

***The Influence of structure on culture in Higher Education: A
survey of staffs' perceptions in 'new' universities.***

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Abstract

The Influence of structure on culture in Higher Education: A survey of staffs' perceptions in 'new' universities.

This piece of research focused on the perceptions of the factors which create and affect organisational culture in the 'new' university sector in England. A review of literature centred on the theories relating to cultural models, organisational cultures, funding issues, modularity and motivation. A survey method of investigation was implemented by means of a mixed research method approach, which incorporated a series of interviews and open-ended questions, attitude responses and ranking scales. Academic staff across two departments in three universities took part in the case study interviews. The staff were chosen as a purposive sample, based on the criteria that they had worked in the organization through the transition of polytechnic to university status. All interviewees completed both parts of the interview, and the analysed and summarised data were examined and compared to literature. Although literature offered a variety of frameworks to assist educational managers in becoming aware of the factors which influence organisational culture, the findings (although small in scale) illustrated clearly that structure was supported and culture ignored in the new university environments surveyed. Educational management in the 'new' universities had been experiencing numerous concerns and problems, for students, tutors and managers, as a result of the evolution of the binary divide and its consequential impact on the organisational culture.

DPM Dineen 1998

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The Influence of Structure on Culture in HE: A survey of staffs' perceptions in 'New' Universities.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 The Origins of the Enquiry

The influence of structure on culture is today an accepted norm. It is seen as an implicit part of the package of change, and yet it does not appear to be a matter for discussion at a strategic management level, or infact any 'level'. Understanding organizational culture, however, is recognised as a key to improving organizational effectiveness and performance, for example Nias et al (1989), who indicated that the maintenance of an organisation's culture is a significant leadership role (p.106).

'Culture' within the context of this research has been used as a conceptual metaphor as indicated by Alvesson (1993) who stated that, 'Metaphors are recognised as vital for understanding social research, and as a necessary element in creating and developing new ideas and new forms of understanding" (p.9).

Culture and structure form the central core of this thesis and the main working definitions are as follows. Culture is defined as a set of behavioural and or cognitive characteristics being made up of, 'rituals, routines, stories, myths and symbols akin to the institution, reflecting a combination of power, values and structure' (Brown,1995). This view of culture is also supported by Dobson (1996) who stated that culture is, "A combination of values, structure and power, but has implications for every aspect of an organisation, operations and external relationships" (p.32). The researcher

acknowledged the definitions of Brown and Dobson which were viewed in action during the course of the case studies researched.

Bush (1995) stated that, "By stressing the values and beliefs of participants, cultural models reinforce the human aspect of management rather than their structural elements" (p.138). This statement provided the researcher with the questions of how are values and beliefs identified by staff working in the new university sector? How do the participants of the research define organisational culture? To what extent has the human aspect of management been reinforced in comparison to the structural elements in the new university environment? He also stated that the successful link between strong culture and effective performance hinges in part by the way in which change is managed. Within the context of this research it relates to the transition of the polytechnic to university. Further definitions and discussion about culture are given in chapter 2. A clearly defined set of research questions have been designed around this initial origin of enquiry as found under section 1.4 Research Questions.

As an educator and manager of the educational process, the researcher had been motivated from work experience in the field, based in New Zealand, Asia and England, and she was aware due, to her own experience, of the impact and the consequences of change on managers, staff and students in HE.

The scope of this research has been directed towards gaining the opinions and attitudes of managers and staff in Higher Education in England. The opportunity for research in this field is tremendous, and so the researcher has provided distinct

boundaries to the scope of the research in terms of sample group, choice of instruments, data collection and context, to ensure a feasible scale for the work.

The starting point stems from Alvesson's statement that, "The culture of an organisation is crucial to its performance" (p.9). The surveys and research carried out by the researcher in the year prior to commencing this thesis provided evidence of a change in culture in HE in England, manifest in a variety of ways. These included modularisation, role change/expectations, increased student numbers, decreased contact time with students, quality systems, funding systems and the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE).

As a result there had been an emphasis on structural changes in HE, promoted by an increasingly bureaucratic management, as an attempt to cope with the confusion and complexity of the new university environment.

Structures are defined as the formal relationships in an organisation with an explicit pattern of authority. Structures in educational organisations have to respond to pressures internally and externally, formally through established policies and goals and informally by individual and group intervention. O'Neill (1994) stated that the analysis of organisational structures allows for a focus on the visible and tangible features, which impact on educational organisations. O'Neill also stated that structures are complex with effective management subject to change and development. According to Bush (1995), "structure may be regarded as a physical manifestation of the culture of an organisation" (p.136). The researcher aims to identify the cultural and structural changes within three case study organisations as

they developed from polytechnic to university status. Given the centrality of the concept of structure to the thesis it is discussed more fully in chapter 2.

1.2 A Brief Historical Overview

By 1956 the Government acknowledged the increase of pressure on the university sector, and promoted the investigation of an alternative Higher Education sector to cater for the increasing demand for university level qualifications.

In 1967 the Government established the polytechnic sector. Colleges of technology, art and commerce were amalgamated to form polytechnics, and the binary divide was created. The funding for polytechnics was provided and controlled by local education authorities.

In 1987, in a White paper on Higher Education, the Government proposed that all colleges with more than 350 students should become free-standing, appointing their own staff and managing their own budgets. The impact of these changes on academics in both the 'old' universities and the 'new' universities was profound. Funding was now based on student numbers and research reputations.

The 1988 Education Reform Act confirmed the developments of policies created over the previous decade, removing the polytechnics from local authority control and giving them control of their budgets and responsibility for staffing matters. The Universities Grants Committee (UGC) was replaced by the University Funding Council (UFC), a single funding council for both old and new Universities. "These

reforms, together with a changed emphasis on the criteria for funding, were central to the changes in policy and structure of higher education” (Miller 1995,p.16). The new emphasis on business involvement fitted the Government’s thinking and policies of the 1980’s, “legally formalizing emerging power relations”, as stated by Miller.

In the White Paper ‘Higher Education: A New Framework’, published in May 1991, the Government outlined a series of structural reforms to facilitate expansion. One of the chief aims indicated was the increase in participation rates of 18 year-olds, from one in five in 1990 to one in three by the year 2000. As a result in 1992 the Education Act removed the binary divide between polytechnics and universities in England and Wales. The removal of the binary divide entailed the following points as described by Miller (1995).

- Abolition of the universities funding council and the polytechnics and colleges funding council, and their replacement by a single funding structure for universities, polytechnics and other colleges, called the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE)
- The creation of separate higher education funding councils within England, Scotland and Wales, to distribute funding for teaching and research.
- The extension of the title University, and of degree awarding powers to those polytechnics and other suitable institutions which wished to use them. Thus all polytechnics in England have been granted university status, as have the Derbyshire College of HE, Luton College of HE and Cranfield institute of Technology (among others).

- New arrangements for quality assurance and quality audit of teaching and research which would be common across the restructured higher education system.

The Education Reform Act 1988 set out the definition of Further and Higher Education courses. These were employed by the Further Education Statistical Research (FESR) and are: Higher Education (HE): Courses above A level or BTEC National Qualifications, first degrees, postgraduate degrees and a range of professional qualifications known to be at HE level.

1.3 Higher Education: The present position

The differences between polytechnics and universities have been obscured by calling them all universities. Reaction to the proliferation of new universities has been mixed in the academic world, as the polytechnics, ‘succumb to what was known as ‘Academic Drift’ (Warnock 1996). The polytechnics were all given corporate status under the 1988 Education Act, and designated universities after the 1992 Education Act. All have changed their names on becoming universities but have included some geographical identity in the name, as seen in table 1. The impact of such change has touched deeply the culture of ‘new’ universities, far more significantly than a semantic differentiation, as indicated in this research.

Table 1

Former Title of Polytechnics and 'New' University Titles drawn from the Department of Education Government Statistics (1993/94)

Former Title	New Title
Anglia Polytechnic	Anglia Polytechnic University
Birmingham Polytechnic	University of Central England in Birmingham
Bournemouth Polytechnic	Bournemouth University
Brighton Polytechnic	University of Brighton
Bristol Polytechnic	University of West of England Bristol
The Polytechnic of Central London	University of Westminster
City of London Polytechnic	London Guildhall University
Coventry Polytechnic	Coventry University
Polytechnic of East London	University of East London
Hatfield Polytechnic	University of Hertfordshire
The Polytechnic of Huddersfield	University of Huddersfield
Humberside Polytechnic	University of Humberside
Kingston Polytechnic	Kingston University
Lancashire Polytechnic	University of Central Lancashire
Leeds Polytechnic	Leeds Metropolitan University
Leicester Polytechnic	De Montfort University
The Liverpool Polytechnic	Liverpool John Moores University
Manchester Polytechnic	Manchester Metropolitan University
Middlesex Polytechnic	Middlesex University
Newcastle upon Tyne Polytechnic	University of Northumbria at Newcastle
The Polytechnic of North London	University of North London
Nottingham Polytechnic	The Nottingham Trent University
Oxford Polytechnic	Oxford Brookes University
Portsmouth Polytechnic	University of Portsmouth
Sheffield City Polytechnic	Sheffield Hallam University

South Bank Polytechnic	South Bank University
Polytechnic South West	University of Plymouth
Staffordshire Polytechnic	Staffordshire University
Sunderland Polytechnic	University of Sunderland
Teesside Polytechnic	University of Teesside
Thames Polytechnic	University of Greenwich
Polytechnic of West London	Thames Valley University
Wolverhampton Polytechnic	University of Wolverhampton
Derbyshire College of Higher Education	University of Derby
Luton College of HE	University of Luton
Cranfield Institute of Technology	Cranfield University

The breadth and depth of change are still evolving as the 'new' university sector adapts to deal with the management of such change. University League Tables 1996 showed that rates of those successfully completing first degrees in 1993/94 ranged from a low 11.4% to a high of 87.6% in Higher Education universities, indicating a diverse range of approaches to the educational process and management.

The Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) carried out in 1996 had a significant impact upon universities, related directly to funding. It was the fourth exercise in a series, "Aimed at providing the funding council with the data necessary to fund research selectively" (THES 1996). The first two were in 1986 and 1989 and were confined to the old university sector. The 1992 and 1996 exercises were conducted by the Higher Education Funding Council for England on behalf of all the UK funding bodies, which have incorporated the former polytechnics and colleges of higher education which are now within the university sector. "The 1996 exercise was the

largest yet, with 191 institutions making submissions covering 2,894 units of assessment” (THES op cit).

Submitting departments were asked to put forward the following details:

- Up to four pieces of work published between January 1 1992 and the census date for each assessed member of staff;
- Detail of research students and studentships;
- Amount and sources of external funding;
- Statement of research plans.

The work of approximately 55,000 researchers employed in British academic institutions was assessed on a peer-review basis by 59 panels of experts covering 69 subject areas. The individual scores were then arranged, on a rating scale of 1 to 5* with 1 showing national excellence in no, or virtually no sub-areas, to 5* which showed that the research assessed is of international excellence in a majority of the sub-areas within the submitting department, and at least national excellence in all others.

A survey conducted by Ince (1997) provided the following statistics, and indicated that, “British academics think that higher education is in deep financial and academic trouble... revealing widespread dissatisfaction about what are seen as falling standards” (p.8). Ince’s survey stated that academics were losing confidence in the standing of their own work, illustrated by 67 per cent of those surveyed, thinking that British Higher Education had lower standards in international comparison than in 1980, and only 10 per cent thought standards had risen. Within the survey there was

little agreement as to what could be done about the problems. Only 30 per cent of the respondents thought that the right to award research degrees should be restricted to departments that scored well in funding council assessments, while 56 per cent disagreed. With regard to the RAE, only 25 per cent agreed that research funding should be concentrated in the departments that did well in the RAE, with 64 per cent disagreeing. The survey also indicated that academics felt that, 'the sector should be in charge of its own destiny academically and institutionally as far as possible, with 56 per cent feeling that HE can be trusted to exercise control over its own quality'.

Muckersie (1996) stated that, " Institutional performance in the RAE is increasingly the key to the strategies of many universities. In the consolidation climate of the mid-1990s, it is perceived as a threat by old and new universities" (p.12). The teaching based universities were concerned about the focus of funding towards research activities, whilst the research based universities were equally concerned that HEFCE would direct the funding towards teaching. As indicated by Muckersie, there was doubt and concern about the RAE and its impact upon the individual universities in terms of the desired emphasis towards teaching or research, as 'grade drift' threatened to affect a department's/university funding. Large departments could find a difference in funding between one grade and another as large as 1.5 million pounds over four years.

The RAE is one facet of change affecting the mission and direction of the activities promoted by management in the new university sector. The implicit and explicit expectations on staff in this new climate have affected the way work is done, and have consciously and/or unconsciously had an effect on staff roles, expectations,

communication, behaviour and therefore culture as a reaction to the 'new' environment.

Funding issues for Higher Education are discussed in chapter 2.3

1.4 Research Questions

The researcher aimed to survey staffs' perceptions of the relationship between structure and culture in Higher Education, by conducting three case studies in the new university sector (one was located in the north, one in the midlands, and one in the south of England) in an attempt to understand better the significance of organisational culture as an aspect of management in Higher Education.

The purpose of this research was to illuminate and identify the factors that create/affect the culture of academic life in universities and its impact on academic staff. As a researcher in the field of Higher Education I was particularly interested in the 'new' university sector, and consequently targeted a population of academic staff working within the sector by means of purposive sampling.

Two departments were targeted in the universities, so that an internal comparative study of perceptions could be noted. The departments of Engineering and Humanities were chosen as the researcher assumed that they would have significantly different ethos, approaches and attitudes. The fact that organisations are divided into smaller groups allows for different cultures to evolve as they face different problems and develop different solutions. Sergiovanni (1984) suggested, 'Within the university there exists several subcultures each seeking to promote and maintain its values' (p.8).

In an environment of increasing challenge, competition and change, the researcher proposed that there has been a shift in structure, culture and management of the 'new' universities. Much of the change is manifest in policies and procedures, but there is another facet of the change, which is not so tangible or easily characterised. The researcher proposes that this intangible element of cultural change is evidenced in one particular group of recipients, academic staff.

As Glenn (1996) stated, "The structure of individual work roles within an organisation has been treated as a distantly peripheral issue in organisational theory. Systems models, often based extensively on economic theory concepts, have been the dominant mode of theorizing in organisational terms" (p.37). Brown (1995) supported Glenn's comments, and stated that organisational culture had evolved along side human resource management; as a refocusing on people in organisations was required to substantiate competitive advantage in a new environment. Previous case studies conducted in new universities dealing with marketing strategies, motivation, curriculum development, in particular modularization and human resource management, have provided the writer with a rich understanding and wealth of questions regarding change in HE and its consequential impact. Marketing for example is a relatively new concept to those involved in education. Especially the academic staff of the 'new' universities who are faced with the current dual emphasis of change; a management/culture shift from polytechnic to university, and secondly the consequences of this shift in the form of curriculum diversification and modularization.

A central issue in these changes is staff motivation, a concept which has interested educationalists for centuries. More recently Maslow (1943), Herzberg (1959), Katz (1964), Mc Gregor (1970), Locke and Latham (1990) and Adair (1990) have developed theories on motivation of individual and group behaviour, and responses in work environments. It is recognised that the need to understand and respond to an individual's work needs is fundamental to creating a positive and successful working environment. Evidence from this research suggests that motivation was considered at an individual level, and met in personal and individual ways by staff. The university stance on motivation was not strategic or a part of a plan of human resource management. The staff's levels of motivation changed as a result of the polytechnic becoming a 'new' university, and the position in which academic staff found themselves, with changed roles, increased student numbers, limited planning and communication.

As organisational structures are viewed as "promoting and facilitating organizational effectiveness" (O'Neill 1994), the relationship created between organisational structure and culture is of great importance in the field of educational management. Staff perceptions of their role within an organisation reflect a sense of commitment and opportunities, the level of involvement and ownership of decision making and 'how things are done'. The factors of job satisfaction and motivation are core elements in human resource management reflected in all aspects of an organisation, structurally and culturally. As the factors concerning motivation are viewed as being central in influencing the culture and structure of an organisation, the issues are discussed fully in Chapter 2 section 2.5.

As for curriculum development, the move from a traditional linear approach to one of flexibility and mobility with modularization has not been a simple transaction of overlaying the American model onto a British system. In a climate of increasing challenge, competition and change many of the new universities have adopted a modular design for developing the curriculum. The effect of modularization was described by the respondents from interviews as being something that was a highly complex management strategy, potentially offering flexibility and choice for learners but with 'increased administration and bureaucracy'. As one staff member stated, 'modularization is a big strategic change, and it was dropped on us as though it was just another admin job'.

The impact of the modular curriculum as one variable has also changed greatly the delivery and management of university courses, affecting individuals' performance and their perceptions of a changing organisational culture in a new paradigm. As the introduction of the modular curriculum is recognised as being a major factor influencing both culture and structure in HE it has been discussed further in Chapter 2 section 2.4.

There are many issues affecting organisational structure and culture as indicated and investigated through previous empirical research in the new university sector. All of them coexist in very individual ways within each organisation, sharing many similarities but also differences as a result of leadership styles and management structures.

It appeared from the small scale investigations (previously conducted by this researcher) surrounding the issues of culture and structure in the new university

environment, that the emphasis of educational management has been placed in the realm of organizational structuring and re-structuring of a predominantly bureaucratic nature.

These findings form the basis and motivation of the investigation which follows. The fields of organisational structure and organisational culture are vast in terms of theoretical knowledge and research base. As this investigation draws together these fields of study, it has been very important to clarify the scope of this research, to create boundaries, and therefore establish clear aims.

The aim of this case study research is to illuminate the factors which create and affect organisational culture in a 'new' university.

The research has therefore been designed around the following key questions:

- 1) What are the factors which create/affect organisational culture in 'new' universities?
- 2) Has the transition from polytechnic to university influenced the organisational culture within the universities?
- 3) How is organisational culture characterised in the 'new' universities?
- 4) Is there a unified culture within the 'new' universities, as indicated through the two departments surveyed?

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Introduction

A review of literature linked to this investigation focused on the theories relating to culture, structure, organisations, funding, modularity and motivation. These fields have been identified as key issues relating to the research questions, and have been instrumental in the changing structure and culture of higher education. Previous empirical research relating to financial management, motivation and curriculum management in higher education, conducted by the researcher, established clear areas of investigation and concern around the dominant factors contributing to change in structure and culture in higher education.

A synthesis of literature follows which covers a range of the main theories offered in literature looking at the general overarching issues which characterise culture and structure within organisations, funding, modularity and motivation

2.1 Culture

2.1.1 Culture: the main concepts

According to Brown (1995), the current interest in organisational culture has been drawn from three different sources; climate research, national cultures and human resource management. "Together the development of the culture and HRM literature are evidence of an intellectual refocusing on people in organisations as a means by which sustainable competitive advantage can be achieved " (p.2). Torrington and Weightman (1989), Alvesson (1993), O'Neill (1994), Brown (1995) and Bush (1995)

described organisational culture as the spirits and beliefs, which are expressed in the norms, values and beliefs of the individual and how they treat each other.

Westley and Jaeger (1985) described culture as a concept of ideology with a relatively restricted set of norms and values, which indicate the aims, and mission of an individual or group.

The study of organisational culture has been derived in the main from studies in the field of anthropology and organisational sociology. Alvesson (1993), Brown (1995) and Bush (1995) stated that cultural models emphasised the informal aspects of organisations rather than the official aspects. Individuals' ideas, beliefs and values influence how they behave. "Culture is conceived as a building block in organisational design- a subsystem" (Alvesson,1993,p.31).

Harling (1989) stated that an organisation has a formal pattern of authority as well as an informal network of relationships. The individuals are guided by unofficial norms in order to achieve the formally stated goals within a formal structure. Schneider (1976) on the other hand felt that norms were not the best way of understanding culture, "norms tell people how to behave, culture has a much broader and more complex influence on thinking, feeling, and sense-making" (Alvesson 1993,p.29).

Brown (1995) made the comment that the way we choose to define culture has implications for how we define and study it. This is a significant point as each organization and even the departments within them have individual perceptions of culture, values and beliefs. Key question 4 of this research aimed at investigating the presence of a unified culture within the organisations.

Tagiuri (1968) believed that climate could be evidenced in two ways in an organisation. Firstly, it is experienced by employees, and secondly it influences behaviour. Bush (1995) stated that the growing interest in the cultural model is in part derived from, 'a wish to understand, and operate more effectively within this informal domain'(p.131). Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989) claim that, "culture serves to define the unique qualities of individual organisations. An increasing number...of writers...have adopted the term 'culture' to define that social and phenomenological uniqueness of a particular organisational community" (p.173). Alvesson stated that the best way to investigate organisational culture could be through interviewing managers, but the outcome of this would be quite predictable as it would describe the personal ideology of those managers and not necessarily the reality, as organisational culture and managerial ideology are not the same.

Bush (1995) stated that a cultural model could be composed by identifying the values and beliefs of the organisation members, shared values, norms and meanings, a focus on the single dominant culture within an organisation, observing culture as expressed through rituals and ceremonies and identifying the heroes and heroines who support the beliefs of the organisation.

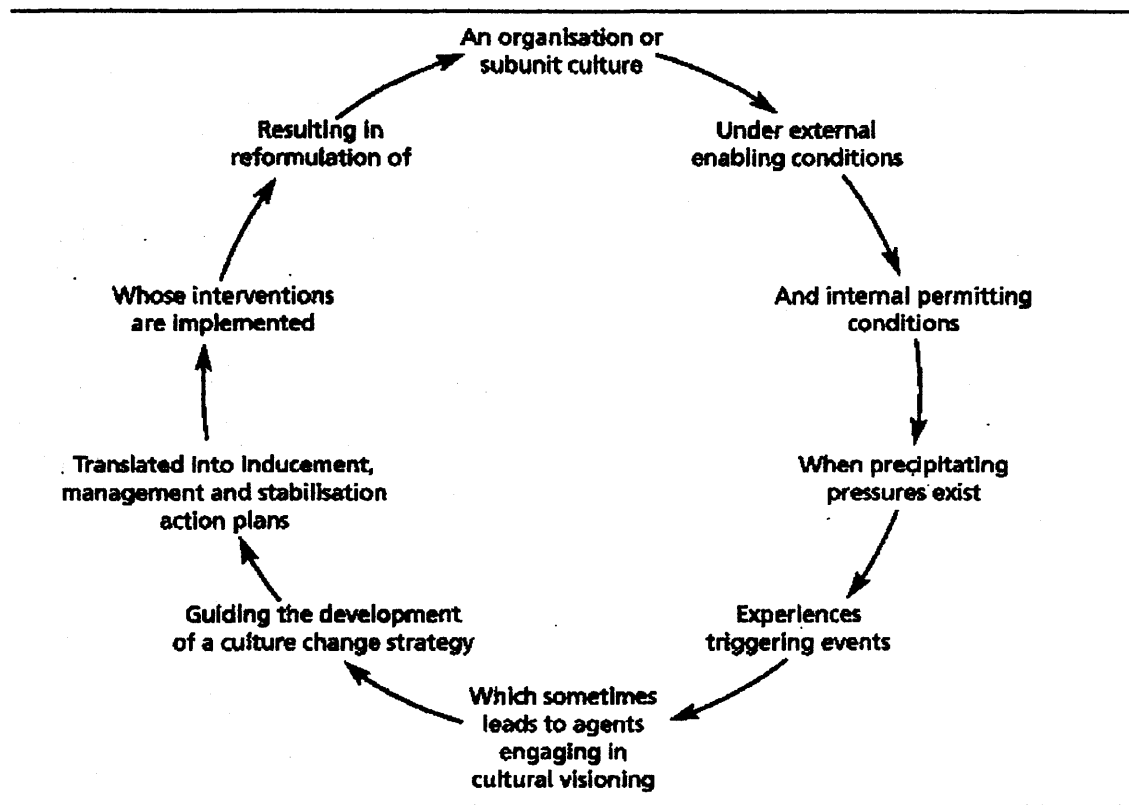
Lundberg (1985) developed a model for understanding cultural change in organisations (as seen in Figure 1), which was described by Brown (1995) as an elaborate learning cycle. Lundberg's framework recognised the existence of multiple sub-cultures in large organisations, such as those found in the universities surveyed. He suggested that particular internal and external circumstances must be evident for the desired cultural change to occur. Lundberg identified internal requirements that

allow change, such as sufficient money, managerial time, a collective sense that people were willing to change, mechanisms to facilitate communication and control and a strong leadership team with enough vision and communication skills and resources to aid a cultural transition. Success would also depend on the new 'vision' being translated into 'cultural change strategies' implemented through 'action planning'. "Lundberg is notably vague about the specifics of managing cultural change" (Brown 1995,p.88). However, Lundberg was adamant that culture change could happen if internal and external circumstances are appropriate.

Although Lundberg's model provides a useful indication of cultural change processes, it appears, as Brown suggests, rather vague about the specifics of managing cultural change, and seems rather simplistic in requiring internal and external circumstances to be appropriate for cultural change to occur.

Figure 1 The organizational learning cycle of culture changes.

Lundberg (1985).



Bush (op cit) and O'Neill (1994) stressed the influence of the external environment on values, norms, beliefs and behaviour. O' Neill charted the links between the external environment and the development of an organisation culture as follows:

Environment \Rightarrow Values \Rightarrow Norms \Rightarrow Behaviour

Environment \Leftarrow Values \Leftarrow Norms \Leftarrow Behaviour

O'Neill links broad and critical factors together in this chart which recognise the increasing importance of external factors and the environment upon the culture of an organization.

Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989) also provide a cultural model symbolised in three modes: conceptually, verbally and visually. These display through the use of language and the expression of organisational aims; behaviourally, through rituals, ceremonies, rules, support mechanisms, and patterns of social interaction; and finally, visually or materially through facilities, equipment, memorabilia, mottoes, crests and uniforms. The modes symbolising organisational culture provide a useful model and would be used to assist in identifying culture visually and verbally within the case studies carried out in this research. Anthony (1994) stated that, "Leaders, as the most visible representatives and the most powerful individual moulders of values in action, exercise a significant influence on cultural information and change" (p.102).

However, it cannot be overestimated how those in a position of authority and influence can manipulate and control the organisation's values and beliefs. O'Neill (1994), Anthony (1994), Bush (1995) and Middleton (1996) stressed the influence of organisational culture and its potential as a management tool. The understanding of the dynamics of an organisation's culture is an important part of the organisation's potential to develop. In this respect it becomes essential to clearly communicate an organisation's needs values and beliefs to its members, as this also ameliorates an organisation's ability to manage change. Nias et al (1989) indicated that,

'Maintenance of the culture was a significant leadership role' (p. 106), whilst Sergiovanni (1984) stated that 'Organisations are built on the unification of people around values' (p.120). Bush (1995) in support of this stated that, 'By stressing the values and beliefs of participants, cultural models reinforce the human aspect of management rather than their structural elements' (p.138). For this reason the perceptions of the leadership role held in each department to be surveyed will be

important, to establish the level of communication achieved, and the values and beliefs held to create/maintain a sense of unification of staff.

Martin and Siehl (1983), Alvesson (1993), Sergiovanni (1994), Anthony (1994), Bush (1995) and Brown (1995) discussed the notion of subcultures existing within organisational culture. Martin and Siehl identified three types of subcultures:

- Enhancing: where the individual adheres to the principals and beliefs of the dominant culture;
- Orthogonal: where the individual subscribes to the core values of the dominant culture but at the same time accepts a separate set of values and beliefs; and
- Countercultures, where there is a direct challenge presented to the dominant culture of the organisation creating an uneasy relationship.

Martin and Siehl's three typologies provide useful categories for interpreting staff perceptions of their level of unification in relation to the organisation's beliefs, and are therefore adopted to assist in the interpretation of these findings. Bush (1995) stated that, 'The larger and more complex the organisation the greater the prospect of divergent meanings leading to the development of subcultures and possibly a conflict between them' (p.136). Alvesson (1993) also acknowledged the presence of subcultures and stated, "Strong culture studies tend to emphasise a single, unitary organisational culture even though multiple subcultures rather than unitary cultures seem to be the rule" (p.40). Anthony stated, "It is evident that large organisations are composed of nested and inter-acting sub-cultures, divided both laterally and vertically" (p.105), and Sergiovanni (1984) added that, 'To understand the university

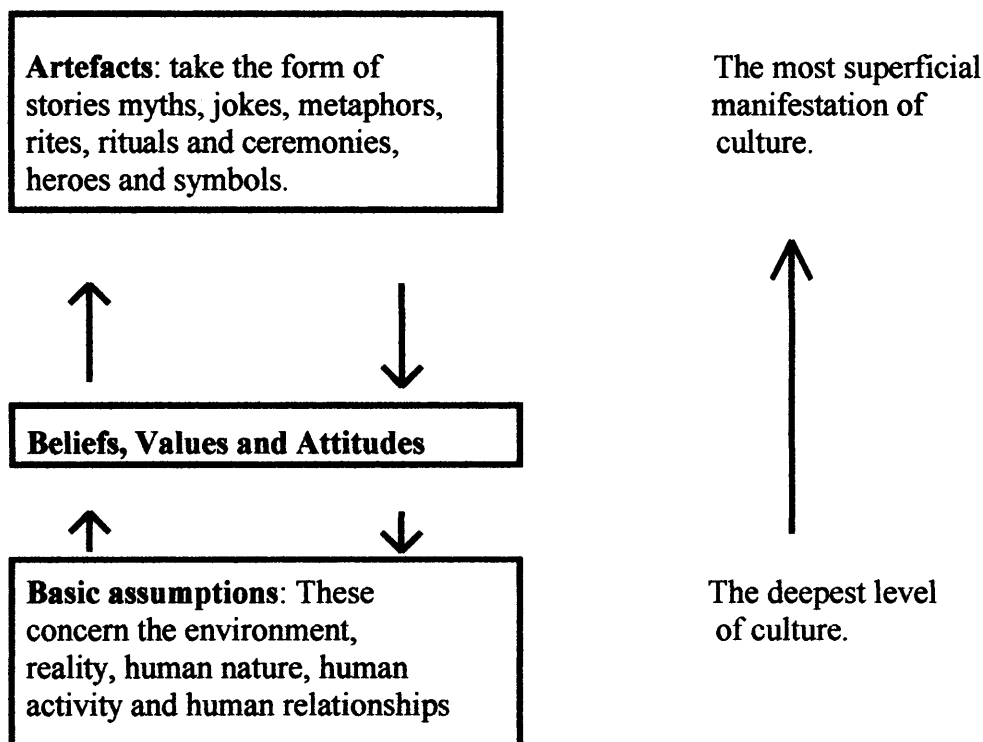
is to understand the nature of multicultural societies, and to administer the university requires that one deals with a web of conflict and tension which exists as several subcultures trying to protect their way of life' (p.8). This is a useful analogy and one which will be viewed during the course of the research, to study the reactions and relationships held between the 'old' and the 'new'.

Kilmann (1985), Sathe (1983), Siehl and Martin (1990), Schein (1985), Alvesson (1993) and Skoldberg (1990) discussed the concept of culture. Although it is difficult to pinpoint the characteristics of strong culture, it is seen as something worth pursuing, as if it is left alone a culture could become 'dysfunctional' according to Alvesson (1993). Sathe and Schein offered some broad characteristics of culture as being 'simple', 'homogenous' with a clear set of internal assumptions, which enable an organisation to adapt and cope with external pressures. The pursuit of a 'strong culture' is regarded as being beneficial to an organisation. This gives further purpose for this research, to gain a better understanding of the characteristics of culture and structure evident in the new university environments.

When asking the question, 'What is organisational culture?' Dobson and McNay (1996) stated that, "Culture is a word often used in organisations to mean the way we do things around here" (p.20). However as they rightly stated, culture is a much more complex notion than the statement covers. Similarly, Johnson (1990) and Brown (1995) described it as made up of rituals, routines, stories, myths and symbols akin to the accepted behaviour of the institution. The culture of an organisation reflects a combination of power, values and structure, with power playing a significant and important role in the way it is distributed, structured and controlled within the institution. Other aspects which influence the culture of an organisation are history,

traditions, ownership, size, goals, objectives, technology, work-force and the environment.

