their efforts, and facilitating their involvement in problem solving and decision-making. In fact, seven out of eight members from the management group, five out of six old-time faculty members and three out of six old-time alumni thought that the president was able to convey much more than problem-solving skills. He conveyed aspirations and installed values and excitement, giving the feeling that almost anything was possible (chap. 4, pp. 90-91). He was the facilitator, the partner, and the risk-taker who helped all people find and use their own power and energy. The president gave his subordinates the feeling that

123

he knew what he was doing while in reality he did not (chap. 4, p. 91). He inspired confidence and provided a contagious enthusiasm that raised the confidence, aspirations and commitments of the faculty. The LAU president was also a good listener, inspiring confidence and understanding when something went wrong (chap. 4, p. 91). With the support of the president, people at LAU were able to get extraordinary things done, making the survival and growth of the institution possible (see section dealing with the internal culture at LAU during the war period). This is what a successful leader does according to Covey (1989, 1999). Other authors such as Burns (1978), Deal and Kennedy (1988), Damiani (1998), Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) and Starratt (1999) mention the same characteristics and behaviour associated with transformational and charismatic leadership. The activities performed by the president fit the description of the activities performed by a transformational leader, a model to follow (see Figure 2-6).

As mentioned before, the strong team spirit, which prevailed during the war period, was an effective means for the management group to increase faculty motivation and satisfaction. In general, the feeling of being in control, rather than being controlled, according to Reece and Brandt (1987, p. 35) "built the individual's self-esteem and positive self-esteem helped promote teamwork among coworkers as they faced unusual situations". Robbins (2001) notes similar findings, basically that collectivistic groups assume social motivation for membership. They expect others in the group, of which they are a part, to look after them and protect them, which was the case at LAU. The leadership style at LAU during the critical civil war period was the outcome or the by-product of the strong team spirit prevailing at the time. It was characterised by above average amounts of relationship behaviour (high concern for people) and task behaviour (high concern for task) (Figure 2-5). The leadership style during the civil war period emphasized group activity and the concept of teamwork which according to Blanchard and Carew and Carew (1990), Blanchard and Bowles (1998), and Blanchard and O'Connor (1997) are important factors in the functioning of successful organisations.

As explained earlier, the leadership style at LAU during the difficult war period exhibited the characteristics of transformational and charismatic leadership distributed among the

124

members of the management group, the faculty and the alumni, a collectivistic group. Such a finding is backed by Pillai and Meindl (1998), Oetzel (1998) and other researchers who demonstrate that charismatic group leadership is more prevalent in collectivistic groups.

Planning and Decision-Making during the Civil War Period

During the turbulent years of the war in Lebanon, and because of the continuously changing external environment, the management group at LAU used contingency plans, different plans for different scenarios. While preparing the cash budget, the only kind of budget prepared at the time, three scenarios for the same period were considered: a pessimistic, an optimistic and a most likely one (chap. 4, p. 91). The university would move from one scenario to the other according to the actual enrolment rate. Similarly, in the long-range plan report, Elias Baz (1999, p. 1) notes, "During the war period, the process of preparing a long-range plan document was interrupted". (See Figure 4-3).

Thus, in the climate of civil war, the management group at LAU became less concerned with detailed planning and control. They acted towards situations and facilitated the decision-making process by encouraging teamwork. According to the interviewed members of the management group, the majority of the old-time faculty and one alumni, the planning process during the civil war period was difficult, i.e., pure guesswork. It was like writing the scenario of a war film where the hero has to come up with the proper answers as one member from the management group put it (chap. 4. p. 92). Planning, one of the functions performed by a leader was related to the changing environmental conditions. The researcher believes that the situational leadership style adopted at LAU during the war period led to the survival of the university. It was the outcome of the strong culture prevailing at the time (see section on internal culture). The literature has reported similar results. Blanchard and Carew and Parisi-Carew (1990) Blanchard and Bowles (1998), Blanchard and O'Connor (1997), Dubrin (2001), Yukl (2002), and Johnson (1998), for example, noted similar findings, basically that the most effective leadership style at any given time depends on the situation and on the readiness of group

members to accept guidance, to adjust to situations and to work towards the goal or goals of the firm.

Thus, in the climate of the civil war conditions, for planning, long-term vision was a hindrance. A short-term, myopic and mutable vision was more functional at the time, subject to revision as leaders and followers made revised sense of the rapidly changing environment around them. This type of vision contradicts the basic definition of vision, which, in the conventional sense, is supposed to reach over a distant time period. Yukl (2002) and other researchers provided the same conventional definition of vision. Adherence to a long horizon vision was not only impractical but also potentially paralysing and even fatal. LAU needed a vision, but a near-term one, as a focus, since any long-term vision was necessarily fuzzy and likely to change the next day. (The process of change is discussed in a separate section later on in the chapter).

Leadership and Gender during the Civil War Period

The percentage of females as compared to males as members of the managing group during the civil war period ranged between 62 percent and 50 percent, dropping to 31 percent in the year 1999-2000, the post-war period (Figure 3-1). One would have expected that during the civil war period, the university had needed a strong man who would take hard decisions. However, because of the dangerous situation on campus due to the war conditions, it was safer to have women in leadership positions. They were less susceptible to kidnapping and assaults than men (chap. 4. p. 93) as some members from the management group reported. They were able to protect the university from militias and contribute to keeping the university operating. The literature has found similar results. Rosener (1990), for example, wrote that women have been allowed to be co-operative, emotional, supportive and vulnerable. Similarly, Makdisi (1991) notes that women are more co-operative and vulnerable than men and thus were more capable to deal with militia men.

The majority of the interviewees agreed that during the war period women participated actively in the operation of the university because their participation was more

convenient, safer and cheaper. When LAU was a small college, it did not attract many qualified male faculty members. Some male faculty members probably felt that LAU was an insignificant place to work in specially that it was known at the time as Beirut college for women (BCW) (see chap.1, p.5). The college was good for the wife to teach in, for the girls to study in, but not good enough for men to teach in nor for the son to study there (chap. 4, p. 93). Similarly, according to members of the managing team and faculty, the university relied more on part-time faculty members during the difficult times, because of the unpredictable conditions and tight budget. Since part-time male faculty members were constrained by full-time workloads outside the university and since female faculty members were more available and more reliable, the university resorted to hiring them. This can explain why during the war period, the college employed more female faculty members than men. In fact, between the year 1980 and 1991, more than 50 percent of the full-time faculty members were females (Figure 3-2).

Women in leadership positions during the war period were described by some members of the management group and faculty as firm, authoritarian, possessive, stubborn, opinionated and fearless (chap. 4, p. 94). They were 'the sisters of men', as Khairallah (1996) called them. Two old-time male faculty members thought that women in leadership positions tried to imitate men by being stubborn and opinionated, main characteristics and values of manhood highly appreciated by the Arab culture according to Rassi (1979). Other authors such as Coleman (1996) add that women reaching the highest level managerial positions might overcompensate by acting more stereotypically masculine. However, the alumni had a more positive attitude towards women. According to them, women in leadership positions played the role of the nurturing and caring mothers at one time and the role of highly professional, possessive and authoritarian leaders at another (chap. 4, p. 94). According to Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinback, (1999) and Yukl, (2002), the most effective style at any given time depends on whatever conditions exist within the environment (the situation). Similarly, the leadership style exhibited by the female members of the management group can be described as situational because according to the situational leadership theory, leadership behaviour is a continuum representing various gradations of leadership behaviours, ranging from the

autocratic (or boss-centred) approach to the democratic (or subordinate-centred) approach. Women in leadership positions displayed supportive and cooperative behaviour at one time, at other times they were strong, tough, and decisive.

Leadership Behaviour and Style during the Post-War Period
The Role of the Managing Team

As the university grew after the war in number of students and in physical facilities, i.e., three campuses, it was difficult, according to members of the management group, to stay on one campus most of the time. They had to spend more time planning and implementing the plans and less time with the faculty and staff members. They had to spread their efforts and time across the three campuses, and thus it was difficult to keep the same closeness they had had during the war (chap. 4, p. 86). Five out of six old-time faculty members complained about the lack of communication with the president at that time. They were used during the years of war to different treatment (see Appendix, Figure 3). They had more control then, and, subsequently resented the change, which they considered a loss of control. However, the newly appointed faculty members never having experienced the intimacy of the turbulent times, did not complain about the lack of direct communication with the president. They considered it normal to communicate first with the chairperson in charge, then the dean of the school and later with the vice president for academic affairs (chap. 4, p. 96 and Appendix, Figure 4).

The interviewed members of the management group, when talking about the post-war success of the university gave much credit to the faculty (chap. 4, p. 95). They expressed their appreciation for the good work done by faculty member, considering them as one of the main contributors to the success of the university. Similarly, the vice president for academic affairs, in an e-mail sent to the faculty on December 20, 2001, as Christmas greetings, attributed the success achieved by the university to the efforts of the faculty (chap. 4, p. 95). The researcher believes that during the post war period, the management group was trying to win the commitment of the faculty by developing in them what Maslow (1970) called esteem needs and self-actualisation needs. They assumed that developing a strong sense of commitment towards the success of the university could

128

motivate the faculty. They were adopting the Theory Z thinking of Ouchi (1981) (see Figure 2-8). The behaviour exhibited by the managing team was like the activities performed by a transformational leader as mentioned by Deal and Kennedy (1988), Robbins (2001), Dubrin (2001) and Damiani (1982) and as summarised in the four Is of Gronn (1996): inspiration, individualism, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence (See Figures 2-6 and 2-7). The management group, in order to compensate for the lack of active, close participation of the faculty in the decision-making process, used transformational leadership (see Figure 2-6. The activities performed by a transformational leader). They considered, like Busher and Harris (1999), that transformational leadership has the potential to alter the cultural context in which people work. The researcher, however, calls the transformational leadership exhibited by the management group manipulative leadership. She gives the term 'manipulative' a positive connotation leading to the success of the university. It is not what Weber (1968) described as deranged or evil, leading to the destruction of existing organisations. The intention of the management group was to share their optimism about the future of the university with the faculty. One member of the management group said 'nothing succeeds like success' (chap. 4, p. 95). The exact term was used by Deal and Kennedy (1988) when describing successful organisations.

