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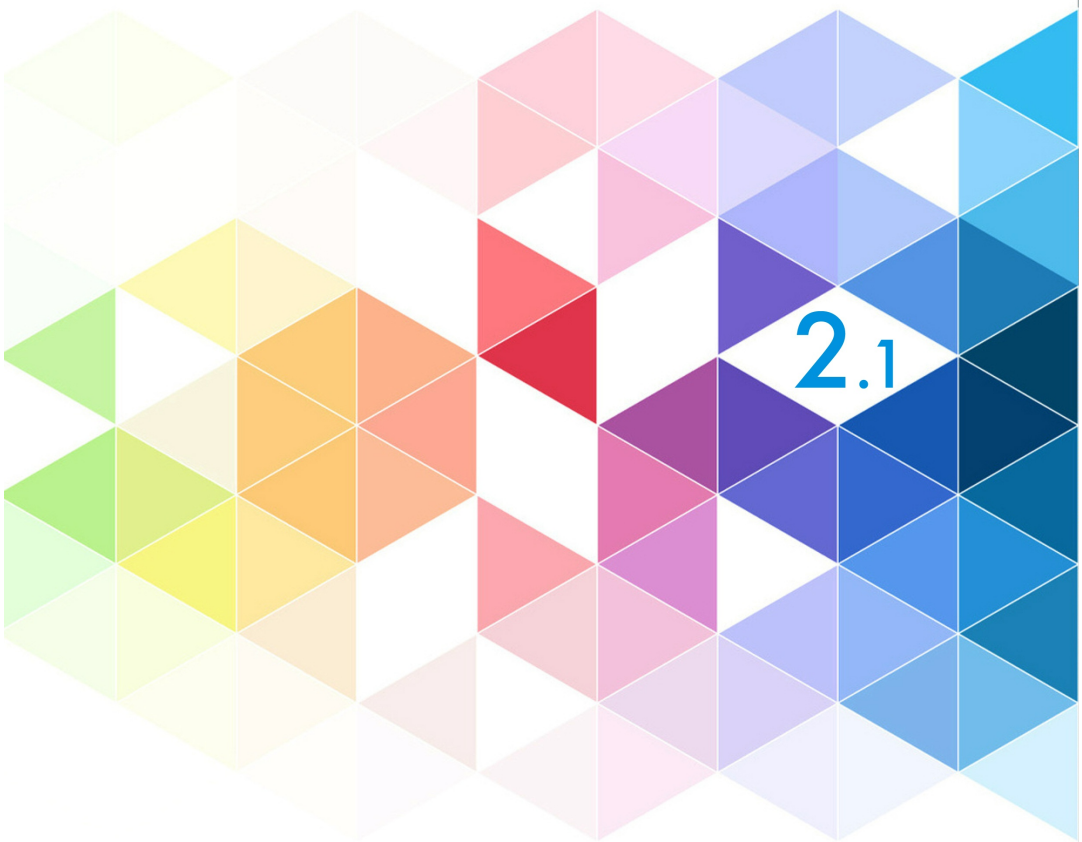
Attila Pausits (ed.)

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION - CASE STUDIES AND FUTURE SCENARIOS



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Introduction to Human Resource Management in Higher Education with Case Studies and Future Scenarios

Attila Pausits

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

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

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

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

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

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

Background information of the creation of the HRM e-book

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

Introduction of MARIHE program

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Structure of the E-book

This e-book comprises a compilation of ten course papers, which provide important perspectives on HRM concepts and functions in HEIs. Apart from covering a wide array of dimensions pertaining to HRM, the chapters provide global perspectives on the topic, through analysis and discussion of different systems of higher education. The e-book is structured as follows.

In chapter 1, *Managing Diversity in Higher Education Institutions: The Role of Organizational Culture and Human Resource Management*, Damaris Clark and Laura Balazs analyze the concept of workforce diversity in higher education institutions. They identify Social Identity Theory as a useful conceptual framework to assist HR managers in promoting diversity in the workplace. Additionally, the authors look at one of the largest diversity issues in higher education - gender inequality, and the initiatives taken by HR managers to rectify this. Examples of best practice and their implications for higher education institutions are provided and assessed in the study.

In chapter 2, *The Role of the Human Resource Department: A Comparative Analysis*, Aleksandar Avramovic and Ying Zang identify whether functions of the HR department depends on the type of institution. Through survey analysis, the study compares the HR functions of departments in public and private universities, university colleges of teacher education, and universities of applied sciences in Austria. The study unveils that HR functions vary in accordance to the type of institution.

Further, in chapter 3, *Faculty Recruitment Strategies in East Asian Higher Education: General Trends and Challenges in the Cases of Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and Tsinghua University*, Hwa-hyun Min and Jin Tao analyze general trends and challenges of faculty recruitment strategies in East Asian Higher education; specifically, in the cases of Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and Tsinghua University. The study makes reference to concepts and types of faculty recruitment strategies and further goes to identify common practices for recruitment strategies pertaining to both institutions and their respective limitations.

In chapter 4, *Performance-Related Pay for Academic Staff in Higher Education Institutions*, Thanh Binh Ha and Sofya Kopelyan investigate the relevance and effectiveness of performance-related pay systems for academic staff in the context of higher education. The paper firstly characterizes this system as one of the leading human resource management initiatives, and discusses the advantages and disadvantages of linking pay for academic staff to their performance. Then it outlines widely accepted evaluation procedures and performance indicators, and juxtaposes established and developing practices of performance-related pay, introducing examples from Great Britain and Russia. The authors conclude that effectiveness of performance-related pay schemes largely depends on the quality of their design and consistency of implementation.

Chapter 5, *Human Resources Management and University Performance. A Comparative Analysis of Human Resources at Harvard University and University of Wyoming*, Ana Godonoga and Laura Gutierrez Vite explore the link between HRM and university performance. A case analysis methodology is employed to evaluate the relationship between HR practices and organizational performance for two American institutions: Harvard University and University of Wyoming. The study compares the two universities based on their HR practices, and discusses their potential implication on university performance.