Figure 2 Levels of culture and their interaction adapted from Schein (1985) In Brown (1995).

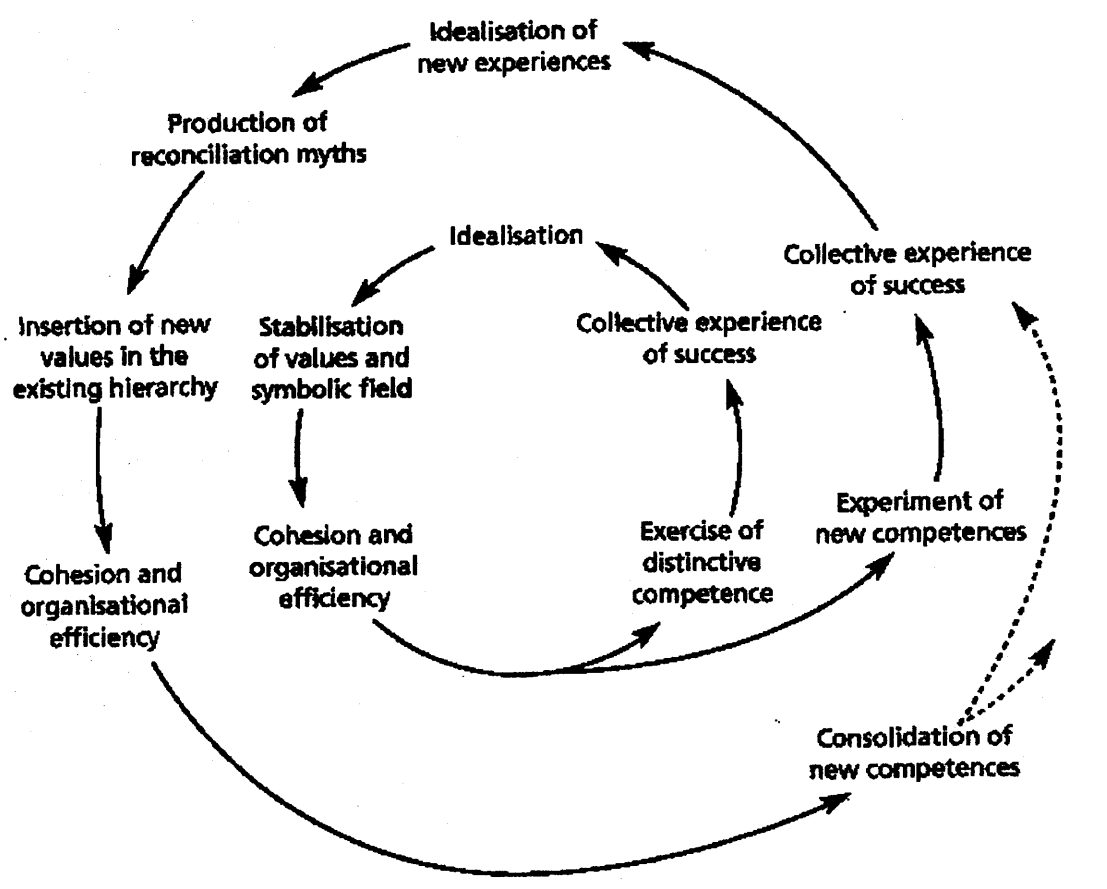


Brown (1995) expressed the limitations of this model, as it did not convey the complexity of real life cultures and the uncertainties and ambiguities actual cultures exhibit. Many authors on the subject agree with the ambiguity of identifying culture, such as Handy (1995) who made the following comment, "cultures cannot be precisely defined, only recognised when you see them' (p.19).

Gagliardi's (1986) conception of culture is similar to the view held by Lundberg and Schein (1985). According to Gagliardi the incremental model of cultural change is the only model which offers a form of 'organizational adaptation', as seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Cultural change as an incremental process

Gagliardi (1986).



In this way new values are seen to merge with the old. This would however be dependent upon skilled leadership. "Gagliardi's (1986) framework for understanding culture change is based on an appreciation of the essence of culture as assumptions and values, with symbols, artefacts and techniques being of secondary importance"

(Brown 1995,p.103). Gagliardi's model acknowledges that organizational culture cannot change overnight, or suddenly change character. This is an acceptance of culture working on a multi dimensional level, of the old and the new together as a more integrated approach.

Table 2 Handy (1995) Four Culture Models: a summary.

Club	Role	Task	Existential
Spiders Web	Greek Temple	Lattice	Cluster
<p>Head at centre.</p> <p>Relationship with head is more important than title or position.</p> <p>Divisions of work based on function.</p> <p>Found in small entrepreneurial organisations.</p> <p>Excellent for speed of decision.</p> <p>Speed derived from empathy rather than formal authorities.</p> <p>Like minded people and trust rather than control procedures.</p> <p>Speed rather than detail.</p> <p>Value the individual</p>	<p>Focus on the job to be done rather than personalities.</p> <p>Rational and logical.</p> <p>Functions divided into roles.</p> <p>Roles and duties are fixed.</p> <p>Picture of bureaucracy.</p> <p>Stability and predictability.</p>	<p>Judge performance in terms of results.</p> <p>The organisation is a network of loosely-linked units.</p> <p>Expertise is the basis of power and influence.</p> <p>Relationships are not important.</p> <p>Talent and creativity are needed.</p> <p>Youth, energy and creativity flourish.</p> <p>It is purposeful and talks of teams.</p> <p>Variety not predictability is the drive for this type of management.</p> <p>Work well when venturing into new situations.</p>	<p>Exists to help the individual achieve his purpose.</p> <p>Excellent where the talent of the individual is most important.</p> <p>Culture preferred by professionals.</p> <p>They accept no boss, and do not willingly receive orders.</p> <p>It has a lack of mandated control.</p> <p>Individuals see themselves as independent professionals.</p>

Handy, a key contributor to the field of organizational cultural analysis, provided the four-culture model summarised in Table 2.

Within Handy's 'club culture', people higher up in an organisation are described as being motivated by the drive of personal power, with the lower ranks of the organisation often being motivated by fear and dependency. Dobson and McNay (1996) related to the notion of power as a culture and made the following comment, "Individuals within this type of organisation will be judged by results rather than by the way in which they achieve their goals" (p.22). The second of Handy's cultures is the 'role culture', which is often stereotyped as a bureaucracy, where the decisions are dependent on the amount of money earned. Although the role culture can offer security and predictability to the individual, it is also seen as being slow to change when there is a need, "as they have relied on building up procedures and not people" (Dobson and McNay 1996, p.23). As the majority of energy goes into the design of structures and systems, the individuals who are charged with the work find themselves frustrated at being limited in showing their own initiative.

Handy's third culture type, 'task culture', is seen as emphasising the individual's talents and abilities as a way of motivating the individual. "A strength of the task culture is that it can evoke a sense of passion and commitment to work. The organization can empower people to learn and create new ways to achieve the mission ideals" (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.24).

The last of Handy's cultural types is the 'existential culture', where the ability to control one's work is the major source of motivation. It is unusual to see the

individual as the starting point as many organizations have objectives and missions which rise above the individual.

Handy made plain the difficulties of precisely defining culture. The typologies however are useful descriptive models, which attempt to describe the differences in perception and performance. For this reason the categories are utilised in the design of interview questions in the current research.

It is clear from the comments made by Brown (1995), Bush (1995), Dobson and McNay (1996), that Handy's typologies are simplistic and organisations are rarely in reality pure examples of these cultures, and tend to assume a combination.

Bush (1995) summarised cultural models, goals, structure, environment and leadership, synthesised by the researcher as follows:

Culture expressed through Goals

Statement of Purposes reinforce Values and Beliefs

Goals and values if consistent create Coherence

Aims well stated create strong Culture

Goal setting should be linked to Organisational Values

Core Values determine Vision

Vision expressed through Mission Statement

In terms of leadership Sergiovanni (1984), Nias et al (1989), Caldwell and Spinks (1992), Alvesson (1993), Anthony (1994), Bush (1995) and O'Neill (1995) stated that leadership in educational management should provide the support for the development of its organisation's culture, as for the maintenance of a strong organizational culture

it is the responsibility of leadership to provide guidance and create a sense of unity.

Anthony (1994) stated that organisations have similar meanings, outlooks, behaviour and culture. Strong corporate culture has a positive impact on performance, as indicated by Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Peters and Waterman (1982).

Deal (1985) suggested several strategies for leaders who wish to generate culture, as follows:

Document the school history

Celebrate heroes and heroines

Review school rituals to convey cultural values and beliefs

Exploit and develop ceremony.

According to O'Neill (1994) culture can be expressed implicitly and explicitly.

Implicitly, as a reflection of the underlying beliefs and values; and explicitly through documentation, procedures, ceremonies and symbolic activities. "It is possible to chart those deeply held values and beliefs by analysing the various ways in which they are enacted in terms of overt organisation activity and behaviour" (p.103). On the other hand Alvesson (1993) felt that organisational culture research would benefit if less attention was placed on the peripheral aspects such as 'pure' symbols, and more attention placed on the benefits central to an organisation's activities. In acknowledgement of Alvesson's opinion an attempt will be made to identify staff perceptions of their role, responsibilities, beliefs and activities in an organisation, rather than identifying pure symbolic icons of culture.

According to Meek (1992), cultural theories fall into two categories. One is

where the culture is seen as something the organisation possesses, a human relations and perhaps managerial view, and the other where the culture is a part of the organisation's history, 'culture is something an organisation is' (p.28). Alvesson (1993) and Brown (1995) viewed organisational culture as two categories: metaphor and objective entity. The metaphors allow us to understand organisations by attempting to explain the 'essence' of an organisation, through descriptive metaphors such as 'machine' and 'organism'. It is unlikely that the researcher would view an organisation as either/or, but a combination of the two.

Most authors, according to Brown (1995), perceive culture as an objective entity. At this point there is some broad interpretation of objective entity as authors such as Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1982) see an organisation as 'literally a culture' (p.7), whereas Deal (1984), Schein (1985), Handy (1994), and Bush (1995) see culture as a set of behavioural and or cognitive characteristics. Brown (op cit) defined organisational culture as, "the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviours of its members" (p.8). Brown's definition of organisational culture provides a guide for the interpretation of culture within the context of this research.

Anthony (1994) stated that, 'Distinctive organisational cultures grow and are established by similarities of required outlook and behaviour over time' (p.30). Smircich (1985), supported this notion when he stated that, 'organisations do not possess cultures, they are cultures, the cultural characteristics and the organisation are embedded in each other rather than existing as parallel but separate entities' (p.30).

An interesting remark made by Fineman was, “What is sometimes missed, however, is that strong cultures, by their very nature, are also resistant to change” (p.247).

Fineman suggested that, “The challenge for managers is to design organizations which benefit simultaneously from cultural strength and cultural diversity” (p.248).

2.1.2 Cultural Perspectives

A list of definitions of culture:

- “The way we do things”. Deal and Kennedy (1982)
- “Shared social knowledge”. Wilkins and Ouchi (1983)
- “What people believe about what works and what does not”. Wilkins and Patterson (1985)
- “The set of important assumptions (often un-stated) that members of the community hold in common”. Sathe (1985)
- “A shared system of values, norms, and symbols”. Louis (1981)
- “The organization’s expressive and affective dimensions in a system of shared and meaningful symbols.” Allaire and Firsirotu (1984)
- “The shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit a community together”. Kilmann et al., (1985)
- “A pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration.” Schein (1985)

Alvesson (1993) believed that the culture of an organisation was crucial to its performance. Both Alvesson and Brown (1995) stated that many researchers have come to view culture in organisations as a new metaphor from which to develop a new understanding about organisations. Alvesson (1993) and Brown (1995) considered the term 'culture' as a conceptual metaphor, vital for understanding social research. The use of metaphors has its limitations, according to Alvesson, in that, "metaphors cannot be translated into precise objective language and thus elude rigorous measurement and testing" (p.10). The popularity of metaphors in organisational studies can lead to excessive use, rather than the development of theoretical metaphors that really do shed new light on things. In line with Alvesson's perception, an approach will be taken of adapting previous models developed in the field of organisational culture in an attempt to understand from tangible findings the organisational culture evident in the new universities surveyed.

There is a risk of a supermarket attitude to metaphors, and a risk of focusing on the metaphorical level rather than the deeper and more basic levels of social research. In this respect oversimplification can occur.

Alvesson (1993) offers ten metaphors for culture drawn from contemporary literature:

Culture as Exchange-regulator: "Culture is seen here as a control mechanism, that can handle complex exchange relations" Alvesson (p.18).

Culture as compass: Weiner (1988), draws attention to the direction-pointing capacity of a shared value system that he sees as a core of organizational culture... “Using values is like a defective compass: they indicate the wrong direction” (p.18).

Culture as social glue: “The idea here is that organizations are integrated and controlled through informal, non-structural means-shared values, beliefs, understandings, and norms” Alvesson 1993 (p.19).

Culture as sacred cow: “The sacred cow metaphor for organizational culture stresses the limits of instrumental reason and focuses on deeper value commitments and the stability of the cultural core, through the idealisation process, the rational acceptance of beliefs gives way to the emotional identification with values, which in due course become sacred” (op cit p.20).

Culture as manager-controlled rites: Culture may also be seen as organizational rites which are controlled by a manager for instrumental purposes. Trice and Beyer (1984) define ‘rites’ as ‘organized and planned activities that have both practical and expensive consequences. This metaphor presumes that managers are capable of standing ‘above’ culture and controlling it” (op cit p.21).

Culture as affect regulator: Van Maanen and Kunda (1989), emphasise that ‘attempts to build, strengthen, deepen or thicken organizational culture often involve the subtle (or not so subtle) control of employee emotions- or at least those emotions expressed in the work place- and see culture as a ‘control device’ to inform, guide and discipline the emotions of organizational members (op cit p.21).

Culture as non-order: “The metaphor of non-order proceeds from the assumption that modern societies and organizations are characterised by ambiguity-uncertainty, contradiction, confusion-and that cultural perspective on organizations must take this into account” (op cit p.22).

Culture as blinders: Kreftling and Frost (1985) argue that, “Organizational culture is funnelled through the unconscious and therefore differs from what is indicated by the organization, which is a metaphor for order and orderliness. Their understanding of organizational culture is inspired by Jungian ideas, which although originally developed to explain individual development, have lately been extended to organizations” (op cit. p.22).

Culture as world closure: Knights and Wilmot (1987) see organizational culture as, “a management strategy which aims to implant management’s favourable perceptions and definitions of social reality in the interpretative schemes of employees” (op cit. p.23).

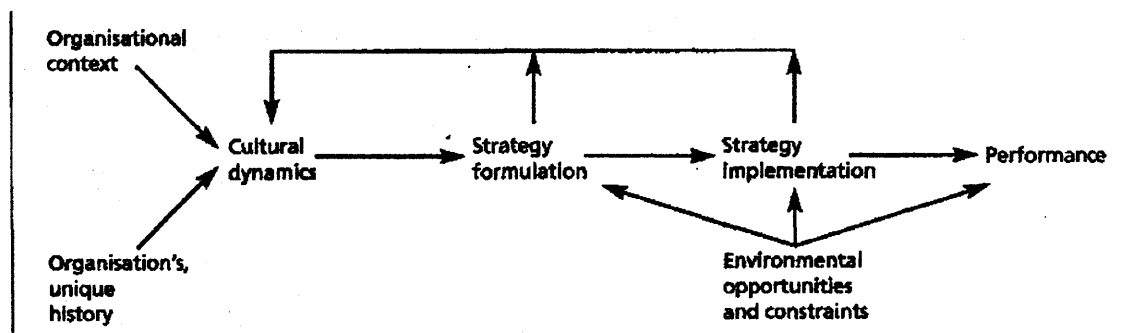
Culture as dramaturgical domination: “One of the most interesting examples of this application is Rosen’s (1985), which emphasises the manipulation of symbols and their dramatic character...the social drama transmits the notions of community, harmony, and unity. The dramaturgical -domination metaphor thus takes both symbolic and political aspects seriously...it also illuminates the complexity of rites and ceremonies, portraying them as far more than mere tools or strategies” (op cit. p.24).

2.1.3 The link between culture and performance.

Many researchers on the subject of educational management, among them Campbell and Southworth (1992), Reynolds and Reid (1988), O'Neill (1994) Brown (1995) and Bush (1995), have drawn a link between culture and performance. Organizational culture research has produced some new insights about the long-neglected, subjective or 'soft' side of organizational life. As O'Neill stated, " for some writers culture is perceived as a primary determinant of the level of organizational effectiveness " (p.103).

Figure 4 Understanding culture, strategy and performance.

Brown (1995)



The model illustrated in Figure 4 addresses how an organisation's culture is a result of the influence of its wider environment. Brown (1995) offered this model to express his conception of how the dynamics of an organisation directly affect its strategy, how it is understood, and also how it is implemented. Also in a round about way, the strategy formulation and implementation impact on the culture. Brown stresses the

significance of environmental opportunities and constraints in influencing strategy formulation and implementation, and that an organisation's performance may well depend on such influences. In relation to performance Brown indicated that effective cultures include a consultative approach to decision making, adaptability to changing circumstances, and that the leadership is valued by its stakeholders. Brown's model of understanding cultural strategy and performance highlighted for the researcher a number of key elements which will assist in the design of the research questions, such as the level of consultation and the perceptions of the leadership role taken in the department/organisation, drawn out in Key question 2.

Ouchi and Wilkins (1985), Kilman, Saxon, Sherpa et al (1985) approached the concept of organizational culture as an instrument that can be manipulated to shape the behaviour of staff, with the primary aim of achieving goals.

“ A culture has a positive impact on an organization when it points behaviour in the right direction” (Kilman et al 1985,p.28). Wilkins and Patterson (1985) support this comment when they stated that the improvement of organisational performance was increasingly seen as a way of achieving planned cultural change. According to Smirich (1983) the positive functions fulfilled by culture include providing: a sense of identity to members of the organisation; facilitating commitment to a larger whole; enhancing system stability; and motivating employees to do the 'right' things. As Smircich indicated, “The question is how to mould and shape internal culture in particular ways and how to change culture consistent with managerial purposes” (p.13). In this respect culture is viewed as a means of control to improve management. Alvesson (1993) made the important point that, “Ideas about causality are crucial

here; culture change is expected to have recognisable effects on important outputs such as loyalty, productivity, and perceived quality of service” (p.14).

According to Wilkins and Patterson (1985), the ideal culture, “...is characterised by a clear assumption of equity”, stressing the need for a collective competence and a dominant culture to ensure that the organisation is able to adapt to internal and external situations when necessary.

One of the greatest barriers to change in an organisation is the culture or climate of the organisation- a mixture of norms, values, customary practices and management styles. Wilkins and Dyer (1987) approached the concept of dealing with culture and performance by asking a few key questions which are implicitly or explicitly stated. What should organisational culture look like if it is to support the organisation’s strategy? What does current organisational culture look like, and what are the gaps between this and the culture needed? What plan of action should be followed to close the gaps? Wilkins and Dyer provided key questions which are related to the main purpose of the research and support the pursuit of the question, ‘what does organisational culture look like in the new university environment’? This question is echoed through Key question 3.

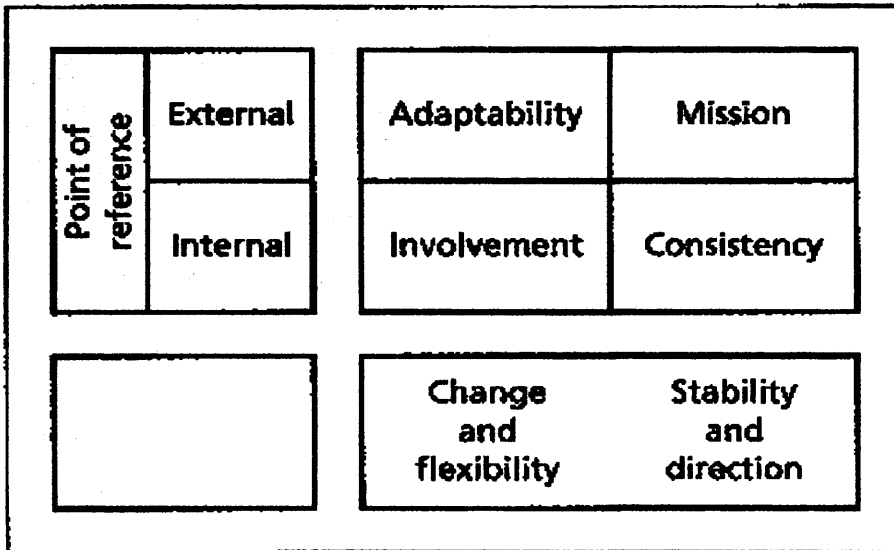
The successful link between strong cultures and effective performance can be viewed in part by the way in which change is managed within an organisation. Leavitt (1964) believed that a deliberate attempt to manage organisation change required a theory to guide it. Leavitt identified four key variables, which he stated were open for manipulation and control, and thus provided the key for the manager. The four

variables were identified as structure, task, people and technology. Change within any one of the variables would create change within the others as they are viewed as being highly interdependent. Leavitt's formulation provided a useful identification of factors, which suggest starting points to achieve organisational change. In this respect the variables identified by Leavitt have been utilised within the research questions as seen in question 12 of the interview schedule. This enables the researcher to identify the relationship between the four variables, as each institution changed from being a polytechnic to a new university.

Studies of cultural change often neglect those aspects of change which are not directly relevant from a strategic point of view. Change may be viewed through managerial lenses, providing a selective and one-sided perspective, which can be misleading and dangerous. It has often been assumed that the strength of an organization's culture is directly correlated with its level of success. There is a general consensus that, "cultural phenomena have far reaching effects on organizational effectiveness and individual satisfaction" Schein (1985). Although this seems to be a well supported notion, the link between culture and performance is still an ambiguous area to measure. As Skoldberg (1990), and Siehl and Martin (1990) stated, culture is difficult to capture and performance is difficult to measure.

Figure 5 Culture and effectiveness model

Denison (1990)



Denison (1990) took an ‘academic’ approach to developing an explanatory framework for cultural effectiveness, as seen in Figure 5. The figure identifies the main points, which he considered to be primary concerns (hypotheses), those being adaptability, involvement, mission, consistency and their relationship to the internal and external environment. Denison also includes the factors of, ‘change and flexibility’ and ‘stability and direction’ as vital for effectiveness. “For Denison, an effective organisational culture must provide all the elements covered by the four hypotheses” (Brown 1995,p.190).

The influence of internal and external factors cannot be underestimated in the development of cultures, creating high and low performance. This is particularly significant within the context of this research as the internal and external elements

associated with the new university sector are numerous, and support the purpose of the research in aiming to identify the factors which influence culture and structure in the new universities.

The discussion of how universities are best managed has been an agenda for many researchers including Becher and Kogan (1992) and Middlehurst (1993). The quest to discover how universities can best be managed to engender a positive link between culture and performance is still ongoing. Miller (1994) presented an interesting range of management models for universities, including: 'organised anarchy', 'garbage can', 'loose-coupled', 'bureaucracy', 'rational', 'collegiality', 'political systems', 'interactionist', 'the liberal university', 'the research university', 'the multiuniversity', 'the people's university', 'complete mess up'.

Universities are a 'differentiated system' (Salter and Tapper 1994), with an ad-hoc approach to management, leaping through the increasingly complex hoops created from external pressures. Universities are increasingly viewed as not being in control of their values and purposes. In this respect Tapper and Slater commented that, "Surely the most profound criticism of the universities has been their failure to create their own vision of the future?" (p.18). The following questions occur in the debate regarding the purpose of the new university sector. Is it teaching or research? Quantity or quality? Modularity or linear? Tapper and Slater made clear some perceptions of the university sector in that they are not always in control of their values and purpose. The current research aims to identify staffs' perceptions on these issues.

Dobson and McNay (1996) quoted from Warren (1994), who called for a new look at university managerialism, as follows:

“When the polytechnic was made into a new university they started to dismantle the key elements of collegiality which are the main source of their stability and vitality” (p.19).

As a consequence, the new universities are starting to exhibit the traits of bureaucratic anomic life: increased conflict, staff dissatisfaction and alienation. Previous research in the field of the new universities indicated that Dobson and McNay were describing some aspects of culture change perceived by staff in the sector. This research aims to establish if these statements are supported.

O’Neill (1994) presented four benefits for educational management resulting from cultural analysis. They are listed as follows:

- Offers indicators of the match between internal and external organisational values;
- Leads to an understanding of how things are done in a particular institution;
- Facilitates the identity of individual and organisational activities, which are in conflict with the desired organisational culture;
- Suggests areas open to organisational values.

2.2 Structure

2.2.1 Organisational Structure and Culture

According to O'Neill (1994), the analysis of organisational structures allows for a focus on the visible and tangible features, which impact on educational organisations. In contrast, cultural analysis examines the more intangible elements. Anthony (1994), stated that the relationship between culture and structure is so close that they can merge into one, and "...the means recommended for cultural change often take structural form" (p.98). In accordance with O'Neill, the key research questions of the present study aim to identify the visible and tangible features of structure within the new university environment, in an attempt to identify the influence of structure on culture.

Structures in educational organisations are identified as those factors which respond to pressures internally and externally, with established policies and goals. Structures express the formal relationships in an organisation with an explicit pattern of authority. Alongside the formal relationships are the informal, expressed through individual and group interaction.

The human relations approach to organisational management emerged in the 1920's with Roethlisberger, Dickson and Mayo (1949) and the production of the Hawthorne study. The study looked at variables which affected the output levels of staff. These variables consisted of factors such as the physical aspect of the work environment, the amount of 'rest' periods in the day and the use of group bonus schemes. Although the report generated a large amount of criticism, it did highlight a useful observation

concerning the development of a social organisation which was not planned by management, but controlled by the workers. "These processes have come to be referred to as 'informal organization', occurring 'within' formal organization." (Hosking, 1991, p.187). An additional theme to emerge from the study was the existence of a 'social need'. The recognition of this need was, according to Hosking an opportunity for management to approach organisation with a new strategy. "Needs were taken to be what explained the direction and intensity of workers' behaviour" (p.189). The study identified an organisation's need to integrate both organisational and social needs. Hosking summarized by stating that organisations were still viewed as "systems, more or less open to their environment" (p.191).

O'Neill (1994), stated that organisational structures are complex as they attempt to effectively and efficiently develop and deliver educational needs. According to Gray (1988), Fullan (1992) Stewart (1970), and Paisey (1981), structures in organisations were viewed as a means of "promoting and facilitating organizational effectiveness" (O'Neill 1994). Within the scope of this research, questions regarding organisational structures focused on internal practice and perceptions of structures, and also the ways in which the management structures were perceived to respond to external demands. According to O'Neill, "Effective management structures...are not permanent but subject to change and development " (p.109).

O'Neill (1994) and Anthony (1994) made the comment, that there are benefits which exist between a positive relationship of structure and culture.

In addition to this O'Neill identified four elements of organisational activities and structure, as follows:

- **Purpose:** referring to the interpretation of the organisation's purposes by the individuals who work in the organisation;
- **Symbolism:** the implicit messages i.e. management structures and ceremonies;
- **Networks:** professional and social interaction and communication;
- **Integration:** different groups brought together to share in a unified organisational culture.

The organisational activities described by O'Neill provide useful elements for the interpretation of comments gained from the research questions.

Bush (1995) described structure as two distinct features evident in an organisation. Firstly, an individual's role is established and secondly, the committees and meetings of an organisation are decided upon. O'Neill (1994) believed that the relationship between organisational structure and culture was of great importance in the field of educational management.

McNay (1994) developed a model describing four organisational types based on Weick's (1976) concept of 'loosely coupled systems' which he developed as a result of studying education organizations. The collegial academy is seen as the ideal of the past 'golden age', where academics worked in the same place, but independently and autonomously. "The defence of autonomy...has meant that poor work has gone unregulated. Similarly, courses may have lacked coherence, continuity, consistency and quality because of the philosophy. In the then polytechnics and colleges, CNAA put a stop to that, and encouraged a professionalism in teaching" (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.26).

Weick characterised a loosely coupled system as one of, 'a relative lack of co-ordination, a relative absence of regulations; little linkage between the concerns of senior staff as managers and those involved in the key processes of teaching and learning; a lack of congruence between structure and activity; differences in methods, aims and even missions among different departments, little lateral interdependence among departments, infrequent inspection, and the 'invisibility' of much that happens' (p.105). McNay identified from these, four cultures in universities, 'Collegial, Bureaucracy, Corporation and Enterprise'. McNay stated that, "all can be justified: what is crucial is the appropriateness of the 'fit' with the circumstances" (p.106).

"The bureaucracy of maximum aggregate student numbers (MASNs) and the perceived standardisation pressures from quality assessment processes and the research assessment exercise keep a major pressure on universities still in the corporate bureaucracy culture" (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.28).

They stated that, "The collegiate university still commands wide and powerful affections and interests. But the world is now more competitive and more threatening. The prestige of academic people in the eyes of both the politician and the populace has plummeted...The outlook for British higher education is bleak" (Dobson and McNay, 1996,p.29).

Within the corporation sector the working group replaces the committee. "The remaining committees are rationalised, slimmed down and dominated by the senior

management” (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.27). This is seen as positional power where the money is directed to promote conformity and corporate objectives.

Within the enterprise culture the market is kept at the fore with the tasks of the university being re-emphasised. “It relies on a clear mission statement with established priorities and plans that link policy to practice; this is often missing or ill managed” (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.27). “This is a completely different discourse from any that the universities have been accustomed to. It is one that is increasingly necessary as the state moves from its corporate bureaucracy to a corporate enterprise culture and expects universities to follow” (op cit,p.28).

McNay presented the idea that all four cultures ‘co- exist’ in most universities, (as seen in figure 6) with the balance depending upon factors such as, ‘traditions, missions, leadership style and external pressures’ (p.106). McNay implied that a clockwise movement was normal in the universities moving from A to D. McNay’s model has been adopted for this research as it linked with the purpose of the research. The aim will be to identify the cultural and structural changes within the organisations as they developed from polytechnic to university status.

Figure 6 Models of Universities as Organizations. McNay 1994.