In addition, the leadership style during the post-war period was one form of distributive leadership, or what House and Atiya (1997, p. 456) call "delegated leadership". The management group at LAU divided the operating activities and functions among themselves. In summary, the leadership style exercised during the war and the post-war period was transformational and distributive. During the war period leadership was distributed among the management group and almost all the faculty members and alumni, whereas during the post-war period it was distributed among the members of the management group. In addition, the transformational leadership during the post-war period was more of a manipulative style.

Leadership and Gender Differences during the Post-War Period

The decrease in the representation of women compared to men as members of the management team and faculty during the post-war period was a reflection of the changing environmental conditions, i.e., the changing needs of the community. Five out of eight members of the management team referred to changes in the curriculum choice offered. They said that men are less available as faculty members in certain areas where LAU had grown substantially, such as engineering, pharmacy and business. Since the School of Business, the School of Pharmacy and the School of Engineering opened during the last twenty years, it was expected to have an increase in male employment and men in top-level management positions. This conforms to what Blackmore (1999) wrote, basically that gender difference in certain areas of specialisation such as business, engineering and pharmacy was paradoxically associated with masculinity. In the same vein, awareness of gender differences in the teaching of professional courses was felt. An LAU female professor of accounting reported that when men in her community found out that she taught accounting, they looked at her in a funny way. They expected her to have a moustache and a rough voice (chap. 4, p. 99).

As the institution was moving from a small college to a university there was a change in the image of the university. The old-time faculty members reported that as LAU became a more reputable university, qualified male candidates were interested in joining it, thus competing with women. In addition, the majority of the interviewees from the management group and the faculty reflected that women in general could not compete with men because of their family responsibilities, i.e., household work, child bearing and the raising of children. Some of them talked about the need to take a career break in order to take care of the children. A similar argument made by Minces (1980), Wirth (2001), Homsi (2003) and others was that issues relating to family responsibilities tend to be associated with women. This could explain why women at LAU were not highly represented at managerial or faculty levels even though the university had started as a college for women (Figures 3-2 and 3-3). Other researchers such as Evetts (1990) and Homsi (2003) argue that career breaks have a dramatic impact on the teaching careers of women. This explains why the majority of women who reached top management

positions at LAU were either not married, divorced or, if married they had grown up children and few family responsibilities (chap. 4, p. 97).

It seems that social attitude, cultural influences and stereotyping have been prevalent among LAU people and have had negative effects on equal opportunities for women. Such a finding, that women who have been successful in educational management had minimised or avoided career breaks, thus following a career pattern similar to that expected of males is supported by Crawford (1995). Similarly, Nasrallah (1990, 1995) notes that women in Arab cultures are not considered the breadwinners of the family and, thus, are less concerned with a competitive career path focusing on financial rewards. This can explain why the female faculty members, during the post war period, were more satisfied than the males; They considered teaching at LAU a good opportunity for them.

Gender discrimination was a controversial issue for discussion in an institution such as LAU. In fact, the majority of the managing team and nine male and four female faculty members stated that at LAU gender discrimination is not allowed. There are strict rules and regulations regarding promotion and hiring based on qualifications, i.e., the Ph.D. degree, quality publications, and good teaching experience. The remaining members expressed contradicting views. Some thought that gender discrimination favored male candidates while others said it favored females (chap. 4, p. 101). Other research findings have supported the view that gender discrimination favored men. Crawford (1995), for example, reports that women have to outperform men in order to achieve promotion. At LAU, according to three female faculty members, the situation was the same.

The leadership style of women at LAU during the post-war period, was described as directive and autocratic by some and as participative and transformational by others. They were considered possessive about their responsibilities and were identified as authoritarian, difficult, possessive, and stubborn. They were criticised for not taking themselves seriously and for accepting lower positions. Even a courteous gesture such as peeling an apple for a colleague was interpreted as a nurturing and motherly gesture (chap. 4, p. 98). In addition, two of the seven interviewed female faculty members were

particularly vicious, saying that they could not tell whether the female managers were male or female because of their behaviour (chap. 4, p. 99). Other authors, such as Wild, (1994, p. 92) explained such behaviour: "some women tend to be rather judgmental about other women in senior management". Winter, Neal and Waner (2001) note that successful women are often described as anxious, unfeminine, and selfish. And Blackmore (1999) adds that economic rationality, being strong and making hard decisions are associated with masculinity. That can explain why women in leadership positions were described as unfeminine.

One female faculty member, however, talking about two women in leadership positions referred to them as pleasant, friendly and feminine, crying when hearing other people's problems and unafraid of showing their feelings to their colleagues and subordinates. The two female managers have accepted themselves as women leaders and have behaved accordingly, i.e., dressing and acting like women (chap. 4, p. 98). The alumni of both genders described women in leadership positions at LAU as successful, more helpful and more efficient than their male colleagues, better able to understand the problems of the students. This type of behaviour is what Gray (1993) defined as the feminine model of behaviour, caring, informal, aware of individual differences, non-competitive, tolerant, creative, intuitive and subjective.

Different points of view regarding the behaviour of women in leadership positions at LAU during the post-war period were expressed. There was, however, an agreement that women, because of gender stereotyping, have more difficulties than men in becoming leaders. In the study of the role of women in leadership positions, certain issues related to gender role stereotyping became apparent. Statements such as 'Women like gossiping' and 'Women keep complaining about gender discrimination', are quite superficial. In general, married women at LAU took either a career break or had difficulties adjusting their career paths with family life. These facts might justify the low percentage of employed females as compared to males among the management group and the full-time faculty during the post-war period. The researcher concludes that in general, women face

more barriers to becoming leaders than do men and that there is much less agreement about the behaviour of women and men once they attain such roles.

The Process of Change: The War and the Post-War Period
Flexibility and Adaptation

As the university moved from the war to the post-war period it had to face the challenge of change and growth. Active adaptability was the only choice available. It helped the university adjust to change and strengthened human relations as well. All the members of the management team and the majority of the old-time faculty members talked about flexibility and change as important tools for improvement (chap. 4, p. 85). Such a finding is supported by Fullan (1991), who recognised that all improvement leads to change. During the war years people at LAU used to cross every bridge as they came to it (chap. 4, p. 92). The managing team, the faculty and the alumni felt responsible for acting quickly, unafraid of making mistakes, because not taking quick decisions could put the university in serious danger (chap. 4, pp. 83). According to Bartol and Martin (1998), when heads of institutions operate in a reactive mode they increase their chances of making serious mistakes because they are continually making changes without proper planning.

The researcher believes that the spirit at LAU during the war period was that mistakes were not to be blamed, because the risk of not taking a decision was greater than the risk of taking the wrong one. People at LAU were following the saying of Peters (1997, p. 104): "Mistakes are not the spice of life. Mistakes are life itself. Mistakes are not to be tolerated. They are to be encouraged". The researcher believes that during the war period, flexibility in behaviour and quick adaptation to change became standard operating procedure at LAU. Such a procedure according to Covey (1994), represents one of the attributes that characterise excellent innovative companies. People at LAU during the civil war period were involved in what researchers such as Sherman (1995), Bartol and Martin (1998) and Johnson (1998) call 'reactive change'. As mentioned before, people at LAU had to adapt and face the problems encountered together as one strong front. Reece and Brandt (1987, p. 355) mention that "when faced with an unexpected or possibly

threatening situation, human beings, like animals, react with the fight or flight syndrome. Unlike animals, human beings have a third choice, the ability to adapt consciously to the new situation."

As mentioned before, planning during the civil war period was difficult (see Figures 4-3). Elias Baz, the vice president for financial affairs, in a report dated (1999, p.1) wrote: "Only in 1999, was the first time in twenty years or more, that the process of preparing a long-range plan was carried out on a wide scale to include all academic and administrative units of LAU". When the college became a university, proper planning was possible. It was the beginning of the planned change, which involved actions based on well-defined plans that anticipate future difficulties and opportunities. For Bartol and Martin (1998), planned change involves actions based on a carefully thought-out process that anticipates future difficulties, threats, and opportunities. Most effective people, according to Reece and Brandt (1987), engage in planned or managed change whenever possible. It is exactly what the university is trying to do.

Changing times require changing values, and this was the basic principle adopted by the management group, faculty members and alumni. The majority of the management group and old-time faculty members reported that they experienced a fundamental shift in thinking when they faced a crisis or when they endeavoured to meet competition. Suddenly, after the war they saw their priorities in a different light. According to one faculty member, the management group during the war period had wanted primarily to keep a peaceful atmosphere on campus (chap. 4, p. 85). When the war ended the focus was on improving the academic standards. The faculty member, who was strict in grading and tough with the students when it came to academic affairs, was considered successful. Later, when the university became well established in the community and had a reputation as a good academic centre, the interest shifted to satisfying the students (chap. 4, p. 103). The faculty member who was able to attract more students to his classes was hailed. In order to deal with reality, the management group required the faculty members to change their standards of performance. Other authors such as Covey (1994), Johnson (1998), and Anderson (1998), wrote about the importance of change as a prerequisite for

improvement and survival. According to them, innovative companies are continually responding to change in their environment. When the environment changes, these companies change too, as is often experienced in educational institutions.