In the following study (chapter 6), *Human Resources Management, Internationalization and Academic Staff Mobility*, Grischa Fraumann and Işıl Güney analyze the relationship between international mobility, academic staff development and human resources management. Giving some theoretical information about the role of HRM in academic staff development and academic mobility, the authors focus on internationalization of institutional strategies and HRM. Institutional structures, processes, support and incentive mechanisms in higher education institutions are examined. Drawing attention to the lack of human resources support tools, they emphasize the role of human resources unit in international mobility of academic staff for staff development and conclude that an effective institutional strategy in collaboration with HRM and international office is needed to overcome obstacles and promote mobility.

In chapter 7, *One Size Fits All? A Comparative Analysis of Developed Countries' Tenure Track Models with Developing Countries,* authors Habtamu Diriba and Nowreen Yasmin propose a tenure track (TT) model for developing countries by combining and modifying the currently practiced TT models in developing countries. In recent years, the issue of TT system has become even more pressing in the context of less developed nations as they are confronted with a different supply-demand dynamics compared to their counterparts in the developed part of the globe. Along with this, six major contextual realities of developing countries have been illustrated. By doing so, the authors made an effort to answer the question; how and to what extent, the prevailing tenure models of developed countries are appropriate and applicable in the context of the developing world. Lastly, they commended a customized TT model which is responsive to the prevailing challenges of developing countries.

Chapter 8 on *Considering Corporate Measurements of e-HRM Effectiveness from a Higher Education Institutional Perspective*, Marsela Giovani Husen and Jon Maes join the growing conversation that evaluates the impact of electronic human resource management (e-HRM) systems on complex organizations. Beginning with background information on this emerging field of study, the authors build on theoretical frameworks developed by scholars in the Department of Business Administration at the University of Twente as a point of reference for comparing and contrasting e-HRM effectiveness within corporate, government, and higher education sectors. From this exploration, they conclude that similarities and differences between these three entities are useful for future research of e-HRM effectiveness in higher education contexts.

Lastly, in chapter 10, *Peer Learning as an Applied Strategy by Higher Education Human Resources for the Professional Development of Managers*, Hacer Tercanli and Rui Xue Chen discuss the emergence of peer learning as a new tool for the professional development of higher education professionals. The intial focus is on the changing role of university managers in the context of Europe after the introduction of the higher education modernization agenda. The authors propose two case studies from Germany and the UK, which successfully integrate peer learning in their professional development strategy. Further, they suggest solutions to the modern human resources management unit to consider integrating peer learning activities in the daily work of HEIs across the EU.

CHAPTER ONE

MANAGING DIVERSITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Damaris Lowenna Clark and Laura Balázs

Introduction

This chapter will define and analyse the importance of diversity in the context of an increasingly internationalised and globalised workforce. We will first look at the wide variety of benefits diversity can bring, before moving on to how Social Identity Theory can help foster acceptance of diversity and fight against discrimination in higher education institutes. In order to gauge whether higher education institutions (HEIs) are ready to adopt diverse work forces, we must first analyse the existing organisational culture as this provides a wider context for HR managers. The existing literature and analysis of university strategies suggests that one of the biggest issues regarding diversity within HEIs is the male-dominated nature of organisations and underrepresentation of women in academia. As such, we have focused specifically on this aspect to provide practical examples of inequality and what is being done by HR managers to address this. After providing some initiatives for addressing the gender balance in HEIs, we will then discuss some best practices that can be employed to promote diversity in general in HEIs.

Diversity at the Workplace

When we talk about workplace diversity we refer to the variety of differences between people in an organization. Diversity can be defined as acknowledging and valuing the differences among people with respect to age, gender, race, ethnicity, physical and mental ability, sexual orientation, religious affiliation, socioeconomic background, education, etc. (Etsy, 2005).

A diverse workforce is a reflection of a changing world and marketplace and it means a multitude of beliefs, understandings, values, and unique ways of viewing the world. During the last decades rapid internationalization and globalization have increased the significance of work-force diversity in all types of businesses and organizations. Diverse work teams can bring high value to organizations and provide a larger pool of experiences. To be able to fully utilize the unique talents and potential of the diverse workforce the organization has to create an inclusive atmosphere and it has to be committed to valuing diversity (Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009). Miller (1989) also emphasizes the role that diversity plays in an organization as a key resource for creating high performance work culture that enables each member of the organization to perform their work as well as possible (Miller, 1989).

Diversity in the workplace can provide many benefits for the company, for example it can increase marketing opportunities, recruitment, creativity, and business image (Esty, Griffin, & Schorr-Hirs, 1995). Using the appropriate HRM tools to manage a diverse workforce, the organization can also create a more cooperative behaviour, which can improve inclusiveness, increase organizational efficiency, flexibility, profitability and provide a competitive advantage. (Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009). The fact, that human beings prefer working in homogeneous groups, and humans, just as the organizations they are a part of generally avoid and resist change, can provide a challenge for creating true diversity at the workplace (Kreitz, 2009). To be able to change behaviours and mindsets, the organization has to change organizational policies and culture. "It must develop a broad range of policies and practices to help ensure that today's workplace works for everyone" (Aronson, 2002, p.22). In this process the HR manager is uniquely qualified and strategically positioned to work together with the management to tackle these challenges (Kreitz, 2009).

Social Identity Theory

As HR managers deal with all types of individuals within organisations, from the most senior staff to the junior members, it is important that they understand the antecedents to individual and group behaviour. In this instance Social Identity Theory (SIT) can provide HR managers with a social-psychological perspective to organizational identity and can offer coherence to the complex intricacies of discrimination and furthermore presents a theoretical framework to underpin the implementation of a more diverse workforce. The main premise of SIT is that individuals tend to classify themselves and others into certain social categories (also known as schemas) according to gender, profession, religion etc. (Taijfel & Turner, 1985). Categories are defined by prototypical features of members of the group (Turner, 1985). The benefits of such a classification system are twofold, firstly it creates a systematic and undemanding way of defining others. Secondly, it provides an individual sense of identity and belonging for members of groups (Ashforth & Mael 1989). There are two further elements to social identity that it is measured relative to the characteristics of other groups and members can decide to what degree they wish to be associated with a category.