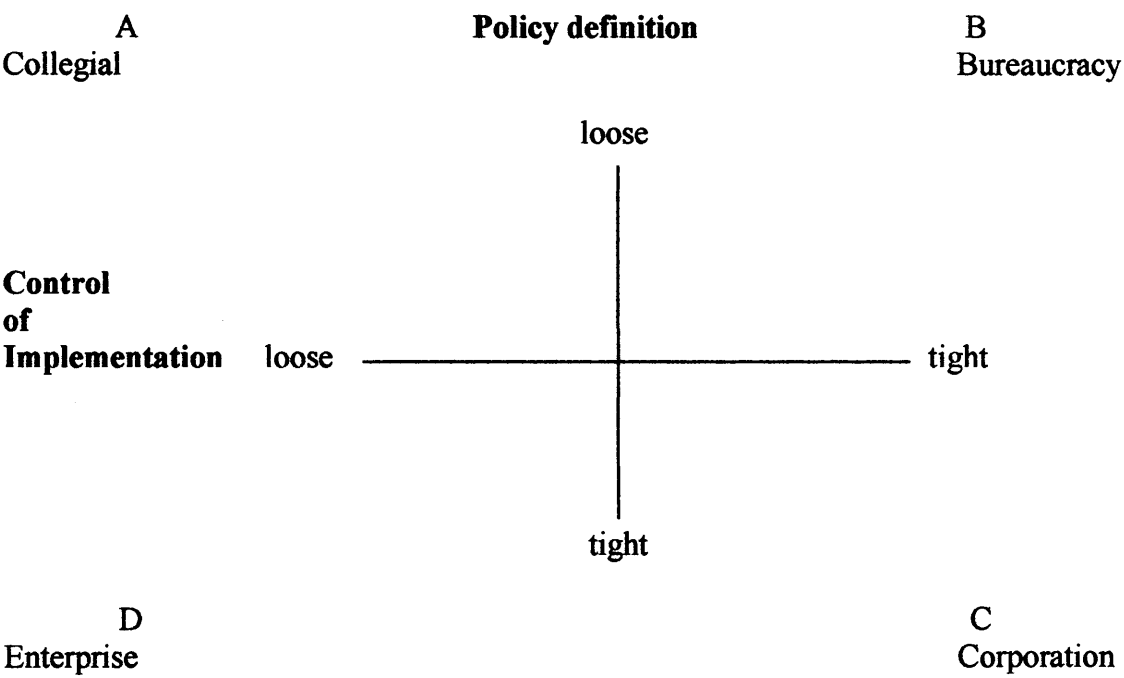


Table 3 Mc Nay (1994) summarised four university models as follows:

Factor	Collegium	Bureaucracy	Corporation	Enterprise
Dominant Value (Clark 1983)	Freedom	Equity	Loyalty	Competence
Role of central authorities	permissive	regulatory	Directive	supportive
Handy's Organizational culture	person	role	Power	task
Dominant unit	department/individual	faculty/committees	institution/senior management team	sub-unit/project teams
Management style	consensual	formal/rational	political/tactical	devolved leadership
Timeframe	long	cyclic	short/mid-term	instant
Environmental 'fit'	evolution	stability	Crisis	turbulence
Nature of Change	organic innovation	reactive adaptation	proactive transformation	tactical flexibility
External referents	invisible college	regulatory bodies	policymakers as opinion leaders	clients/sponsors
Internal referents	the discipline	the rules	the plans	market/strength /students
Basis for evaluation	peer assessment	audit of procedures, e.g. IS9001	performance indicators	repeat business
Student status	apprentice academic	statistic	unit of resource	customer
Administrator roles: Servant of...	the community	the committee	the chief executive	the client, internal and external

McNay surveyed 25 staff in a 'new' university to identify how the academic staff surveyed perceived the shift in culture in their organisation since 1989. He found a shift from collegium, which was dominant in 1989, to corporation in 1994, and a forecast of corporation being dominant by 1999. (A similar pattern is supported by the research reported in this thesis).

Leaders in the academic world should have a sensitivity to the cultural particularity of higher education according to Livingstone (1974), who touched upon this as a result of a consultancy conducted at Warwick University. This report stated: “There is no known case in the history of organizations where bureaucratically organised institutions, for that is what Tyzack [the university consultants], and those others who urge universities to be more ‘business’ like imply, have been successful in discovering new knowledge” (Dobson and McNay, 1996, p.30).

Although collegiality may not be viewed as creating efficiencies, it may be viewed, according to Dobson and McNay as creating the potential of a “good university rather than rampant managerialism” (Dobson and McNay, 1996,p.30). Clearly role change has occurred for the managers in the university sector as they have become more generalist and extended the scope of their skills to manage a new environment of increased external pressures.

Glenn (1996) made the point that looking at variables such as size and technology in an organisation only offers limited answers to understanding organisational culture and structure. According to Glenn, ‘organizational theory of the 20th century has focused predominantly on macro and systems aspects of organisational design’ (P.37).

Glenn proposed that a new look at organisational theory is required, where the organisation should be approached as a collection of individual work roles interacting, the roles comprising skill, experience and temperament factors. Carnall (1990) identified a number of the points made by Glenn, in stating that, ‘Too much concentration on the management structure itself can be misleading. Managers are

often designing and redesigning the management structure'(p.20).Carnall reinforced five sets of dilemmas of organisations as follows:

- 1) Centralization Vs Decentralization
- 2) Efficiency Vs Effectiveness
- 3) Professional Vs Management
- 4) Control Vs Commitment
- 5) Change Vs Stability

2.2.2 Organisational Structures.

A few examples that demonstrate the diversity of perceptions and understanding regarding the nature of structure in organizations are as follows:

“The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organizations has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization” (Weber 1947).

“The danger lies in the tendency to teach the principles of administration as though they were scientific laws, when they are really little more than administrative expedients found to work well in certain circumstances but never tested in any systematic way” (Woodward 1970).

“The organization and control of bureaucracy can be designed so as to ensure that the consequential effects on behaviour are in accord with the needs of an open democratic society, and can serve to strengthen such a society” (Jaques 1976).

“If simple structure and machine bureaucracy were yesterday’s structures, and professional bureaucracy and the divisionalized form are today’s, then adhocracy is clearly tomorrow’s” (Mintzberg 1983).

Most studies on the structural characteristics of organisations start from the work of Max Weber. Weber made the first attempt to categorise systems and structures in organisations so that they might in turn be analysed. Weber’s principal studies developed around the theory of authority structures within organisations. From this he studied authority and relationships within the organisations to gain an understanding of why individuals do as they are told when they are given commands. For Weber to analyse this relationship he firstly made a distinction between ‘power’ and ‘authority’. Power he described as, “the ability to force people to obey, regardless of their resistance” (Pugh and Hickson 1989,p.5). As for authority, this was described as, “where orders are voluntarily obeyed by those receiving them” (op cit). Weber also distinguished between organisational types, “according to the way in which authority is legitimized”. The three organisational types identified by Weber were ‘charismatic’, ‘traditional’, and ‘rational-legal’, each reflecting a particular methodology of administrative practice. Charisma: is based on the personal attributes of the individual, and treated as ‘supernatural’ as a result of expressing unique characteristics. Traditional: is based on custom, and leaders gain authority status which has been ‘inherited’. In this respect Weber pointed out that many organisations justify their way of doing things based on the fact that they have always done it like that, rather than being based on any rational analysis. Rational-legal is based on the concept of bureaucratic organisational form. Weber saw this type of organisational structure as being dominant in modern society. As Pugh (1989) stated, “In common

usage, bureaucracy is synonymous with inefficiency, an emphasis on red tape, and excessive writing and recording” (p.7). However, Weber viewed the bureaucratic organisation as one which potentially offered the most effective form of organisational structure. Many researchers naturally questioned Weber’s opinion. Hosking (1991), for example suggested that, “specialization and hierarchy create a lack of commitment to ‘organizational goals’ and create disparity between ‘organizational goals’ and work group activities” (p.180).

Pugh (1976) and the Aston Group contributed to the literature on organisational theory by combining knowledge and research methods from the fields of psychology, sociology and economics. Pugh recognised that the study of organisations was complex, as its members are changing and complex, and therefore, “attitudes should be studied together as a matter of degree, not as either/or phenomena” (Pugh 1985 p.9). For this reason Pugh studied all elements affecting organisations from an institutional aspect, such as division of work, systems and hierarchies. Therefore Pugh and the Aston project aimed to link: organisational structure and functioning; group composition and interaction; and individual personality and behaviour. The research of the Aston group took place in the Birmingham area, studying 46 organisations. The formal structures of the organisations were analysed in terms of *specialization* of functions and roles, *standardization* of procedures, *formalization* of documentation, *centralization* of authority and configuration of role structure. The Aston Group’s findings provided a useful backdrop for this research, and the example will be followed of studying organizational structure, individual personality and behaviour during the case studies.

Paisey (1981) utilized the same set of variables for comparison and analysis of organizational structures in educational organizations, and Hosking (1991), used the same categories to characterise structural bureaucracy.

As a summary, the Aston group identified two primary elements of an organisation, “how far the activities of its personnel are structured and how far its decision-making authority is concentrated at the top, which between them sum up much of what an organisation is like. Know them and you know the organisation, to a large extent, for they are its two fundamentals”(Pugh 1985,p.11). As a result of the Aston group research, a taxonomy of organisational forms and structure was offered as being the most prevalent in contemporary society in Britain. These were identified as: *workflow bureaucracies*- highly structured but not highly concentrated in authority; *personnel bureaucracies*- not very structured but highly concentrated in authority; *full bureaucracies*- high structuring of work flow type and highly concentrated authority; and fourthly, *non-bureaucracies*-which are none of the above to any great extent. Interestingly, analysis of this model by Hickson and Hinings (1989) suggested that these basic relationships would hold anywhere irrespective of differences in cultures, and so they proposed this as a “culture-free hypothesis”. The taxonomy of organisational forms and structure offered by the Aston Group will be utilised in the current research to describe the character of the organisation’s structure.

In addition to Chandler (1985) and Pugh (1977), other views regarding organisational structure are offered by Woodward (1970) and Jaques (1976). “Woodward argued that the production of technology is the major determinant of the structure of manufacturing firms...Elliot Jaques has examined the psychological nature of the

authority relationships in bureaucratic structure” (Pugh 1985,p.4). Another contributor to the field of organisational theory is Mintzberg (1983), who investigated the elements of an organisation’s structure, and how they interact to achieve positive outcomes and performance. According to O’Neill (1994), “structural design should promote and facilitate organizational effectiveness” (p.109). In order to do this it is suggested by O’Neill that structures should not be permanent but flexible to be able to change according to demands. Handy (1990) suggested three radical organisational structures designed to meet changing environment. They were identified as a need for flexible staffing structures, flexible authority structures and functional structures. Although flexibility and adaptability are vital for the success of a changing organisation, Handy’s three radical organisational structures appear to be idealistic and impractical in an environment of increasing restraints.

Bolman and Deal (1984) provided a system of structural approaches to organisational management. They suggested that the main dilemma in organisational structures is the balance between *differentiation* and *integration*. Differentiation is depicted as the allocation and definition of roles, tasks and responsibilities. In contrast, integration is described as linking roles, and so promoting interdependence. The need for lateral and vertical relationships on organisational structures is endorsed by Pugh (1971), Packwood and Turner (1988), Peters and Waterman (1982) and Anthony (1994). Hosking (1991) stated that a popular debate circulated regarding ‘tall’ versus ‘flat’: the more levels in the hierarchy, the more narrow the associated span of control, and the more tall the organization”(p.194). Mintzberg (1979), Bolman and Deal (1984), Handy and Aitken (1986) and Beare et al (1989) illustrated the principal differences between organisational structures as ‘traditional’ and ‘radical’. Within a traditional

structure new activities are seen to be absorbed into the existing way of doing things.

In a radical structure, the new activities demand a rethink and a flexible response which are interpreted as ad-hoc in nature. These principal differences were exploited within the research questions within this piece of work to establish the differences between the structures of the organisations surveyed, from the time when they were polytechnics to their present status as new universities.

As educational organisations respond to the developments and changes of the Education Reform Act, they express characteristics of ‘wild’ organisations as indicated by Carlson (1975). The wild organisation encourages the organisation to respond in the manner of a business/market environment, as a way to survive.

According to O’Neill (1994) effective organisations are able to respond to internal and external demands, and are described as ‘numinous’ organisations, which exhibit three core characteristics. Firstly they attract attention as they clearly express shared values and beliefs. Secondly, they receive respect as an organisation as they are seen to respond to new demands positively, and thirdly they value the relationships they create with all stockholders.

Social systems theorists, known as ‘contingency theorists’, argued that there was not one approach that could be identified as being the ‘best-way’ to structure organisations and therefore again the bureaucracy approach was not identified as being “the most effective form” (Hosking, 1991, p.180).

2.2.3 Change in Organisations.

Diane Warwick, Chief Executive of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, described her view of the university sector at the Annual Conference of the Association of Vice-Chancellors in April 1996. Warwick stated that although Government had encouraged university expansion, the amount that the universities get paid for each student has dropped. "As student numbers have risen, the amount of money we have received to teach each of those students has fallen, dramatically and in real terms" (Warwick,1997,p.3). In the last five years she claimed it had fallen by a quarter, and between 1989 and 1999, on present forecasts, it will have fallen by one third. Staff salaries within the university sector have also worsened in comparison with other professions. As Warwick stated, "University pay-the pay of those people who have achieved these massive increases in productivity-has stagnated"(p.3). More is being done for less in terms of both physical and human resources, "We cannot maintain the quality of teaching, of staff, or of research under these conditions" (Warwick,1997,p.4).

On looking to the future Warwick stated that the universities would not be able to provide quality across the broad range of courses now available, "there will be an increased emphasis on mission, the niche in the market, the unique experience that each university can offer" (p.5). Warwick predicted that institutions would only survive if they were clear about their purpose, if they co-operated with others and also found new partners. "In the coming world, higher learning will play a more significant role than any other time in history" (Warwick, 1997,p.5).

Fineman (1991) felt that change in organisations and the extent of its manipulation, “has something to do with the very lifeblood of an organization”(p.229), and described the study of organisational change as ‘seductive’ as it may be thought of as a way of, “discovering a technique ‘that works’” (p.229). Fineman asked the questions, “How do we judge what type of change is required? And how is such change to be achieved?” There is, not surprisingly, no single solution to this question. Fineman discussed organisational change as though it was a situation to be summoned on demand, to the extent of even choosing the ‘type’ of change required. This negates the internal and external pressures experienced by staff, where change appears to be prescribed rather than chosen. The management of that change is however a matter of choice and a major leadership role for educational managers.

Fineman identified over 350 reviews of methods of achieving change and reported that, “The top down approach was their most favoured method when it came to the reorganisation of their subordinates’ work methods, a finding which also reminds us the managerial prerogative often has the first, and last, say in the change process” (Fineman,1991,p.232). The human needs and human resource perspective on organizational management argues for a ‘humanizing’ of structures. Writers such as Maslow (1943), McGregor (1960) and Herzberg (1966), suggested that people should have the opportunity to grow ‘psychologically’ at work by ‘self-actualizing’... by experiencing ‘self control’ ‘responsibility’ and ‘autonomy’. Fineman (1991) stated that, “The more psychologically healthy the individual, the more healthy the organization, runs the argument.” Individual roles and commitment to the values and mission of their organisation are implicitly related to the levels of motivation experienced by staff. “In HRP the manager is concerned with motivating people”

(Bramham,1989,p.141). Holden (1997) elaborated that theory on HRM and employee involvement viewed, “people as the most valuable resource of an organisation and that training and developing them, adequately rewarding their performance and involving them in organisational policy making, particularly at customer interface level, could only enhance employee motivation and thus performance” (p.612). This demonstrates how central motivation is in managing change within an organisation and is dealt with more fully in chapter 2 section 2.5.

2.3. Funding Issues

2.3.1 Introduction

As funding issues, quality issues and the demand for an increased research active environment are recognised as being vital for the success of the new universities, it is important to have an understanding of their implications. As the purpose of the research is to understand the influence of structure on culture in the new universities, and to better understand the factors which have impacted on organisational culture, a review of funding issues, quality issues and research issues are paramount. Previous unpublished investigations conducted by the researcher indicated that these were regular occurring themes, which create anxiety for staff working in the new university environment. The impact of funding changes has altered significantly the organisational structure and culture of the new universities. Values and beliefs about the focus and mission of the organisations have taken on different characteristics, moving from a teaching focus to a research focus, an income generating environment and increasing quality control procedures (Bell(1990), Tysome(1997), Jobbins(1997), Colling(1997), Harvey(1997)).

Funding is a practical, external and dominating factor relating to the survival of Higher Education. Methods of funding the new university sector have altered significantly since 1992 with the introduction of HEQC, HEFCE and its consequential funding systems. The RAE is one fundamental element that has dominated research, teaching and recruitment activities. In turn the structure and culture of Higher Education has moulded itself to align with the attainment requirements expected for a successful research grade and consequent funding.

2.3.2 Higher Education Quality Council

The HEQC was established in May 1992 as a company limited by guarantee. It is funded by subscriptions from individual universities and colleges of higher education. The role of HEQC was stated as providing services for all universities and colleges of higher education comprising:

- quality assurance, including the regular auditing of the ways in which institutions discharge their responsibilities for standards and quality;
- quality enhancement, including the dissemination of good practice;
- acting as a national voice on quality issues in higher education.

The quality assurance group (QAG) is responsible for scrutinising institutions' quality assurance mechanisms. It undertakes regular audits of the processes by which institutions control the quality of the academic programmes which they deliver themselves as well as those which they validate as associated institutions. The group is also responsible for developing systems for assuring the quality of portable credits in credit accumulation and transfer schemes.

The Quality Enhancement Group (QEG) supports the maintenance and enhancement of quality in higher education institutions by undertaking activities, which include (as outlined in the HEQC publication May 1995):

- collating, evaluating and publishing information on quality assurance and its practice including that derived from quality audit and related activities;
- undertaking and commissioning projects, reports, conferences and workshops;
- networking with institutional staff engaged in the development of quality, including work in the areas of credit and access;
- working with individual institutions where the outcomes have potential for generalisation;
- collaborating with other organisations committed to the advancement of quality and standards;
- contributing, both nationally and internationally, to the development of policy on quality in higher education.

According to Dr Clive Booth, Chair of the Steering Group of the Higher Education Quality Council (1994), the following describes the Council's mission:

“The mission of the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) is to contribute to the maintenance and improvement of quality, at all levels, in institutions of Higher Education in the United Kingdom”.

Government White Papers, 'Education and training for the 21st century', and 'Higher Education: a new framework', led to the Further and Higher Education Act 1992 which provided for the granting to polytechnics of university status and the demise of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). This context had an impact upon and implications for the development of guidance and counselling in Higher Education. One of the early questions for the HEQC was, “Whether the universities and other higher education institutions were so different that it was inadvisable to

regard the sector as one. Could it be said that higher education as a whole was undergoing the same kind of change? There was significant national debate on these matters” (HEQC,1994.p.10).

Bell (1990) stated that, “The nature of higher education is changing. Its essence is being redefined. The old certainties are being questioned. We are no longer sure what it is” (p.11).

Higher Education institutions indicated a number of areas in which they considered future developments were necessary:

- More resources for financial counselling;
- Extra guidance and counselling staff;
- Staff development about work experience for all undergraduate courses;
- Student self-help groups on different sites; development of guidance within a completely modularised structure;
- Evaluation of various aspects of guidance and counselling.

2.3.3 Guidance and counselling

Six institutions were involved from the UK in a HEQC study of guidance and counselling in Higher Education. According to the findings published in HEQC: Guidance and Counselling (1994), staff in HE perceived that the changes in HE were serving to reduce the level of guidance and counselling available to students. The growing number of students was not being matched by additional resources for guidance. Worsening staff/student ratios meant less informal staff contact time. Both

part-time and overseas student numbers were also increasing, and little additional guidance was being provided for them. The full guidance implications of the credit accumulation transfer system (CATS) and modularization had not yet been worked out and evaluated and yet developments were moving rapidly ahead. HE staff in general felt that they were being squeezed on a number of fronts at the same time and were experiencing low morale.

“Managers at both strategic and operational levels have had to find ways of coping with change, and with accountability through balancing the demands of teaching, research and student learning; through establishing new ways to evaluate and reward performance; by developing new structures and systems for decision taking and quality assurance; and by trying to foster innovation and change in professional practice.” (HEQC,1995,p.1)

Case studies carried out by HEQC revealed a variety of strategies used by academic managers to resolve problems and to address issues relating to ‘managing for quality’. In many instances, a major part of the management task has clearly been to effect either incremental or more radical changes in academic structure, systems and practices... Universities are often, it seems, attempting to achieve a balance between academic professionalism and the need to enhance corporate interests.” (HEQC,1995,p.155)

On looking at the stages in managing change the HEQC stated that, “Useful management strategies at the preparatory stage include: identifying and interpreting the range of perceptions and emotions about to change (both specific to change in question and generally about the idea of change); identifying sources and causes of

resistance, analysing potential gains and losses, and potential winners and losers; offering explanations and a rationale for change to individuals and groups (in educational, personal and professional terms as well as in economic and managerial terms);and providing texts, data or other stimuli which support the case for change(for example, comparative statistics, circulation of individual research plans or research plans or research outcomes, graduate or employer feedback, external examiners reports, external conferences)” (HEQC,1995,p.156).

On looking at frameworks and structure the HEQC stated that, “ In many cases, change will involve creating new structures, for example, a working party or task force, a new committee, or a new post” (HEQC, 1995,p.157).

HEQC addressed issues in managing change, and offered the following guidelines:

- Don't try to change too much at once;
- The knock -on effects of change need follow through;
- Create a balance between structure and discretion in shaping change;
- Change involves cycles of activity: debate, information, acknowledgement of issues, experimentation, report back, debate...;
- More communication, discussion and explanation (both individually and collectively) is needed in changing than in static situations;
- Beware of cosmetic and surface changes said to represent a fundamental shift, the 'old wine in new bottles' syndrome is all too common...;
- Separate analysis of issues from decisions; use quantitative and qualitative data for analysis, and debate and discussion to reach decisions;
- People change by being led, not by being told.

In a HEQC report published in April 1997, academics were told that the qualifications system in higher education needed to be redefined and updated.

“Quality chiefs want universities and colleges to work towards a common framework for the qualifications they award” (Tysome, 1997, p.2). The HEQC stated that it would be easier to make a comparison of standards if a common system for qualifications were used. Regulating standards is a complicated issue as it is recognised that over 90 per cent of institutions have modular courses, and credit accumulation and transfer systems. As Tysome (op cit) stated, “The report admits a move to define new common rules might be seen as ‘a direct infringement of institutional autonomy’” (p.2). The report also indicated that variations could be ironed out in the six key areas: qualifications, assessment, credit accumulation and transfer, curriculum, quality management and the definition of levels at which modules are taught or assessed. Sir Ron Dearing’s committee has also considered an expansion and strengthening of external examiner systems. As indicated by Tysome (1997), “such a move would involve more academics in reaching agreement on how acceptable standards are defined in each subject area” (p.2).

Although the guidelines offered by the HEQC are practical recommendations, they were published between 1995-7, and have the benefit of a retrospective view.

Managers in the new universities have been trying to manage change brought about by this new environment and its demands since 1992. The increase in student numbers and the diversity of curriculum delivery has altered dramatically the way in which students and courses are managed. This has been a bitter pill for many staff to swallow (as indicated in the interviews) with the apparently limited involvement in

decision making. It would not be surprising to find that the consequences have created a disharmony between the organisation's values and beliefs, and those held by staff, as investigated through key questions 2-4.

Jobbins (1997) reported the results of a survey conducted for the Times Higher Education Supplement by ICM of five hundred lecturers across the country. This revealed that up to 69 per cent of lecturers believed that, "the rise in student numbers is leading to lowered education standards." (p.1) This attitude was most strongly held by University lecturers (72 per cent), particularly in engineering departments (85 per cent). The survey also revealed that lecturers on the whole felt that expansion in universities had gone far enough, with over half (59 per cent) thinking that it should not expand any further, against one third (34 per cent) who believed it should still continue. The survey indicated a clear lack of support for the Conservative party, but a vote of confidence for the Labour party with 64 per cent who planned to vote Labour in the following General Election on May 1st 1997.

As John Randall has been appointed the new chief executive of the Quality Assurance Agency, there are immediate pressures to put the institutions' learning targets to the test. The IIEFCE wanted the agency to seek, through legislation, the right to check whether objectives which universities and colleges set themselves are 'appropriate'. Peter Milton, IIEFCE's director of quality assessment said, "such a move would encourage institutions to be clearer about standards and what students should be expected to know and do after completing a course" (Baty, Tysome and Swain, 1997, p.2). Randall stated that the QAA would be looking at monitoring standards, and that it would be high on the agency agenda. As a new agency that was

designed to take over the business and services of the HEQC and the HEFCE quality assessment division, it began work in April 1997 with a budget of ten million pounds. The Quality Assurance Agency would, “Take over subscription arrangements between institutions and the HEQC, and enter into contracts with funding councils” (Baty, Tysome and Swain, 1997, p.2).

The new agency (QAA) will deal with the definition of quality and standards in higher education. As Colling (1997) stated, “Looking at the status of teaching and learning in relation to research would be a good place to start” (p.13). The principal goal of universities according to Colling, is to promote student learning, “yet research interests still predominate, in many cases to the detriment of students’ learning needs; primarily because research brings status, funding and enormous respect in the academic world. Teaching by comparison, attracts at best a symbolic pat on the back.” (p.13). Colling (1997) discussed the concept of equity of opportunity, as the key to parity of esteem within subject areas. “That equity means publicly rewarding scholarly enquiry into teaching and learning processes and practices,” In other words elevating the status of academics who choose to excel in the areas of teaching, learning and assessment. Colling recommended that there needed to be further debate about, “the aims and purposes of teaching, learning and assessment and research in higher education, and some clearer definitions of what is meant by quality and standards in those areas” (p.13).

Harvey (1997) supported Colling in stating that, “Teaching is not highly valued in our society, but if academe shows little respect for it, and fails to demonstrate and support the highest levels of skills, this situation is hardly likely to improve” (p.13). McNay

(1997) also reported on this issue, and stated that, “departments that scored excellently in teaching assessments were not rewarded as much as those which did well in the RAE” (Hinde,1997,p.5).

Hart (1997) commented on the increase of concern regarding the ‘quality of qualifications’ with an unprecedented level of new qualifications escaping scrutiny. There is indeed much to fuel the HEFCE and the Department of Education and Employment’s claim that the “handling of standards is now a number one issue” (Hart,p.12). Hart explained that the responses to the qualifications quality issues have taken two forms. The first is to write a ‘code of practice’, and the second involves creating ‘frameworks’. The latest suggestion revolves around the concept of establishing ‘principles to which all qualifications should conform’. Hart stated that, “The advent of the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority offers an opportunity to put fundamental elements of quality in place across all levels of qualifications” (p.12). Hart discussed the concerns of the quality of qualifications gained through a modular process, as there were fears that the qualification gained is not as good as one taken through a traditional approach. An example given by Hart is that of the Modular A level maths which is seen now as being unsuitable for students intending to take maths or engineering at university level.

As Hart stated, “It is incredible that the one area in which a British Standard does not exist is in the fields of educational qualifications” (p.12). He recommended that, “The establishment of a single qualification authority offers a rare opportunity to define the core quality parameters to which all qualifications approved under the various procedures operated by the DFEE and its satellites should subscribe” (p.12).

2.3.4 Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE)

It was revealed in the Times Higher Education Supplement (1997, No. 1271, p. 2) that funding chiefs of the HEFCE were to raise their regional profile after a survey showed university managers wanted more face to face contact. Respondents who included deans and heads of department from 16 institutions wanted more collaboration. The survey which was carried out by the Office for Public Management found that a quarter of the respondents criticised HEFCE's effectiveness in quality assessment, policy development and consultation. "Most wanted the council to act more as a partner or advocate for the sector and less as an agency of Government" (p. 2). Muckersie (1996) explained that there was much confusion for managers in the new universities regarding the role of the HEFCE, and more so for staff who felt threatened by the new financial implications. It is not unreasonable to see that the lack of communication and understanding regarding the HEFCE could diminish staff's ability to feel in control of their situations resulting in feelings of anger, disillusionment and isolation. The consequences of change in the organisations have been drawn out by Key questions 2 and 3.

2.3.5 Research Assessment Exercise

The 1996 Research Assessment Exercise was the fourth in a series aimed at providing the funding councils with the data necessary to fund research selectively. The first two, in 1986 and 1989, were confined to the old university sector and were conducted by the University Grants Committee (UGC) and the Universities Funding Council (UFC). The 1992 and 1996 exercises, conducted by the Higher Education Funding

Council for England (HEFCE) on behalf of all the UK funding bodies, have incorporated the former polytechnics and colleges of higher education which are now within the university sector. The 1996 exercise was the largest of its kind, with 191 institutions making submissions covering 2,892 units (a unit being a discipline) of assessment. The work of around 55,000 researchers employed in British academic institutions was assessed on a peer-review basis by 59 panels of experts, covering 69 subject areas.

The ratings were shown on a seven-point scale as follows:

- 5* showed that the research assessed was of international excellence in a majority of the sub-areas within the submitting department, and at least national excellence in all others.
- 5 showed international excellence in some sub-areas and national excellence in virtually all others.
- 4 showed national excellence in virtually all sub-areas.
- 3A showed national excellence in a substantial majority of sub- areas.
- 3B showed national excellence in a majority of sub-areas.
- 2 showed national excellence in up to half of the sub-areas.
- 1 showed national excellence in no, or virtually no, sub-areas.

As Muckersie (1996) stated, “The institution’s performance in the RAE is increasingly the key to the strategies of many universities. In the ‘consolidation’ climate of the mid-1990s, it is perceived as a threat by the old and new universities, highly research active institutions, and those that place a heavier emphasis in their missions on teaching”(p.12).

“The funding councils are still seen as the major customers and still operate as controllers or steerers, despite denials.” (Dobson and McNay 1996,p.28)

As a consequence many research active institutions had experienced ‘grade drift’ which has threatened their funding, “irrespective of their own level of performance.” (Muckersie 1996,p.12)

The traditional research universities were concerned that funding would be biased towards teaching activities, whilst the other universities were anxious that the majority of funding would be funnelled into research based activities.

“The RAE was one of a range of measures introduced to address these concerns and to bring ‘transparency’ into the way universities were operated and funded. These included the Jarratt Report (1985), which was concerned with the way universities were governed, planned and managed; the launching of a debate on academic standards and mechanisms for assuring quality (The Reynolds Report of 1986); and an introduction of formula-based funding by the UGC (1986). The means by which the RAE was incorporated into the UGC formula was intended to demonstrate that public money was being channelled only into basic research of the highest quality” (Muckersie 1996,p.13).

As Muckersie (1996) pointed out, the realities for a department’s survival could depend on the difference of one grade, as a difference in funding could be, “as large as 1.5 million pounds over four years” (Muckersie 1996,p.12).

“Surviving the RAE as an institution has indeed meant being alive to, and where possible influencing or anticipating, these changes in strategy at the national level and

adapting institutional policy to maximise achievement under the Exercise. RAE performance has had a major direct and indirect impact on an institution's HEFCE funding" (Muckersie 1996,p.15).

"For many vice-chancellors, the RAE has increased the importance of developing a central policy for research; for every university it has meant much greater selectivity in the use of resources. Across the sector there has been an increase in the staff involved in research support and management- working in research offices and co-ordinating the research effort are now commonplace"(Muckersie 1996,p.15).

Those institutions wishing to improve their performance in the RAE may develop short term and medium term policies in some of the following areas as indicated by Muckersie (1996,p.15):

- Financial and academic planning: calculating the financial benefit that might be obtained by improving a department's grade under various scenarios;
- Personnel policies: develop a strategy for 'research inactive' staff;
- Academic policies: the creation of clear publication strategies for departments, based on an understanding of which outlets were seen as being the most attractive by the relevant panel.

Despite the consequences of the RAE as explained by Muckersie (1996),Thomson (1997) stated that the Times Higher Education Supplement revealed the value of the research assessment exercise as being in doubt. A survey conducted by the AUT revealed that, "Almost a quarter of lecturers no longer believe that an active research interest is essential to be a good university teacher" (p.52).

The survey also revealed that two out of every five lecturers wished that they had chosen a non-university career! It was also stated by Thomson (op cit) that, "Seventy-one percent agreed that promotion was too dependent on published work and too little on devotion to teaching. The union says this may reflect the pressures of the research assessment exercise" (p.52). The pressure felt by staff to contribute to the RAE is very real as supported by the comments of Muckersie (1996) and Thomson (1997), in that the need to publish work appeared to be over riding teaching commitments, creating clashes in values.

Swain (1997) stated that the universities that had achieved high grades in the 1996 RAE would be, "plundered to pay for the less successful in a funding round aimed at fending off cash crises in individual institutions" (p.1). Funds drawn from the most improved institutions along with HEFCE funding would create a cushion of seven million pounds of extra help for the poor performers identified in the 1996 RAE round. Top graded universities had been funded at a 20 per cent premium, which left less money for the lower grade institutions. The council had also introduced changes to the allocation of funding between different subjects according to their different costs. "These two factors mean that even institutions which have performed as well as they did last year could see their overall grant drop" (Swain,1997,p.1). Swain also stated that new policy was to be considered regarding research weighting, which could mean, " more money for research considered worthwhile for Britain and less money for subjects stronger in teaching". In a move to create stability for the following years funding the HEFCE introduced a new sliding scale of 'moderating' funding so that overall changes in grants are not too severe for any institution. As for teaching, there was 2,380 million pounds allocated for teaching, and a further 34

million would be available as non-consolidated core funds. Some of the money would be targeted towards parts of the country with low provision and places on high quality science and engineering courses.