Changing from a small college to a university is a challenging issue. When asked whether the process of growing from a college to a university occurred smoothly, five members of the management group at LAU agreed. One of them compared the continuous growth of LAU to a rolling snowball, growing in size as more snow accumulates on it (chap. 4, p. 102). According to them, the process of changing from a small college to a university was relatively easy because the college was small at the time and there was nothing to change but just to move ahead. The remaining three members from the managing team mentioned the difficulties encountered, and one faculty member compared the growth of LAU to a child outgrowing his/her clothes (chap. 4, p. 102). The researcher agrees with the members of the management group and faculty that the university was not well prepared for such a drastic and rapid growth and had problems following the basic steps of change as reported in Figure 2-11.

Educational Programs and Curriculum Choice Offered: The Civil War Period and the Post-War One

The educational programs and the curriculum choice offered during the period under study are important variables to consider when talking about leadership, growth and the survival of the university.

A Competitive Educational Market

As LAU moved farther and farther from the war years, it became more concerned with offering programs to meet the demands of the community for university education. The managing team and the faculty recognised that the university nowadays capitalises on the strength it has in terms of faculty, their research, and national and international visibility, to build academic programs that can compete with the best offerings in Lebanon and the region. According to one female member of the management group, when LAU started the Schools of Pharmacy and Engineering, its purpose was to satisfy the demand for

higher education in the local market. The aim was also to achieve brain-drain reversal by creating opportunities for studying in Lebanon and thus decreasing the chances of young Lebanese men and women going abroad and staying there (chap. 4, p.104). Achieving brain-drain reversal is a patriotic issue and an ethical behaviour. On the other hand, some members of the management group related the attempt to serve closely the need of the community a business deal. In fact, four male members of the management group referred to the educational programs offered as a prosperous business (chap. 4, p. 104). They stressed the financial aspect of the problem of survival: there are more than 45 universities in Lebanon and LAU's tuition fees are relatively high (chap. 4, p. 104). As mentioned before, the female members of the management group focused more on serving the community by providing good education, available to every qualified young person. The researcher wonders whether this difference in opinion between the male and female faculty is related to gender differences in behaviour.

As stated above, the university, during the post-war period, developed professional schools in engineering and pharmacy and launched an MBA executive program in order to meet the demands of the local market. The majority of the managing team, faculty members, and alumni realised the importance of offering academic programs meeting the needs of the local and international market for university education. Other researchers such as Kushner (1999), would have considered such behaviour appropriate since more weight is given nowadays to profession-driven subject matter in the overall university curriculum as a reaction to the changing population. Breneman (1994, p. 139) refers to it as a "dominant strategy needed for survival".

In order to meet the demand for university education, LAU academic programs try to compete with other programs offered by reputable universities around the world. The management group, the faculty, and the graduates realised that the world is now a global economy, and LAU students should be qualified enough to meet not only the need of the local market but the international one as well (chap. 4, p. 105). Such a finding is backed up by Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994) who referred to competitiveness as the ability of the university to remain a viable player in the higher education market.

Competitiveness requires flexibility in decision-making because it allows change and welcomes it as part of the productive process. Meeting the demand of the market demand for professional training leads to what the researcher calls 'the ultimate criterion of effectiveness', the survival of the university.

In general, most of the people interviewed stated that in order to attract more students the university offered diversified specialisation areas accompanied with flexible teaching patterns to accommodate working students (chap. 4, p. 106). They recognised that because the students and their employers are becoming more demanding, the university has become very conscious of adjusting its areas of emphasis, reviewing the requirements regularly to suit the needs of the job market. For example, the university started an MBA executive program, designed to suit the schedules of graduate students, as the courses would be offered on a condensed basis on weekends. Similarly, the university offers courses scheduled late in the afternoon in order to accommodate part-time faculty and working students. At LAU, improving and changing the programs and the processes created a quality approach in education requiring flexibility in decision-making. This is consistent with what Wilkinson, Redman, Snape and Marchington (1998) define as quality management; i.e., in order to provide quality education the university had to improve the product (the programs) and the processes (the timing and scheduling of the programs). In general, program modification is one element of response to product/market environment in higher education as Kotler and Murphy (1981) and Dill (1999) note. Quality for an educational institution in general and for LAU in particular, means providing educational programs meeting students' needs and expectations.

The Lebanese press emphasized change and improvement geared towards meeting competition and providing satisfaction for both students and community (chap. 4, p. 106). In general, the press reported what the managing team had declared, basically that competition is a drive for improvement. The data gathered from the interviews and from the press stated that the university was adjusting its academic programs by tailoring them to the needs of the students, the faculty, and the community (see Figure 4-3 and 4-4). The competitive educational market in Lebanon, 45 universities, put pressure on LAU to

improve its academic programs. Nabil Haidar, the vice president of academic affairs in his long range plan report said: "The mission of the university is to be responsive to the needs of Lebanon and the area in offering programs where there is proven need and the university is capable of doing exceptionally well".

As emphasized by Johnson (1998), Galloway and Wearn (1998), Bennett, Crawford and Riches (1992), Bartol and Martin (1998) and Blanchard and O'Connor (1997) things change. They are never the same again, and in order to survive institutions have to keep changing at the same rate. This agrees with what the press reported and what the managing team, the faculty and the graduates expressed in the interviews, basically that an international world of learning is emerging in which academic quality must be defined in terms of merit against fast moving, worldwide competition. Flexibility was the criteria used by LAU people in meeting competition.

Conclusion: A Model for the Life Cycle of LAU

The leadership style at LAU during the period studied was situational. It changed according to situations and led to the survival of LAU. Other authors such as Blanchard, Carew and Parisi-Carew (1990), Blanchard and O'Connor (1997), and Blanchard and Bowles (1998) believe that the most effective style at any given time depends on whatever conditions exist within the environment (the situation).

In general, the growth and survival of the university was the outcome of its meeting the growing demands for university education. If LAU had cloistered itself from the real world of competition and had been unable to follow the three steps of change of Huse and Cummings (1998), i.e., unfreezing, changing, and re-freezing, it would have been unfit to survive the turbulent times and would have collapsed.

Life at LAU during the war years was not a straight and easy path along which people travelled freely and unhampered but a maze of alternatives, through which people sought their way through turbulent times (the war environment). The maze (the competitive educational market) was where they looked for the survival of the university. The

resistance to change, the pain and ache would have been more intense had LAU at the time been a big college with a large number of students and faculty. In addition, as long as LAU provides the right services to the students, the faculty and the community, it will continue existing as a competitive institution.

The Three-Stage Model Describing the Life of LAU

To conclude this chapter, the writer divided the life at LAU into three periods: the war period, the post-war period, and the future, i.e., from the year 2001 onward. The researcher developed a thee-stage model summarising the life cycle of the university during the three periods (Model 5-1).

Stage One: During the civil war period leadership at LAU was transformational because it had the potential to alter the cultural context in which people at LAU worked. It was based on co-leadership distributed among all the members of the LAU family. The actions of the group, the team, set the general climate of what was acceptable behaviour and what was not. The strong teamwork generated positive synergy through coordinated effort, which created a communal culture.

During the war, LAU was a small college with a strong culture. It had a small number of students and faculty members. It was possible for the managing group to pay special attention to each member of the LAU community, helping create the right kind of work environment in spite of the difficult circumstances. However, the enthusiasm, persistence and calm exhibited by the managing team helped in 'defrosting', though painfully, the organisational culture prevailing during the civil war period. The process of moving from a small college to a larger size institution was painful and difficult.

Stage Two: During the early post-war period, the size of LAU, the total number of full-time or full-time equivalent students, increased substantially (Figure 4-1). As the size of the university increased, the management group could not sustain the same team spirit that had prevailed during the civil war period. The values shared among the old faculty members were no longer in agreement with those of the management group. This is most

likely to occur when an organisation's environment is dynamic as Robbins (2001) said. Because LAU was undergoing rapid change, the university's entrenched original culture prevailing in stage one was no longer appropriate. The strong culture (the communal culture) that had worked well in stage one became a barrier to change. The leadership style was transformational and situational. It was delegated leadership, distributed among the management group (the president, vice presidents, deans and chairpersons).

During the post-war period, people at LAU called by the researcher 'war boomers', were influenced by globalisation. During that period (the second stage), people at LAU had problems in socialising with each other. The researcher believes that in the process of growing, the university hired new faculty members who, because of gender (more males) and qualifications (in the Schools of Business and Engineering and Pharmacy), were not like the old-time faculty members. The researcher believes that the strong team spirit inherited from stage one worked as a lubricator, smoothing down the problems encountered in the process of changing from a small college to a university. According to the researcher this was one of the causes of the fragmented culture in stage two (see Model 5-1).

In summary, because LAU was undergoing rapid change, the organisation's entrenched culture was no longer appropriate. This explains the difficulty involved in changing from a small college, to a university with three professional schools. During the war period, the college had a strong culture that had worked well for them in the past, but became barriers to change when things changed. Thus, the strong culture that prevailed in the past later became a liability because it increased the resistance to any change.

Stage Three: This consolidation stage was called by the interviewees 'putting the house in order'. The researcher calls this stage, 'The Future'. Although incentives such as a competitive compensation and benefits packages are critical in retaining valued employees, there is something else employees are usually looking for in their jobs. It is the corporate culture, the way the organisation treats, values, and trusts its employees. Nowadays, because of the significant growth of the university and its spreading into three

campuses, there is a return to more traditional values focusing on achievement and material success. LAU, with its weak, fragmented culture of the post-war period, will be able to claim an institutional permanence only when the "refreezing" period is over. During that stage, the university should have strengthened its internal culture, establishing new rules and regulations, reaching, what the researcher calls, norm culture with average sociability and solidarity. In a norm culture, people keep moving between their feeling of belonging and their sense of purpose. They usually exhibit a balance between task and relationship behaviour, between risk taking and the speed at which companies and their employers receive feedback and react to it. During stage three, the leadership style should be transformational, transactional, situational and distributive-- officially delegated and distributed among the management group.