SIT has the possibility to fuse diversity and organisational unity by bringing together individuals from separate social groups (thus creating a diverse workforce) and creating a new collective identity by association of their values and commitment to higher education. However, Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggests that a single identity within a large and complex organization (such as a university) may be both problematic and unrealistic. They suggest, as an alternative, the notion of loosely coupled identities. Patchen (1970) defines organisational identity as shared characteristics which foster loyalty and solidarity within.

How can HR managers use social identity theory to promote diversity and reduce discrimination within higher education institutions? Ashforth and Mael (1989) identify three antecedents for strength of identification to one's "in-group" as it is defined in SIT, distinctiveness of the group (even if negatively distinctive), prestige of the organisation and awareness of out groups as a boundary for one's own group. Therefore, by cultivating a stronger unified workforce through facilitating the above mechanisms, members of naturally divergent groups can work together harmoniously. However, counter to this, it is rare that organisations exist as a single "group", in reality it is comprised of multiple subunits, which naturally gives rise to intergroup conflict within the bigger group (in this case, subunits may refer to individual departments and disciplines and the bigger group to the university as a whole), this somewhat diminishes the idea of a harmonious workforce (Tajfel, 1982) and could give rise to a host of other problems, such as fragmentation within the university.

Social identity theory defines organisations as far more than just interpersonal relations (Turner, 1985) and posits that strong affiliation with one's organisation can take place even in the absence of social cohesion and similarity (i.e. a diverse workforce) but perhaps more salient is the influence it has on psychological affect and behaviour. In sum, what HR managers can learn from SIT, is that through strengthening employees' identities to the university by promoting distinctiveness and prestige, even in the presence of individual differences, employees will feel a collective identity. This collective identity can help bring together individuals and foster commitment and investment to the institution as a whole. In a sense, what this refers to is the necessity to create a distinct organizational culture within the workplace. Before we can address diversity in the specific context of HEIs, we must first look at the existing organizational culture, and whether this is a fertile environment for diversity to grow.

Organizational Culture and Diversity in HE institutions

According to Baruch (2013) definition, universities are institutions whose major role is to create and disseminate new knowledge, develop and educate people, and progress the search for intellectual truth. Since a highly committed and qualified workforce is crucial for their success, effective leadership and people management are essential ingredients for the success of universities in both the short and long-term (Baruch, 2013). The international and multicultural environment in which

universities have to operate these days necessitates the management of an increasingly diverse workforce. It could be also argued that educational institutions – based on their importance as gateways to citizenship and economic opportunity, and as places for "cultural meaning-making" should provide a "role model" for creating a sustainable change in racial and gender equity (Sturm, 2006).

It is particularly difficult to establish consistent and complementary cultures within academia, considering – as Becher (1989) put it in his classic book – different "academic tribes" are formed along disciplines with different and distinct characteristics.

Clark (1983) outlined three levels of culture in higher education: the culture of the discipline, the culture of the enterprise (i.e., organizational culture), and the culture of the academic profession and/or national system. Based on his contribution, Silver (2003) argued that there is no common institutional identity in higher education institutions and contemporary universities are characterized by value conflicts and lack of coherence (Silver, 2003). On the other hand, Becher (1989) believed that members of strong academic cultures share ideologies, values, and quality judgments, and those who seem not to comply with these common cultural elements risk being penalized. Barbosa and Cabral-Cardoso (2007) noted that in higher education institutions individualism, selfishness, competition - as opposed to collectivism, cooperation and solidarity, which are more suitable for diverse workforce – are more prevalent. The structural conditions i.e. the organizational hierarchy are also less suitable for integration processes. The aforementioned organisational culture and structure suggest that, HEIs are not exactly designed to embrace a diverse workforce. This could not be more visible than in the underrepresentation of women in academia, which will address next.

Representation of Women in Academia

The lack of women's and minorities representation and inclusion, particularly in senior positions, remains a problem for academic institutions (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008). Published in an article in The Gazette, the results of the Global Gender Index (from data provided voluntarily by institutions ranked in the top 400 of THE's World University Rankings) highlight a huge disparity in the ratio of male to female academics in nearly all of the countries that took part in the survey. The situation is the worst in Japan, where women only make up 12.7 per cent of the academics at the country's toprated universities. The problem exits even in the Scandinavian countries (which are often regarded as the some of the most progressive countries in the world regarding gender issues), such as Sweden (36.7 per cent), Norway (31.7 per cent) and Denmark (31 per cent). An almost equal gender split can be found in Turkey, where 47.5 per cent of staff at the top five universities are female.

Academia "is underpinned by the archaism of male domination," says Louise Morley, director of the Centre for Higher Education and Equity Research at the University of Sussex. She points to the "entrenched patriarchal power nexus at universities, with their male-dominated departments, interview boards and academic journal editors" which she believes to be selfperpetuating. This makes it more difficult for women to increase their research potential and academic capital that might lead to full-time positions, or sabbaticals to further their work. She argues that women mostly do low-level administrative work, while men can focus on tasks that will advance their careers prospects.

Whilst in some countries e.g. the USA, overt discrimination is reducing, more subtle forms of prejudice such as male favouritism which limits the professional development of women in academia are still prevalent (Roos & Gatta, 2007). Reskin (2003) points out that gender inequality is not always a product of conscious cognitive processes and may result in subtle advantages for men and subtle disadvantages for women. This emphasises the necessity in raising awareness of potentially underlying prejudices.

In a study of an unnamed state university in the United States, Roos, and Gatta (2007) identifies three key indicators of inequality for women in academia, firstly women were still underrepresented in disciplines that were atypical for their gender, most notably maths and science. It was suggested that these bias were made at both the recruitment and promotion stage. Secondly, large discrepancies between men and women were still prevalent with regards to rank, promotion and leadership. Furthermore, women who were in senior positions rose through the ranks as opposed to men who

were hired directly into senior positions. Finally, differences in salary prevail among men and women, with the latter only earning 89 percent of the former.

Looking at academia from a different point of view, it could be argued that academic roles offer many opportunities for work-life balance. Being present in the office is not a precondition to conduct the work (though physically being in class is essential for lecturers) and there is an option and need to work in nonconventional, flexible hours. In certain cases, this can be an incentive to encourage women to choose an academic career (Özbilgin and Healy, 2004).