Changes in the research ratings and the volume of staff identified in the 1996 RAE, combined with new ways of calculating money available for each subject, resulted in institutions seeing radical differences in the element of their funding allocation. Of the 704 million allocated for research in 1997/98, 684 million was to be distributed according to quality (QR). This was done according to grades achieved in 1996, the number of eligible staff and the weighting given to different subjects according to their cost band. In previous years, research funding had included an element of development research (DevR) given to institutions formerly in the polytechnic sector. This was now included in non-formula funding.

Total non-formula funding for 1997/98 was 36 million pounds, including 16 million which would previously have been allocated under DevR. This money was to be used to promote collaborative projects only, as the aim was to assist departments to improve their own research by collaborating with well-established departments.

Vice Chancellors from the 94 group of research-led universities complained to the HEFCE regarding the research funding methodology and the creation of an “unassailable super-elite”. (Baty, 1997, p.1) Baty explained the HEFCE’s decision to give more money to the departments that gained the ‘new top five star grade’. Professor Conway, vice chancellor of the University of Sussex, stated that he believed that the universities had been misled, “ we were led to believe that it was to

be simply an accolade with no funding implications.”(op cit). In reality the HEFCE awarded a premium of 20 per cent for 5-star departments. Vice Chancellors Ron Cook from York University and Peter Butterworth of Surrey University also supported the concern that ‘starred’ departments received more money. As Cook stated, “HEFCE moved the goal-posts in retrospect and that is a concern” (p.3)

McNay (1997) believed that the RAE needed changing but not replacing, and provided the following suggestions for improvement:

- The RAE needs to relate to other quality assurance activities, particularly of teaching;
- The difference between the RAE and other research initiatives needs articulation;
- In England, more openness is needed, as last-minute changes to funding undermines planning;
- There needs to be increased recognition of a wider view of research;
- Some universities need to diversify their research strategy.

The implications of the RAE for staff in the new university sector are real and demanding. Many staff in the new universities come from a background of teaching and may have had little previous contact with academic research. This is a daunting task for staff, who without adequate support could find difficulties in addition to having a substantial teaching load. McNay’s recommendations for the recognition of a wider view of research may provide staff with more flexibility in choice of projects as opposed to academic publications. This would be a useful improvement as many staff in the new university sector were traditionally drawn from technical training

backgrounds where a practical application of research could be in many cases perceived as more appropriate.

In summary, funding issues in the frame of the HEQC, HEFCE and the RAE have altered significantly the culture of the new university environments. This has been evidenced in the change of focus and priorities of organisations as they attempt to manage change and compete in an environment of increasing competition. How an organisation responds to funding issues are important in providing a description of the working culture of that organisation. It illustrates a management's ability to deal with pressures of change and how those messages are interpreted and communicated to other members of the organisation. It can be communicated positively or negatively which in turn influences staff motivation and performance.

2.4. Modularity

2.4.1 Introduction

Modularity has changed the way in which the curriculum is delivered in many sectors of education. For the new university sector it is viewed as another change to be absorbed into the new environment. It has however many implications for staff as it has changed the way in which a subject is presented and assessed. It has decreased the amount of contact time between staff and students, increased student numbers and reduced the length of programmes. It is not surprising to discover that the modular curriculum has created tension, confusion and dissatisfaction in terms of limitations with time and a perceived decreased quality output from students. This has presented a challenge for staff in the way that they work, their culture and the structure of the organisation. The management of modular implementation has also impacted on staff's acceptance and reaction to it as a major change. The way in which the introduction of a modular curriculum is managed and interpreted by staff influences the working culture and structure of an organisation.

As Robertson (1993) suggests, previously agreed values and beliefs regarding curriculum delivery and management are now hotly disputed. An organisation's response to modularity provides an insight into the culture of that organisation. Many staff interviewed in the new universities saw the introduction of modularity as a major influence in the changing culture and structure of their organisation. The history and concepts underlying the modular curriculum are drawn out within this section, as it is important to understand its influence in changing the structure of curriculum as well as exploring the positive aspirations and limitations it has to offer.

2.4.2 The Modular Curriculum

In 1972 Mrs Margaret Thatcher as Secretary of State Education and Science in the UK, presented a White Paper called 'Education: a framework for expansion' (DES 1972b). Theodossin (1986) stated that the White Paper advocated that courses should be "developed on a unit basis" (P.1). It appears (from previous interviews conducted by the researcher with new university staff) that in practice many new universities have modularised their existing linear programmes, chopping them up into modular chunks but attempting to teach the same traditional programme, in less time. The aim of the case study research has been to illuminate the factors which create and affect organisational culture in the new universities. The issues regarding the modularisation of curriculum have therefore been drawn out through Key question 1.

According to Theodossin, modular/credit courses emerged in English universities during the 1960's and 1970's, the first one being in the science faculty of the University of London in 1966. The American education system attempted to move away from the imported Oxbridge model, and developed a modular model from the 1860's onwards. The American model had been developed to deal with emerging recruitment difficulties, which was also seen as beneficial to support Thatcher's expansionist plans with their accompanying rhetoric of 'extended opportunities' and 'increased participation' in the British Education system. Modularisation in British Higher Education in the 1980's emphasised, "customisation, distance and open learning and the negotiated curriculum" (Theodossin 1986 p.3).

Harvard University in America initiated the concept of modularization as an agent for change and by 1869 they had developed the 'elective system', "replacing fixed curricula with an increasingly wide choice of courses" (p.5). Robertson (1993), supported this approach and stated that the strength of the American post-secondary system, "is rooted in the traditions of individual access to lifelong learning opportunities" (p.73).

As Theodossin (1986) stated, " The elective/credit system proponents saw it not as a curricular free- for- all, but as a means of breaking the strangle hold of the classical curriculum" (p.5).

Theodossin offered a dictionary definition of a module, which suggested three underlying concepts. 1) Measurement, 2) A part of a whole, 3) Repetition. Theodossin characterised the module as a device for curriculum accounting, and defined a module as: "A measured part (or course) of an extended learning experience leading to the attainment of a specified qualification/s, for which a designated number (and possibly sequence) of modules is required, with a group of designated/required modules known as a programme, a programme of studies, or a modular-course structure"(p.9).

Warwick (1987) stated that, " The term module...has little meaning on its own. It is the way in which such units are used that is important, and it is from the aims of those utilising them that they derive their significance"(p.1). Modules, she said, should be adaptive so that they can be used in different ways. " They are not ends in themselves, they can be adopted to suit the work in hand." (p.2) Warwick identified four ways in which modules can be used:

Table 4 Four adaptations of the use of modules: summarised from Warwick

(1987)

Traditionalists	use modules to break down content into meaningful sections.
The Progressive	Permits students to construct their own curriculum from a large number of free standing, independent modules.
The Behaviourist	Shapes the teaching process by a gradual progression through carefully-sequenced units.
Experimental Worker	Looks to modules to rescue creativity from the tyranny of the timetable

A number of initiatives indicated within the white papers (DES 1990, 1991, 1992)

were identified by Robertson (1993) as:

- The encouragement of a more diverse student cohort;
- Expand part time learning provision;
- Support for flexible academic programs, modular structures, credit based (CATS) learning systems, open learning provision and improved student guidance and information arrangements;
- The emphasis upon improved student choice, enhanced curriculum flexibility;
- Greater institutional and professional accountability.

Bell and Winnie (1993), discussing the ‘origins and philosophy of modular design’, supported Robertson’s (1993) notions, and stated that teaching and training designed on the basis of self contained units implied three theories:

Organisation Development- reforming cumbersome and inflexible systems.

Curriculum Theory- improving access and encouraging new learning styles.

Learning Theory- teaching and learning activities can be manipulated to reflect local or national circumstances. Bell and Winne stated that since the 1990s the interest in

modular development awakened, as there was a need, “to do more with less...it also provides institutions with a means to become more competitive”(p.4).

Robertson (1993), stated that the major threads running through the reforms was that of finding strategies to revise the national economic decline.

As Sieminski (1993) stated, “ Methods of delivery obviously have an impact on the kinds of learning that take place...the extent and levels of participation afforded to learners throughout the learning process inevitably has an effect on the types of expectations that they come to have themselves, and the kind of understanding and skills they develop”(p.96).

Wilmot and McLean (1994) stated that, “ From the management’s point of view, in an era of financial cuts and demand for growth, flexible learning has been seen as way of meeting the educational needs of an increased number of students with a limited budget, while simultaneously promoting the educational ideal of student learning autonomy” (p.101). There is no doubt that modularization has offered students flexibility and choice, but at what price? Is massification holding hands with mediocrity? These concerns which influence culture and structure will be explored during the course of the case study interviews, to establish staff’s perceptions of the impact of modularization.

According to Fullan (1987), the 1980’s were concerned with identifying and analysing success and effectiveness in educational settings, regarding the management of curriculum change. Fullan offered a list of criteria related to successful curriculum change as follows:

Table 5 Criteria related to successful curriculum change: summarised from

Fullan (1987)

Initiation	Clear, strong, well planned.
Implementation	Clear direction with a balance of pressure and support with INSET to maintain commitment as behaviours often change before belief.
Institutional factors	Successful innovation becomes embedded into the fabric of everyday practice and is subject to continuing INSET...to consolidate commitment.

Fullan stated that, “The process of curriculum change is complex and the search to understand it continues.”(p.149) Warwick (1987) stated that, “The aim of the first approach to modular planning is to place the individual at the centre of the educational process...it attempts to ensure that his needs are adequately met within the curriculum rather than being constrained by it” (p.10). Warwick, explained that great care is required in planning courses, so that modules can be linked to one another, “making no assumptions about what has gone before or what is to follow”(p.11). The requirement for pre-planning, direction of implementation and staff training are important in the success of curriculum change, as indicated by Fullan (1987). An additional factor however for successful curriculum change would be staff involvement and acceptance of the aims and objectives, in order to share the values and beliefs of the organisation.

Warwick (1987) claimed the contribution of the modular approach to curriculum development as:

- Short concentrated units, may well suit some subject areas better than others.
- Facilitates closer co- operation between subject areas and work of an interdisciplinary nature.
- Active co operation of all departments is required if modules work across courses.

She introduced the concept of 'Modular Transverse' whereby modules can be interpreted along a transverse scale, as seen below.

- *Subject Matter -----⇒ Student Choice
- *One unified block of material -----⇒ Curricular fragmentation
- *Coherence -----⇒ Diversity

The Oxford Polytechnic Modular scheme, which was the first in advanced Higher Education, was studied by Watson (1989). Watson (op cit) devised from his experience at Oxford a list of 'indicators of success' for the implementation of modular schemes as shown in Table 6:

Table 6 Indicators of successful modular implementation: summarised from Watson (1989)

Preparation	sufficient time for debate and discussion
Presentation	simplicity and clarity of purpose
Administration	centralised examinations, records, timetables, resources, recruitment
Counselling	student access to advice on choice of module
Effective change agent strategies	encompassing the full range of skills in the management of change.
Student demand	popularity with clients mirroring market forces

Watson's indicators of successful modular implementation would be utilised in the interpretation of the research findings, as modular implementation has been a commonly discussed theme of organisational change in the new universities.

2.4.3 Flexibility and Mobility with Modular Planning.

Robertson (1993) stated that if student opportunity and achievement are to be improved, structures need to be modified and educational strategies need to be developed to permit greater interaction. Robertson saw the development of a national credit framework as central to the improvement of student choice, as students would be able to exercise greater control over their learning needs. The principle would be that students can trade their credits as a currency between institutions and towards recognised awards. The development of credit accumulation and transfer schemes (CATS) had apparently received considerable attention within higher education, as promoted by the former CNAA (Council for National Academic Awards). The purpose of CATS was to promote and manage the demands of learners who pursued academic programs outside mainstream provision. Robertson believed that although institutions were aware of such developments as CATS, “the vast majority of students have generally been expected to proceed through the conventionally structured, unmodified choice-restricted academic programs of higher education.” (p.75)

Potential improvements as a result of a National Credit Framework are summarised from Robertson (1993) as follows:

- Significant changes to the structure of academic programs (via modularization);
- Substantially improved student guidance and information systems;
- The development of credit-led student-centred resource methodologies;
- Improved international exchange as British post-secondary and higher education moves closer to arrangements obtained elsewhere in the world.

There are a number of reservations regarding the consequence of change strategies that involve 'mass participation'. Robertson suggested that the British system should embrace and learn from the international mass participation systems available, enabling the mesh between, " high aspiration and participation with a culture of high quality and achievement" (p.78). Sieminski (1993), commented on the nature of the learning experience for the individual when she stated, " the trend towards modularization means that learning on a regular basis with a familiar group of peers may not be the dominant mode of delivery that many students experience." (p.96) Warwick (1987) identified the main advantage of modular planning as 'pupil/student motivation', the immediacy of modules offering short term and direct feedback "The modular approach emphasises student motivation" (p.6).

Young (1995) distinguished between three forms of modularization in order to discuss the relationship between modularization and curriculum strategy as follows:

Internal: modular developments within qualifications;

External: combination of modules from different qualifications;

Connective: linking of module design both to guidance and supported self study and to an overall view of the purpose of the curriculum.

According to Young, 'connectivity' as a concept raised three important points:

Purposes: criteria for defining the choice and content of modules and how they can be combined;

Relationships: criteria for defining the relationship between teachers, learners and the organisation;

Process: criteria defining how learners will be supported.

These concepts can be seen as providing a basic strategy of curriculum management.

2.4.4 Dilemmas with Modular Planning

Robertson (1993) also noted that expansion has a cost, evidenced through declining resources and tightened student/staff ratios, with the consequence impacting upon the student learning experience (p.68). Robertson identified a dilemma facing those working within institutions of further and higher education, as strategies of transforming a culture which encourages greater participation in learning opportunities had many implications. With a surge in demand for places in the new universities, there arose a dichotomy between increasing access and having adequate resources to support the increase in student numbers. Robertson asked “If the unit resource was driven down, would this also mean that the learning experience was to dive?” as there is, “the suspicion that proposed changes will negatively affect, not just material conditions, but the intellectual and cultural integrity of professional life itself” (p.77). Wilmot and McLean (1993), linked modularization to flexible learning, and stated that, “The thread that runs through teachers’ discussion about flexible learning is suspicion that it is being promoted for non-educational reasons”(p.101). Sieminski (1993) stated that, “There are some practitioners that, with the current focus on outcomes, valuable opportunities for learning which can be created within a group will be lost...despite the rhetoric of student centredness, learners’ freedom and choice with respect to the content of the curriculum may be more constrained than it appears on the surface”(p.96). Wilmot and McLean (1994) stated that many tutors felt that the

introduction of flexible learning was justified on economic rather than educational grounds.

“Encouraging students to become self motivated is a cheap option...larger class sizes and shorter class contact militates against workshop style delivery...less contact time may reduce opportunity for supervised discovery methods of learning” (102).

Fullan (1987) described five basic observations about curriculum change, as seen in Table 7.

Table 7 Five basic observations about curriculum change: summarised from Fullan (1987).

Brute Sanity	is a tendency to overlook the complexity and detailed processes and procedures required, in favour of more obvious matters of stressing goals...and the grand plan.
Overload	No theory or strategy can do the impossible, and the impossible in this case is to implement everything that is supposed to be implemented.
Implementation and Plan	Implementation plans...are curriculum innovations. The do's and don'ts of implementing curriculum innovation must be applied to the problem of developing implementation plans.
Content versus Process	It is helpful to distinguish between the content of change and the process of change and to realise that each represents distinct bodies of knowledge and expertise and each needs an appropriate implementation strategy. Both elements of expertise must be present and integrated in any given change project.
Pressure and Support	Research in recent years suggests that effective change...rarely happens unless there is a combination of pressure and support. Successful change, or successful implementation, is none other than learning. Change = Learning.

Warwick (1987) identified one of the dangers of modularization as being the creation of fragmentation and discontinuity. “ It is not therefore surprising that the approach

succeeds in institutions where there is a clear rationale for what is done, but tends to fail where an appeal is made to some amorphous modular planning”(p.2). Bell and Wade (1993) stated that there were three main factors, which inhibited the development of modular courses:

- The impact of quantifying educational activities;
- Interpretations of the concept of choice;
- The uses to which multi-purpose units are put.

Bell and Wade also believed that, “modules, like other curriculum innovations, require not only leadership but debate and the development of staff consensus. Staff need time to absorb new ideas, opportunity for reflection and training and then to gain confidence through manageable innovations” (p.7). Young (1995) investigated the extent to which incentives might be different with a modular system. Students’ comments from his Scottish survey conducted in 1992 indicated that, “ while its greater flexibility was welcomed by students, this did not lead to increases in participation or achievement...it does not create incentives for higher performance”(p.177). Tutors’ comments regarding their experience of modularization included a feeling of neglect of the learning process, and also a tendency of feeling devalued in their profession. In relation to the purpose of this research the issues to be investigated relate to the impact of modularity on the culture and structure of the organisations surveyed, and also the extent to which recommendations for successful implementation and management have been followed through, adapted or adopted.

2.5. Motivation

2.5.1 Introduction

Motivation is discussed in this section as a key element in understanding culture and structure in organisations. As we understand from the definitions given on organisational culture we can deduce that it is an intellectual refocusing on people and their ideas, beliefs and values (Brown 1995). The purpose of this research is to investigate the influence of structure on culture in the new universities. Organisational change within this sector has challenged individual beliefs and values. It is clear from theory on Human Resource Management that to maximise the potential of individuals they should ideally have a sense of involvement, job satisfaction and a positive work environment. In this respect motivation is implicitly related to a positive organisational culture, as indicated by Locke and Latham (1990). In an attempt to understand the factors which influence organisational culture, the following section outlines the implications of theories of motivation for educational management.

2.5.2 Defining Motivation

Riches (1994) identified two strands in understanding motivation: why people behave in the way they do in the workplace; and how they can be helped to engage in work behaviours which were beneficial to the organisation.

Riches stated that if we are to understand motivation and its relevance to management, “ we need to understand something about the relationship between theories of motivation and theories of managing motivation” (p.223). Factors which

motivate staff were identified as a core element of human resource management by Riches as it is a central purpose of management to motivate people to get results. Riches identified two factors that he believed contributed to the interest in motivation and its management. Firstly: “ The growing culture of competition within organisations demands more accountability and therefore the need to maximise the potential of human resources”. Secondly, the increase in technology cannot replace the need for, “well trained and highly motivated people” (p.224).

There is no single model which explains the theory of motivation, but Riches (1994) offers the following definition, “ it refers to individual differences with regard to priorities, attitudes and aspects of life style that people seek to fulfil work i.e., the things that drive them on and make them feel good about doing so”(p.224).

Factors contributing to motivation were described by Riches as, “goals which direct behaviour, the desire to pursue goals, and the social process in which individuals seek to change the behaviour of others” (p.224).

Riches also offers a process of motivation which begins with the identification of the unsatisfied need, the establishment of goals to satisfy the need and finally the determination of the action required to satisfy the need.

A number of concepts related to motivation have been summarised by Riches:

- Stress: unresolved frustration may result in stress.
- Job satisfaction: motivation is a process which leads to job satisfaction.
- Morale: usually relates to the way people think about their work (usually referring to group feeling). Riches stated that the process and content of motivation make a linear understanding:

---->need ----> drive ---->obstacle ---->solution ---->goal ----> achievement

As Riches stated however, the linear pattern is far too idealistic as in reality, “so many variables intervene to complicate the picture” (p.229). This could be the case for individuals working in the new university sector, as they grapple with both internal and external variables creating a far from linear path.

Mitchell (1982) in Turner (1992) defined motivation as, “ the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in certain specified behaviour”. Turner (1992) identified four main points in Mitchell’s definition. Firstly, it assumes that motivation is individual, secondly that motivation is described as intentional in that it is under the performer’s control. Thirdly, motivation has more than one aspect, it involves arousal, direction and persistence. Fourthly, motivation is reflected in behaviour.

2.5.3 Theories of Motivation

Theories of motivation can be divided into content theories and process theories, according to Riches (1994). Theorists have different interpretations of motivation theories. No system will satisfy all or demotivate all. Adair (1990), after reflecting on Maslow’s (1943) content theory and Herzberg’s (1959) process theories of motivation, formulated the fifty- fifty rule. “ Put simply, it proposes that 50% of our motivation is inner-generated, while 50% comes from outside of us”. (p.1). Adair explained that an individual’s needs, “ physical, social, intellectual and spiritual”, may or may not therefore be met by a group activity. Individuals are complex and their needs are complex. It is difficult to comprehend a manager being able to meet all

individual needs, especially if the individuals do not know themselves and therefore are unable to identify the sometimes tangible, sometimes intangible, factors. Turner (1992) believed that the most influential formulations on motivational needs are those of Maslow (1943). Katz (1964) and Herzberg (1959, 1968, 1972).

Herzberg (1972) studied factors which determined satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Herzberg (1959) identified satisfiers as those which grew out of a person's relationship to the work - job content, and the factors of dissatisfaction which grew from a person's relationship to the content or environment of his or her work. He labelled the dissatisfiers as 'hygiene factors' and the satisfiers as 'motivators'.

He argued that hygiene events led to job dissatisfaction because of the need to avoid unpleasantness. The motivational events led to job satisfaction because of a need for individual growth or self-actualisation. This complemented Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs model.

Earley and Barker (1989) also supported the notion that motivation factors are individualistic when they stated, "morale of teachers in schools, either collectively or individually is rarely static, and will rise or fall for a number of reasons". (p.48) Early and Barker carried out research in the field of recruitment, retention and motivation of staff. Their conclusions indicated that, "the changing nature of leadership... the shortage of non contact time and the difficulty of delegating management tasks". (p.49) all could have contributed to staffs levels of motivation.

Maslow's (1943) particular contribution was the concept that needs are organised on a priority basis, whereby when basic needs are satisfied higher needs come into focus.

Maslow's priority of needs gave the following order: Physiological, Safety, Social, Esteem and Self Actualisation. Adair (1990) interpreted Maslow's theories as having an underlying theme, "that people need one another, not just to survive but to achieve and develop personality"(p.7). Riches (1994) presented the concept that Maslow's hierarchy of needs rested on two assumptions. Firstly that unsatisfied needs motivate behaviour and secondly, in agreement with Adair, as need is satisfied it becomes less of a motivator and the next in line takes on more importance.

Handy (1994) supported the notion that there was a hierarchy of needs, that when the material needs were satisfied there was a move to social prestige and then self-realisation. He suggested that, " Perhaps, however, his hierarchy did not reach far enough. There could be a stage beyond self realisation, a stage which we might call idealisation, the pursuit of an ideal or a cause which is more than oneself" (p.262). He suggested that the extra stage would address the, "self centred tone of Maslow's thesis"(p.263).

Turner (1992) believed Maslow to be a 'humanistic psychologist' as he argued that people had needs and desires which had to be satisfied. Owens (1987) offered an alternative formulation of Maslow's theory. Owen may, according to Turner (1992), be seen as more appropriate to staff in educational institutions, as he suggested the hierarchy of needs in ascending order in contrast to Maslow.

Maslow (1954)

Physiological

Safety

Affiliation

Esteem

Self Actualisation

Owen (1987)

Self Actualisation

Autonomy

Esteem

Affiliation

Security

Turner challenged whether it is necessary to always satisfy lower order needs before the higher order needs. Turner suggested that, “ Perhaps we can accept this much: that humans have certain kinds of different orders of needs which must be satisfied and that this is as true inside organisations as outside them” (p.3).

Katz (1964) produced a scheme of motivational patterns in organisations under six major headings.

- Conformity to rules
- Systems of rewards accrued by members of the organisation
- Rewards geared to individuals
- Intrinsic satisfaction in the job
- Satisfaction in association with an institution whose values internalised
- Social satisfaction derived from small group relationships

Katz (op cit) stated that intrinsic job satisfaction is the best motivator for high performance and innovative behaviour, and that satisfaction via group affiliations is useful for retaining people in the organisation, but no more.

Mc Gregor (1970) stated that there are two basic suppositions about human nature, which would help determine the mode of management which is adopted to motivate people. Mc Gregor's 'x' and 'y' theory offers the preferred and most positive approach of motivating staff. (As seen in Table 8, p.109)

Locke and Latham's (1990) high performance cycle of motivation, "takes the view that job satisfaction comes as a result of rewards measured against one's own appraisal of the job matched to one's value standards." (p.236) Locke and Latham integrated theory from other models and stated that, "Satisfaction is reinforced through commitment to goals and values of the organisation and a desire to stay in the organisation" (p.236). Locke and Latham make the important link between motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the goals, values and performance of the organization and the individual.

As seen in the literature, theories of motivation and job satisfaction are considerable and complex. Content theories and process theories have attempted to understand the things which drive and motivate an individual to, "work in the way they do to fulfil goals, needs and expectations".

The implications of theories of motivation for educational management are many. The broad implications of a high performance cycle for management have been summarised by Riches (1990) in the following points:

- Effective organisations should expect much from the people who work for them;
- Managers must ensure a sense of satisfaction is gained in return for effort;

- Satisfaction will derive in part from personally meaningful work...managers need to ensure that they understand what influences each individual to be satisfied;
- Managers should encourage staff to set goals for high performance by them;
- Feedback on work performance. Riches (op cit) stated that, “one significant issue arising from motivation theory is the importance of valuing staff” (p.240).

Torrington and Weightman (1989) have linked the importance of valuing staff to Maslow’s esteem theory, and summarised it into four main factors:

- Consideration, where the manager should take an interest in the staff;
- Feedback, where formal and informal feedback should be given;
- Delegation, where staff are valued when responsibility is delegated to them;
- Consultation and participation, as lack of it created dissatisfaction.

John Adair (1990) in his ‘interaction of needs model’ suggested that the task, team and individual needs are not separate factors, but that they intersect influencing each other. According to Adair “The responsibility of provision for task team and individual functions stands with leadership” (p.10). Some essential leadership functions have been identified by Adair as:

Planning: defining purpose and goal

Initiating: briefing group on the aims and plan

Controlling: monitoring group standards

Supporting: encouraging groups/individuals

Informing: clarifying task and plan

Evaluating: checking feasibility. Evaluating or assisting evaluation of group/individual performance.

Handy (1994) offered a conceptual model of thinking called the 'Doughnut Principle'. This proposed the relationship between the core of the doughnut- all the things that have to be done, the commitments- and the space around the doughnut- our opportunity to make a difference to live up to our full potential. The doughnut can represent an organisation, to reveal the balance between necessity and choice, " The strategic issue for organisations, is to decide what activities and which people to put in which space" (p.66). Handy explained how the word empowerment could be interpreted as the doughnut principle, " In the past jobs used to be all core, certainly at the lower levels, because too much discretion meant too much unpredictability" (p.67). More space however meant more responsibility - not always welcome by staff, as it paradoxically provided more room for error according to Handy. He summed up the situation with the following statement, " A sensible job is a balanced doughnut" (p.68). Handy's analogy provided the researcher with a useful visual metaphor.

Commitments + Opportunities = A balanced doughnut = effective Human Resource Management.

Turner (1992) identified three essential types of behaviour that should be manifest in motivated staff if an organisation is to function effectively. Firstly people must be attracted into the organisation. Secondly, members carry out their roles with at least a minimal level of quality, quantity and performance. Thirdly, members would perform various activities in addition to those specified. As Turner stated, "If managers believe that individual employees choose how they are going to behave, then a management task is to set up some kind of motivational system which will encourage the appropriate choices" (p.2).

Table 8 summarises from literature as discussed above the many interpretations of motivation and its management and thus identified some of the suggested factors which influence organisational culture through staff involvement and job satisfaction.

Table 8 Theories of Motivation - A Summary

Herzberg (1959) Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers (Process Theory)	Mc Gregor (1970) 'X' and 'Y' Theory (Content Theory)	Locke and Latham (1990) High Performance Cycle (Process Theory)
<p>Feeling good criteria = motivators = work content</p> <p>Feeling bad criteria = hygiene factors = work content/environment.</p> <p>Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are different as the source of each is different.</p> <p>The two sets of things are different in kind. You will not make people satisfied simply by removing the causes of dissatisfaction.</p> <p>Limitations.</p> <p>Oversimplified reality</p> <p>The methodology causes the result.</p> <p>The two factors are not distinct.</p> <p>Human nature explains the findings, taking credit for their own achievement and blame others for failure.</p> <p>'Hygienes' have been ignored.</p>	<p>Theory X</p> <p>People are usually lazy and work shy.</p> <p>The average person avoids responsibility and seeks direction, is unambitious and prefers security to anything else.</p> <p>Motivation occurs at the physiological and security levels.</p> <p>Theory Y</p> <p>For most work is natural.</p> <p>People will be self directed and controlled if they are committed to definitive objectives.</p> <p>Commitment to objectives is because of rewards attached to achievement.</p> <p>People usually want to accept responsibility.</p> <p>Motivation happens at the affiliation, esteem and self actualisation levels.</p> <p>Limitations:</p> <p>Extremes of theories and are over simplified.</p>	<p>Explaining motivation to work and job satisfaction.</p> <p>Job satisfaction comes as a result of rewards measured against appraisal of the job matched to ones value standards.</p> <p>The consequences of satisfaction or dissatisfaction are many.</p> <p>The cycle aims to explain the way individuals are motivated, perform and receive satisfaction in an organisation.</p> <p>demands --> performance</p> <p>motivators --> performance</p> <p>mediators --> performance</p> <p>= contingent rewards</p> <p>= satisfaction</p> <p>= consequences --> demands --> performance.</p> <p>Cycle repeats.</p> <p>The theory acknowledges that it is an integrating model</p>

Chapter 3. Design of the Research

3.1 Introduction

The 'new' university environment has created many challenges for those involved in the sector. The move from polytechnic to university has brought about many additional changes to the Higher Education sector. This research focuses on identifying the factors that have influenced structure and culture in the new universities from staffs' perspectives. As the researcher aimed to discuss sensitive issues regarding individuals' perceptions and values, the choice of appropriate research methodologies was essential in creating the right environment, and to gain the information required. Cohen and Manion (1985) stated that, "The use of multiple methods, or the multimethod approach as it is sometimes called, contrasts with the ubiquitous but generally more vulnerable single-method approach that characterises so much of research in the social sciences" (p.254).

Greene(1990) and Sherman and Webb,(1990) discuss the personal and social concerns of qualitative research, and how the researcher is involved in interpreting information against a background which is generally complex.

"Research of this kind cannot be carried out by people who see themselves as detached...it is not a function of behaviour, it is attained in the course of action or conscious, reflected - on conduct "(Greene,1990, p.175). Sherman and Webb (op cit) supported this in that they described qualitative methods as being concerned with experience, 'lived' or 'felt' or 'undergone'. Many qualitative methods share similar concerns according to Shimahara (in Sherman and Webb 1990), the major one being

'context', and that, "human behaviour, experience - is shaped in context and that events cannot be understood adequately if isolated from their contexts"(p.5). Sherman and Webb concurred with this point when they stated that, "research is not abstract, it exists in a context, and its aim is to provide a unified sense or grasp of that context. Its function is to interpret, or appraise behaviour in relation to contextual circumstances" (p.10).

Dewey (1929) was a major advocate for qualitative research methods and believed that all inquiry arises out of actual, or qualitative life, that is the environment in which humans are directly involved. The qualitative thus relates to concern of interest. (p.11). Dewey also believed that unless qualities were considered, inquiry would be 'isolated and mechanical' (p.15).