Model 5-1. : A summary of the Life Cycle of LAU during the period under study

War Period   Early Post-War Period   LAU today

Transformational and Participative	Change	Transactional and Transformational	LAU as an	Transformational, Distributive and

Transformational and Participative
Leadership
Distributed among LAU members
Peer leadership
(Unofficially delegated)

Strong and Rooted Team Spirit

Communal Culture

High
Sociability

High
Solidarity

High Level of Friendliness, collectivity
and Voluntarism

Change

Transactional and Transformational
Leadership
Focus on   Task

Unfreezing Period

Cross-Functional Team

Fragmented Culture

Low
Sociability

Low
Solidarity

LAU as an
institution

Transformational, Distributive and
Transacional Leadership
Distributed among the Management Group
Delegated Leadership (officially delegated)
End of Refreezing Period

Should Reach
Norm Culturre

Average
Sociability

Average
Solidarity

142

Chapter 6

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter includes an overview of the contribution of this research to the field of leadership and institutional adaptation through turbulent times. It entails a three-stage model, which was developed by the researcher to guide institutions through difficulties. It also sheds light on the limitations of the study, the problems encountered, and recommendations for further research.

This research is interpretive, social research. Being part of LAU's faculty for more than twenty-five years, the researcher shares with other interviewees a general cultural understanding. According to Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) and Douglas (1976) one could not study social life without being part of it. In fact, the researcher was able to read the situations at LAU with a great degree of accuracy and a short time frame because of the culturally familiar setting. This work will probably bring more knowledge and more wisdom to the field of educational leadership and help other interested parties think freshly about the subject. Through exploring and describing the changes in the organisational culture, the leadership style, leadership style and gender differences, and the curriculum choice at LAU, the researcher came up with empirical insights into modern leadership practices during turbulent times.

Contribution of This Research

To Policy: A Leadership Model for Turbulent Times

According to Garrison (1988) only theory can turn phenomena into meaning. What happened at LAU during the period under study provides a base of plausible relationships and a set of concepts used by the researcher to define and explain the phenomena. From the three-stage model of LAU's life (Model 5-1) the researcher theorises about the findings to develop a three-dimensional model, an overall framework applicable to other organisations facing difficult times (see Model 6-1).

1. Stage One: An organisation facing difficulties in turbulent times requires the presence of two vital components in order to survive: a strong and rooted team spirit and a transformational, charismatic and distributive leadership (co-leadership) distributed among the peer group. The presence of both components will eventually create a strong culture characterised by collectiveness and volunteerism. The researcher compares an institution with a strong culture to a tree having solid roots enabling it to face the storm.

2. Stage Two: The force of change, which is inevitable, faces the institution. Two alternatives are available. In alternative one, the institution adapts to the situation and changes, weakening its strong culture. In alternative two the organisation holds on to its well-rooted culture, thus disregarding the elements of change, and fails to unfreeze the old norms of behaviour. The organisation that fails to adapt in stage two will probably lose demand for its services or its products and will collapse and sink. In fact, if an organisation is not able to establish a new culture, it may disintegrate and go out of business. This reasoning justifies what Senge said: "Nothing fails like success" (1990, p. 18). This problem could be a subject for further research.

The adapting organisation undergoes a weakening of its strong culture, which results in the unfreezing of old norms and behaviour. The strong team spirit, which was inherited from stage one, can work as a lubricator oiling down the transition. Moreover, the increase in the market demand for the services or for the products of an organisation has a positive effect on the operations of the organisation; it counterbalances the internal force of unfreezing the old culture and dismantling old habits. The organisation that decides to follow the wind of change must be flexible and quick to adapt to the changing environmental conditions. In this stage transformational, situational and distributive leadership is required.

3. Stage Three: The organisation that does adapt to change, adjusting according to the changing environmental forces, enters into a re-freezing period where the new values and habits begin to form. The organisation is in a period of consolidation

and control, which eventually leads to growth and survival. The leadership style needed is transactional, coupling delegated leadership with distributive leadership.

The researcher does not assume that the three-dimensional model applies across all cultures and in all circumstances. As mentioned earlier, situational factors can play an active role in the application of the model. The researcher is aware of the many complex interdependencies that influence individual changing organisations. However, the model helps to understand some of the dynamic processes of change and development that institutions face during turbulent times. It can also operate on various levels, since it could be applied to business organisations, schools, and universities or to departments and/or programs within business organisations, schools, and universities.

When comparing Model 2-1 with Model 5-1 and Model 6-1 the researcher notes that the internal culture of an organisation; the leader's characteristics, traits, behaviour and style; and group members or followers' characteristics and behaviour affect the leadership process, which is in turn affected by environmental conditions. There is a reciprocal relationship among these variables. In comparing the three models the researcher suggests a form of triangulation.

Model 6-1. A Framework for Understanding Leadership during Difficult Times

Leadership and Institutional Adaptation through Turbulent Times

Strong and
Rooted Team
Spirit

Transformational
and Charismatic
Leadership

Strong Culture
Collectiveness and Volunteerism

Change
Proces

Change
Process

Weakening
Strong Culture
Unfreezing

OR

Holding Strong
Culture
Failure to unfreeze

Consolidation
and Control
"Re-freezing"

Collapse
and
Failure
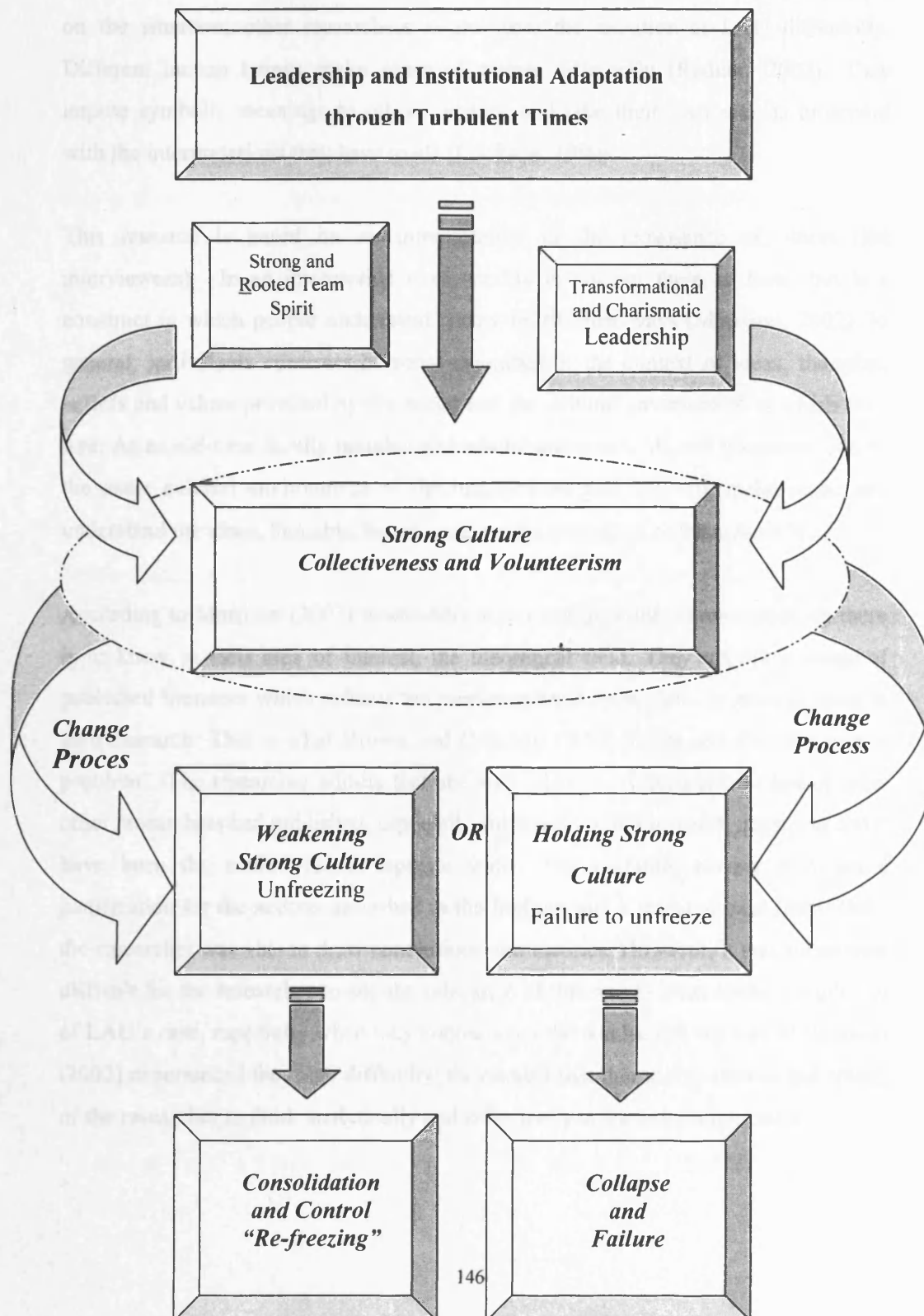
Limitations of the Study and Problems Encountered

The result of this research is an interpretation of the life experience of LAU during the period under study, as seen and interpreted by the researcher. This is one perspective on the situation; other researchers might view the situation at LAU differently. Different human beings make sense of events differently (Radnor, 2002). They impute symbolic meanings to others' actions and take their own actions in accord with the interpretations they have made (Erickson, 1990).

This research is based on an interpretation of the experience of others (the interviewees). In an interpretive work, reality is not out there as facts, but is a construct in which people understand reality in different ways (Morrison, 2002). In general, individuals construct personal meanings in the context of ideas, thoughts, beliefs and values provided by the social and the cultural environment in which they live. As an old-time faculty member and administrator at LAU, the researcher shares the same cultural environment of the interviewees and thus can make sense and understand the ideas, thoughts, beliefs, and values embedded at the university.