To facilitate the inclusion and representation of women in academia and the problems which often arise as presented above, NSF launched an initiative titled “ADVANCE IT” which rewarded institutions which implemented not only institutional policies and procedures which encouraged full participation of women in the workforce and particularly in senior positions, but also to actively pursue a positive climate and culture towards this (National Science Foundation, 2005). Institutions that were rewarded undertook the following measures; adopted mentoring and faculty development programs, created new structures and positions both to monitor and develop diversity and facilitate the inclusion of women in the workplace e.g. childcare services.

Another example of initiatives to recognise and promote awareness of women’s achievements can be seen in Western Australia’s Department of Education’s (2010) “Equity and Management Plan”, under the initiative to build inclusive workplaces there are a number of actions; 1.) to recognise achievements through the “Women of Achievement Award” 2.) to conduct regional workshops in which women can identify issues affecting women in leadership 3.) provide scholarships and short term projects/secondments in higher positions 4.) implement a monitoring process for aspiring women to discuss the issues of academic progression and under presentation of women. The desired outcome of these actions is ultimately the same, that is, to provide more opportunities for women in senior positions and raise awareness of issues of inequality. The key to success in this management plan is the use of well defined actions, a timeline of implementation and making specific staff/units accountable for these outcomes and more importantly, their accomplishment (Department of Education Management Plan 2011-2014).

The focus of women in academia is not to imply that gender is the only area in which HEIs lack diversity, it just happens to be a prominent issue and provides a practical example of how HR managing are dealing with this issue through different initiatives and programmes. The remainder of this chapter will now concentrate on more general practices which can and are adopted by HR departments and managers to create equal opportunities and diversify the workforce.

Human Resource Management Practices

Human resource management practices – and more specifically diversity management policies and tools – can create "pleasant and respectful work places, where different cultures and religions are appreciated, equal opportunities rights policies are really developed and physical handicaps are not an obstacle to professional development." (Strazzeri, 2005).

These policies and practices can operate at different levels:

1. Strategic level: Commitment to diversity reflected in the organizational vision and long-term goals
2. Tactical level: Recruiting, staffing, training and development, appraisal, etc.
3. Operational level: Trainings, educating employees, using toolkits, etc.

The only way to create lasting change – for example creating a favourable climate for minorities or disabled workers – in an organization is to implement policies on a strategic, organizational level. “Bringing about the changes needed to build and sustain diversity requires commitment, strategy, communication, and concrete changes in organizational structure and processes“ (Kreitz, 2007). The organizational framework – which can include for example anti-discrimination policy and equal opportunity employment policy - will define the HRM approach also.

On the tactical HRM level diversity management has to do first of all with recruitment and selection decisions. Schneider (1987) warns about the danger of falling into the "A-S-A (attrac-tion, selection,

attrition) cycle", whereby organizations choose candidates for positions, who share many common personal attributes, and those workers, who do not share the common attitudes, leave the company shortly. The way the job vacancies are communicated can be the first step to attract a diverse pool of applicants (e. g. using non-discriminatory language). In respect of training and development, establishing a diversity awareness training, increase female and minority participation in professional trainings, establishing mentoring relationships can have a beneficial effect. Involving culturally diverse employees in performance appraisal panels can ensure the fairness of these process. It is of high importance also to reduce earnings differences between men and women, and to provide flexible, alternative employment possibilities (diverse workforce has different priorities).

The HR department can also be engaged in efforts "to make departments (microclimates) more collegial, egalitarian, equitable and transparent (e.g. Department transformation programs, Funding for departmental transformation projects, Assistance to department strategic planning, Department-specific seminars/workshops, Training and presentations to department chairs, Coaching department chairs & senior faculty, Cross-departmental committees)" (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008).

Some examples of equal opportunity and diversity management practices and policies that HR departments use at higher education institutions:

1. Creating new structures, groups, positions, like code of conduct, employee assistance, equity advisors. Providing child care services and facilities. Providing spaces for prayer rooms – the need to provide proper prayer facilities will increase as student and teacher mobility continue to grow, and the need to accommodate people from different religious background.
2. Creating new policies and programmes, like job sharing, dual-career hiring, family friendly leave policies, mentoring programmes, training courses for people who work with disabled people, provide expert guidance for foreign employees on immigration rules and regulation to avoid problems with labour contracts and employment procedures. Regularly conducting faculty climate studies and evaluating the programmes.
3. 3, Using toolkits, like training manuals, evaluation forms, best practice guides, fully integrated HRM software to monitor people's competencies, skills, individual needs (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008). There is a checklist for diversity management published by the European Commission in 2012, that can be very useful also. This checklist can be used at all levels of management.
4. Developing and using key performance indicators for example, tenure and promotion outcomes by gender to assess the effect of diversity management practices and linking it to strategic plans. It is rarely enough to simply implement a strategic plan, it requires additional evaluation and review of practices if necessary to gain optimal effectiveness.
5. Conducting regular diversity audits and employee surveys to monitor more subtle forms of inequity and collate data which can be used to inform practices. Employee surveys provide an opportunity for staff to give their opinion but also to feel valued and included in policy making processes and programme development. Furthermore, this fosters an inclusive environment which in itself will help to mitigate inequity and discrimination in order to pave the way for a more diverse workforce.
6. Creating a complaint settlement system is yet another form of practical support for employees who feel they are subject to unequal treatment. Such a system identifies existing problems and creates a log for continual monitoring processes to identify any trending issues. It is important that HR managers and employees take such a system seriously and is utilised properly, that is to say that sufficient action is taken following a complaint and that it does not exist just as an end in itself.

Conclusion

Workplace diversity means more than barely accepting or tolerating people from different backgrounds – it is about recognising and valuing the varied competences, skills, experiences, and perspectives that people bring to their work. Without a strategic HR operation in place, academic institutions might not be able to take full advantage of their human capital, which in turn can negatively affect institutional effectiveness and academic quality (Evans & Chun, 2012). One study conducted by Kossek, Markel and McHugh (2003), showed that HR strategies that only concentrate on structural change but fail to develop supportive group norms and positive climate are inadequate change strategies.