The aim of inquiry, according to Sherman and Webb (op cit), is to formulate ideas based on experience, and remove doubt in order to understand and experience a situation better, "inquiry mediates between a given experience and one's intent or aim" (p.13). Miles and Huberman (1994) stated that one major feature and strength of qualitative data, "...is that they focus on naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings, so that we have a strong handle on what 'real life' is like" (p.10).

Multiple research methods were used to conduct the case study interviews combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Cohen and Manion (1985) supported this approach and stated that, "The between methods approach embraces the notion of convergence between independent measures of the same objective" (p.260). The interviews conducted were primarily qualitative in nature and comprised in part quantitative methods through the use of attitude questions and ranking scales as seen

in question 8-17 of the interview schedule (Appendix 2). Mixed research methods were adopted as the view was held that qualitative and quantitative data could complement each other during the design, data collection and analysis of the research. Cohen and Manion (1985) stated that, "Methodological triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of the same aspect of human behaviour" (p.254). Miles and Huberman (1994) believe that such linkage is beneficial and stated that, "Qualitative data can help the quantitative side of a study during design by aiding with conceptual development and instrumentation. They can help during data collection by making access and data collection easier. During analysis they can help by validating, interpreting, clarifying and illustrating quantitative findings, as well as through strengthening and revising theory" (p.41). Cohen and Manion (1985) also support this approach and stated that, "The advantages of the multimethod approach in social research are manifold" (254).

Furthermore, Howe (1985,1988) analysed the relationship between qualitative and quantitative methods and found them to be, 'inextricably intertwined' (p.41).

The general paradigm and philosophical approach to the research has been one of a qualitative nature, conducted by surveying staffs' perceptions in the 'New' University sector, with three case studies.

3.2 Research Methods

3.2.1 Case studies

An alternative perspective and approach to educational research from the scientific paradigm is one known as interpretative and subjective. Cohen and Manion explain that, “the interpretative, subjective dimensions of educational phenomena...are best explored by case study methods.” (p.120) The case study researcher ‘observes the characteristics’ of a particular setting in order to probe, analyse and understand the phenomena of that particular setting. For these reasons it is a popular approach for research in contemporary social science and educational research. “Such a wide use is marked by an equally diverse range of techniques employed in the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data” (op cit p.122). According to Miles and Huberman (1994) a case is defined as, “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in bounded context”(p.25). The case becomes the unit of analysis and may be focused on one case or on several. Within the context of this research, the studies focused on three case study universities. Johnson (1994) stated that one of the strengths of the case study approach is that, “many sources of evidence are used, providing a picture which emerges in the round, compared with the one dimensional image provided by the average survey” (p.22).

3.2.2 Interviews

The advantages of interviews are that they allow for greater depth than other methods, and opportunity for response is extensive, according to Cohen and Manion (1985). They provide access to ‘what is inside a person’s head’ which may in turn be used as

an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. The interview can also, "be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking" (Cohen and Manion 1985, p.293).

A common denominator which occurs within all interview situations, according to Cohen and Manion (1985), is the, "transaction that takes place between seeking information on the part of one, and supplying information on the part of the other" (p.291). The interview is a 'research tool', and is defined by Cohen and Manion as, "A two person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research - relevant information"(p.291). It is the direct interaction of the interview that is described as being both," its advantage and disadvantage as a research technique " (p.292).

Shipman (1981) notes that answers to interview questions always represent informants' viewpoints at a particular time, but are not necessarily articles of faith. People's views change, they also present their views with a gloss that depends on the setting and context of the interview. Shipman suggests that it is wise to be cautious regarding the findings of interviews which are conducted by a single researcher, where the possibility that tone of voice or anticipatory gestures when asking questions may give informants clues about desired responses. This is a possibility that cannot completely be excluded in the case of semi-structured interviews used here, where interaction between interviewer and informant was an essential aspect of the process. Johnson (1994) stated that, "A greater bulk of material can be elicited by a structural interview than by postal questionnaires" (p.45). This offered an important advantage for consideration in relation to the context and content of the questions to be asked.

3.2.3 Implementation of the interview

The aim of this part of the investigation was to collect and explore a variety of educators' views and accounts, rather than to obtain 'the truth' about structural and cultural change in the 'new' university sector. As such the methodology was designed to elicit and analyse informants' personal viewpoints and constructions which are described and structured as informants see fit, and with the minimum of imposed external constraints on their accounts. Seeking views of educators about the influence of structure on culture in 'new' universities was accomplished through interviews. As Johnson (1994) stated, "semi-structured interviewing is the style most likely to be followed in small scale research, when it is of greater importance to gain co-operation of a limited number of interviewees than it is to ensure that information they give is supplied in a standardised and readily collatable form" (p.51).

The interview schedule was limited to seven questions (Appendix 2 Part A), each of which had a relationship to the key research questions being asked. As the researcher had experience with interview situations it was relaxed on the whole and she felt in control of the situation. The interview schedule was prepared in a file and was presented to the interviewees at the commencement of the interview to familiarise them with the questions and the format of the interview. This was a very worthwhile procedure as it helped the respondents to feel relaxed about what was to come. The small hand held tape recorder was checked prior to each interview, as the researcher had been caught out before on a previous experience and was aware of what might go wrong, if not prepared. The researcher was aware of smiling and nodding to the interviewees during the interview to assure them of what they were saying, but was

very cautious not to comment or provide leading questions to bias the interview. The duration of the interviews ranged from around 30-60 minutes. The interviews were transcribed and then coded according to the responses gained and the guiding key research questions.

3.2.4 Questionnaires

Questionnaire designs can range from open ended to closed questions and can be structured, distributed and analysed in many different ways to meet the researcher's specific needs. The theme of a questionnaire, its appearance, size and order of questions are all important elements that need consideration as a part of the questionnaire design.

“The essence of a questionnaire as a research tool, is that it is in the hands of the respondent and is completed by him or her”. (Johnson 1994, p.37)

The questionnaire section of the interview schedules (Appendix 2 section B) served a number of purposes. It provided the researcher with a change of activity in the interview by giving the respondents the opportunity to complete the questions themselves and therefore take an active part in the interview. Providing the respondents with a visual selection of questions for completion also allowed the researcher to test hypotheses and theories discussed in literature on the field of organisational culture and structure.

The respondent's need to understand the questionnaire is paramount to its success.

The researcher had the advantage of distributing the questionnaires to each individual ensuring that each respondent understood the questions.

3.2.5 Rating Systems

An additional research tool utilised within section B (Appendix 2) of the interview research questions were rating systems. According to Youngman (1978) the most common rating system, using usually five response categories, is the Likert Scale. Within the Likert Scale design, levels of agreement are offered to the respondent and one is chosen to indicate, “ his level of support for a construct defined in terms of opposites.”(p.11). As Youngman (1987) stated, “ The more personal nature of such items makes the semantic differential a useful device for examining individual reactions over a broad range of personal involvement ” (p.11). Cohen and Manion (1985) stated that the ideal properties implicit within a questionnaire should be that, “It is clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable... a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their co- operation” (p.103). Ranking scale questions make up questions 14-17 of the research schedule.

3.3 Piloting

Piloting is an important stage in the development of a questionnaire as it, “is an integral part of any research” Youngman (1978). The process of distribution and return of the questionnaires has to be clearly thought through prior to its implementation, in the same way that the recording and analysis of the results also has to be clearly organised before hand. The piloting of the research method is an effective way of identifying any weak points in the design of the research as a whole. The “conducting and analysing (of) interviews could quite simply apply to questionnaires as well” Youngman (1978 p.3). In the design of a questionnaire the

YES/NO answer may be too limiting and a, “graduation of response is necessary” (p.10).

Piloting is an essential part of any research whether qualitative or quantitative in nature. The piloting process ensures that the research instrument is strong by testing the instructions, the questions and the response systems. As Youngman (1982) stated, “...the pilot data can be used to test the coding and analytical procedures to be performed later ” (p.26). By administering the research instrument personally it is possible to retrieve useful information regarding the respondents understanding of the questions, the readability of the questions, duplication of questions and the amount of time it took to complete. The validity of questions can be ascertained.

According to Cohen and Manion (1985), “The most practical way of achieving greater validity is to minimise the amount of bias as much as possible” (p.302). The sources of the bias are described by Cohen and Manion as the ‘characteristics of the interviewer, the characteristics of the respondent, and the substantive content of the questions’. It is suggested that careful formulation of the questions so that they are very clear, is one way of reducing bias. The reliability of the research instrument can be evaluated and supported by literature and also through confirmation by the pilot respondents in terms of relevance and appropriateness.

3.3.1 Piloting the interview schedule

Piloting the interview is essential if the researcher is to avoid asking unsuitable questions. The interview schedules were piloted prior to their implementation. Two

pilot interviews were conducted with one educator in the field of educational management and another in the field of organisational behaviour. The interviewees were informed of the reasons for wanting to conduct the pilot research, and were provided with copies of the interview questions and attitude scales for response and comment. The piloting process identified a number of useful points. The interview schedule was identified as being, “clear and relevant”. A number of recommendations were offered by the pilot respondents as follows:

“ You may need to give respondents information about certain questions in advance if the schedule allows”.

“ The schedule is quite long and it may be advisable to reduce the number of questions. If you do so, recommend eliminating questions 10 and 11”.

Some questions were also unclear, with grammatical errors. As a result of this feedback the questions were reworded where necessary and redesigned where appropriate to make responses clear and easier to understand. The piloting of the questions ensured that the research questions were clear and focused (As seen in Appendix 1).

3.4 Sampling

“Qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people, nested in their context and studied in depth - unlike quantitative researchers, who aim for larger numbers of context-stripped cases and seek statistical significance” (Miles and Huberman p.27).

Qualitative case samples tend to be purposive according to Miles and Huberman due to the fact that logic and coherence is required with a small sample, and random sampling would produce a 'biased hand'. Sampling in qualitative research is described as having two actions. Firstly the boundaries of the case research need to be set, and secondly a 'frame' needs to be created to, "...uncover, confirm, and qualify the basic processes or constructs that undergrid your study"(p.27) .

Sampling decisions must be taken early on to enable planning. The researcher must select a 'sample' of the population to be involved. As Cohen and Manion (1984) stated, "There are two methods of sampling. One yields probability samples in which, as the term implies, the probability of selection of each respondent is known. The other yields non-probability samples in which the probability of selection is unknown" (p.98).

Interviewing a sample of educators in 'new' universities had several advantages for this investigation. Access to a range of informants potentially provides a variety of views and information. From a practical point of view, interview data are relatively conveniently collected in terms of time and resources, and audio-taping and transcribing interviews converts ephemeral conversation into hard data available for public scrutiny. The main advantage of interviews in this investigation was seen as the opportunity they offered for informants to contribute their own accounts and analyses, and for their views to inform the findings of the research (Denscome, 1993). Three sample groups were identified for the research. There was a university sample group, a department sample group and an informant's sample group

3.4.1 The sample group of Case study Universities

The universities chosen for the investigation were situated in 1) the Northern part of England, 2) the Midlands region of England, and 3) the South of England. The universities were chosen on the grounds of a) giving a geographical spread across England, b) offering Humanities and Engineering departments, c) having similar characteristics such as a split campus.

Characteristics of Case study 1.

1993/94 Enrolments

Full time	Sandwich	Block re'd	Part time Block rel'd	Part time non released	Evenings only	Open/dist	Total HE	Total FTE
8148	1724	1	2761	612	1205	54	14505	11301

1994/95

Full time and part-time undergraduate	Full time and part time postgraduate
10192	309

1996 Research Assessment Exercise

Rank order of CVCP members	Staff selected for assessment	Proportion of staff selected	Average Score
87	123	22%	2.61

University League Tables 1996: Entry requirements average points = 11

University League Tables 1996: Student staff ratio based on 1993/94 figures = 24

Characteristics of Case study 2.

1993/94 Enrolments

Full time	Sandwich	Block re'd	Part time Block rel'd	Part time non released	Evenings only	Open/dit	Total HE	Total FTE
10482	4266	1	2575	685	251	57	18317	15687

1994/95

Full time and part-time undergraduate	Full time and part time postgraduate
17190	968

1996 Research Assessment Exercise

Rank order of CVCP members	Staff selected for assessment	Proportion of staff selected	Average Score
83	515	52%	2.67

University League Tables 1996: Entry requirements average points = 13

University League Tables 1996: Student staff ratios based on 1993/94 figures = 10

Characteristics of Case study 3.

1993/94 Enrolments

Full time	Sandwich	Block re'd	Part time Block rel'd	Part time non released	Evenings only	Open/dist	Total HE	Total FTE
5889	1668	34	1907	128	90	571	10287	8350

1994/95

Full time and part-time undergraduate	Full time and part time postgraduate
7391	505

1996 Research Assessment Exercise

Rank order of CVCP members	Staff selected for assessment	Proportion of staff selected	Average Score
71	238	48%	2.98

University League Tables 1996: Entry requirements average points = 12

University League Tables 1996: Student staff ratios based on 1993/94 figures = 16.8

3.4.2 The sample group of informants

The investigation was organised within three new universities, and a purposive sample of six members of staff was chosen from two different departments, three from Humanities/Arts and three from Engineering, within each case study. The purpose of choosing two quite different departments was to provide the researcher with two sets of information around the same research questions, which provided a useful comparison. In addition to this the researcher targeted academic staff who had worked in Higher Education through the transition of polytechnic to university status. This was essential in order for the researcher to note any changes in the structure and culture of the organisation as it crossed the binary divide.

Course leaders, deputy heads of schools and field chairs are a few of the titles given to those academics who were in a position of both receiving, adapting, informing and implementing change as a result of new educational management structures. It is for this reason that the sample has been chosen, due to the position of channelling both academic and management responsibilities. The research questions related to both structure and culture in the 'new' universities and it was essential that the sample had both vertical and horizontal experience in terms of role. In this respect the educators have a dual role of acting as educators with a management responsibility. Informants were selected on the basis of several criteria as follows:

- Academic/Management role mix. i.e. course leader, deputy head etc.
- Full time appointment
- The informant has worked through the transition of the institute from Polytechnic to 'new' university
- The informant is employed in the Department of Engineering or Art/Humanities

Table 9 Characteristics of informants.

Case study 1.

Male/Female	Position	Tenure	Department
Female	Head of school	Full	Humanities
Male	Course leader	Full	Humanities
Female	course leader	Full	Humanities
Male	Course leader	Full	Engineering
Male	Head of school	Full	Engineering
Male	Head of courses	Full	Engineering

Table 10 Characteristics of informants.

Case study 2.

Male/Female	Position	Tenure	Department
Male	Subject leader	Full	Humanities
Female	Subject leader	Full	Humanities
Male	Subject leader	Full	Humanities
Male	Programme leader	Full	Engineering
Male	Programme leader	Full	Engineering
Male	Programme leader	Full	Engineering

Table 11 Characteristics of informants.

Case study 3.

Male/Female	Position	Tenure	Department
Male	Chair	Full	Humanities
Female	Head of school	Full	Humanities
Male	Chair	Full	Humanities
Female	Head of dept.	Full	Engineering
Male	Chair	Full	Engineering
Female	Chair	Full	Engineering

This group was a hand picked or 'purposive' sample, and according to Cohen and Manion, such sampling is appropriately used where the findings of small scale studies are not intended to be generalised beyond the group in question. A disadvantage of purposive sampling is the possibility of deliberate or inadvertent selection of individuals whose views are likely to match those that the researcher was looking for. While this point cannot be ruled out of consideration in this investigation, it is arguably the case that the group chosen for this study was as broadly representative as possible of educators in the 'new' university sector, in Engineering or Humanities departments, with seniority and responsibility in their role; and that the criteria as outlined above were complete. They were therefore an appropriate sample of informants for the purposes of this investigation, and they were not known personally to the researcher.

3.5 Design of the Research Instrument

The final format of the research instrument was a semi-structured interview where questions were asked which gave respondents opportunity to express their own constructions of the subject matter, and to elaborate or qualify their answers. This approach acknowledged that the data obtained were essentially a compromise between the researcher's and the informants' agendas. The shared understanding on the part of the researcher and informants of the subject matter of the questions enabled the interviews to focus on settings and concepts, which were mutually comprehensible.

One of the purposes of the literature review was to synthesise a range of theories of organisational culture with the aim of attempting to identify the factors which influence structure and affect the culture of the organisation for academic staff within the context of educational management research.

The literature review provided models and concepts that have been used to design a framework of questions which have been explored within the scope of this research. Questions 1-7 were based on information drawn from literature. Questions eight and nine of the interview schedule are based on Handy's (1995) typologies of organisational cultures. Question ten was drawn from O'Neill's (1994) characteristics of organisational structure. Question eleven was based on McNay's (1994) theory of universities as organisations, and Question twelve on Leavitt's (1978) theory of changing organisations. Questions thirteen to sixteen were developed on the theory of subcultures in organisations drawn from Bush (1995) and Brown (1995). (As seen in Appendix 2).

The purpose of this investigation was to explore the following key research questions:

- 1) What are the factors which create/affect organisational culture in the 'new' universities?
- 2) Has the transition from Polytechnic to University influenced the organisational culture within the universities?
- 3) How is organisational culture characterised in these 'new' universities?
- 4) Is there a unified culture within this 'new' university, as indicated through the two departments surveyed?

Permission was asked to record the interview. The interviewer then explained the stages of the interview and the approximate amount of time that it could take.

Format: 1) open interview questions (taped) Q.1 to 7. 2) Questionnaire: Scaled Attitude Question Q.8 to 12, and Likert Ranking scale questions Q. 13 to 16.

A less formal interview approach was taken where the interviewer asked a set of questions (Appendix 2 section A) which were organised in advance, recorded (tape) and transcribed (Appendix 3). Secondly, the short questionnaire was presented and completed as part of the interview schedule (Appendix 2 section B). The interviews were not strictly formal as the interviewer on occasions explained, extended and clarified the questions to the interviewees, and in return received open ended answers for the interview, and closed ended answers for the questionnaire. The open- ended situations gave the interviewer the flexibility to encourage co- operation and help establish rapport.

“ Open ended situations can also result in unexpected or unanticipated answers which may suggest hitherto unthought of relationships or hypotheses” (Cohen and Manion p.297).

The combination of quantitative methods (Attitude, and scaled questions) provided a convenient and short hand way of recording complex information, and was conducted during the interview setting. The questionnaires were used as a tool to elicit staffs' perceptions regarding the influence of structure on culture in Higher Education. The factors and processes influencing structure and culture had been identified as separate variables through literature, and the questionnaire design provided a good device for the researcher to test a number of the variables and so triangulate and substantiate any

research findings. Rossman and Wilson (1984) suggested that the linking of qualitative and quantitative data could, “ offer corroboration of each other via triangulation, and elaborate analysis by providing richer detail”(p.41).

The interviews were on the whole conducted in the interviewees’ offices in the university, which were quiet and private. The interview and the short questionnaire ranged from approximately 30-80 minutes to complete. Once the tape recorder was turned off, a number of the interviewees wished to continue a general discussion. The researcher was aware that the questions provoked interest, as they were in themselves informative, challenging and educational. As a consequence the interviewer also spent time reassuring the interviewees before concluding the meeting. The interviewer was fortunate that all the interviewees were responsive, sincere and motivated. This may have been due to the fact that the interview provided an opportunity for the interviewees to talk to a neutral person regarding their perceptions and feelings regarding work- related issues.

All the interview questions revolved around the key questions identified. In order to investigate the relationship between structure and culture the researcher triangulated the research in two ways. Firstly, the academic staff were selected to give a representation across two departments in the university. The mix of the research methods also triangulated the source of the information gathered, comparing two different sets of data: the interviews and the questionnaire data.

Qualitative —————> *Quantitative*
(explorative) —————> *(Questionnaire)*

3.6 Obtaining Access to Informants

Delamont (1992) points out that the insights gained while negotiating access are significant aspects of most research, and that much can be learned about the setting to be investigated through overcoming access difficulties. In this investigation, gaining access to the informants was fairly straight-forward. The three case study universities were contacted by phone, and a request was made to talk directly with the Department Administrator of both Engineering and Humanities/Art Departments. A further request was then made for names (and email addresses) that fitted the choice of informants' criteria, after a brief description of the purpose was given to assure the validity of the request. Informants were then contacted personally by email with a brief explanation of the research, the researcher background, and a request for a 30-40 minute interview time, and an assurance that anonymity would be preserved. A selection of dates and times were offered to the informants so that they could choose, or offer an alternative time (As seen in Appendix 4). Three of the informants who did not have email addresses were sent letters (As seen in Appendix 5). Response to the email requests for interviews were received within a week, which is a significant outcome for a researcher. One informant declined due to lack of time, and one informant placed a condition on his co-operation with the following statement. "I am happy to give you a frank interview and don't mind the tape, providing that the actual record of my voice is never put into public domain. Please confirm that the tape will be destroyed after a transcript has been made". The informant was again emailed with further reassurance of anonymity and confidentiality, and that his pre-conditions would be met. The three informants contacted by letter required a follow up with a phone call two weeks later to arrange a suitable day and time for an interview.

Informant's ease of response on email provided the researcher with unexpected helpful information such as car-parking, and location maps.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethical aspects of research such as privacy, deception and potential damaging consequences of the research as outlined by Hammersley (1990) were considered in the overall research design as well as in procedural components. The anonymity of all informants is preserved in this report by allocating numbers or arbitrary initials in place of their names and giving only general information such as locality but not the name of the university. Confidentiality of the informants' responses was preserved during this stage of the research by ensuring that no informant saw another's interview transcript (or in fact knew of the informants to be interviewed) and the group of transcripts was seen only by the researcher and her supervisors. All informants were told about the purpose of the interviews as a part of access negotiations, and all gave consent to the transcripts being used in this investigation.

3.8 Data collection and experience in context.

The researcher was received by informants with a general air of acceptance, but also a little bit of 'nervous excitement', as expressed by one respondent. After having spent some time informing the respondents about the researcher, ensuring confidentiality and agreeing on meeting times, one respondent decided at the last minute not to allow the interview to be taped. This provided an unexpected glitch for the researcher, but she was able to reassure the respondent with ease and prepared to take notes from the

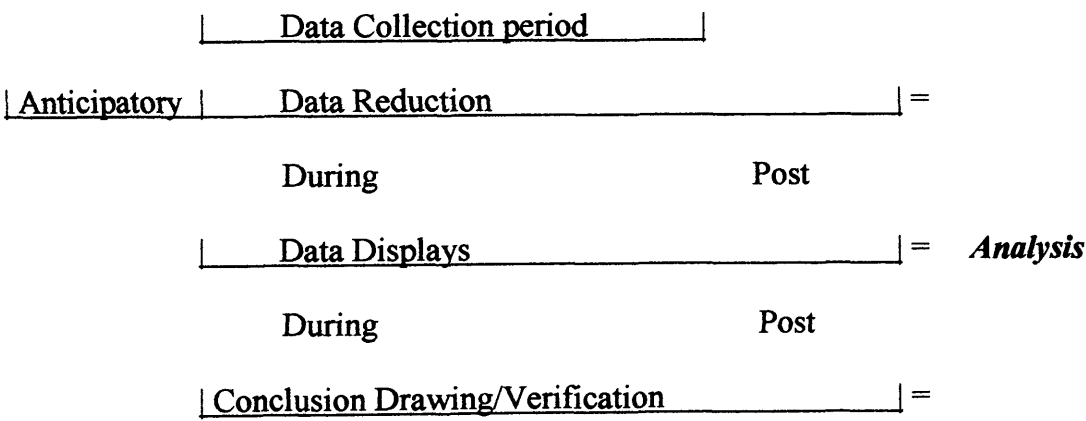
interview as a secondary measure. Flexibility was essential in this situation as the interviewee had much to contribute in conversation, which would have been lost if the interviewer had not been able to deal with the impromptu feelings of the respondent by showing respect for their wishes. It was an important example for the researcher to reflect upon, as there was much to be learnt from the situation. Due to considerable change in Higher Education, which has in turn affected contracts of employment and job security, it was unreasonable for the researcher to ignore the context in which she was conducting the interviews. The interview situation provided an opportunity for discussion of the impact of change in HE, and many of the open ended questions and attitude scales required explanation, and in turn the respondents also required time to consider their opinions and answers.

The researcher had considered posting the interview questions and attitude questions to the informants prior to the interview so that they may have been considered in advance, as suggested during piloting. This was decided against as the questions evoked responses about sensitive, personal and professional attitudes, which the researcher did not want to be received as a 'faceless' questionnaire. On completion of each interview the question was raised regarding the view of having the questions posted prior to interview. The general consensus of opinion received was that the questions required explanation and that they were too sensitive to be seen as questionnaire responses in isolation. The point was made that if the interview information had been posted it would have been 'trashed' with all the other bureaucratic administration papers, which the staff often commented they were overwhelmed with.

3.9 Data Reduction.

Miles and Huberman (1994) described data reduction as, “ a process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written -up field notes or transcriptions” (p.10). It is a process that occurs throughout the life of a research project, from the conceptual framework for the research and deciding on the research questions to be asked, through to coding and clustering themes to produce a final report. Miles and Huberman highlight a significant point in stating that the data reduction process is not separate from analysis, but a part of the analytical process. “Humans are not very powerful as processors of large amounts of information; our cognitive tendency is to reduce complex information into selective and simplified gestalts or easily understood configurations” (p.10).

Table 12 Components of Data Analysis: Flow Model. Miles and Huberman (1994)



The use of codes for coding the data was essential, to ensure that all methods and the triangulated data could be viewed in a comprehensive manner, and thus provide

meaningful analysis and conclusions. The codes were used to retrieve chunks of meaningful comments made in the interviews.

3.10 Content Analysis

Johnson (1994) suggested that, “one way in which the meaning of documents has been interpreted is by content analysis”(p.61). Johnson goes on to explain that in this approach, “quantitative techniques are used to assess the significance of particular items within a text” (p.61). This is done by means of counting the number of times that a particular item appears. The item could be an idea described within a given context, and this would be measured to assess the, “significance of items within a text”(p.61). Cohen and Manion (1985) stated that, “Primary sources of data have been described as...those items that have had a direct physical relationship with the events being reconstructed” (p.55). Cohen and Manion also stated that, “memoirs and biography... are intentionally or unintentionally, capable of transmitting a first hand account of an event and therefore considered a source of primary data” (p.55). Miles and Huberman stated that, “coding is analysis. To review a set of field notes, transcribed or synthesised, and to dissect them meaningfully, while keeping relations between the parts intact, is the stuff of analysis. Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study” (p.56).

As Robson (1993) stated, “ sorting out the categories is the most crucial aspect of the content analysis. As Berelson (1952) points out, since the categories contain the

substance of the investigation, a content analysis can be no better than its system of categories” (p.227).

The boundaries were set around the research through the use of the specific research questions. The data collected for analysis were then in turn coded and re-collated under the key research question headings.

The following chapter aims to analyse the responses gained from the survey by summarising the information derived from both qualitative and quantitative data.

Chapter 4 Presentation of Findings

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of the research was to investigate the factors which influence structure and culture for academic staff in a new university. The analysis of the information was focused around the key questions, and integrated literature views and university academic staffs' views were documented in interview and questionnaire format. A mixed research method approach was implemented to elicit as much information as possible. In order to avoid polarisation in the approach to the research, qualitative and quantitative inquiry were combined, as a way of informing each other. Miles and Huberman (1994) called this 'hybrid vigour'. In this respect, displays and matrices have been designed to bring the relevant data into focus within the body of the text and thus facilitate the production of strengthened conclusions. The boundaries were set around the research through the use of the specific research questions. The data collected for analysis were then in turn coded and re-collated under the key research question headings. This approach of dealing with the data for analysis ensured that handling of the data was manageable and tangible. This was an important point as the mixed research method approach used created a mutiplicity of three- dimensional approaches.

The data have been organised into displays under the key research question headings. Open ended questions were used in an interview situation with all academic staff as well as the attitude questions and Likert ranking scale questions in the form of a small questionnaire (Appendix 2 Part B). The intention was to collate the information gained from the various methods and present them as clearly as possible in order to

draw them together and make clear any trends or relationships. This was done in a number of ways. Firstly the interview conversations were taped and transcribed (Appendix 3); this allowed the researcher to note significant points or trends that emerged. Secondly, the questionnaire responses were collated together to see if there were any relationships between structure and culture, between the two departments identified and also between polytechnic and university status. Miles and Huberman (1994), made the comment that, "We have to face the fact that numbers and words are both needed if we are to understand the world" (p.40). The questions covered within this research are both metaphorical and ambiguous, as is the study of qualitative analysis. As Jinks (1979) noted, "Qualitative methods can be the glue that cements the interpretation of multimethod results" (p.42). As a mixed approach was used each method will be analysed individually before drawing together the conclusions.

The data analysis process was as follows:

Conceptual Framework→ Research Questions→ Sampling Plan→

Data Collection → Process Data (write up)→ Develop Coding Scheme→

Coding→ Build Descriptive Displays→ Enter Coded Data→

Draw and Verify Conclusions.

4.2 Interview

The interview schedule was limited to seven questions (Appendix 2 Part A), each of which had a relationship to the key research questions being asked. Patterns and trends drawn from the interview questions have been gathered together to respond to the key research questions. The trends identified do not presume to cover all factors that have influenced culture and structure in the new university sector. It is recognised that many of the factors perceived to be influencing structure and culture are not unique to the new university sector but may be familiar in the changing culture of higher education as a whole. Patterns and trends identified in the research findings are however those viewed by staff as influencing the structure and culture of higher education in the new university sector.

The interviews were transcribed and then coded according to the responses gained and the guiding key questions which drove the research.

A summary of the insights gained from the interviews with academic staff is as follows:

Key Question 2: Has the transition from polytechnic to university influenced the organisational culture within this university?

Interview questions aimed to identify the factors and trends experienced by staff in the transition from polytechnic to university. The following trends were identified and supported by the following statements from staff.

In terms of nomenclature many organisations have changed their names on more than one occasion. One of the case study universities had changed its name three times

since 1973, from Institute to polytechnic and now university. As stated in the literature, the change of name for an organisation has deep- rooted implications for its organisational structure, culture and management. For many the change from polytechnic to university was seen as yet another change adding to the myriad.

The transition from polytechnic to university had influenced the organisational culture within the new universities surveyed. The introduction of the modular curriculum was also perceived as being a significant factor, changing structure, culture and performance.

“A linear programme provided us with a large teaching programme which was continuous and we had a lot of time with them. Now modularity is a very crowded programme. It has meant a big change in administration, in target setting for modules and so on”. (Humanities department, Case study 1.)

One of the impacts of a modular approach has been the reduction in contact time between staff and students and also the length of time available to deliver the programme of study.

“Our teaching weeks have gone down. When I started it was 34 weeks now it’s 24 teaching weeks”. (Humanities department, Case study 1.)

The modular approach appears to have increased the amount of administration and assessment involved, as one staff member stated,

“The modular set has changed the way we teach, and the way in which students are examined.” (Engineering department, Case study 2)

In relation to the concerns of reduced tutorial time spent with students, the following comments were made,

“We have had to shift priorities, and whether that has had a negative effect on the quality of the teaching is another question.” (Humanities department, Case study 2)

“We have now to teach in groups rather than on a one to one basis. The consequences are that students are not getting as much experience.” (Humanities department, Case study 1)

The increase in student numbers in association with the modular approach has created many challenges for staff. As one staff member stated,

“Originally I think people were clear that they were engineers teaching engineering, and now we are engineers teaching all sorts of people, we don’t really know why. The entrance levels have changes and it has affected the level that students are entering the courses”. (Engineering department, Case study 3)

Another factor, identified through interviews as influencing the organisational culture of the new universities, is the introduction of a research culture, the research assessment exercise and associated funding issues.