According to Morrison (2002) researchers do not and probably cannot study all there is to know in their area of interest, the theoretical field. They unpack a range of published literature which reflects the preconceptions researchers in general bring to their research. This is what Brown and Dowling (1999, p. 10) call the "theoretical problem". The researcher admits that she was selective in her examination of what other researchers had published, especially since each of her research questions could have been the source for a separate study. The literature review provided a justification for the actions described in the findings and a research base from which the researcher was able to draw conclusions and theories. However, it was sometimes difficult for the researcher to see the relevance of theoretical ideas to the complexity of LAU's case, especially when they contradicted the results. Garvey and Williamson (2002) experienced the same difficulty; they added that due to this attitude the ability of the researcher to think analytically and reflectively is sometimes inhibited.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is still needed to test the application of the proposed model (Model 6-1) on institutions facing turbulent times. The following is due to the fact that the study conducted by the researcher was on a small scale and included one institution only. Accordingly, the researcher recommends taking this study a step forward and applying the proposed model to other institutions in general and to educational institutions located in Lebanon in particular.

As mentioned in chapter three, the pre-testing of the research questions showed that no significant differences existed between the respondents' attitude and their religious affiliation. The researcher believed at the time, that education has smoothed over basic differences in behaviour. It is advisable to retest the impact of religious affiliations on leadership style, on leadership style and gender differences, and on the internal culture of an organisation, another topic for further research.

As mentioned before, organisations unable to change and adjust to external environmental conditions are not able to survive turbulent times. Even organisations with a strong culture and successful past need to be flexible. Senge (1990, p. 18) wrote: "Nothing fails like success". The writer believes that a study of the factors affecting the collapse of successful organisations is a good topic for future research, especially when many institutions are facing bankruptcy or downsizing.

Similarly, the researcher believes that there is a need for research on how vision is usually developed and used by a management group in an organisation. The following questions could be raised: First, how does short-term vision affect organisational performance? Second, how does it influence action and thus the survival of institutions in general and universities in particular? Third, under what circumstances is vision durable as portrayed in the literature? When is it changing and under which circumstances? The above topics have not been considered in this work.

The researcher, in this work, scratched the surface of important fields of study dealing with university leadership during difficult times. Each of the factors considered, i.e., the internal culture, the leadership behaviour and style, gender differences, the process

of change, and the curriculum choice offered at university level, could be a subject for further research.

Contribution to the Field of Higher Education

As mentioned in chapters 1 and 2, an increasing number of research studies concerned with the realm of management in schools have appeared, but few of these investigations have adequately discussed the management of institutions of higher learning during difficult periods. Similarly, most researchers when studying leadership effectiveness have described the characteristics, behaviour, and style of successful rather than turbulent organisations. They did not study the stages educational institutions went through when facing turbulent times, the main focus of this work. Ozga (2000) notes that researchers in educational leadership prefer to write about school effectiveness, identifying the characteristics of effective schools, using them to improve less effective ones.

In addition, this study contributes to the existing theory on leadership effectiveness in educational institutions in a number of ways. First, it provides an evaluation of existing leadership theories through what happened at LAU (see chapters 2 and 5). Second, it gives rich insights into the aspects and conditions under which culture changes and into the process of change. Third, this study contributes to the growing literature on organisational culture, leadership and gender, and curriculum changes. Fourth, through studying leadership practices in troubled times, this research partially answers the calls of many academicians such as Song and Meek (1998) and Silvester, Anderson and Patterson (1999) for research that uncovers the practical utility of organisational variables such as culture, leadership behaviour and traits, and group members' characteristics. In fact, most studies on educational leadership have targeted English speaking western school settings. There is an important void in understanding school leadership especially in regard to non-Western school settings (Dimmock and Walker, 2002).

For Johnson (1994) the processes and outcomes of educational management research aim to obtain data that move beyond generally available knowledge and to acquire specialised and detailed additional information providing a basis for analysis and comments on the topic under study. The researcher believes that the conclusion of this

work, what the researcher has discovered during the course of her study, will help other people concerned with the field of educational leadership and management to think about the subject and will thus stimulate further investigation.

This picture-drawing case study of what happened at LAU during the period under study provides what Bassey (2002, p. 114) describes as "fuzzy prediction", because, instead of trying to state "what works", it states what "may work". This research may provide leaders with a descriptive picture or a fuzzy prediction of what may be applicable to their institutions, if they encounter similarly difficult times. In addition, it is also of relevance for people who are interested in the survival and growth of organisations of higher learning in an increasingly competitive market. As mentioned in chapter one, there are more than 45 registered universities in Lebanon (Haidar, 2002a) offering various academic programs and meeting the various demands for university education. The researcher believes that many of these universities may learn and benefit from this work in general, and from the three-dimensional model (Model 6-1) in particular.

According to Garvey and Williamson (2002), there is now great interest in the way leadership may help organisations survive during difficult times. This interest is due to a variety of factors, including the decline of well-established organisations, the diminishing competitive power of many, the impact of new information technologies, the globalised economy and the consequent need for organisational renewal. Therefore, this research is timely and unique in providing guidance for similar institutions facing environmental change. Similarly, this work will contribute in encouraging other researchers to use case studies in their future research on education management.

However, this work has not been written as a recipe book or a map. Recipe books give the reader strict directions to follow in order to produce edible food. Maps indicate what a journey might entail but can never reproduce the experience of the journey. The researcher believes that this study is more like a voyage of discovery in which the readers can discover more about their own world than LAU's. However, the writer admits that this work does not necessarily explain what other organisations in the same situation should do.

Recommendations

Based on the work done in this study, the researcher came up with five dimensions related to the survival of organisations during turbulent times: flexibility, employment security, self-managed teams and decentralisation of organisational design, reduction of status differences, the sharing of information, and comparatively high compensation.

Employment security proved to be one of the most motivating factors affecting the behaviour of LAU people during the civil war period. The survival of the university represented financial security for the LAU family. The researcher advises LAU management to pay more attention, today, to that issue, especially since old-timers are feeling somehow neglected. LAU should try to improve the overall image projected by the university to its faculty members in order to retain qualified individuals and maintain competitive status in the higher education market. The researcher agrees with Messmer (2001) that no institution can afford, even temporarily, to relax its efforts to keep its best employees

During the war period, leadership at LAU was based on unique relationships, understanding and meanings, or what Gunter (2001) called life-world. However, during the post-war period, the leadership took on a form of management design, processes, and protocols called system-world. The researcher recommends following the advice of Gunter (2001) to reorient leadership at LAU towards life-world if the university wants to achieve continuous success in the future.

Many researches on the effects of high performance management systems have incorporated employment security as an important dimension fundamental to the implementation of high performance management practices. The researcher believes that providing employment security in today's competitive world is somehow impossible and at odds with what most firms seem to be doing because of the downsizing and restructuring which leads to layoffs. Employment security in today's competitive market could be a subject for further research.

As mentioned earlier, the survival of the university during the war period was the result of the effectiveness of the team spirit prevailing at the time. The increased sense of responsibility because of the strong team spirit stimulated more initiative and effort on the part of every member in the management group, faculty and alumni at LAU. The researcher recommends leaders to encourage the development of teams, the removal of layers of hierarchy, and the absorption of administrative tasks performed by specialists in order to reduce the significant costs of having people whose sole job is to watch people who watch other people do the work.

Similarly, organisations perform better when they are able to tap the ideas, skills, and efforts of all their employees who would then feel important and committed. Proper communication and a reduction of status differences, avoiding wage inequality, particularly across levels and gender, might improve performance.

References

Abdelennur, A. (1987), *The Conflict Resolution Syndrome: Volunteerism, Violence and Beyond,* Ottawa, University of Ottawa Press.

Abraham, A J. (1996), *The Lebanon War,* London, Praeger.

Acker, S. (1994), *Gendered Education,* Buckingham, Open University Press.

Alderfer, C. (1972), *Existence, Relatedness, and Growth,* New York, Free Press.

Ali, M., Brookson, S., Bruce, A., Eaton, J., Heller, R., Johnson, R., Langdon, K., and Sleight, S. (2001), *Managing for Excellence,* London, Dorling Kindersley Limited.

Allix, N.M. (2000), 'Transformational leadership: democratic or despotic?', *Educational Management and Administration,* vol. 28, no.1, pp.7-20.

Anderson, T. D. (1998), *Transforming Leadership: Equipping Yourself and Coaching Others to Build Leadership Organisation,* Washington, D.C, St. Lucie Press.

Babbie, E.R. (1979), *The Practice of Social Research* (2nd. ed.), Belmont California, Wadsworth.

Badawy, M.K. (1980), 'Styles of mideastern managers', *California Management Review,* vol. 22, pp. 51-58.

Balian, E. (1994), *The Graduate Research Guidebook,* Lanham, Maryland, University Press of America.

Ball, S. (1987), *The Micro Politics of School: Towards a Theory of School Organisation,* London, Routledge.

Barakat, H. (1993), *The Arab World: Society, Culture, and State*, California, University of California Press.

Bartol, K. M. and Martin, D. C. (1998), *Management*, Boston, McGraw-Hill.

Bass, B. M. and Stogdill, R. M. (1990), *Handbook of Leadership* (3rded.), New York, Free Press.

Bass, B. M. and Avolio, B. J. (1993), 'Transformational leadership: a response to critics', in Chemers, M. M. (ed.), *Leadership Theory and Research Perspectives and Directions*, San Diego, Academic Press, pp. 49-80.

Bassey, M. (1999a), 'Fuzzy Generalisation: An approach to Building Educational Theory', A paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference 27th of August 1998, Queen's University of Belfast.

Bassey, M. (1999b), *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Bassey, M. (2002), 'Case study research', in Coleman, M. and Briggs, A. (eds.), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*, London, Paul Chapman Publishing, pp. 108-121.

Baz, E. (1999), 'Long - range plan', A report prepared by the Vice President of Financial Affairs, p.1.

Beane, J. (1997), *Curriculum Integration*, New York, Teachers College, Colombia University.