Also, ineffective diversity management can result in unpleasant working atmosphere, demotivation, conflict, higher employee turnover and low performance (Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009). Universities also need to implement practices that initiate a deeper, long-term change in mental models, by "awareness creation, skill building, empowerment, leadership development, process improvements, policy modifications, and structural changes need to occur simultaneously" (Bilmoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008) so that their employees have the opportunities to develop and demonstrate their full potential.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE ROLE OF THE HUMAN RESOURCE DEPARTMENT: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Aleksandar Avramovic and Ying Zhang

Introduction

As Vasitha and Chauhan (2011) state "In every organization, there are three major resources to be managed if the organization wants to achieve its main objectives and goals. These resources are humans, materials and financial resources. And out of these three, *human resource* is the most important and difficult to manage" (p. 18). There are various proofs for this statement, but maybe the most important is connected to simple fact about human nature – every human being is different and tends to act differently in different or similar situations. Pellert (2007) noticed that "In people-intensive organizations like universities, human resource management commands a key role in the context of overall institutional development. Even though people are the most valuable asset of educational institutions – also in financial terms – and many universities have established procedures for the administration of personnel, they seldom have strategies or processes in place for "managing" their human resources" (p. 104). Reason for this may be in the fact that implementation of HR practices in universities is a recent phenomenon. It has evolved as personnel administration and in mid 1990s this function started to be named and treated as HR (Arslan, Akdemir & Karsli, 2013). Today, when universities tend to act as business like organizations – which include competition on the market for funds, excellent teachers and students – human resource management (HRM) is becoming more of a necessity. Managing staff in the proper way may not only help the organization to survive on the market, but also to improve its performance trough human resource development(Abella, 2004).

Much in the same way that every person is different, each higher education institution (HEI) has their own unique characteristics. Does this mean that HRM and the functions of HR departments are just as diverse? That question serves as the main topic of this study. Since there are a multitude of HEIs in the world we decided to narrow the scope to universities in Austria. Nevertheless some global trends in higher education HRM will also be examined and explained. First, we will try to define and explain the evolving discourses of HRM in recent decades, as well as HR departments' main functions. In the second part, our focus will be on explaining Austrian higher education system. This is important for the final part of the study where we analyze the results of the survey, which was distributed to Austrian HEIs in regard to principal functions of their HR departments. We will try to find out if there are any major divergences between these functions in different types of HEIs in Austria.

Changing Role of University HRM and Main Functions of University HR Departments

In the past, HR at universities was seen more as an administrative or personnel function in being assigned with tasks such as sourcing and paying people, providing benefits, and handling employee relations (Aon Hewitt, 2012). In fact, there were three main stages and paradigms in the development of higher education HR according to Arslan, Akdemir and Karsli (2013):

1. *Traditional Paradigm* – this paradigm can be defined as the policies, practices and systems that influence employees' behavior, attitudes and performance. Traditional HR system functions in HEIs include compensation, training and development, performance management, recruitment, selection, and employee relations functions. Role of HR was to provide administrative and support functions by processing paper work, insuring that paychecks are cut accurately, and serving a general administrative role.
2. *Strategic Paradigm* – defined as the pattern of planed human resource deployments and activities intended to enable organization to accomplish its goals. One of the main functions of HR was to translate organizational strategy into human resource priorities. HR performs a

key role in achieving organizational vision and purpose and sustaining and maintaining competitive advantage, according to this paradigm. The transition from traditional to strategic HR was slow and sometimes not very successful.

3. *Value-Added HRM Paradigm* – this is the most recent concept that combined the previous two paradigms. Rather than choosing one paradigm over the other, both paradigms are accommodated in the delivery of HR service. Traditional roles tended to be more functionally and technically related to HR while value-added roles were more strategic and business based. Main goals of value-added HR are providing skilled staff, enhancing organizational effectiveness, motivating performance, and designing and implementing effective processes. (p. 744-745).

Nowadays, when universities are getting more autonomy and also more responsibilities to manage their own staff, HR functions are transforming (Oakleigh Consulting Ltd., 2009). Therefore, focus of the universities is on devising suitable human resource management tools and facing numerous challenges such as development of an HR-strategy, choosing adequate career path models, implementing human resource and leadership skills development, promoting young researchers and professionalize administrative functions (Pellert, 2007).

According to Vasitha and Chauhan (2011) the main functions of university HR departments "can be listed into 3 main groups: personal utilization to meet organizational needs, motivation of employees to meet their needs and organizational needs in unison and maintenance of human relationships" (p. 18-19). These functions are usually part of the agenda of any HR department in university. Other functions which were used in the questionnaire are:

- Development of HR policies, guidelines, procedures, regulations and standards
- System communication to employees
- Labor administration
- Staffing
- Design and development of job classification systems
- Academic promotion, tenure and granting of continuous appointment
- Compensation
- Benefits – plan designs and administration
- Education, training and development
- Performance appraisals
- Dispute Resolution
- Non-renewal, layoff and terminations
- Payroll and managing work force information (HRMS)

(University of Minnesota, 2014)

Before going into details about the results of the survey, it is pertinent to describe the Austrian higher education system in Austria. We will see which types of HEIs exist in Austria and also look into the legal documents that regulate higher education HR.

The Austrian Higher Education System

Higher education in Austria consists of four types of tertiary institutions: 22 public universities, 12 private universities, 19 universities of applied sciences and 14 university colleges of teacher education (OeAD, 2014). Public universities are the most numerous and most important for the higher education system. They offer education in a wide variety of fields and, besides teaching and research in recent times, they started to cooperate with companies and other partners (Mohsin, Khan, Awan & Doger, 2011). Private universities are not that numerous and usually they have smaller numbers of staff and students compared to public universities. When it comes to universities of applied sciences, since the foundation of the first one in 1994/1995, there is a constantly growing demand in the higher education sector for this kind of higher education. The programmes on offer at present provide for an academically-based and practice-oriented education (OeAD, 2014). Finally, university colleges of teacher education offer a three-year (six-semester) Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree in combination with a teaching qualification for primary, secondary or special needs schools. Some of them also offer BEd degrees for polytechnic schools and for teaching religious education (OeAD, 2014).