“Because of the push towards research which is linked in with becoming a university, a head was established to push that area.” (Engineering department, Case study 1)

“The pressures that have changed the department are external funding pressures, internal resourcing and political pressures.” (Engineering department, Case study 3)

“I suppose that the main thing that people are talking about is the downsizing because of our budgets.” (Engineering department, Case study 3)

The change of emphasis from teaching to research was perceived as being a major change in organisational culture, as the following staff stated,

“When I joined we were very much a teaching department.” (Humanities department, Case study 2)

“The nature of the work we do has changed quite dramatically, it’s much more academic now”. (Humanities department, Case study 2)

“There is much more emphasis on research which had never been the case when it was a polytechnic, then it was teaching and learning.” (Humanities department, Case study 2)

“I suppose the major change in the department has really been the emphasis on research, and the fact that we now have as many researchers as we have academic staff.” (Engineering department, Case study 2)

“There is more emphasis on researching and obtaining money from outside sources.” (Engineering department, Case study 2)

Organisational culture was also perceived as moving towards a more hierarchical character. As staff indicated,

“I think it has become more hierarchical in the department.” (Humanities department, Case study 2)

“We have become committee based.” (Humanities department, Case study 2)

In summary, staff indicated that there had been a change in organisational cultures.

The polytechnics had moved to university status, and the importance of this is indicated through a variety of examples. Factors contributing to the change in organisational culture were the introduction of the modular curriculum, its implementation and management, the increase in student numbers and the decrease in length of programmes. In addition, the concerns reflecting the impact of a research culture and the Research Assessment Exercise were perceived as influencing organisational culture. The research findings for key question two did not suggest that there were any clear distinctions to be made between departments or case studies.

Key Question 3: ‘How is organisational culture characterised in this ‘new’ university?’

Many factors were identified by staff which characterise the new universities surveyed. Comments concerning job satisfaction and motivation were particularly common. For example,

“There are no incentives for lecturers now. If you show an interest you get dumped with a lot of admin.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

“I came here thinking I was going to do research, but most of what I do is bloody admin things as there is so much to do with quality control procedures.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

Associated with the change in character of many staff roles and responsibilities, there has been an additional change in how staff work together.

“We used to meet often as a staff and even have nights out, but we don’t really have the energy any more. We really need to do it again because we really are missing it.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

“I think that something that we have lost in the transition from polytechnic to university, is our working together.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“The people are isolated among themselves. They do not socialise too much, they do not talk to each other too much. Everyone’s too busy doing their own things and we hardly speak to one another.” (Engineering department, case study 3)

“The isolation that people feel has increased over the years.” (Engineering department, case study 3)

“There is not much informal chatting that goes on. The main link of communication now for me is E-Mail.” (Engineering department, case study 3)

These changes of organisational culture have developed hand in hand with the structural changes that have occurred in the new universities. As a number of staff stated,

“The bureaucracy has hampered a lot of ideas for developing courses.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

“The university has totally gone over to a line management and it has restructured all its committees, and now it’s a top down situation totally.” (Humanities department, case study 3)

“Attitudes have changed, it’s much more management and bureaucracy led.”
(Humanities department, case study 3)

The perceptions of increased bureaucracy and hierarchical management structures have led to a conflict in values in curriculum delivery, teaching versus research and the factors which are perceived as being the priorities of the organisation, as indicated in the following statements.

“I have stopped doing research now because I’m just so overwhelmed with other things.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

“There is more emphasis on research now and income generation, to the disadvantage of students as far as I am concerned.” (Engineering department, case study 2)

“The semester structure has not been popular as it interrupts the flow of the year. We feel that our courses are better taught over a full year as we can get much more work done and students get more time to assimilate it.” (Engineering department, case study 2)

“We have to teach in groups rather than on a one to one basis. The consequences are that students are not getting as much experience.” (Engineering department, case study 2)

“I think that modularization very much works against that now as it fragments things, and the students are feeling it very significantly.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“What does the university want? Top class research or top class teaching.”
(Humanities department, case study 2)

“There is much less contact between staff and students, and I think that the quality of our teaching is probably poorer.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“We spend more time assessing than we do teaching. At grass roots level there is not a lot of ownership of the quality system.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“Now the requirements are on research and the onus will be on practitioners, but set against that is who is doing the teaching? What is teaching?” (Humanities department, case study 3)

“With having bigger groups and reduced contact time we don’t have as much time to spend with them and we are taking the value added learning away.” (Engineering department, case study 3)

“I think that it is important to spend time with students, but there is no value put on it, but if you do other work this is seen as extremely valuable.” (Engineering department, case study 2)

The many areas of dispute and conflict indicated by staff project organisational cultures as an environment of change on many levels. One individual stated,

“I’m not sure that the university is too sure what its central mission is. It quite literally has shifted in the time I’ve been here.” (Humanities department, case study 3)

The role of leadership is recognised as being vital for the management of change in organisations. Staff stated that,

“We haven’t got a management team and we don’t meet each other.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

“The last HOD used to communicate by memo mostly. He was dreadful at making decisions and now he’s been promoted, God help us, and it’s his fault that there’s been no management team in the department. So responsibility is devolved on an ad-hoc basis.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

“There is no formal structure, we do things ourselves.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

“There is a genuine concern that there is not enough communication between the head of department and the department staff, as he tends to be quite formal and hierarchical.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

The issue of relating to an identity was another theme expressed by staff as follows.

“We don’t have an identity, the building gives us an identity but in saying that when you come into the building you wouldn’t know it was an engineering building. I think the idea was to stop ownership of the building.” (Engineering department, case study 2)

In summary, organisational culture was perceived as changing in the new universities and was characterised by: an increase in administrative and bureaucratic procedures

and a change in character of staff roles and responsibilities with an increased feeling of isolation and loss of identity. A conflict in values between teaching and research was also often stated. Findings drawn from key question three did not suggest that organisational culture was characterised as being different between departments. Key and common concerns regarding the major influencing factors were shared by the departments and case study universities as the findings have illustrated.

Key Question 4: Is there a unified culture within this 'new' university, as indicated through the two departments surveyed?

Staff indicated through the interviews that there had been a number of issues relating to the perception of a unified culture within the universities. One concern noted a number of times was the perceived conflict between management and staff.

“The higher management don’t seem to listen. I really do wish that the management would listen to us more.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

A number of comments were also made about the lack of trust in leadership decisions.

“They are administrative decisions not academic ones.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

“As a school we used to meet once a week, but that has broken down due to bad management and a clash of personalities.” (Humanities department, case study 1)

“The Dean has told us it’s a consolidation period, but I don’t trust him a little bit.”
(Engineering department, case study 1)

“Whether we agree with senior management and what they do is another matter, which we don’t usually.” (Engineering department, case study 1)

“I think that they say one thing and do another.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“The school review found that the lines of management were unclear and I think this also relates to an unclear philosophy as well.” (Humanities department, case study 3)

In relation to the presence of agreed values among staff, the following comments were made.

“It’s not always made clear what the institution’s values and beliefs are, it doesn’t always come down to grass roots.” (Humanities department, case study 2)

“We have mission statements and strategic plans and all that sort of thing. I’m not aware of any values and beliefs, it’s all ad-hoc.” (Humanities department, case study 3)

“I don’t think our values and beliefs reflect the organisation’s values and beliefs because I don’t think the organisation is in the business of education, they are in business.” (Engineering department, case study 3)

The findings indicated a general consensus in the views and perceptions held by staff regarding a unified culture in the universities surveyed. In summary, there was a general lack of feeling of unification in the new universities. This was due, it appeared, to factors such as distrust in management motives, a conflict of values and beliefs held between management decisions and staff opinions, a sense of disillusionment and inadequate communication. The findings indicated that there was no distinction drawn between humanities and engineering departments or between case studies. Findings illustrated that there was a general lack of unification experienced and evidence of sub-cultures are indicated through the results shown in Table 13.

4.3 Links with Questionnaire Results

The mix of qualitative and quantitative research methods allowed the researcher to expand and deepen the scope. The structured questions, in the form of attitude questions, and Likert scale questions, were combined with the interview situation to enable corroboration.

A summary of the questionnaire responses are as follows:

Table 13 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.8:

Q: How would you characterise your department's culture?

	Response from Humanities				Response from Engineering		
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
<i>Club</i>	0	1	1		0	1	0
<i>Role</i>	0	1	2		0	1	2
<i>Task</i>	2	1	0		3	1	1
<i>Person</i>	0	0	0		0	0	0

Question 8 was derived from Handy's (1995) Four Cultures Model. From the responses gained from question 8, It can be seen that there is a distribution of opinion regarding how the departments are characterised. Neither the humanities nor the engineering departments identify solely with one of Handy's typologies of organisational culture, and in fact there was a spread from *Club* to *Task*. Across the three case studies the humanities departments characterised their culture as being primarily Task (3 responses) or Role (3 responses) orientated, and two responses for *Club* culture. The engineering departments characterised their culture as being primarily Task orientated (5 responses) followed by *Role* culture (3 responses) and

one response for *Club* culture. None of the case study universities surveyed identified their departments as being Person culture.

On the whole there can be seen a general trend that both Humanities and Engineering departments viewed their culture as being Task and Role orientated with a less frequent occurrence of Club culture.

[Note: One respondent from case study 1 declined to answer Q8.]

Handy (1995) characterised the *Task* culture as one where performance is judged in terms of results, and that relationships are not viewed as important. It is a purposeful culture and emphasises teams. Task culture was identified as being the most prominent type in both humanities and engineering departments. Although staff had indicated that task culture was predominant, it appeared from the interviews that judgements being made on results rather than relationships was recognised as a familiar trend. As a number of staff indicated,

‘As long as the paper work is right nobody really worries about the students.’

‘The isolation that people feel in their work has increased over the years.’

‘We spend more time assessing than we do teaching.’

‘There is not much informal chatting that goes on. The main link of communication now for me is E-mail.’

‘We now have to teach in groups rather than on a one to one basis. The consequences are that students are not getting as much experience.’

Although the task culture emphasised teams, staff had the following comments to make,

‘We try to work together as a team.’

‘We haven’t got a management team and we don’t meet each other.’

The final two comments indicated that there was a perceived need for a team approach but in fact reiterated the experiences of isolation and absence of collegiality.

Role culture is characterised by Handy (1995) as being focused on the job to be done rather than personalities. It is described as a picture of bureaucracy, where roles and duties are clearly fixed.

As the second most dominant culture identified by the respondents, the following testimonials support the evidence of experience gained from working within a role culture environment.

‘It has become more hierarchical in the department.’

‘I think that it’s important to spend time with students but there is no value put on it, but if you do other work this is seen as extremely valuable.’

‘The university has totally gone over to line management and it has restructured all its committees, and now its a top down situation totally.’

‘Attitudes have changed, its much more management and bureaucracy led.’

As for Club culture, this was characterised as a culture which values the individual, and is built of like minded people and trust rather than control procedures.

The respondents from both departments across the case study universities had the following comments to make regarding how they perceived themselves, and whether they saw themselves as being different to other departments.

Humanities Responses:

‘Our culture is different and we have a different attitude. We are looked upon as people who do things in an interesting and desirable way. We are regarded as the poor relation.’

‘I imagine the way we go about business is quite different from other departments in the university.’

‘I think our department has a special philosophy. We place a lot of emphasis on communicative skills. I think that we are different because our aims are very specific in what students need to attain.’

Engineering Responses:

‘Our culture in this department is different to other departments in the university. I don’t really know why but it has a lot to do with management.’

‘Our department’s culture is different as there are other departments which are much more research orientated. Their agenda stated or otherwise is based around research.’

‘I would say that our department’s culture is very different from other departments. I think it’s a subject thing.’

‘We have always had difficulty recruiting and that’s always been a cultural difference. That has led us to perhaps be a bit more serious about the issue.’

‘I think that we are fairly typical of what I would call a science based department.’

‘No, they are all the same. I’m secretary for one of the trade unions, I know what is going on in other schools and departments’.

‘No I don’t think it’s a lot different really. I think that most departments are the same, they are generally more interested in what’s going on their department rather than what’s going on outside.’

Despite the last two comments, the general consensus of the academic staff in both departments and all case study universities was that they perceived their departments to be different from other departments. The data received from the respondents through the questionnaire, and question 8 in particular, showed a clear indication of *Task* culture and *Role* culture predominantly. The findings indicated that the departments' priorities and organisational culture were very similar in the humanities and engineering departments, which did not reflect the respondents' views when interviewed. Only two of the respondents indicated a clear idea of departments' culture being essentially similar, and both were from engineering departments', one from case study 1 and one from 2. It appeared from the findings that there was a contradiction between the perceptions offered in interviews and those from the questionnaires. Although respondents expressed clearly in the interviews incidents that reflected the existence of Handy's (1995) cultural typologies, and in particular *Task* and *Role*, they were adamant that their departments cultures were on the whole different.

Handy was quite clear in his description of the four typologies of culture that there is not one good or bad approach, but a 'Theory of cultural priority' (p.19), which supports the notion of appropriateness, to fit the given circumstances.

Table 14 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.9:

Q: How would you characterise the university's culture as a whole?

	Response from Humanities				Response from Engineering		
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
<i>Club</i>	1	2	0		1	3	1
<i>Role</i>	3	1	2		2	0	2
<i>Task</i>	0	0	0		0	0	0
<i>Person</i>	0	0	0		0	0	0

On looking at the organisations' cultures, the responses were quite different to those of question 8, and the opinions were far more collective. The organisation was characterised predominantly as *Role* Culture (10 responses, across departments and cases). Handy (1995) characterised the *Role* culture as a formal structure, where responsibility is associated with official positions, and communication is formal between roles rather than between people. *Club* culture received 8 responses across departments and cases. He characterised this cultural typology as a spiders web, with the head of the organisation at the centre of the web. Handy indicated a danger in the dominance of a central figure. The categories of *Task* and *Person* received no response. There was therefore a distinct difference of opinion between the character of the departments perceived and that of the organisation.

Table 15 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.10:

How would you characterise your departments' structure now, and when it was a Polytechnic?

	As a polytechnic				As a 'new' university		
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
<i>Traditional</i>	E=2 H=1	E=1 H=1	H=1		H=1	E=3 H=2	E=1 H=3
<i>Radical</i>	E=1 H=2	E=2 H=2	E=2 H=2		E=3 H=2	H=1	E=3

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Question 10 was based on the model of 'characteristics of organizational structure' drawn from O'Neill (1994). Analysis of question 10 indicated that there appeared to have been a cultural shift between the character of the organisation as a university, and when it was a polytechnic. According to the perceptions of the staff surveyed from both engineering and humanities departments, and across case study universities, the polytechnic was perceived to have been predominantly *Radical* (11 responses). The radical organisational structure was identified as a flexible organisation, which operated on a relatively ad-hoc basis according to demands and tasks. It is thus summarised as being fluid, open, functional, and task orientated (O'Neill 1994).

As a new university there was a distribution of 10 responses indicating a traditional environment and 9 responses indicating a radical environment. The traditional organisational structure was described as one which accommodated new activities

within existing structures. It is thus summarised as solid, closed, formal and role orientated (O'Neill op cit).

Case study 1 indicated an even distribution of opinion regarding the existence of a traditional organisational structure and a radical structure as a polytechnic, as each received 3 responses. As a new university however 5 responses indicated the existence of a radical culture and one response perceived a traditional structure in this new environment. One humanities and one engineering respondent thought that the polytechnic and university were both radical. One engineering respondent described the structure as radical but not fluid. 'Even as a polytechnic it was not ruled by consent it was ruled by management.'

Case study 2 indicated that the predominant structure as a polytechnic was radical with 4 responses, and 2 responses for traditional. As a new university, case study 2 responded in the opposite way to case study 1 as there were 5 responses indicating the prevalence of a traditional structure and just one response suggesting a radical organisational structure. One engineering respondent perceived the polytechnic and the university to have a traditional organisational structure.

Case study 3 indicated the predominance of a radical structure as a polytechnic with 4 responses in agreement with case study 2, and just one response suggesting a traditional structure. As a new university, 4 responses indicated the presence of a traditional structure and 3 responses indicated a radical structure. Two engineering staff perceived the polytechnic and university structure to be radical, and one humanities staff perceived both polytechnic and university to be radical. A humanities

respondent made the comment that he perceived the management structure to be traditional but at the same time perceived the committee structure to be radical.

In summary, 4 respondents (2 engineering and 2 humanities) thought that the polytechnic structure was radical and remained radical as a new university. One humanities respondent also perceived the structure to be the same from polytechnic to university structure, but on this occasion it was traditional.

Table 16 shows the distribution of opinion regarding how individuals characterise their organisational structure. The matrix was drawn from McNay's (1994) research and was presented to staff in order for them to place a mark according to their opinion of organisational structure experienced as a polytechnic and as a university.

Table 16 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.11:

How would you characterise your university's organisational structure as a Polytechnic and a University?

PH = response as a Polytechnic and a Humanities Department

UH= response as a University and a Humanities Department

PE = response as a Polytechnic and an Engineering Department

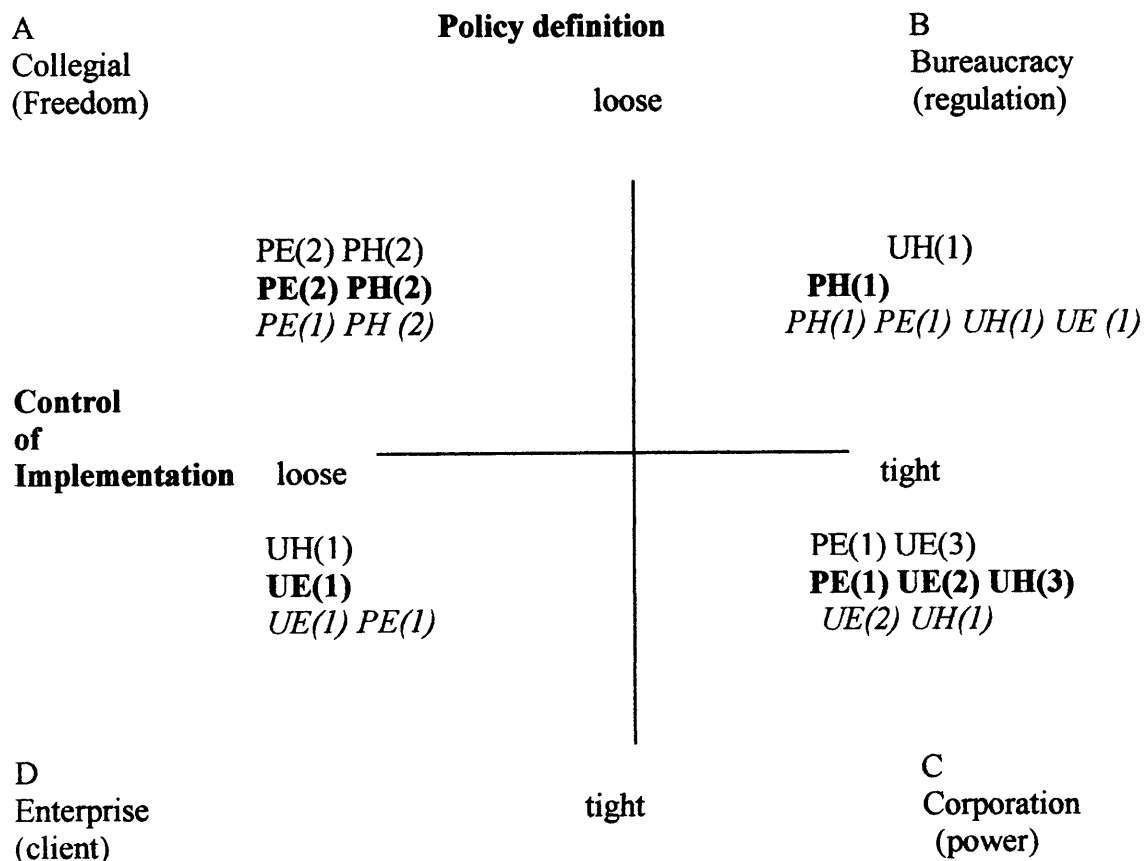
UE= response as a University and a Engineering Department

Key

PE font type = case study 1 data

PE font type = case study 2 data

PE font type = case study 3 data



The four cultures are labelled collegium, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise. As McNay stated, "All four cultures co-exist in most universities, but with different balances among them" (p.106).

The model of universities as organisations was tested out within the scope of the research as seen in question 11, to establish whether there has been a shift in balance over the years as the polytechnics moved to university status.

It can be seen from the responses gained that there appeared to have been a shift in balance and a move of culture over the years. As a polytechnic the majority of opinion from both engineering and humanities departments across cases was seen as being collegial and 'loosely coupled' which was characterised by Weick (1976) as, 'a relative lack of co ordination, a relative absence of regulations...a lack of congruence between structure and activity'. However as noted by McNay the collegial organisation talks of liberty and freedom and is seen as, "a past golden age of self regulating academics working in the same place but independently and autonomously"(p.25).

As a university the majority of opinion indicated that the university organisation was perceived as being corporate and 'tightly coupled'. McNay indicated that a clockwise movement was normal for universities, and the findings supported his notion. It was significant to see how the organisational structure of the polytechnic was perceived to be opposite to that which existed when the organisation was a university, moving from loose policy definition, control and implementation to tight policy definition, control and implementation. The findings support McNay's (1994) survey of

organisational cultural shifts where he identified a shift of the majority from collegium to corporation. As there was a drive in the 1990's for greater student numbers, this increased the demand for more internal organisational structures. At this stage the HEFC and the HEQC required evidence of strategic plans and formal evidence of organisational structures. It was not surprising therefore to see that the balance of organisational structures was perceived to have moved from the collegial to corporation, and in some instances, enterprise.

A summary of the responses to question 11 in Table 17 portray how the Humanities and Engineering departments responded individually.

Table 17 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.12:

Which of the following factors in your opinion take precedence in the management of your department?

When it was a Polytechnic, and now as a University. On a scale of 1 to 4 (1=low. 4=high)

	As a Polytechnic				As a 'new' University		
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
<i>Tasks:</i> jobs to be done.	E=424 H=242	E=443 H=444	E=334 H=441		E=444 H=332	E=244 H=244	E=444 H=244
<i>Systems:</i> how much work is organised.	E=212 H=113	E=322 H=332	E=122 H=213		E=332 H=224	E=432 H=332	E=221 H=432
<i>People:</i> changing or developing	E=341 H=231	E=131 H=321	E=243 H=132		E=221 H=111	E=111 H=111	E=133 H=121
<i>Structures:</i> the way the department is constructed.	E=133 H=324	E=214 H=112	E=411 H=324		E=113 H=443	E=323 H=243	E=312 H=313

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Table 18 provides extended summary of Q.12

Table 18 An extended summary of Question 12.

	As a Polytechnic				As a 'new' university		
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
Tasks: jobs to be done	1st	1 st	1st	1st	1st	1 st	
Systems: how work is organised	2nd	2 nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4 th	
People: changing or developing	3rd	4 th	2nd	3rd	4th	3 rd	
Structures: the way the department is constructed.	4th	3 rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2 nd	

Question 12 was developed from Leavitt's (1964) theory of organisational change. According to Leavitt, organisational change could be achieved and controlled through manipulating the key variables, as indicated in question 12. The variables are highly interdependent, so that if one changes it would in effect change the status of the other. The question therefore aimed at eliciting staffs' perceptions of the variables which took precedence in the management of their department. On further analysis of question 12 it can be seen that both engineering and humanities departments across case studies identified *Tasks* as taking precedence in the management of the departments when it was a polytechnic, and that this has remained so as a new university. Leavitt identified tasks as those activities which referred to the objectives of the organisation. As a polytechnic, *Structures* took second place in order of priority, with *People* third and *Systems* fourth. As a university *Structures* came second *Systems* third and *People* a definite fourth. 'People' refers to the academic staff in the organisations, to their attitudes and expectations. Leavitt made the point that the people variable, "could affect the capability of an enterprise to adjust to changes in task, technology, or structure" (p.28). In this respect it would appear that 'people', a significant variable for managing organisational change, have in fact been given the least priority in the management of the departments surveyed. Leavitt designed the four categories as a reminder for those involved in designing or changing organisations, as change has an effect and implications for all factors identified. He stated that, 'True leadership is knowing which one is best to start with, this time with this problem in this organisation' (p.101).

The engineering departments seemed to identify with the task culture in particular, as there are many 4 ratings given across the case studies. There was also a significant

number of 1 ratings given by humanities departments as the precedence given to people in a university environment.

Case study 1 perceived tasks to take precedence in the management of the organisation as a polytechnic, followed by structures, people and then systems. As a university all engineering staff agreed that tasks took priority, followed by structures and systems, and all humanities staff agreed that people took least priority.

Case study 2 perceived tasks to take precedence in the management of the organization as a polytechnic with an almost unanimous vote from both engineering and humanities, followed by systems, structures and then people. As a university there was again a unanimous decision that tasks took precedence, followed this time by systems, structure, and a total agreement from both departments that people were last with 1 given by all six staff.

Case study 3 perceived tasks as taking precedence in the management of the organisation as a polytechnic, with structures receiving 9 points from humanities and 6 points from engineering, and people with 9 points from engineering and 6 points from humanities. Systems came last with an almost equal vote from both engineering and humanities. As a university tasks again took precedence with an almost unanimous vote from both departments, systems second with a heavier weighting from humanities, structures third with an almost equal vote across departments and people came last.

As Leavitt stated, the advantage of recognising the variables as possible approaches to organisational change provide the manager with four interacting variables to create multiple points of intervention.

Table 19 A summary of questionnaire responses; Q.13 -16:
Q.13. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your department?

never			not usually			Sometimes			usually			Always		
case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case
1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	0	H=1	H=1	H=2	E=3	E=3	E=3	0	0	0
									H=1	H=2	H=1			

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Case indicates case study. *Number* indicates number of responses.

The following questions were based on the theories of organisational cultures and sub-cultures drawn from Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989), Sergiovanni (1994), Bush (1995) and Brown (1995). As cultural models have focused on the shared values and beliefs in organisations, the following questions aimed to discover staffs' perceptions of shared values with the department (Q.13) and with the organisation when it was a polytechnic (Q.14). The aim of these questions was to establish if the change in structure had affected attitudes towards shared values and beliefs, and therefore the organisational culture.

Responses to question 13 indicated that 13 of the respondents usually shared the same values and beliefs as their department, with 4 respondents indicating that they sometimes shared the same values and beliefs. All engineering respondents indicated that they usually shared the same values and beliefs as their departments, whilst the

humanities respondents were evenly spread over sometimes and usually sharing the same values and beliefs. Responses to question 14 indicated that 14 of the respondents usually shared the same values and beliefs of their department when it was a polytechnic, 2 responses for not usually and 2 responses for always. All engineering respondents were usually or always in favour with 2 humanities respondents stating that they were not usually sharing.

In summary, it could be seen from questions 13 and 14 that the respondents 'sometimes' and 'usually' shared the same values and beliefs as their department, but 'usually' and 'always' shared the values and beliefs of the departments when it was a polytechnic. The findings indicated that there was greater sharing of values and beliefs when the departments were in a polytechnic structure. As an organisation's culture can be expressed in part from shared values and beliefs, it is an important indicator of the development and maintenance of an organisation's culture.

Table 20 Q.14. Would you say that you shared the same values and beliefs of your department when it was a polytechnic?

Never			not usually			Sometimes			usually			Always		
case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case
1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	H=2	0	0	0	E=3 H=2	E=2 H=2	E=3 H=1	0	E=1 H=1	0

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Case indicates case study. *Number* indicates number of responses.

Table 21 Q.15. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your organisation?

never			not usually			Sometimes			usually			Always		
case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case
1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	E=1	E=1	E=2	E=1	E=2	E=1	E=1	0	0	0	0
						H=2	H=2	H=3		H=1				

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Case indicates case study. *Number* indicates number of responses.

Table 22 Q.16. Would you say that you shared the same values and beliefs as your organisation when it was a polytechnic?

never			not usually			Sometimes			usually			Always		
case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case	case
1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	0	E=1	0	E=1	E=2	E=2	E=2	0	E=1	H=1
						H=1		H=2	H=1	H=3				

E = Responses from Engineering Department. H = Responses from Humanities Department.

Case indicates case study. *Number* indicates number of responses.

Questions 15 and 16 aimed to identify respondent's perceptions regarding shared values and beliefs as a university organisation, and when the organisation was a polytechnic. Responses to question 15 indicated that 3 of the respondents usually

shared the same values and beliefs as their department, 12 respondents indicating that they sometimes shared the same values and beliefs, and 2 respondents indicating that they did not usually share the same values and beliefs. The engineering respondents spread their responses from 'not usually' to 'usually', whilst the humanities respondents were fairly focused on 'sometimes' sharing the same values and beliefs.

Responses to question 16 indicated that 5 respondents 'sometimes' shared the same values and beliefs of their organisation when it was a polytechnic, with 10 of the respondents stating that they 'usually' shared the same values and beliefs, and 2 respondents stating that they 'always' shared the same values and beliefs.

In summary, it can be seen from questions 15 and 16, that the respondents 'sometimes' and 'usually' shared the same values and beliefs as their department, but 'usually' and 'always' shared the values and beliefs of the departments when it was a polytechnic.

It can be seen that the respondents do 'not usually', 'sometimes' or 'usually' share the same values and beliefs as their organisation now that it is a university. When the organisation was a polytechnic the respondents 'sometimes', 'usually' and 'always' shared the same values and beliefs of the organisation. The responses indicate that staff perceived that they had a more positive affinity with the values and beliefs of the organisation when it was a polytechnic. Responses from questions 13 to 16 indicated that there has been a shift in cultural attitudes within the organisations from polytechnic to current university status, indicating that the dissolution of the binary divide brought with it explicit and implicit structural and consequential cultural changes.

As Brown (1996) stated, 'most organisations contain subcultures which compete with the dominant culture. As individuals face different situations, experiences and problems, they also develop different solutions' (p.28). According to Martin and Siehl's (1993) 'three typologies of subcultures, there appeared from the data to have been a move from *enhancing* subcultures where individuals agree with the beliefs and values of the dominant subculture, to *orthogonal* where the individuals subscribe to the dominant organisational culture but also accept a separate set of beliefs and values to those of the organisation. As a result organisations are often viewed as a combination of subcultures.

Although the findings provide illuminating data, the researcher is aware that the sample surveyed is small relative to the total population. As a result there must be a cautious approach to attributing causality and forming judgements. The pitfalls of fallacy of interpretation and the bias of overweighing the importance and frequency of particular trends should be avoided.

The implications of the research results are further discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

The key purpose of this investigation was to research the relationship between organisational structure and culture in an attempt to identify the factors that create/affect the culture of academic staff in the new universities. Three 'new' universities were targeted for the survey as the dissolution of the binary divide in 1992 had created an environment of competition, challenge and change. Eighteen academic staff were surveyed, as Geertz (1973) suggested that studies of culture should focus on the 'natives point of view', that is, what people living the culture consider to be significant about the way they live.

5.2 Discussion

The new universities had developed from the polytechnic system and with the development came changes in structure, systems and consequently culture. The researcher worked with the notion that the emphasis of educational management had been placed in the realm of organisational structuring and re-structuring with a lesser emphasis placed on the concerns of individuals in the changing culture of Higher Education. The interview schedule and questionnaire designed for this research were aimed at academic staff, in an attempt to elicit a representative collection of perceptions regarding factors which influence and affect organisational culture within new universities. Triangulation through a mixed method approach attempted to add depth for the analyses of a very broad and complex field of study. The presentation of

findings illustrates the relationships between the key questions asked and the range of responses.

The four key aims of the research were as follows:

- 1, to establish the factors which create/affect organisational cultures in 'new' universities.
- 2, to establish if the transition from polytechnic to university influenced the organisational culture within the universities.
- 3, to identify the organisational culture characteristics in the 'new' universities.
- 4, to investigate if there was a unified culture in the 'new' universities, as indicated through the departments surveyed.

The questions aimed to identify the patterns and trends experienced by staff in the transition from polytechnic to university status. The obvious change of name from polytechnic to university has not been the only factor to influence organisational culture. The internal changes frequently noted and associated with the transition from polytechnic to university were: the introduction of the modular curriculum; the introduction of the research assessment exercise; the increase in student numbers; and the decrease in length of programmes.