Beck, L. and Murphy, J. (1993), *Understanding the Principalship: Metaphorical Themes*, New York, Teachers College Press.

Bell, J. (1996), *Doing Your Research Project*, London, St Edmundsbury Press Ltd.

Bennett, N. and Glatter, R. and Levacic, R. (1994), *Improving Educational Management Through Research and Consultancy*, London, Paul Chapman.

Bennett, N., Grawford, M., and Riches, C. (1992), *Managing Change in Education*, London, Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Bhindi, N. and Duignan, P. (1997), 'Leadership for a new century: authenticity, intentiality, spirituality and sensibility', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 25, no.2, pp. 117-132.

Blackmore, J. (1999), *Troubling Women: Feminism, Leadership and Educational Change*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Blake, R. and Mouton J. (1964), *The Managerial Grid*, Houston, Gulf Publishing.

Blanchard, K. and O'Connor, M. (1997), *Managing by Values*, San Francisco, Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Blanchard, K. and Bowles, S. (1998), *Gung Ho!* New York, William Morrow and Company.

Blanchard, K., Carew, D., and Parisi-Carew, E. (1990), *The One Minute Manager, Builds High Performing Teams*, New York, William Morrow and Company.

Blanchard, K., Zigarmi, P., and Zigarmi, D. (1985), *Leadership and the One Minute Manager*, New York, William Morrow and Company.

Blank, N. (1995), *The Nine Natural Laws of Leadership*, New York, AMACOM

Blumer, H. (1962), 'Society as symbolic interaction', in Rose, A. (ed.), *Human Behaviour and Social Processes: An Interactionist Approach*, London, Routledge and Kegan, pp. 179-192.

Blumer, H. (1969), *Symbolic Interactionism*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall.

Bogdan, R. and Biklen, S. (1992), *Qualitative Research for Education*, New York: Allyn and Bacon.

Bolman, L. and Deal, T. (1991), *Reforming Organisations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership*, San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass.

Brass, D. J. (2000), 'Social capital and organisational leadership', in Zaccaro, S. J. and Limoski, R. J. K (eds.), *The Nature of Organisational Leadership*, San Francisco, Jossey- Bass, pp. 132-152.

Breneman, D. W. (1994), *Liberal Arts Colleges: Thriving, Surviving, or Endangered*, Washington, DC, The Brookings Institution.

Brown, S. and Eisenhardt, K. (1998), *Competing on the Edge*, Boston, Harvard Business School Press.

Brown, A. and Dowling, P. (1999), *Doing Research, Reading Research, A Mode of Interrogation for Education*, London, Falmer Press.

Bryman, A. (1996), 'Leadership in organisations', in Clegg, S. R., Hardy, C. and Nord, W. R. (eds.) *Handbook of Organisation Studies*, Thousand Oaks, Sage, pp. 276-292.

Bryk, A., Sebring, P., Kerbow, D., Rollow, S., and Easton, J. (1998), *Charting Chicago School Reform*, Boulder, Westview Press.

Burgess, R. (1984), *In the Field: An Introduction to Field Research*, London, Unwin Hyman.

Burgess, R. (1989), 'Ethics and educational research: an introduction', in Burges, R. G. (eds.) *The Ethics of Educational Research*, London, Falmer Press, pp. 2-4.

Burgess, R. (1989), *The Ethics and Educational Research*, London, Falmer Press.

Burns, J. M. (1978), *Leadership,* New York, Harper and Row.

Bush, T. (2002), 'authenticity- reliability, validity and triangulation', in Coleman, M. and Briggs, A. (eds.), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing, pp. 59-72.

Bush, T. and Coleman, M. (2000), *Leadership and Strategic Management in Education,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Busher, H. (1999a), 'Life history and diaries: research focus and tools', unpublished paper for the Doctorate of Education Programme, University of Leicester.

Busher, H. (1999b), 'Leadership of school subject areas: tensions and dimensions of managing in the middle', *School Leadership Management,* vol.19, no.3, pp. 305-317.

Busher, H. (2000), 'Making sense of improvement in education institutions and departments', Course material for the Doctorate in Education Programme, University of Leicester.

Busher, H. (2001a), 'Managing change: a middle leader perspective', in Calvert, M., Harvey, J. A., and Cole, B. A. (eds.), *Managing Change,* Sheffied, Philip Armstrong Publishing, pp. 1-9.

Busher, H. (2001b), 'The micro-politics of change, improvement and effectiveness in schools', in Harris, A. and Bennett, N. (eds.), *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: Alternative Perspectives,* London, Continuum, pp. 75-97.

Busher, H. (2002), 'Ethics of research in education', in Coleman, M. and Briggs, A. (eds.), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing, pp. 73-89.

Busher, H. and Harris, A. (1999), 'Leadership of school subject areas: tensions and dimensions of managing in the middle', *School Leadership and Management,* vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 305-317.

Champy, J. (1995), *Reengineering Management: The Mandate for New Leadership,* New York, Harper-Collins.

Chisholm, L. (2001), 'Gender and leadership in South African educational administration', *Gender and Education,* vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 387-399.

Cialdini, R.B. and Trost, M.R. (1998), 'Social influence: social norms, conformity and compliance', In Gilbert, D.T. Fiske, S.T. and Lindzey, G. (eds.), *The Handbook of Social Psychology* (4th ed.), vol.2, Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp.151-192.

Clegg, S.R. and Nord, W.R. (1996), *Handbook of Organisation Studies,* Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

Cohen, S. G. and Baily, D. E. (1997), 'What makes teams work: group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite', *Journal of Management,* vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 239-290.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994), *Research Method in Education,* London, Routledge.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2000), *Research Method in Education,* London, Routledge Falmer.

Coleman, M. (1994), 'Women in educational management education', in Bush, T. and Middlewood, D. (eds.), *The Principles of Educational Management,* University of Leicester, Pitman Publishing, pp. 177-197.

Coleman, M. (1996), 'Barriers to career progress for women in education: the perceptions of female head teachers', *Educational Research,* vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 317-332.

Coleman, M. (1998), 'The management style of female headteachers', *Educational Management and Administration,* vol. 24, no. 2, pp.163-174.

Coleman, M., and Briggs, A. (2002), *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management,* London, Paul Chapman.

Conger, J. A., (1992), *Learning to Lead: The Art of Transforming Managers into Leaders,* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J.A. and Kannungo, R.N. (1998), *Charismatic Leadership in Organisation.* Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publications.

Connell, R.W. (1995), *Masculinities,* St. Leonards, Allen and Unwin.

Cortazzi, M. (1993), *Narrative Analysis,* London, Falmer Press.

Covey, S. (1989), *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People,* London, Simon and Schuster.

Covey, S. (1999), *Living the Seven Habits,.* New York, Fireside.

Curry.R. (2000), *White Women Writing White,* Post Road West, Westport, Greenwood Press.

Daft, R. (1997), *Management,* New York, The Dryden Press, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Damiani, A. S. M. (1998), *Creative Leadership: Mining the GOLD in your Workforce,* Florida, St Lucie Press.

Danesi, M. and Perron, P. (1999), *Analysing Culture: An Introduction and Handbook*, Bloomington, Indiana, Indiana University Press.

Darling, B. (2002), 'Making great leaders', Paper presented in a Seminar, June 20-21, 2002 at LAU-Byblos Campus.

Day, D.V. (2000), 'Leadership development: a review in context,' *Leadership Quarterly*, no. 11, pp. 581-613.

Day, C., Harris, A., Hadfield, M., Tolley, H. and Beresford, J. (2000), *Leading Schools in Times of Change*, London, Cromwell Press.

Deal, T.E. and Kennedy, A.A. (1988), *The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*, London, Penguin Books.

Deal, T.E. and Peterson, K. (1994), *The Leadership Paradox: Balancing Logic and Artistry in Schools,* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Deaux, K., and Lewis, L. (1984), 'Structure of gender stereotypes: interrelationships among components and gender label', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 46, pp. 991-1004.

Denzin, N., and Lincoln, Y. (1994), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Denzin, N., and Lincoln, Y. (1998a), *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Material*, Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publication.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (1998b), *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Diane. N.L. (1995), 'Hard bargain', *The Women's Review of Books,* vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 25-27.

Diekman, A.B. and Eagly, A.H. (2000), 'Stereotypes as dynamic construct: women and men of the past, present, and future', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* vol. 26, no. 10, pp. 1171-1189.

Dill, D. (1999), 'Academic accountability and university adaptation: the architecture of an academic learning organisation', *Higher Education,* vol. 38, no. 2, pp.127-154.

Dimmock, C. and Walker, A. (2002), 'School leadership in context-societal and organisational cultures', In Bush, T. and Bell, L. (eds.), *The Principles and Practice of Educational Management,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing, pp. 70-85.

Dobbins, G. H. and Platz, S. J. (1986), 'Sex differences in leadership: how real are they?', *Academy of Management Review,* no.11, pp. 118-127.

Donnel, S. M. and Hall, J. (1980), 'Men and women as managers: a significant case of no significant difference', *Organisational Dynamics,* pp. 60-77.

Douglas, J. (1976), *Investigative Social Research,* Beverley Hills, CA, Sage Publications.

Drath, W.H. (2001), *The Deep Blue Sea: Rethinking the Source of Leadership,* San Francisco, Jossey- Bass.

Drever, E. (1997), *Using Semi-Structured Interviews in Small-Scale Research, a Teacher's Guide,* Edinburgh, The Scottish Council for Research in Education.

Drucker, P. (1985), 'A Prescription for entrepreneurial management', *Industry Week,* Apr. 29, pp.33-34.

Dubrin, A. (2001), *Leadership: Research Findings, Practice, and Skills,* New York, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Eagly, A.H. and Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. (2001), 'The leadership styles of women and men', *Journal of Social Issues,* vol. 57, no. 4, pp. 781-798.