Regarding legal documents regulating HEIs in Austria, the most important is the University Act from 2002 (Federal Gazette, 2002). Adopting this document was a major step towards a modern governance of universities, as well as implementing some new public management principles such as three-year global budgets and performance contracts (Mohsin et al., 2011). According to this act, universities in Austria became legal entities under public law, which means that they are to some extent independent institutions. The funding they receive is around 75% from the state and 25% from other sources (study fees, private funding). Another important document is the University Accreditation Act from 1999, which provides a legal basis for private universities, The Federal Act on the Organization of University Colleges of Teacher Education from 2005 and University of Applied Sciences Act from 1993 are also very important for the other two types of HEIs (European Commission, 2010). Regarding private universities funding, some of them also receive part of their revenue from the state while the others are fully financed by private sources. Universities of applied sciences and university colleges are quite similar as public universities, meaning that most of their funds come from the state (European Commission, 2010). Specifically, the Austrian Federal Ministry of Science, Research and Economy (2014) is responsible for higher education in Austria.

Regarding HR issues, the situation is different depending on the type of HEI. For example, there is a big difference in the number of staff members in public and private universities. According to UNIDATA (2015), the biggest public university in Austria in terms of staff is university of Vienna, with more than 9000 staff members and the biggest private university is Private Medical University Salzburg with around 500 staff. This difference in number of staff can affect the responses about HR department functions in the survey we conducted, but we will deal with this kind of issue in the next subsection. Also, when it comes to salaries in public universities, they are slightly higher than in private universities, and often private university staff are not too satisfied with their salaries. Regarding quality assurance, public universities have better and more developed internal quality assurance systems. Concerning gender issues each type of university is trying to have equality of men and women as much as possible. Finally, when it comes to recruitment of university staff, all institutions have to follow legal procedures, to be transparent and in accordance with international standards (Mohsin et al., 2011).

Now, when we are familiar with the system of higher education in Austria, we can proceed to the results of the survey and find out if there are some major differences between HEIs in Austria when it comes to functions of universities HR departments.

Survey of HR Department Functions in Austrian Universities

For the purpose of identifying the main roles and functions of HR departments in different types of Austrian HEIs, we created an online questionnaire – survey in the Survey Monkey programme, and distributed it to HR staff of these universities.

The survey is made of five questions related to HR department functions and its main goal is to find out the functions performed by HR departments in Austrian HEIs. In particular, asking them to identify the most important functions in their opinion and which of these functions are shared with other departments. In the first question we asked for the name of the university and the last question of this survey is whether these institutions have separate HR department webpage. In terms of the results, there are 67 universities in Austria in total and eventually, we received 20 responses from these universities (29.9%). These responses came from four different types of universities. Four responses were from public universities (out of 22 - 18.2%); two responses from private universities (out of 12 - 16.7%); eight responses from universities of applied sciences (out of 19 - 42.19%); two responses form university colleges of teacher education (out of 14 – 14.3%); and four of the respondents remained anonymous (they did not stated the name of the university). We can notice that a similar percentage of public, private and university colleges of teacher education responded while almost half of the universities of applied sciences responded.

The second question in the survey was whether HEIs in Austria have an HR department as part of their organizational structure. The survey showed that the majority of HEIs in Austria do have HR department (95.24%) - which suggests that this is a common feature of Austria colleges and universities.

The Functions of HR Departments

As mentioned above, we listed certain functions that are typically performed by university HR departments and tried to resolve which of these functions are performed by HR departments at Austrian HEIs. It is clear from the *Figure 2* that most of these functions are performed in universities except the performance appraisals. Specifically, the four most important HR functions looking overall are creation of HR policies, staffing, job classification systems and education, training and development. However, a couple of institutions mentioned that there also are other functions within the HR department such as corporate health management and hospitality. These functions were not in the main list of HR functions in the survey, but HEIs added these by themselves.

Figure 1: Which of these functions are performed by human resource department at your university?

Answer Choices	Responses	
Human Resource Policies, Rules, Guidelines, Central Procedures, Regulations and Standards	66.67%	10
Staffing	60.00%	9
Job Classification System	60.00%	9
Education, Training and Development	60.00%	9
Labor Agreement Negotiation and Administration	53.33%	8
System Communication to Employees	46.67%	7
Benefits – Plan Design and Administration	46.67%	7
Compensation	40.00%	6
Non-Renewal, Layoff and Terminations	40.00%	6
HRMS – Payroll and Managing Work Force Information	33.33%	5
Workers Compensations	26.67%	4
Academic Promotion, Tenure and Granting of Continuous Appointment	20.00%	3
Other (please specify)	20.00%	3
Dispute Resolution	13.33%	2
Strengthening the University-wide Human Resource Com	13.33%	2
Outsourcing	6.67%	1
Performance Appraisals	0.00%	0
Total Respondents: 15		

The Shared-Functions of HR Departments

After we identified which functions are performed by HR departments in Austrian HEIs, we were also interested in the interaction between HR department and the other departments in universities. Our third question was about shared functions between HR and some other departments and we found out that different type of HEIs in Austria have different shared responsibilities with other departments. If we look more into details of the questionnaire results, the survey showed that a few universities usually share more than one functions with the other departments, which means that HR department interacts far and wide within the institution. For instance, Vienna University of Economics and Business (a public university) was accounted to share about ten functions including staffing, academic promotion, outsourcing, benefits, and education development. Comparing this with the New Design University (a private university), staff only selected education development and terminations as two shared functions. However, the background and specific field related to higher education institutions should be taken into considerations.

The Most Important Functions of HR Departments

In terms of the university development, respondents were also invited to provide their opinions about the three most important functions of HR department for university development. Result showed that creation of human resources policies, system communication to employees and labor agreement negotiation and administration are the most important three HR functions for university development.

The HR department website

The last question were whether the HR departments have their individual web page on university website. The survey result showed that there are only 38.46% of universities that have a separate webpage for HR department. In most cases, HR staff contact details can be found in the services/administrative webpages instead of an individual HR webpage. This can mean that HR is still viewed as an administrative body, which is the traditional approach towards human resources.

Comparing Answers from Different type of HEIs

In this section we will look at individual groups of HEIs in Austria (public and private universities, universities of applied sciences and university colleges of teacher education) and try to find out if there are some similarities or differences between their HR department functions.