The conclusions are context bound as they have taken place in a real social world with real consequences for those involved. This study attempts to present a reasonable view of 'what has happened', what was believed and interpreted.

In terms of objectivity and confirmability the study's general methods and procedures have been described explicitly in chapter 3, as the researcher is aware that the conclusions depended on the subjects and conditions of the inquiry. The process of the study was also designed to establish consistency across research methods and therefore create reliability in the method of presenting and collating data. The findings are descriptive and present an image of the views held by staff working in the new university sector. The researcher has aimed in the conclusions to interpret and understand the findings whilst emphasising validity by checking and questioning. Triangulation by complementary research methods and data sources produced generally converging conclusions. Where appropriate, data have also been linked to prior theory in the analysis. The conclusions aim to give initial meaning to the research by identifying patterns, looking at contrasts, clarifying relationships and attempting to build a coherent understanding.

5.3 Outcomes: drawn from research questions.

The outcomes in relation to the key questions can be summarised as follows:

Outcomes of key question 1 were drawn from the interview/questionnaire schedule, and primarily from literature. It is a broad and overarching question, which aimed to

identify the factors which create/affect organisational cultures. The research findings indicated that the 'new' universities were experiencing a significant change in their structures, systems and the expectations placed on staff. The questions were therefore framed around the issues of structure, influences, the identification of values and belief, and how they are expressed. The interview questions 1-7 were designed and developed on the basis of literature by a wide range of authors on the subject of structure and culture in higher education. The researcher's motivation for following this line of discovery was described by Bush (1995) as, "a wish to understand and operate more effectively within this informal domain" (p.131), and Millikan (1989), when he claimed that the study of culture served to define the uniqueness of an organisation. The outcomes of key question one established a list of criteria which affect/create organisational culture in the new universities. Organisational structures, systems, funding, curriculum diversity, expansionism, motivation and role diversity were a number of the broader criteria most frequently noted by staff, and in the literature. Many of these criteria have been expanded on more fully through the following key questions 2-4.

Questions 8 and 9 of the questionnaire schedule aimed to identify the characteristics of the departments and universities surveyed and were derived from Handy's Four Cultures Model. Question 8 concerned the characteristics of the departments. Both departments surveyed across the case study universities viewed their culture as being Task and Role orientated, with a less frequent occurrence of Club culture, and a nil response for Person culture. The results indicated that both departments' priorities and organisational culture were similar in the humanities and engineering departments, with a noticeable nil response for Person culture. The findings supported the

researcher's working notion that educational management was characterised by a focus on structure and less on the individuals. The universities were perceived as predominantly Role culture, with formal structures and formal communication, rather than a person to person approach. Neither the humanities nor the engineering staff identified with just one of Handy's types of organisational culture, and in fact were spread from club to task across the three case studies. The perceptions of the departments and the university character as a whole give some indication as to the influences and affects on organizational cultures in the 'new' universities. These are exemplified by the following comments:

"I think that something that we have lost in the transition from polytechnic to university is our working together".

"Attitudes have changed, it's much more management and bureaucracy led".

Outcomes of key question 2 were drawn from the interview and questionnaire responses. It illustrated staff's perceptions regarding the influence on organisational culture as a response to the transition from polytechnic to university status. As described in the research findings, a number of trends were frequently noted and will be discussed individually.

The interview responses highlighted two distinct changes, which were anticipated in the literature review: namely, the changes in structure, which are the visible and tangible features which respond to pressures internally and externally; and a further major change in how the curriculum is designed and managed as a result of modularization. As O'Neill (1994) stated, the organisational structures are complex as they attempt to effectively and efficiently develop and deliver educational needs.

Within the scope of this research, questions regarding organisational structures focused on internal practice and perceptions of structures, and also the way in which the management structures were perceived to respond to external demands. O'Neill (1994) and Anthony (1994) made the comment that there are benefits which exist between a positive relationship of structure and culture, which supports the pursuit of investigation to understand more fully the relationship which exists. O'Neill (1994) believed that the relationship between organisational structure and culture was of great importance within the field of educational management. McNay's (1994) model described four organisational types based on Weick's (1976) concept of 'loosely coupled systems'. They are collegial, bureaucracy, corporation and enterprise. McNay had indicated that a movement from the first towards the last was normal in universities. This model of universities as organisations was tested in question 12, and the results indicated that there has been a shift in balance and a move of culture over the years. The responses indicated that the polytechnic culture was perceived as collegial, and the university as corporate. Although this was the overall trend, McNay's comment that all four cultures co-exist in most universities, with the balance depending upon factors such as, traditions, leadership, mission and external pressures was also evidenced. According to Dobson and McNay (1996), although collegiality may not be viewed as creating efficiencies, it may be viewed as an approach which creates the potential of a good university rather than 'rampant managerialism'. As staff commented:

"I think we are becoming very fractionalised now. All this business nowadays of mission statements, it is to my mind a cover up".

"The need for us to actively market ourselves has come about since the shift to university status. That has had a knock on effect in our department as we have had to

become more strategic in our thinking. We have had to be more aware of promoting ourselves”.

Dobson and McNay also stated that there had been a role change for managers in the new university sector, as they have become more generalist and have extended the scope of their skills to manage a new environment of increased pressures. This statement was supported by such comments as:

“The nature of the work we do has changed quite dramatically, it’s much more academic now”.

“There is more emphasis on researching and obtaining money from outside sources”.

According to O’Neill (1994) the structural design should promote, enhance and facilitate an organisation’s effectiveness. However, many academics found that this was not their experience. For example:

“The university has totally gone over to a line management, and it has restructured all its committees, and now it’s a top down situation totally”.

“Its the home of the formal meeting and sub-committee. All the creative stuff happens on a less formal level, on individual contact”.

O’Neill (1994), illustrated the principal differences between organisational structures as ‘traditional’ and ‘radical’. Within a traditional structure new activities are seen as becoming absorbed into the existing way of doing things. In a radical structure, the new activities demand a rethink and a flexible response, which are interpreted as ad-hoc in nature.

The analysis of question 10 indicated that the polytechnic was perceived as being predominantly radical, whilst the university was perceived as being traditional. One might assume that the older structures would have had a traditional character and the new universities a more radical character. The responses gained were the reverse of this, with the new universities seen as having characteristics of a traditional nature. This may be due in part to the academic staff feeling a loss of autonomy and power in their positions as their working environments developed even more complex hierarchical structures to elaborate the dominating bureaucratic organisational structures. Responses from question 10 of the questionnaire are congruent with responses gained from interview, indicating that the change of organisational structure had impacted on organisational culture and behaviour. Staff stated for example that: "There is a genuine concern that there is not enough communication between the head of department and the department staff, as he tends to be quite formal and hierarchical". "I think that policy is tight but structures are too complex to control, they are not amenable to be controlled. The policy is very bureaucratic but loosely implemented". "Responsibility is devolved on an ad-hoc basis, there is no formal structure, we do things ourselves".

As Miles (1975) discovered in a survey of 1,000 managers, "the top down approach was their most favoured method when it came to re-organisation of their subordinates' work methods" (p.232). Carlson (1975) described organisations that encouraged a business/market environment as 'wild', as a way to survive. In this respect the organisations surveyed could be described as wild, as they have responded to internal

and external pressures, with business acumen in an attempt to compete and survive financially. As one staff member stated:

“There is more emphasis on research now and income generation, to the disadvantage of students as far as I am concerned”.

Although the Government had encouraged university expansion, the amount that the universities are paid for each student has dropped, and professional salaries have stagnated. For this reason, Warwick (1997) believed that universities would not be able to provide quality across the broad range of courses available. It would appear from the staff surveyed that this was a significant and real dilemma, which has in part been due to the added changes of curriculum design and implementation through the modular route.

The introduction of the modular curriculum was perceived by most as being a significant factor, changing structure, culture and performance. The diversity and breadth of curriculum now offered was perceived as being associated in part with the new university status. Although staff acknowledged that all Higher Education [new universities and old universities alike] had experienced these curricular issues, comparisons of organisational culture were hardly mentioned. The plight of the new university sector was portrayed by staff as being a unique situation with little reference to other sectors experiencing organisational change, and in this case modularisation.

Warwick (1987), Fullan (1987), Watson (1989), Robertson (1993) and Young (1995), provide a range of opinion and approaches to modular management. It appeared that

the relationship between theory and the practice was slight. There appeared to be some relationship between academic staffs' needs and that of 'good practice' theory, but little if any relationship between theory and practice. Watson (1989) identified indicators of successful modular planning as seen in Table 6. The factors indicated by Watson had also been identified by staff as being necessary, but somehow problematic in practice. One staff member stated, "Modularisation is a big strategic change, and it was dropped on us as though it was just another admin job". If modularisation is to work effectively as a strategy to deal with curriculum challenges and educational change, numerous factors need to be addressed by management. Bell and Wade (1993), stated that, "modules, like other curriculum innovations, require not only leadership but debate and the development of staff consensus" (p.7). One staff member stated, "...a positive management lead is needed, which demonstrates that they are convinced that modular is the way to go, not that this is a nice easy cost cutting exercise". This was required along with better communication with staff. As another staff member stated, "We should have had presentations on this, in what you're doing, with a philosophy along with the economics. There should have been some educational philosophy, but they never asked any of the course leaders that I'm aware of, the question 'what would you get out of modularisation?' There was never any structure of change. It should have a structure of meetings, presentations, implementation and review".

One of the most commonly mentioned potential benefits of modularisation identified by staff was that of student flexibility and choice in curriculum. Sieminski (1993), stated however that, "...despite the rhetoric of student centredness, learners' freedom and choice with respect to content of the curriculum may be more constrained than it

appears on the surface” (p.96). One staff member stated that, “The free choice is not a reality in many subject areas, because of pre-requisites”. This supported Bell and Wade’s (1993) comment that, “interpretations of the concept of choice” inhibit the development of modular courses.

The academic staff interviewed acknowledged that modularisation was still in its infancy in their universities and that the teething problems were many and varied. With the constant financial squeeze in education, management faced a dilemma of increasing student/staff ratios, curriculum change and complex modular planning and procedures with a minimum of the support required for smooth implementation. As one staff member stated, “As yet we have never had any explanation of why we need modularisation...It is an educational hot potato, and it caused many staff to resign because they don’t think it is a way of retaining standards”.

Further comments regarding modularisation featured issues such as staff dissatisfaction with the change in the length of programmes, student performance and quality issues.

“A linear programme provided us with a large teaching programme which was continuous and we had a lot of time with them. Now modularity is a very crowded programme. It has meant a big change in administration, in target setting for modules and so on”. “Our teaching weeks have gone down. When I started it was 34 weeks now it’s 24 teaching weeks”.

Other comments indicate that the modular approach appears to have increased the amount of administration and assessment involved. In relation to the concerns of reduced tutorial time spent with students, the following comments were made,

“We have had to shift priorities, and whether that has had a negative effect on the quality of the teaching is another question.”

“We have now to teach in groups rather than on a one to one basis. The consequences are that students are not getting as much experience.”

The increase in student numbers in association with the modular approach has created many challenges for staff. As one staff member stated,

“Originally I think people were clear that they were engineers teaching engineering, and now we are engineers teaching all sorts of people, we don’t really know why. The entrance levels have changes and it has affected the level that students are entering the courses”.

Such feelings are very similar to those reported in a very recent study of modularisation (Warner 1996). Warner distributed a questionnaire to 200 academic managers in Higher Education regarding issues of popularity of courses, quality of courses and workloads for staff and students. His results corroborate many of the trends and findings identified in this smaller scale work. Warner summarised staffs’ positive comments on modularisation, for example:

“It has forced colleagues to carry out a long-needed review of courses and student workload; stimulus to efficient curriculum”.

“It allows students to ‘tailor’ programmes to their own needs.”

However many comments were negative, such as:

“Students fail to grasp basics, indulge in surface learning, emphasise fact acquisition rather than real learning.”

“Has drastically lowered academic standards.”

Warner stated that HE institutions need to approach modularisation with caution, identifying objectives carefully and ensuring adequate resourcing. “It was never conceived as curriculum development, so the central education issues in curriculum which it raises are neither rehearsed nor resourced” (p.31).

As he concluded, “Requiring modularity of a population of staff and students who were not seeking it is a challenge to the collegiate nature of the university itself” (p.31).

As indicated in the current research the move to modularity has brought about change in structure and culture in the new universities, and they are no longer perceived as being collegial.

According to Barnett (1997), universities are experiencing a “knowledge crisis and no longer know what they are for” (Baty, 1997,p.3). Barnett argues that mass higher education has led to ‘marketisation’, which has in turn created a confused state as to the what and how of a knowledge base. This has been the result of modularization, which has created diversity in qualifications available. “Pure knowledge is losing its authority” (p.3).

Further factors influencing the organisational culture of the new universities were the introduction of a research culture, the research assessment exercise and associated funding issues. Staff comments included:

“What does the university want? Top class research or top class teaching”.

“The department now thinks that the importance of research is very much on the agenda and a lot of effort is put into doing more research and upping our rating. Once again funding depends on that and we are now in the same ‘pool’ as older universities”.

Funding issues are dominating factors controlling the new universities’ survival. The introduction of the HEFCE, HEQC and its consequential funding systems are controlling the input of finance. One of these systems could be seen in the RAE. Staff surveyed from all case study universities indicated clearly the change in organisation culture as a response to the RAE. As one staff member stated:

“There is much less contact between staff and students, and I think that the quality of our teaching is probably poorer”.

The requirement for staff to be actively involved in research has altered dramatically the balance of emphasis and value placed upon the teaching activities, with an implicit role change for staff. As the HEQC (1995) stated, managers are having to find new ways of coping with change, as they diversify their roles at both strategic and operational levels, to balance the demands of both teaching and research.

This was further supported by the survey conducted by the Times Higher Education Supplement, which revealed that expansion of provision in HE without adequate support has ‘lowered education standards’ (Jobbins 1997,p.1). The new Quality Assurance Agency led by Randall stated that as this was a national concern it would be looking at strategies to monitor standards, as the status of teaching and learning in relation to research was unclear.

The focus on research and university performance in the RAE is increasingly the key to the strategies of many universities, as stated by Muckersie (1996). Dobson and McNay(1996) felt that the RAE has kept the pressure on the universities to continue with a corporate bureaucracy culture, as it steers and controls the culture and activities of staff. There has been no doubt among staff that the RAE has directly impacted on the amount of funding received by the departments and the universities as a whole. As Muckersie (1996) pointed out, the realities for a department's survival could depend on a difference of one grade, as such a difference could mean a difference as much as 1.5 million pounds over four years. If that hasn't provided enough pressure for staff to participate in research activities to attain the highest research grade possible in the assessment exercise, Vice Chancellors complained to the HEFCE that the research funding methodology was unclear, and that the goal posts were moved in retrospect regarding the rating system. Some departments were quite explicit about the fact that teaching posts had been replaced on many occasions with full time research staff as a way of upping their grading at assessment time. This has created a dilemma amongst many of the staff surveyed, as teaching is perceived as being devalued in the face of research. As one staff member stated:

"Now the requirements are on research and the onus will be on practitioners, but set against that is who is doing the teaching? What is teaching?"

Swain (1997) supported this point when he stated that the despondency felt by staff as a result of the emphasis put on the RAE was apparent in the universities. Swain reported that deadlines for research and the juggling of research and teaching activities has, 'turned up the heat' according to the HEFCE. The recruitment of research staff in place of teaching posts has also impacted on the morale of those who see themselves primarily as teachers. One staff member commented that there were as

many research staff in the department as there were teaching staff, and that the research staff were not generally interested in teaching. A recent survey of staff had shown that stress levels were highest among those feeling least valued. It was also noted that the new university sector felt 'left out', as staff were less familiar with the RAE, and they had fewer links in general with external funding bodies. In addition the organisational culture has altered, as many research staff are seen to be less concerned with student learning and welfare and so disassociate themselves from the social and discursive element of a traditional lecturer's role, to one of self contained personal, professional and research orientated goals. "The younger people are more interested in getting on with their research and career path"

Outcomes of key question 3. The interview and questionnaire responses highlighted a number of major characteristics found in the new university sector. The predominant characteristics identified are as a result of the new universities moving into an environment of expansion with a new funding system, new academic structures, new curriculum structures, role diversification and a perceived shift in the priorities which take precedence in the management of the departments.

Question 12 aimed to identify the factors which took precedence in the management of the departments surveyed, based on Leavitt's (1964) theory of organisational change. As described in the analysis of this question, it could be seen that both engineering and humanities departments across case studies identified tasks as taking precedence in the management of the departments, structures took second place, systems third and people fourth. Views drawn from literature in addition to

perceptions drawn from the interviews corroborate the findings seen in the analysis of question 12. This question in particular draws attention to the division in priority given to the structural components of an organisation and emphasises the lack of attention given to the people aspect of the organisations' culture. Many staff surveyed commented on the fact that if the paper work was done they were pretty much left alone to get on with their job, and little attention was paid to them or their professional development, with a general feeling of isolation and lack of communication. "Our culture in this department is different from other departments in the university. I don't know why but it has a lot to do with management. The people are isolated among themselves. They do not socialise too much, they do not talk to each other too much. Everyone's too busy doing their own things and we hardly speak to one another".

Comments concerning job satisfaction and motivation were frequently noted. Staff indicated a concern that there seemed to be little in the form of incentives, as one individual stated:

"There are no incentives for lecturers now. If you show an interest you get dumped with a lot of admin".

The way in which staff worked together was also often mentioned. Staffs' opportunities to work together were perceived to have diminished over the years with an increased feeling of isolation. The common feelings of isolation expressed by staff exacerbated the concerns shown for their changing roles and the tenure of their jobs.

As a number of staff stated:

"We haven't got a management team and we don't meet each other".

“The isolation that people feel in their work has increased over the years. I would like to socialise with colleagues but I don’t have time to take a half hour coffee break if there are other things to be done”.

“There is not much informal chatting that goes on. The main link of communication now for me is email”.

Question 8 and 9 of the questionnaire schedule aimed to identify the characteristics of the department and university culture. Humanities and engineering departments were perceived as predominantly Task and Role culture. According to Handy’s typologies of organisational culture, Task culture is seen as one where performance is judged in terms of results and relationships are not valued as important. The questionnaire findings corroborate the perceptions given of departmental culture gained from the interview responses. Question 9 aimed to characterise the university culture as a whole. Responses indicated that the universities were characterised as predominantly role culture where there is a formal structure, where responsibility is associated with official positions, and communication is formal between roles rather than between people.

Outcomes of key question 4 identified whether there was a unified culture in the new universities, as indicated through the departments surveyed. Staff indicated through the interviews that there were a number of issues relating to the perceptions of a unified culture within the universities. One concern noted frequently was the perceived conflict between management decisions and staff views. A conflict of values was evidenced in the following comments:

“The higher management don’t seem to listen. I really do wish that the management would listen to us more”.

“They are administrative decisions not academic”.

“We have never met all together. I think it’s sort of a divide and rule policy. When the three schools get together we are very vocal. It’s very rare to come together as a team or in a social occasion”.

“The Dean has told us it’s a consolidation period, but I don’t trust him a little bit”.

“I think that they are and have striven to increase the research effort, which they have done. I think that there are a lot of staff that don’t own that value”.

“I don’t think that there is a philosophy. we have mission statements and strategic plans and all that sort of thing. I’m not aware of any values and beliefs, it’s all ad hoc”.

“The school review found that the lines of management were unclear and I think this also relates to an unclear philosophy as well”.

“I don’t think that our values and beliefs reflect the organisation’s values and beliefs because I don’t think that the organisation is in the business of education, they are in business”.

Questions 13-16 of the interview were based on the theories of organisational cultures and sub-cultures drawn from Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989), Sergiovanni (1994), Bush (1995) and Brown (1995). The questions aimed to discover staff perceptions of shared values with the department (Q,13) and with the organisation when it was a polytechnic (Q,14).

In summary the findings indicated that there was greater sharing of values and beliefs when the departments were in a polytechnic structure. As an organisation's culture can be expressed in part from shared values and beliefs, these are an important indicator of the development and maintenance of an organisation's culture.

Questions 15 and 16 aimed to identify respondents' perceptions regarding shared values and beliefs as a university organisation, and when it was a polytechnic. In summary it could be seen from the responses that staff had a more positive affinity with the values and beliefs of the organisation when it was a polytechnic. The findings of the questionnaire ranking scales as used in questions 13-16 concur with the findings drawn from the interview responses in indicating that there was a general lack of unification around the organisation's culture.

The findings also indicated that staff priorities and their perceptions of organisational culture were very similar between departments. It appeared that staff had perceived greater differences between departments, suggesting that they were different in some way. The findings indicated however that departments were more homogenous than staff predicted. Perhaps this was a tactic for the organisations to survive internal and external pressures. Staff perceived that their departments were different to other departments but were collectively dealing with very similar organisational change.

The interviews indicated a clash in values and priorities between staff and those expressed by management. This was demonstrated according to staff through a lack of consultation with staff on major issues such as modularization, structural re-arrangements within the department, reduced individual autonomy, increased hierarchy and unclear definition of educational aims. These factors were perceived by

staff to have influenced motivation and morale in their roles. Literature reviewed on the issues of motivation expressed clearly many of the theories which describe the promotion of motivation, or deal with the lack of it. As Riches (1994) stated, factors which motivate staff are a core element of human resource management, and it is the central purpose of management to motivate people and get results. As he stated, the growing culture of competition requires the maximization of human resources, and the increase in technology could never replace the need for, "well trained and highly motivated people" (p.244). A number of the concepts related to motivation were summarised by Riches as stress, job satisfaction and morale. These factors have appeared in conversation repeatedly with staff as they cope with increased student numbers, increased alienation from the organisation's structure and its mechanisms, evidenced through systems and procedures many of which are not seen as directly improving the teaching and learning experience.

The responses gained from both interview and questionnaire data have portrayed a picture of a lack of a unified culture in the new universities surveyed. Regularly occurring themes were noted on the issues of distrust of management motives, a conflict of values and beliefs held between staff and management, and feelings of disillusionment and inadequate communication. As indicated by staff many of these experiences had been due in part to becoming a new university, in part to the general changes occurring in Higher Education, and in part were generated by organisational behaviour and management.

5.4 Concluding Summary

This study has provided an examination of the changing culture of new universities. It is the first known extensive study of culture in the new universities, and attempts to describe the vast sweep of change as seen by people involved in the sector. The study has set out to identify factors affecting the culture of the new university environments, how organisational structures have influenced culture, and the implications perceived by staff.

A study of engineering and humanities departments across three former polytechnics' confirms that there cannot be one culture that ensures success. Culture is a relative entity, and a three dimensional organism stretching horizontally and vertically, with many overlapping layers of sub-cultures. "In order for an organisation to be continually successful, it must have more than just a strong and appropriate culture, it must be able to continuously adapt to its environment" (Brown 1995,p.188).

The need for strong leadership to steer the departments through such change has been noted in literature and by the staff surveyed. Sergiovanni (1984), Nias et al (1989), Caldwell and Spinks (1992), Alvesson (1993), Anthony (1994), Bush (1995) and O'Neill (1995) stated that leadership in educational management should provide the support for the development of its organisation's culture. The maintenance of a strong organisational culture is the responsibility of leadership, to provide guidance and create a sense of unity. In relation to the question of leadership, staff commented that there was 'dreadful decision making' with responsibility being devolved on an ad-hoc basis. Communication between the head of department and department staff was

described as being quite formal and hierarchical. The concern of management listening to staff opinion was also noted, as one respondent stated:

“The higher management don’t seem to listen. I really do wish that the management would listen to us more”.

As organisational environments change, adaptability is essential for survival and continuance of a strong culture. In relation to the polytechnics becoming universities, general opinion from respondents was that the culture as a polytechnic was stronger, and the environment more cohesive, than presently experienced as a ‘new’ university. This may of course be viewed as familiarity versus the challenge of the new. The consequences of change have however had a meaningful impact on individuals. As one respondent stated, “The dynamics of the way staff work has changed over the years”. In this respect it is no surprise that the impact of change as a result of the dissolution of the binary divide altered dramatically the culture of the organizations’ environments. When the subject of organisational culture was discussed with staff it was noted that the subject was not perceived to have been discussed or considered within their work/management experience. It had been an issue to receive little discussion in terms of internal strategies or performance. Staff indicated that numerous situations had resulted due to the lack of communication and leadership, resulting in ‘fire fighting’ tactics and producing unsatisfactory solutions. The implications of modularisation, increased student numbers and funding issues were often noted as examples.

Interviewing staff across departments and universities was in reality a daunting experience. The over-riding sense of tension, stress, and fear of losing their jobs were

predominant themes. As one respondent stated, "The most important thing is that the department is trying to survive right now".

The study has been an informing window into the changing environment of higher education. The sample group had been chosen on the grounds of particular criteria, one of which had been their involvement in the organisation when it was a polytechnic and now as a new university. As a result the process of visiting and talking to the individuals within their own context had the added value of consciousness raising regarding the issues of change and through discussion identifying the influence of structure on culture for the individuals within their own organisation.

The creation of counter cultures was also evidenced according to staff, as rewards were noted for income generation and research efforts, such as a new desk or a new computer. As one individual stated, "The value of what you do is very much graded". The unfortunate non- achievers in terms of management priorities felt devalued, and their lack of research created perceived penalties. The tension existing between teaching and research activities received considerable comment. Harvey (1997) stated that, "Teaching is not highly valued in our society, but if academe shows little respect for it, and fails to demonstrate and support the highest levels of skills, this situation is hardly likely to improve" (p.13). McNay (1997) also reported on this issue, and stated that, "departments that scored excellently in teaching assessments were not rewarded as much as those which did well in the RAE" (Hinde,1997,p.5). A number of staff indicated that there was more emphasis on the research, which had not been their experience when it was a polytechnic. Then the predominant focus was perceived to

be teaching and learning. Respondents also commented that their departments were placing more emphasis on researching and obtaining money from outside sources. This posed the question of, “What does the university want? Top class research or top class teaching?” as one respondent asked.

Survey results reported by Thomson (1997) revealed, “Seventy-one percent agreed that promotion was too dependent on published work and too little on devotion to teaching. The union (AUT) says this may reflect the pressures of the research assessment exercise” (p.52).

The expansion of student numbers, curriculum diversification and delivery have created great concern for the quality of provision in the ‘new’ university sector. Bell (1990) stated that, “The nature of higher education is changing. Its essence is being redefined. The old certainties are being questioned. We are no longer sure what it is” (p.11). Jobbins (1997) reported the results of a survey conducted for the Times Higher Education Supplement by ICM of five hundred lecturers across the country. This revealed that up to 69 per cent of lecturers believed that, “the rise in student numbers is leading to lowered education standards” (p.1). This attitude was most strongly held by university lecturers (72 per cent), particularly in engineering departments (85 per cent). The survey also revealed that lecturers on the whole felt that expansion in universities had gone far enough, with over half (59 per cent) thinking that it should not expand any further, against one third (34 per cent) who believed it should still continue. With the expansion of student numbers the question of quality in terms of delivery and outcomes have come into question. As one respondent said, “Originally I think people were clear that they were engineers teaching engineering, and now we

are engineers teaching all sorts of people, we don't really know why. The entrance levels have changed and it has effected the level that students are entering the courses". Further concerns regarding quality issues identified by staff referred to the expectation of teaching bigger groups of students with a greater diversity of skills. Staff perceived that the student learning experience was being affected and that, 'the consequences are that students are not getting as much experience'. The limited contact time between staff and students was also identified as impacting upon the quality of teaching. As one respondent stated, 'I think that the quality of our teaching is probably poorer'.

Theoretical models on organisational culture, strategy and performance (discussed in chapter 2) are not definitive, but share many of the same significant points, the primary one being that culture does have a direct influence upon an organisation's performance. With such rich literature and theory to hand, educational management in the new university sector has little excuse to ignore the consequences of its organisations' culture. The hypothesis investigated within the scope of this research was that, 'structure was supported and culture ignored in the new university sector'. The findings corroborate in many cases the support of structural factors with a lesser focus on human resources and people management. The investigations carried out within this research have illustrated many of the benefits of a 'strong' organisational culture, and its potential in terms of strategy development, motivation and performance.

Structures are only one aspect of an organisation's tangible infrastructure available to achieve the range of tasks required from the new university sector. However, the

findings indicated that most energy in educational management was spent on redesigning management structures. As staff indicated, "There are infinitely more meetings directed from the university to do with Quality assurance procedures and protocols". The university agendas were perceived as being 'politically led and economically led'. The findings from the questionnaire also corroborated the feelings expressed in interview. The responses indicated that there had been a perceived shift from a radical to a traditional organisational culture, and that the majority perceived the university organisation as being corporate. It appeared from literature and the research findings that a much deeper and potentially untapped resource existed with the staff in the organisations, in terms of what they could contribute given the right opportunities and leadership. Many respondents indicated a desire for increased communication and involvement in decision making. One respondent indicated that the bureaucracy experienced within the department, 'hampered a lot of ideas for developing the course'. This has raised a question regarding the most appropriate and most effective approach required for managing organisational change within the context of the new university environment. Staff noted on a number of instances how job satisfaction had decreased over the years and how feelings of disillusionment and isolation had increased.

The research findings have highlighted a number of issues concerning organisational culture and structure, its organisation and management. These are areas that would benefit from further research and development. Many factors have been identified by staff as being associated with the transition from polytechnic to university status and many are associated with the general change that has occurred in higher education.

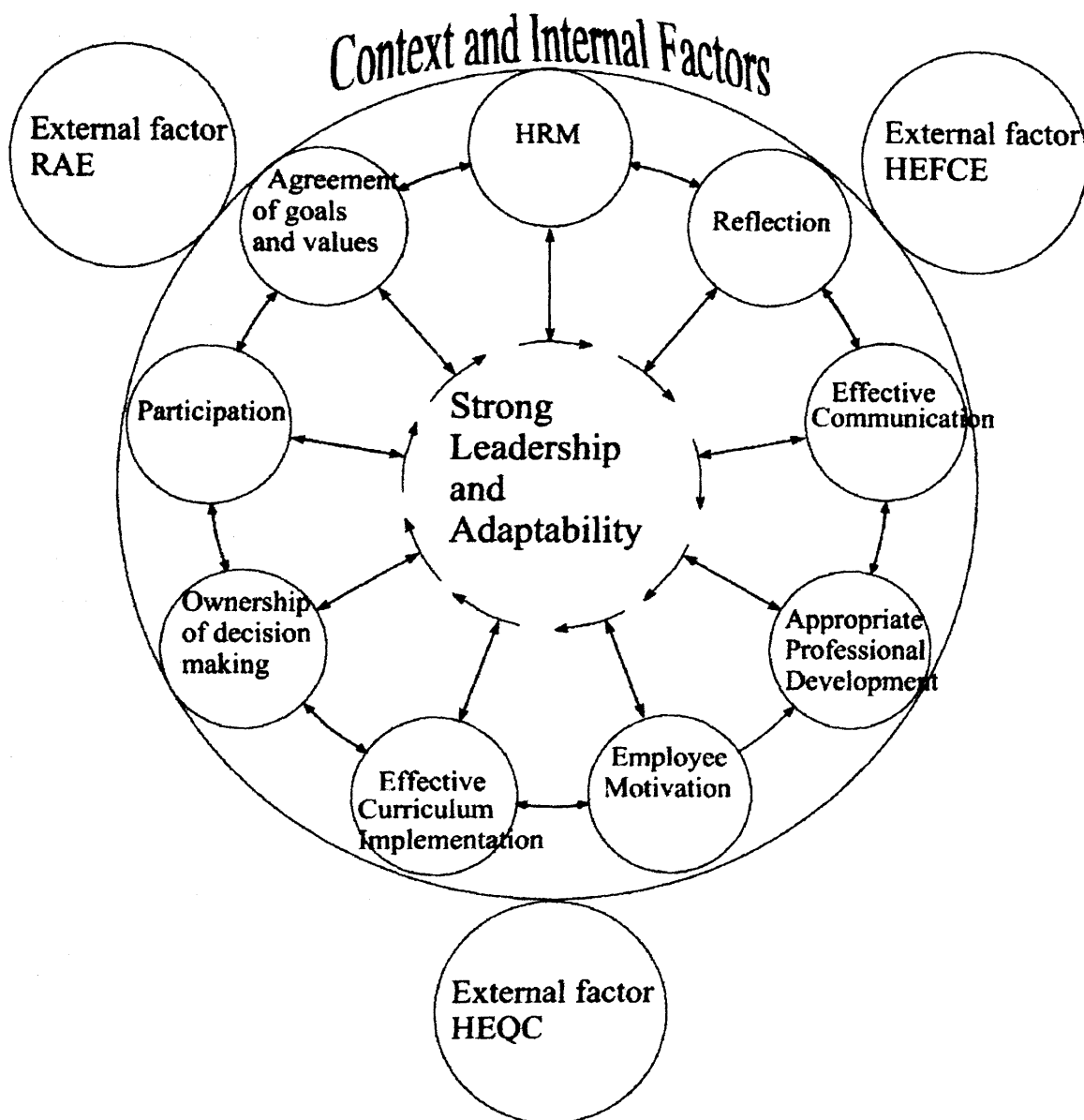
There is clearly a need for further investigations into the discipline of organisational culture, as a key element for educational managers. It is recognised that all the new universities have their own balance of ingredients, based upon internal and external factors, context and history. The most significant factors to arise from the research findings were those of increased hierarchy in management structures, decreased collegiality and communication between staff, reduced motivation at work and a decreased confidence in the leadership experienced in their organisations. From the case study findings, there was a general trend of opinion that the organisational culture of the polytechnics was viewed as more amenable and comfortable for staff than the present university system. So what are the differences? One respondent stated that the ethos of the school had changed and that the new ethos and central mission was not clearly communicated. This was due in part to the competition experienced between organisations. As the staff member stated, "When we were a poly we had a high reputation for our courses, but now we are all in the same 'pond', there are so many unis". At a time of competition and change a collegial and supportive environment is of great importance. However, one respondent indicated that, 'I think that something that we have lost in the transition from poly to uni, is our working together'. Departments were also perceived by staff to be operating on a financial footing and that, 'nurturing and sympathy and extra help that was available to students in the old poly is no longer available'.