Eagly, A. H. and Johnson, B. T. (1990), 'Gender and leadership style: a meta-analysis', *Psychological Bulletin,* vol. 108, no.2, pp. 233-256.

Eagly A. H., Waran S. Y., and Johnson B. T (1992), 'Gender and leadership style among school principals: a meta-analysis', *Educational Administration Quarterly,* vol. 28, no. 1, pp.76-102.

Eisenstadt, S.N. (1968), *Max Weber: On Charisma and Institution Building. Selected Paper*, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press.

Eisner, E. (1991), *The Enlightened Eyes: Qualitative Inquiry and the Enhancement of Educational Practice,* New York, Macmillan.

Erickson, F. (1990), *Qualitative Methods in Research in Teaching and Learning,* New York, Macmillan.

Evetts, J. (1990), *Women in Primary Teaching: Career Contexts and Strategies*, London, Unwin Hyman.

Evetts, J. (1994), *Becoming a Secondary Headteacher*, London, Cassell.

Fagenson, E. A. (1990), 'Perceived masculine and feminine attributes examined as a function of individuals, sex and level in the organisational power hierarchy: a test of four theoretical perspectives', *Journal of Applied Psychology,* vol.75, no.2, pp. 204-211.

Fife, J. (2000), 'Book review on: what business wants from higher education', *The Journal of Higher Education,* vol.71, no. 1, pp. 114.

Fisher, H. (1997), *Board Member's Guide to Strategic Planning,* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Fisk, R. (1992), *Pity the Nation,* New York, Oxford University Press.

Fraenkel, J. and Wallen, N. (1993), *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education,* New York, Mc Graw-Hill.

Fullan, M. (1991), *The New Meaning of Educational Change,* London, Cassell.

Fullan, M. (1999), *Changing Force. The Sequel,* London, Falmer Press.

Gadamer, H. (1976), *Hegel's Dialectic: Five Hermeneutical Studies,* New Have, CT, Yale University Press.

Galloway, R.L. and Wearn, K. (1998), 'Determinants of quality perception in educational administration,' *Journal of the British Educational Management and Administration Society,* vol. 26, no.1, p. 36.

Gardiner, M. and Tiggemann, M. (1999), 'Gender differences in leadership style, job stress and mental health in males-and female-dominated industries,' *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology,* vol. 72, no. 3, pp. 301-302.

Garrison, J. (1988), 'The impossibility of a theoretical research', *Journal of Educational Thought,* vol.22, no. 1, pp. 21-25.

Garvey, B. and Williamson, B. (2002), *Beyond Knowledge Management,* Edinburgh, Pearson Education Limited.

Gay, L. R. (1996), *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application* (5th ed.), Englewood Cliffs N.J., Prentice-Hall.

Geertz, C. (1993), 'Thick description: towards an interpretative theory of culture', in Geertz, C. (ed.), *The Interpretation of Cultures,* London, Fontana Press, pp. 3 –30.

Geertz, C. (1993), *The Interpretation of Cultures*, London, Fontana Press.

Gendreau-Massaloux, M. (2002), 'De la Diversite Culturelle a une Culture de la Diversite', *Supplement du Quotidien Al-Nahar*, 17th of October, 2002. No. 21414, pp.1-4.

Ghattas Rassi, E. (1992), *I Remember,* (In Arabic), Beirut, Lebanon, Naufal Publishing House.

Ghattas Rassi, E. (2001), *And Life Continues*, (In Arabic), Beirut, Lebanon, Naufal Publishing House.

Gibson, C.B., Ivancevich, J. and Donnelly, J. (1994), *Organisations*, New York, Richard Irwin.

Gibson, C. and Zellmer-Bruhn, M. (2001), 'Metaphors and meaning: an intercultural analysis of the concept of teamwork', *Administrative Science Quarterly,* vol. 46, no 2, pp. 274-311.

Gilmour, A. (2002), 'Managing Corporate Culture Success,' paper presented in the 3rd International HR Conference, LAU Byblos.

Goffee, R. and Jones, G. (1998), *The Character of a Corporation: How your Company's Culture Can Make or Break your Business,* New York, Harper Business.

Gold, A. (1996), 'Women into educational management', *European Journal of Education,* vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 419-433.

Grace, G. (1995), *School Leadership: Beyond Educational Management: An Essay in Policy Scholarship*, London, Falmer Press.

Greefield, T. and Ribbins, P. (1993), *Greenfield on Educational Administration: Towards a Human Science*, London, Routledge.

Grogan, M. (2000), 'Laying the groundwork for the reconception of the superintendency from feminist postmodern perspectives', *Educational Administration Quarterly,* vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 117-1142.

Gronn, P. (1996), 'From transactions to transformations: a new world order in the study of leadership', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 7-30.

Gronn, P. (1997), 'Leading for learning: organisational transformation and the formation of leaders', *The Journal of Management Development*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 274-283.

Gronn, P. (1998), 'Leadership: theory and practice', *Human Resource Management*, vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 90-92.

Gronn, P. (2000), 'Distributed properties: a new architecture for leadership', *Educational Management and Administration,* vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 317-345.

Gronn, P. (2003), *The New Work of Educational Leaders: Changing Leadership Practice in an Era of School Reform,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing.

Gunter, H. (2001), *Leaders and Leadership in Education*, London, Paul Chapman Publishing.

Habermas, J. (1987), *The Theory of Communicative Action: Lifeworld and System*, Boston, MA Press.

Haidar, N. (1998), 'Academic affairs report', for the academic year 1998-1999, Beirut, Lebanon, LAU.

Haidar, N. (1999), Interview, *Al-Nahar daily newspaper* 4/2/1999.no.20569

Haidar, N. (2000a), 'Academic affairs report', for the Spring semester 2000.

Haidar, N. (2000b), 'From the 75th anniversary committee chairman',

> http: //intranet.lau.edu.lb/75-anniversary/vpaa.htnl, March 19, 2001

Haidar, N. (2002a), Addressing the faculty and staff during the Founders Day in December 2002.

Haidar, N. (2002b), Email sent to the faculty as Christmas Greeting on December 20, 2002.

Hallinger, P. and Kantamara, P. (2001), 'Learning to lead global changes in local cultures,' *Journal of Educational Administration*, vol. 39, no. 3, pp. 197-220.

Hammersley, M. (1992), *What's Wrong With Ethnography?*, London, Routledge.

Hammersley, M. (1995), *The Politics of Social Research*, London, Sage.

Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, P. (1983), *Ethnography: Principles in Practice*, London, Tavistock.

Hancock, R. (1998), 'Building Home- School Liaison into Classroom Practice: a need to understand the nature of a teacher's working day', *British Educational Research Journal*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 399-414.

Harris, A. and Bennett, N. (2001), *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: Alternative Perspectives*, London, Continuum.

Harris, A., Benett, N. and Preedy, M. (1997), *Organisational Effectiveness and Improvement in Education*, Buckingham, Open University Press.

Heck, R. (1996), 'Leadership and culture: conceptual and methodological issues in comparing models across cultural settings', *Journal of Educational Administration*, vol. 34, no. 5, pp. 74-92.

Helgesen, S. (1990), *The Female Advantage: Women's Way of Leadership*, New York, Doubleday.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. and Johnson, D. (1997), *Managing Organisational Behavior: Utilising Human Resources*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

Herzberg, F. (1987), 'One more time: how do you motivate employees?', *Harvard Business Review,* September-October, pp. 109-120.

Hill, L. and Wetlaufer, S. (1988), 'Leadership when there is no one to ask', *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, pp. 84-86.

Hitchcock, G. and Hughes, D. (1995), *Research and the Teacher*, London, Routledge.

Hofstede, G. (1999), 'The universal and the specific in the 21st-century global management', *Organisational Dynamics*, Summer, pp. 35-37.

Homsi, H (2003), 'Employment and Gender Differences in Arab Countries', A study made by ESCWA. *Al-Nahar Newspaper*. Wednesday, May 28, 2003. No 21620 p. 3.

House, E. (1993), *Professional Evaluation*, Newbury Park, Sage.

House R.J. and Aditya R.N (1997), 'The Social scientific study of leadership', *Journal of Management,* no. 23, pp. 409-473.

House, R.J. and Howell, J.M. (1992), 'Personality and charismatic leadership' *Leadership Quarterly,* vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 81-108.

Huberman A. and Miles, M. (1998), 'Data management and analysis methods', in Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds), *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Material*, London, Sage, pp. 179-207.

Huse, E. and Cummings, T. (1985), *Organisation Development and Change* (3rd ed.), Minnesota, West St. Paul.

Iverson, R.D. and Deery, M. (1997), "Turnover culture in the hospitality industry', *Human Resource Management Journal,* vol.7, no. 4, pp. 71-82.

Jessor, R., Colby, A., and Shweder, S. (1996), *Ethnography and Human Development,* Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Johnson, D. (1994), *Research Methods in Educational Management,* London, Pitman Publishing.

Johnson, S. (1998), *Who Moved My Cheese?,* New York, G. P. Putnam' Sons.

Kanter, R.M. (1993), *Men and Women of the Corporation,* New York, Basic Books.

Kanter, R. (2001), *Evolve!: Succeeding in the Digital Culture of Tomorrow,* Boston, Harvard Business School Publication.

Kaplan, A. (1973), *The Conduct of Inquiry,* Aylesbury, Intertext Books.

Kelly, J. (2000), *Gender and Equality in Education, Equality and Human Rights,* London, Routledge.

Kemp, S. and Dwyer, L. (2001), 'An examination of organisational culture: The Regent Hotel, Sydney', *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* vol. 20, pp. 77-93.

Khalaf, S. (1993), *Beirut Reclaimed,* Lebanon, Dar Al-Nahar, Beirut.

Khairallah, S. (1996), *The Sisters of Men,* Beirut, Lebanese American University, The Institute for Women Studies in the Arab World.