Public Universities

First, we will take a look into the answers of public universities. According to the survey all of the respondents have HR department in university structure. Out of 16 HR functions offered, public universities perform approximately 10 (62.50%). Among the functions that they do not perform are plan design and administration of benefits as well as strengthening the university-wide human resource community, etc. Again, most HR department functions are shared with some other university department (10 out of 16) and among them are staffing, dispute resolution, academic promotion, labor agreement negotiations and administration. The three most important HR department functions are creation of HR policies, communications to employees and job classification system. Finally, most of them have separate webpages on the university website.

Private Universities

According to the results of our survey, most of the private universities have HR department in their university structure. Compared to public universities, private universities' HR departments perform less functions (between three and eight). For example, UMIT – University of Health Sciences, Medical Informatics and Technology perform eight functions (50%) and New Design University only 3 functions – system communication with the employees, labor agreement negotiations and job classification systems (around 18%). When it comes to shared functions, UMIT HR department shares all of its functions, and New Design University displayed two out of three. If we take a look at 3 most important functions of HR departments in private universities, they listed creation of HR policies, job classification system and HRMS. Two out of three most important HR functions are the same as in the case of public universities. Most of the private universities do not have a separate webpage for their HR department.

Universities of Applied Sciences (UoAS)

Most Austrian UoAS have an HR department in the university structure. Their HR departments also perform approximately 11 functions from the list, which is slightly more than public universities and significantly more than private universities. Among the functions they do not perform, the most common ones are outsourcing, performance appraisals and dispute resolutions. In addition to the functions we listed, the Salzburg University of Applied Sciences performs corporate health management as a separate function. When it comes to shared functions, creation of HR policies, system communication to employees and labor agreement negotiations are the most common shared functions. The most important HR department functions according to the survey are staffing, creation of HR policies and HRMS. This is pretty much similar to the responses of private universities (two out of three – HR policies and HRMS). Finally, there are some UoAS that do not have a separate webpage for their HR department.

University Colleges of Teacher Education (UCoTE)

In the final group we examined University Colleges of Teacher Education. According to the survey most of the UCoTE have HR departments. Among the HR department functions are usually most common HR functions such as staffing, education development, labor agreement negotiations and creation of HR policies. When it comes to shared functions, creation of HR polices, staffing, academic promotion and educational development are the most common ones. This is different comparing to three previous types of HEIs. Most important functions are on the other hand similar to previous groups, and these are HR policies, staffing and education development. In most of the cases these institutions have an individual webpage on the university website.

Conclusion

As we were able to see from the survey results, most of the HEIs in Austria have HR departments as part of their university structure. This means that HRM is becoming more important for universities' operations. When it comes to the result of the second question in the survey, we can see that different HEIs are using different sets of HR functions. Of course, some similarities exist, but in most cases the combination of the assigned HR functions were different. On the other hand, it is pretty much the rule that HR departments share responsibility for some HR functions with other university departments. When it comes to most important HR functions, most of the universities agreed that creation HR policies are most important. And finally, the majority of HEIs do not have a separate webpage for HR department on the university website.

We can conclude that there is some consistency about the most important HR department functions. Even though some universities have more staff than the others, having HR department as part of the university organization is a present trend in all types of HEIs, which indicates that HRM is essential. Finally, every university has shared responsibility for at least some of its HR department functions with other departments. On the other hand, there is not much consistency with assigned HR department functions within different types of HEIs in Austria. The most important thing is that universities are dealing with HR issues, even though in the most of the cases it is not visible on the universities websites.

Regarding to the survey design itself there is still work to be done in this field. Our inspiration for researching this topic was came from the study *Human Resource Management: Comparative Study between Public and Private Universities in Austria* conducted by Mohsin, Khan, Awan, and Doger (2011). This article is more about quality assurance practices of HR departments and it does not deal with specific HR functions in Austrian universities. However, they were using a survey in their study that showed very clear results. As such, our survey was designed with their model in mind as an attempt to fill the existing research gap they had not covered. Nonetheless, there is still room for improvement in our study. One problem was the number of responses from universities in Austria was insufficient at only around 30% of Austiran HEIs. In some cases this enough for drawing conclusions although the collection of more data is always superior. Another issue is the quality of the responses. Some of the respondents did not answer all the survey questions. Yet, we believe this is still a necessary and foundational start since there seemingly is no other studies at the moment that deal with this issue. This means that more efforts should be put in this field of study so that research gap can be filled properly with more than one study to compare with.

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CHAPTER THREE

FACULTY RECRUITMENT STRATEGIES IN EAST ASIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: GENERAL TRENDS AND CHALLENGES IN THE CASES OF KOREA ADVANCED INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (KAIST) AND TSINGHUA UNIVERSITY

Hwa-hyun Min and Jin Tao

Introduction

Recognizing the importance of academic quality assurance, South Korea and China have led higher education institutions to develop and utilize faculty recruitment strategies. This is because it contributes not only to achieve institutional goals, but also to improve effectiveness and efficiency of their performance. One of the key factors that determines quality of products and service provided by a university is the competence of the professors they employ. With the aim of attaining institutional goals as well as enhancing effectiveness and efficiency of performance, a majority of East Asian higher education institutions have increasingly paid attention to develop and adopt faculty recruitment strategies.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe general trends and limitations of East Asian tertiary education via two case studies: Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) in South Korea and Tsinghua University in China. The institutions were chosen in consideration of the representative roles that South Korea and China hold in the East Asian higher education market as well as two universities' domestic prestige and international reputations. Both of them have also shown specific characteristics in their recruitment strategies. In particular, findings indicated that recruitment travel, incentives, inbreeding and networks are strategic commonalities that KAIST and Tsinghua University share. Additionally, they have been faced with similar challenges such as a reliance on personal connections and inbreeding, an absence of established planning mechanisms, and unproven competence of faculty. As a conclusion, suggestions will be made to overcome challenges including long-term strategic designs, and expanded recruitment scope.

Concepts of Faculty Recruitment Strategies

Faculty recruitment strategies refer to channels and incentives utilized to employ academic staff before, during and after the hiring process. Hindrawn (n.d.) categorized them depending on recruitment sites whereas Wang (2006) did it by methods. The former was initially designed for international student, yet if applying the same mechanisms to employ academic staff, they also can be seen as faculty recruitment strategies. Apart from their idea, Chapman (2009) and Deng (2013) mentioned “inbreeding” as another type of faculty recruitment strategies.