Many issues for educational managers have been raised by the research and consequently many questions need to be addressed for the culture of the new university environments to improve. The researcher does not offer a definitive model for improvement of organisational culture for universities. The following factors (as

indicated in the conceptual model (Figure 7) are however viewed as the basis for practical recommendations, in order to encapsulate the potential available in the new university sector. Many of the elements evident within the conceptual model have been drawn from previous theory on organisational culture, strategy and performance such as Lundberg (1985), Gagliardi (1986), Denison (1990), Brown (1995), Kotter and Heskett (1992), Sergiovanni (1984), Bush (1995) and O'Neill (1995).

Figure 7

Conceptual model for effective cultures in new universities.



The conceptual model for effective cultures in new universities is an attempt to present a summary of some of the general features of organisational culture, which are associated with success. The conceptual model aims to present a practical model for consideration, integrating essential organisational components and their relationship

as indicated through literature and the research findings. Strong leadership and adaptability have a relationship with all components identified in Fig.7. In practice the components would need to be viewed within the context of an organisation by its manager, considering size, history, purpose and goals. For the success of any management development policy Doyle (1997) stated that, "They must ensure that development is linked to the philosophies and strategic objectives of the organisation, while at the same time taking account of individual needs, expectations and aspirations" (p.413). The recommendations do not attempt to offer specific guidelines for implementation, but identify the key issues to be considered in a conceptual framework which would assist in the creation of an effective organisational culture. For example as figure 7 illustrates, effective communication is one aspect of strong leadership, which in turn encourages reflection and appropriate professional development. The black lines linking the components together indicate how they could interact and describe direction and flow.

As the new universities move into the new millennium there is little doubt that they will look back. Many staff associated the polytechnic system with memories of autonomy in their roles, financial autonomy in their departments and general feelings of collegiality. In the new university environment of increased financial pressure, increased student numbers, diversity in curriculum and increased quality procedures the requirements for well managed organisational culture and structure are paramount for educational management to succeed. Staff had indicated a desire for confident leadership and management as a way forward and as a way of being involved in development and progress. Many of the key issues drawn from the research regarding the influence of structure on culture in Higher Education are management issues and

therefore are open to improvement. The following section on recommendations attempts to identify many of the key management issues for consideration.

5.5 Recommendations

It is recognised that the pressures from external influences are profound, and have impacted on both the organisational structure and culture within the new universities. Although each organisation is context bound with its own individual approach to management, there are three common external influences driven by government for all organisations to manage.

- HEQC (Higher Education Quality Council)
- HEFCE (Higher Education Funding Council England)
- RAE (Research Assessment Exercise)

The following criteria are offered as a conceptual framework for effective cultures in the new universities. They are derived from theory in the field of educational management, structure and culture and supported by the perceptions of staff. The criteria are derived from a wide range of concepts and theoretical position, but are not presumed to be comprehensive. The criteria are presented individually and substantiated with literature on the subject and the research findings.

- Strong leadership: *attending to internal and external demands in a collegial manner*. In terms of leadership Sergiovanni (1984), Nias et al (1989), Caldwell and Spinks (1992), Alvesson (1993), Anthony (1994), Bush (1993) and O'Neill (1995) stated that leadership in educational management should provide the

support for the development of an organisation's culture, as the maintenance of a strong organisational culture is the responsibility of leadership in order to provide guidance and create a sense of unity. Staff indicated concerns regarding management and leadership and stated for example that, 'we haven't got a management team', and 'lines of management are unclear and I think this also relates to an unclear philosophy as well'.

- *Adaptability: having the flexibility and confidence to create opportunities and solve problems.* Gagliardi's (1986) 'Framework for cultural change as an incremental process', offers a form of 'organisational adaptation' (Figure 3). In this view new values are seen to merge with the old, which is the perceived image of the new universities. This would however be dependent upon skilled leadership. Adaptability is recognised as an important factor when dealing with change, as in Brown's (1995) framework for understanding culture strategy and performance (Figure 4), which indicated that effective cultures include a consultative approach to decision making, adaptability and changing circumstances, and that the leadership is valued by its stakeholders. Denison's (1990) 'Culture and effectiveness model', also links the factors of adaptability, change and flexibility as vital for effectiveness. One individual's experience of adaptability and managing change in regard to modular issues was, 'be modularised or be not at all'. Staff indicated a desire for increased communication and information transfer as a way of empowering individuals and improving adaptability. This is of particular relevance to the new university sector as they manage internal and external activities.

- Human resource management: *to balance the needs for teaching and research.*

According to Brown (1995), “Together the development of the culture and HRM literature are evidence of an intellectual refocusing on people in organisations as a means by which sustainable competitive advantage can be achieved” (p.2). Theory on HRM also states that to maximise the potential of individuals they should ideally have a sense of involvement, job satisfaction and a positive work environment. The findings indicate that HRM focused predominantly on tactics for coping with the research culture based partly on the recruitment of research staff. This was perceived by staff as creating a major rift and a change in organisational culture, which was not completely understood or supported.

- Reflection on practice: *plan-act-review*. Pugh (1976) contributed to literature on organisational theory and linked organisational structure and functioning, group composition and interaction and individual personality and behaviour. He recognised that the study of organisations was complex and that all aspects should be studied together to enable reflection of practice. According to West-Burnham (1994), most models of effective management incorporate a three-part process of plan, act and review, as a practical activity. The purpose of the reflection of practice and evaluation is to produce evidence to inform action and therefore change perceptions and practice. The current research indicated that the reflection on practice could be improved as lines of communication were perceived to be limited. Action occurred on an ‘ad-hoc’ basis at times, due to this limited communication.

- **Effective communication:** *clearly define objectives and communicate them to all staff.* “Effective management has to start from a full understanding of the details of how the communication process impacts on every management activity and be as precise as possible on the way that communication theory can be translated into effective practice” (Riches 1994, p.261). Staff perceived communication to be, ‘formal and hierarchical’, and that there was, ‘not enough communication between the head of department and the department staff’. Communication was described as being extremely valuable but not effectively implemented.
- **Appropriate professional development:** *reflecting specific needs identified by staff.* According to O’Neill (1994), professional development has a number of themes, one being the relationship between personal and organisational improvement. Main (1985), identified the three types of development as institutional development, organisational development and personal development, all of which impact on educational delivery and performance. This research has highlighted that matters concerning curriculum and design, development, delivery and assessment were complex changes that required professional advice and support. Staff stated for example that the modular curriculum is a complex affair with multiple implications and perceived that they were on the whole not prepared for the implications of change. It was also noted that the rift between those identified as researchers as opposed to those who viewed themselves as teachers was increasing. Many staff described their feelings of pressure to be involved in research activities but indicated that they did not feel prepared or skilled to do so.

- Employee motivation: *managers set clear, challenging and realistic goals.*

Alvesson (1993) stated that organisational culture research would benefit by identifying staff perceptions of their roles, responsibilities, beliefs and activities in an organisation. Bolam and Deal (1984) suggested that the main dilemma in organisational structure concerns the balance in allocation and definition of roles, tasks and responsibilities. Individual's roles and commitment to the values and mission of their organisation are implicitly related to levels of motivation. Locke and Latham's (1990) 'high performance cycle of motivation', made the important link between motivation, satisfaction and commitment to goals, values and performance of the organisation and the individual. In the current research, comments concerning job satisfaction and motivation were particularly common, mentioning experiences of 'isolation' with 'no incentives' and 'increased administration'.

- Effective curriculum implementation: *appropriate implementation and evaluation of curriculum.* The introduction of the modular curriculum was also perceived as being a significant factor, changing structure, culture and performance. Bell and Winnie (1993) implied that the philosophy of modular design was based on the three theories of organisational development, curriculum theory and learning theory. Findings indicated that according to Young's (1993) three forms of modularisation, the most common manifestation was 'Internal', described as modular developments within qualifications. In accordance with Robertson (1993) the findings support the statement that, 'expansion has a cost, evidenced through the delivery, resources and tightened student/staff ratios, with the consequence impacting upon the student learning experience'. Staff indicated concerns of

increased student numbers, decrease in length of programmes and learning outcomes.

- Ownership of decision making: *decisions reached as a process of discussion and listening, leading to consensus*. Salter and Tapper (1994) stated that universities are increasingly viewed as not being in control of their values and purposes and commented that, “Surely the most profound criticism of the universities has been their failure to create their own vision of the future?”(p.18) Dobson and McNay (1996) stated that, “when the polytechnic was made into a new university they started to dismantle the key elements of collegiality which are the main source of their stability and vitality” (p.19). The findings indicated that organisational culture was perceived as moving towards a more hierarchical, task orientated and corporate character, reducing opportunities for staff ownership of decision making. Staff indicated a desire for involvement in decision making and a, ‘wish that management would listen to us more’.
- Participation: *involvement of staff*. Sergiovanni (1984) stated that, “organisations are built on the unification of people around values” (p.120). Bush (1995) in support of this stated that, “By stressing the values and beliefs of participants, cultural models reinforce the human aspect of management rather than their structural elements” (p.138). The research has shown that, in addition to the change of character of many staff roles and responsibilities, there has been a change in how staff work together. Staff stated that, ‘something that we have lost in the transition from polytechnic to university, is our working together’. Comments concerning isolation and a lack of involvement by staff were frequent.

- Agreement of goals and values: *acknowledging the positive outcomes established in performance as a result of shared goals and values.* The understanding of the dynamics of an organisation's culture is an important part of the organisation's potential to develop. In this respect it becomes essential to clearly communicate an organisation's needs, values and beliefs to its members, as this also ameliorates an organisation's ability to manage change. The successful link between strong cultures and effective performance can be viewed in part by the manner in which change is managed within an organisation. Leavitt (1964) identified four variables associated with managing organisational change as structure, task, people and technology. Bush (1995) stated that a cultural model could be composed by identifying the values and beliefs of the organisation's members, shared values, norms and meanings, a focus on the single dominant culture within an organisation. The findings indicated that there was a general lack of feeling of unification in the new universities. This was due, it appeared, to factors such as distrust in management motives, a conflict in values and beliefs held between management decisions and staff opinion. Staff indicated that, 'It is not always clear what the institutions values and beliefs are', and 'I don't think our values and beliefs reflect the organisation's values and beliefs'. Statements such as these indicate room for improvement in organisational culture, communication and performance.

The criteria outlined above attempt to identify a number of the key factors influencing culture and structure in the new universities. The criteria have been drawn together with the aim of presenting practical recommendations for managing change. The research findings have only managed to touch upon some of the many issues

influencing organisational culture in higher education. The research presents a cameo of the new university environment, highlighting opportunities for further research in the area.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Pilot Interview schedules

The Influence of Structure on Culture in HE: A survey of staffs' perception in a 'New' University.

Pilot Interview Schedule (part A)

Q.1. Can you identify any significant changes that have occurred in the structure of your department as a result of moving from Polytechnic to University status?

Q.2. If yes, have the structural changes influenced the way you do things in your job? can you give me a few examples?

Q.3. Can you describe your department's values and beliefs?

Q.4. Would you say that your department's values and beliefs reflect the Organisation's values and beliefs?

Q.5. Would you say that your department's culture is unique in any way from other departments in the university? Why?

Q.6. How is the culture of your department manifest through rituals? such as ceremonies, heroes and heroines, patterns of social interaction and procedures?

Q.7. How is the culture of your department manifested through rituals? such as ceremonies, patterns of social interaction and procedures?

(Please tick your chosen option)

Role Culture: *Formal structure is evident.*

The Person Culture: *Puts the individual first.*

(Please tick your chosen option)

Role Culture: *Formal structure is evident.*

The Person Culture: *Puts the individual first.*

solid form

fluid function

closed	Role
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100	100

open task

solid form

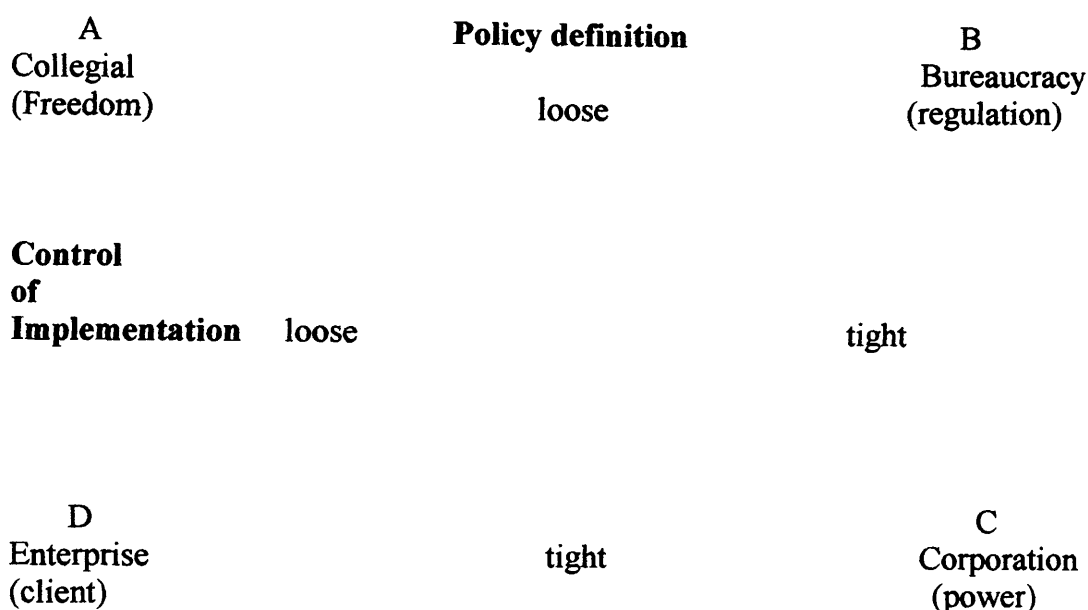
fluid function

closed	Role
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open task

Q.12 How would you characterise your Universities organisational structure?

(Mark with a 'P'= When the organisation was a Polytechnic, and 'U'= As a university)



Q.13 Which of the following factors, in your opinion, take precedence in the management of your department? On a scale of 1 to 4 (1 = low and 4 = high) please prioritise.

	<i>As a Polytechnic</i>	<i>As a 'new' university</i>
Tasks: jobs to be done		
Systems: how work is organised		
People: changing or developing		
Structures: the way the department is constructed.		

Pilot Interview Schedule (Part B)

Q.14. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your department?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Q.15. Would you say that you shared the same values and beliefs of your department when it was a Polytechnic?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Q.16. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your Organisation?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Q.17. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your Organisation when it was a Polytechnic?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Appendix 2

Interview schedule Part A and Part B

The Influence of Structure on Culture in HE: A survey of staffs' perception in a 'New' University.

Interview Schedule (part A)

Q.1. Can you identify any significant changes that have occurred in the structure of your department as a result of moving from Polytechnic to University status?

Q.2. If yes, have the structural changes influenced the way you do things in your job?
can you give me a few examples?

Q.3. Can you describe your department's values and beliefs?

Q.4. Do your department's values and beliefs reflect the Organisation's values and beliefs?

Q.5. Would you say that your department's culture is different in any way from other departments in the university? Why?

Q.6. How is the culture of your department expressed through symbols? such as motifs, logos, image?

Q.7. How is the culture of your department manifested through rituals? such as ceremonies, patterns of social interaction and procedures?

Interview Schedule (part B)

Q.8. How would you characterise your department's culture?

(Please tick your chosen option)

Club Culture: *Dominance of a central figure as head of the organisation.*

Role Culture: *Formal structure is evident.*

Task Culture: *Co-operative rather than hierarchical.*

The Person Culture: *Puts the individual first.*

Q.9. How would you characterise the Universities Culture as a whole?

(Please tick your chosen option)

Club Culture: *Dominance of a central figure head of the organisation.*

Role Culture: *Formal structure is evident.*

Task Culture: *Co-operative rather than hierarchical.*

The Person Culture: *Puts the individual first.*

Q.10. How would you characterise your departments structure now, and when it was a

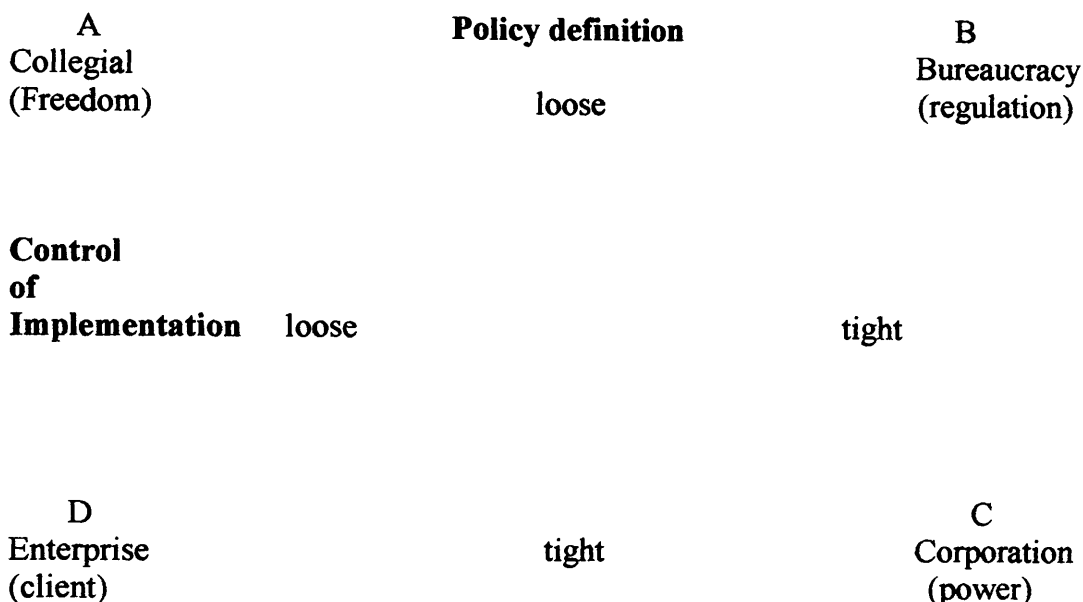
Polytechnic?

(Please mark your chosen option with a 'U' for University, and 'P' for Polytechnic)

Traditional	<u>OR</u>	Radical
Solid (control)		Fluid (flexible)
Closed		Open
Form		Function
Role		Task

Q.11 How would you characterise your Universities organisational structure?

(Mark with a 'P'= When the organisation was a Polytechnic, and 'U'= As a university)



Q.12 Which of the following factors, in your opinion, take precedence in the management of your department? On a scale of 1 to 4 (1 = low and 4 = high) please prioritise.

	<i>As a Polytechnic</i>	<i>As a 'new' university</i>
Tasks: jobs to be done		
Systems: how work is organised		
People: changing or developing		
Structures: the way the department is constructed.		

Q.13. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your department?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Q.14. Would you say that you shared the same values and beliefs of your department
when it was a Polytechnic?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
-------	-------------	-----------	---------	--------

Q.15. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your Organisation?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Q.16. Would you say that you share the same values and beliefs as your Organisation
when it was a Polytechnic?

never	not usually	sometimes	usually	always
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Appendix 3

Interview Transcription (sample)

The Influence of Structure on Culture in HE: A survey of staffs' perception in a 'New' University.

Interview Schedule (part A)

Interview 2 (Eng. Dept.) 12/1996

Q.1. Can you identify any significant changes that have occurred in the structure of your department as a result of moving from Polytechnic to University status?

R. Yes.....um when we were a Polytechnic the emphasis was on HNC HND, with a Degree being the top layer of student intake. The emphasis now is more on research. The modular set has changed the way we teach, and the way in which students are examined etc. The whole system has changed with a modular system which didn't exist in the Polytechnic.

Q.2. If yes, have the structural changes influenced the way you do things in your job? can you give me a few examples?

R. Yes um, it was easier when we were a Polytechnic because the exams were at the end of the year, we had one exam board and one set of board meetings. Now ther a two exam periods per year, the number of board meetings has doubled, assessment meetings have doubled, and we have more administrative work to carry out as well as the teaching. Plus the fact that there is more emphasis on researching and obtaining money from outside sources now. We have great difficulty with this as we don't have the background and we don't have the contacts that the old universities have because they have been in this situation for a much longer period. We are the new boys in this and we haven't got the contacts and we are desperately trying to make these contacts, so we are at a disadvantage as far as research and income generation are concerned.

Q.3. Can you describe your department's values and beliefs?

R. O that is a difficult one as there is more emphasis on research now and income generation, to the disadvantage of students as far as I am concerned. The philosophy is changing from teaching to research and income generation.

Q.4. Do your department's values and beliefs reflect the Organisation's values and beliefs?

R. Yes

Q.5. Would you say that your department's culture is different in any way from other departments in the university? Why?

R. No, they are all the same. I'm secretary for one of the trade unions, I know what is going on in other schools and departments. There always have been slight changes. If you go into the arts department they have more studio work, which is bound to happen. On the whole there is very little change between schools and departments, they all have the same philosophy.

Q.6. How is the culture of your department expressed through symbols? such as motifs, logos, image?

R. None. The building is impressive, but it doesn't strike anybody when they walk through the entrance that it is an engineering department. It could be a building for any department or school in the university. The problem with this building is that it is impressive to new people coming in, but it certainly doesn't impress anybody that this is an engineering building. That is one of the main criticisms that staff have of this building, and we are not very satisfied with it, because it is not an engineering

building. New students are impressed with the building, it impresses people for the first time. If an engineer from industry was coming in here I don't think that he would be impressed. All schools use our main lecture theatres.

Q.7. How is the culture of your department manifested through rituals? such as ceremonies, patterns of social interaction and procedures?

R. Graduants do come back to the building with their parents where they are given a snack and a talk by the head of school. Graduation is pretty much the same as it has always been. Because of the semester system and the modular scheme the committee meetings have increased in number, and they take more time. The meetings are fairly formal on the whole with an agenda which is stuck to.

The Influence of Structure on Culture in HE: A survey of staffs' perception in a 'New' University.

Interview Schedule (part A)

Interview 3 (Eng. dept.) 12/1996

Q.1. Can you identify any significant changes that have occurred in the structure of your department as a result of moving from Polytechnic to University status?

R. Um... I suppose essentially it is much the same. It's not so much structural changes but more to do with the fact that it was only shortly before we became a university that we had a new head of department, and of course his style is different to the old head of department. Also we have had a quality of staff changes, where he has brought new people in, and I suppose the major change in the department has really been the emphasis on research, and the fact that we now have as many researchers as we have academic staff. There is also the pressure on research to do research, so in that way the emphasis has changed. I think that most of the other factors have really been promoted by the university rather than the department. We still have a head of department but we also have a head of school as well.

Q.2. If yes, have the structural changes influenced the way you do things in your job? can you give me a few examples?

R. Not the departmental changes, when you come down to it there is the pressure now to do papers and things like that, which, well there was before but it's more overt now because we have a research assessment. As far as I'm concerned being a course leader takes up most of my time. The lecturing part of my job is very much the same except that we have gone semesterised and modular. The work is now concentrated in 12 weeks and then there is an exam week. I wouldn't say that is a great deal of change.

Q.3. Can you describe your department's values and beliefs?

R. O! that's a difficult one. I think that the values and beliefs, if there are such a thing, I tend to think that these sort of statements are made to create a.....I don't know the word for it. I think that they are actually values and beliefs, I think that they are part of an organisational arrangement to demonstrate to other people that you have got certain things, now whether they are true or whether they are just empty words I don't know. As far as the department is concerned I think that we attempt to provide a well structured engineering education. We care for the students. In the department now there isn't the pastoral care for the students that there used to be, mainly because a lot of the staff are younger staff and they have got other interests such as the research. They haven't got the experience of dealing with the students, and you don't have time to deal with the students.

Q.4. Do your department's values and beliefs reflect the Organisation's values and beliefs?

R. Again I think that they would intend to, I think that most people when it comes down to it they do believe that their job is important, and they do try and give value to the students. I think that it is becoming very fractionalised now. All this business nowadays of mission statements, it is to my mind it is just a cover up, to veil over things and demonstrate that there are things there. I think that the only way to get things achieved is by encouragement, integration of the staff with the management and things like that. I don't think that it's any good setting up statement of values and beliefs, I don't think that it has any effect on anyone. It has to be something that

people want to do, and it 's got to be something that people are rewarded for doing, it has to be part of the culture.

Q.5. Would you say that your department's culture is different in any way from other departments in the university? Why?

R. Well I suppose it must be because we are a very technological dept. so most of the staff and students are studying technological subjects. In that way we don't tend to look at sociological situations. WE have to impart information which is rigid infoermation, it's not open to interpretation, and when the students are examined they have to impart factual information, and it either right or it's wrong. I think that our learning situations are formal. We don't have discussions around a topic because the topic is crystal clear.

Q.6. How is the culture of your department expressed through symbols? such as motifs, logos, image?

R. As far as that is concerned we don't have an identity. This building has given us an identity but in saying that when you come into the building you wouldn't know it was an engineering building. I understand that the policy of the university in that this is a university building it is not an engineering building. I think the idea was to stop ownership of the building by the engineering school, and as such the rooms are open to the rest of the university. So we don't have the ownership of it , and so there are limitations of what we can do. If you walk in you can't see any engineering displays or anything, we can't stick anything on the wall unless we see the building manager or the building committee. What they are saying is that youe in the building but it's not yours, we own it and we tell you what you can do with it. So we have no displays or

signs to say this is the eng, school. I feel that if we have a course which is gone now as it's run in modules and called semesters, so it's not so integrated as it used to be. It would be nice to have an identifiable room or something so that the students have a grup identity and they worj through the course with a group identity. The pressure now is to reduce the no. of modules which means that more students will be sitting in with different students from different modules, and if your not careful your actually going to loose the idea that they are on a definate programme, a sort of pick and mix. One of the benefits of being on a course is that students help each other. You get a good identity and feel for the group, thy have a good relationship with the staff, which has tended to reduce.

Q.7. How is the culture of your department manifested through rituals? such as ceremonies, patterns of social interaction and procedures?

R. The only ritual we have is an xmas party once a year. we have graduation and after that we have a prize giving ceremony as a department. So the students do assemble for a small buffet and prize giving. Ther are always informal discussions going on and meetings. We have staff meetings and also the full gambit of structural management meetings, programmes, semesters, boards.

When we were a Polytechnic we worked more as an individual within a group, and you actually integrated with the other members of the staff and the head of department. There wasn't that formal structure. Now you feel that you are just am operative, and if anything happens you are just told what to do. For instance the modular scheme is a fact, whether you agree with it or not, your just told to get on with it. There is no individual choice in it. The value of what you do is very much graded. I that it's important to spend time with students, but there is no value put on it,

but if you do other work this is seen as extremely valuable. I think that the concept of value is very personal and top driven if you like, which is part of the hierarchical structure from the very top. It is then seen how the university is perceived, and it is perceived as a centre of research. If you happen to be in that area you are encompassed in that perception whereas if it is perceived as being a centre of excellence for teaching , which it isn't ha ha.....you would have value there. now with the economic structure what is important is the appearance of being in excellence in research and industrial connections

I think that policy is tight but the structure are too complex to control, they are not amenable to be controlled. The policy is very bureaucratic but loosely implemented.

Appendix 4

Example of E-Mail correspondence

21-02-97

Dear Colin

>My name is Penny Dineen, and I am currently completing a Doctoral thesis on the effects of change in HE, and in particular its influence on the culture of an organization. I have been working in HE in New Zealand and Malaysia during the last decade, but my focus for this work is the UK. I have been talking to staff who have a management perspective and who have also been involved in the transition from Polytechnic to University.

My interest is in gaining your opinions and attitudes to change, as it is staffs perceptions that interest me. Consequently I would like to ask you for 30-40 mins of your time, so that I may come and visit you in the University and carry out a short, private and totally confidential interview. I would like your permission to tape (on a small dictaphone) the interview to aid transcription, and as I mentioned the interview would be totally confidential with no names of yourself or the institute being used at any time.

I plan to travel to Oxford for Monday 17th, 18th and 20th March.

A 40min slot during one of those days would be greatly appreciated.

After saying that, I have already arranged a few appointments on Monday 17th March in the Richard Hamilton Building. Would it be possible for you to also see me on that day either between 10am and 2pm or between 4-6pm?

If not Tue. 18th between 10-11am or 3-6pm?

If neither of the above are possible I could still come over on the 20th between 11:00-6pm

Thankyou for your consideration

Regards

Penny

Appendix 5

Example of follow-up letter

51 Beaumont Lodge Rd.
Leicester
LE4 1BU

Fax: (0116) 2364035
Email: ddineen@dmu.ac.uk

12-02-97

Dear Ruth

My name is Penny Dineen, and I am currently completing a Doctoral thesis on the effects of change in HE, and in particular its influence on the culture of an organization. I have been working in HE in New Zealand and Malaysia during the last decade, but my focus for this work is the UK. I have been talking to staff who have a management perspective and who have also been involved in the transition from Polytechnic to University.

My interest is in gaining your opinions and attitudes to change, as it is staffs perceptions that interest me. Consequently I would like to ask you for 30-40 mins of your time, so that I may come and visit you in the University and carry out a short, private and totally confidential interview. I would like your permission to tape (on a small dictaphone) the interview to aid transcription, and as I mentioned the interview would be totally confidential with no names of yourself or the institute being used at any time.

I plan to travel to Preston for March 10th, 11th and 12th.
A 40min slot during one of those days would be greatly appreciated.

Monday 10th between 9am and 6pm
Tuesday 11th between 9am and 6pm
Thursday 12th between 9am and 6pm

Please indicate a date, time, location/site/room, so that I can meet you there
(If none of the above are possible please suggest an alternative)

Kind Regards
Penelope Dineen