Kibbi, I. (1995), 'Lebanese and American educational differences: a comparison', *Education*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 441-445.

Kim, W. and Mauborgne, R. (1992), 'Parables of leadership', *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, pp.124-128.

Klenke, K. (1996), *Women and Leadership: A Contextual Perspective*, New York, Springer.

Kotler, P. and Murphy, P.E. (1981), 'Strategic planning for higher education', *Journal of Higher Education*, vol. 52, pp. 470-489.

Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (1987), *The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organisations*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (1993), *Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It: Why People Demand It*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Kruger, M.L. (1996), 'Gender issues in school headship: quality versus power', *European Journal of Education*, vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 447- 461.

Kushner, R. (1999), 'Curriculum as a strategy', *The Journal of Higher Education*, vol. 70, no. 4 (July/August), pp. 413-439.

Lang, D. (1999), 'A new theory of leadership', *Educational Management and Administration*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 167-181.

Lasch, C. (1979), *Culture of Marcissism*, New York, Warner Books.

LAU (1978-1979, 1980-1982, 1982-1984, 1985-1987, 1990-1991, 1992-1993, 1996-1997, and 1999-2000) *LAU Academic Catalogues*. Beirut: Lebanese American University.

LeCompte M. and Preissle, J. (1993), *Ethnography and Qualitative Design in Educational Research* (2nd. ed.), London, Academic Press Ltd.

Leithwood, K. (1992), 'The move towards transformational leadership', *Educational Leadership,* vol. 45, no. 5, pp 8-12.

Leithwood, K. (1994), 'Leadership for school restructuring', *Educational Administration,* vol. 30, no.4, pp. 498-518.

Leithwood, K., Steinbach, R., and Ryan, S. (1997), 'Leadership and team learning in secondary schools', *School Leadership and Management,* vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 303-326.

Leithwood, K. and Jantzi, D. (1997), 'Explaining variation in teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership: a replication', *Journal of Educational Administration,* vol. 35, no. 4, pp. 312-326.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., and Steinbach, R. (1999), *Changing Leadership for Changing Times,* Buckingham, Open University Press.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., Geijsel, F., and Sleegers, P. (2002), 'Transformational leadership on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform', *Journal of Educational Administration,* vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 228-256.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. (1985), *Naturalistic Inquiry,* London, Sage Publications.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. (1986), 'But is it rigorous? trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation', in Williams, D.D. (ed), *Naturalistic Evaluation,* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, pp. 73-84.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. (1989), 'Ethics: the failure of positivist science', *Review of Higher Education,* vol.12, no.3, pp. 221-240.

MacBeath, J. (1998a), 'Seven selected heresies of leadership', in J. MacBeath (ed.), *Effective School Leadership: Responding to Change*, London, Paul Chapman publishing,

Appendix

Figure 1

Consent to Participate in Dissertation Research

Description of Study

I hereby authorise Renee Ghattas, a doctor candidate at Leicester University, to include me as a

participant in her research designed to study the survival of institutions of higher learning in a period

of civil war, case study of the Lebanese American University (LAU). I understand that I am asked to

participate because I have worked at LAU during the period studied, i.e., from 1974 till 1990.

Participant Activity

I will allow Renee Ghattas to interview me. I understand that it may take one hour. I will read the

interview transcripts sent to me by the researcher and I will comment on them.

Confidentiality

I understand that my name will not appear on any written document and that this signed form will be

kept, in the researcher control, in a locked file as part of the project records,. I understand that because

of my position in the institution during the period under study my answers can be identified and

reported as mine. I have no objection to that.

Risks and Benefits

I understand that there are no known discomforts or risks involved in my participation. I

understand that I will receive no direct benefits from participation in this study. The published

findings of this study, however, may contribute to promoting the image of LAU, the

institution I have served during a period of time.

Signing to Participate

I have been told that signing this form means that I have read the form, understand what it means, and

agree to consent to participate in this research project. Finally, my signature also means that I have

been given a copy of this consent form.

Participant Consent	*Researcher Consent*
Full name (print).............................	Researcher signature ....
Signature	Date signed ....
Date signed	

Figure 2

Personal Information

Age of the participant: ....

Gender: ....

Marital Status: ....

Number of children: ....

Years of service in LAU : FROM ....   TO ....

Positions held: 1................................... FROM............   TO..........

        2................................ FROM. ....   TO..........

        3................................ FROM. ....   TO..........

Other Information: ....

        ....

        ....

Figure 3
Organization Chart During The Civil War Period as Recalled by The Researcher
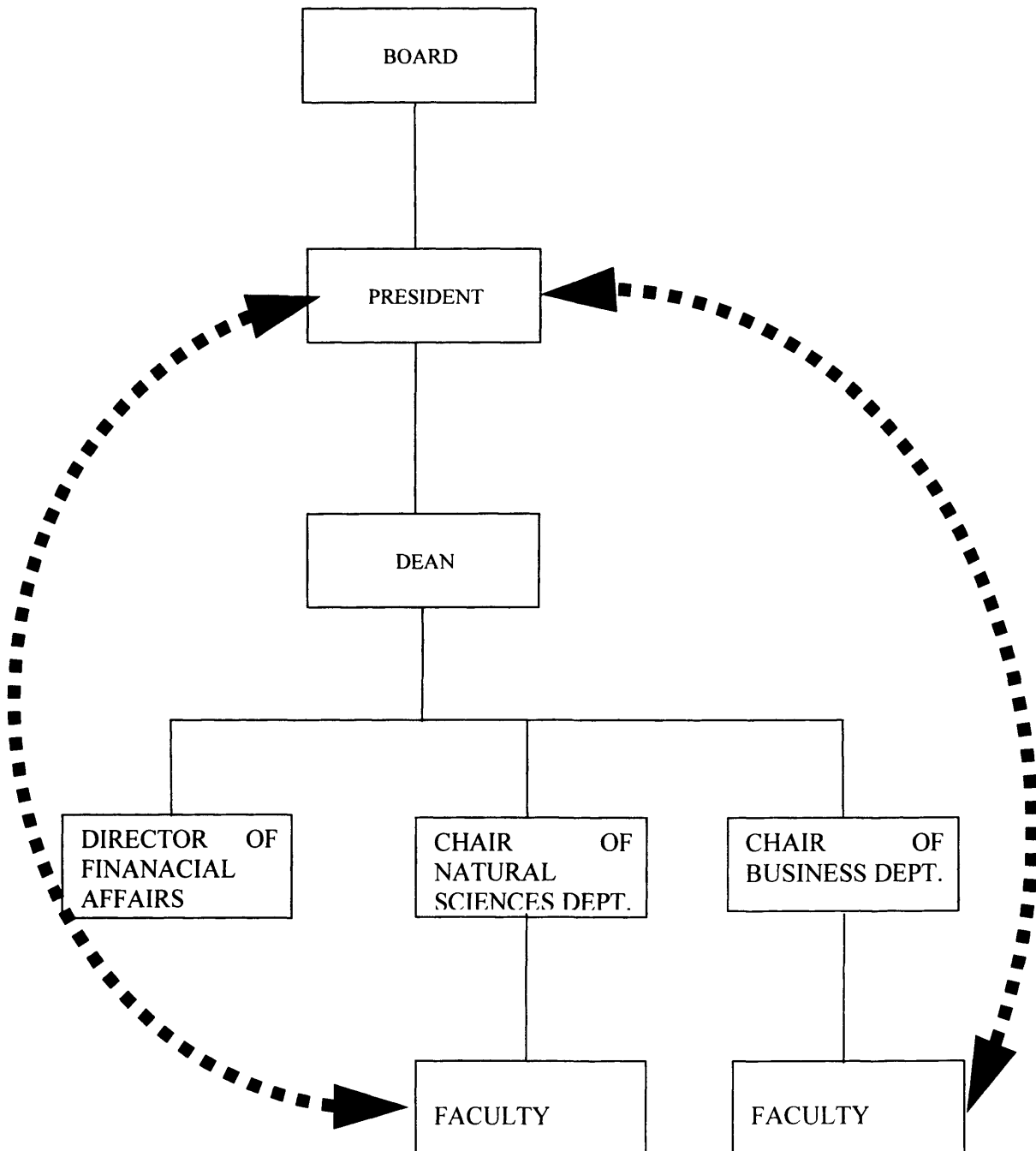
Figure 4

Organisation Chart
Post War Period

```
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │      BOARD      │
                        └─────────────────┘
                                 │
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │   PRESIDENT     │
                        └─────────────────┘
                                 │
        ┌────────────────────────┼──────────┬──────────────┐
        │                        │          │              │
┌───────────────┐      ┌─────────────────┐ ┌─────────────────┐
│ Legal Counsel │      │   Director of   │ │   Director of   │
│               │      │   Relations     │ │  Internal Audit │
└───────────────┘      └─────────────────┘ └─────────────────┘
        │
   ┌────┴──────────┬──────────────┬──────────────┐
┌───────────────┐┌───────────────┐┌───────────────┐┌───────────────┐
│ Vice President││ Vice President││ Vice President││ Vice President│
│ for Academic  ││ for Finance & ││     for       ││  for Student  │
│   Affairs     ││ Administration││  Development  ││    Affairs    │
└───────────────┘└───────────────┘└───────────────┘└───────────────┘
```

Figure 4

Continued

Vice President for Academic Affairs

Assistant Vice President

Academic Deans, Beirut

- Arts & Sciences
- Business Studies

Academic Deans, Byblos

- Arts & Sci.
- Business Studies
- Eng. & Arch.
- Pharmacy

Academic Deans, Sidon

- Arts & Sciences
- Business Studies

Dean of Graduate Studies

All Campuses

Directors of Institutes

Directors of Library/LRC

Beirut
Byblos
Sidon

Chairs

Chairs

Chairs

Director, Institute for Women's Studies in the Arab World

Director, Center for Sponsored Research & Development

Distant Learning