Hindrawn (n.d.) saw that there are three kinds of recruitment strategies. The “armchair recruitment” indicates activities that can be done at the office to invite teaching staff. In contrast to the past when advertising and mass mailing were commonly used, contemporary universities are able to run their own websites and to offer a virtual college fair for their potential employees. Collaborating with foreign schools has also been prevalent since overseas counselors and advising centers provide information on qualified academics. In conjunction, “backyard recruitment” takes place locally to serve the same purpose. As its literal meaning implies, “recruitment travel” is a trip planned at an institutional level to entice scholars who have good reputations. The travel can cover from domestic to international regions depending on its purpose. For a face to face recruiting, universities outreach to other locations even abroad. Taking part in university fairs is a practical way of exploring plentiful candidates for the position as well.

Wang (2006) classified the recruitment strategies into five types by recruitment methods: publicity strategy, information spread strategy, public relations strategy, communication strategy and program implementation strategy. Publicity of the university's recruitment always has a long-term strategic goal; based on the general goal, the university conducts advertising work to build the image and create positive public opinion environment eventually expand the university's influence. The "information spread strategy" plays the role of connecting employer and employee in the recruitment activities. The key is to use different media to attract potential employee's attention and then lead the candidates to support and finally join the university. The "public relations strategy" underlines the established relationship during recruitment; that is, the recruiters as representative of university should handle properly the relationship with the employees and even with the candidates who do not get in at last. The "communication strategy" emphasizes both written and oral communications, namely the proper way and proper timing to communicate and good communication skills. Recruitment activities always have certain procedures; therefore, the "program implementation strategy" stresses that there should be a corresponding strategy for each stage.

Chapman (2009) believed that inbreeding is a conventional recruitment strategy in many East Asian countries. "Inbreeding" demonstrates the practice that universities tend to employ their own graduates or hire internally by selecting from their existing pool of staff. Faculty and graduates are familiar with each other; the established connection makes the hiring more cost-effective, which explains why inbreeding is widely applied.

General Trends and Challenges of Faculty Recruitment Strategies: The Cases of Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and Tsinghua University

Chapman (2009) identified common recruitment practice in East Asian tertiary education, of which pertinent to faculty recruitment strategies shared by Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and Tsinghua University are going to be written in this part.

Firstly, KAIST and Tsinghua University have a tendency to prefer to hire scholars who studied abroad (Chapman, 2009), which is the reason why two institutions often take recruitment travels. Secondly, they offer a variety of strong incentives to acquire competent academics. It is likely to motivate potential employees to decide to work at a certain institution. Thirdly, inbreeding is frequently selected as their hiring route so that they have many professors who graduated from home university (Chapman, 2009). Lastly, in both universities, networks play a critical role in exploring and recruiting faculty.

Case Studies

Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and Tsinghua University are the first and top science and technology research universities in South Korea and China respectively. In 2014, KAIST was 51st in the world according to the QS world university ranking and was 52nd in the Times Higher Education world university ranking (QS website, 2015). Tsinghua University was placed 47th in the QS world university ranking and 49th in the Times Higher Education world university ranking (QS website, 2015).

Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST)

Faculty recruitment strategies of KAIST probed in this chapter were mostly devised under the leadership of one previous university president who was in office from July, 2006 to February, 2013. His approach to faculty hiring can be summarized as searching for competent young academics and foreign professors who have inter-disciplinary backgrounds (Jung, 2009). Since increasing the number of full-time faculty was one of the core objectives, KAIST employed more than 100 academics between 2006 and 2013 (KAIST, 2007). In order to secure world class scholars in its research priority fields such as natural science, mathematics, physics, biology, health care system and green energy (KAIST website, 2015), KAIST went through an experimental recruitment phase.

When hiring academics, KAIST focused more on their potentiality rather than feasible performance such as publications and experience. For instance, the first foreign female full-time professor and the youngest mathematics professor at KAIST were provided their teaching positions when they were still Ph.D. students in their twenties (Kaistar, 2011). The latter indeed was a unprecedented case as she neither wrote any thesis on Science Citation Index (SCI) journals nor worked as Postdoc (Kaistar, 2011). They were discovered through recruitment travels to the United States (Kaistar, 2011). No matter where talented academics were, KAIST sent the interviewers to check their abilities to research and teach (Kaistar, 2011). Also, when necessary, the head of the university accompanied the interviewers for finalized the decision on site with the effect being reduced recruitment process time (Kaistar, 2011).

KAIST arranged incentives for employees completely based on their abilities by means of a merit system, a salary increase and a distinguished professor system (Kaistar, 2011). Generous financial support for research projects, laboratories and private apartments was an attractive condition for the candidates to accept the job offer from KAIST (Kaistar, 2011). The amount of start-up funding that KAIST sponsored for new faculty was, more or less, comparable to that of Stanford University (Choi, 2007). Furthermore, KAIST granted substantial responsibilities to new academics as hiring incentives, notwithstanding their age or their length of employment at the university. One example is a professor who was appointed dean and given authority over appointing professors, managing curriculum, and the departmental budget immediately after he was scouted (Kim & Kim, 2008). Another scholar in his thirties was awarded tenure after only working at KAIST for a year (Kim & Kim, 2008).

Meanwhile, KAIST took advantage of its internal and worldwide networks. When screening profiles of its faculty, it is noticeable that KAIST filled a considerable number of teaching positions with alumni and foreign professors. It seems that individual networks, in particular, greatly affected KAIST's international partnerships. As the president had graduated from and worked for Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), his connections performed as primary human resource pools for KAIST. In fact, the quantity of researchers coming from MIT was escalated. In 2006, 8 out of newly recruited full-time professors were from MIT; in 2007, it was 5 out of 26 (Oh, 2007).

Tsinghua University

In order to build Tsinghua into a world-class comprehensive university with high-level academic achievement, a large number of elites in teaching and research are called for. Key disciplinary fields, for instance, life science, medical science, material science, information technology, engineering, social science and humanity, take precedence in making the relevant academic disciplines become the top in worldwide rankings. To accomplish these goals, Tsinghua set its recruitment strategies on a program basis that accounted for different target groups. In each program, Tsinghua applies corresponding tactics such as different incentives and background requirements according to the audience it is aiming to attract.

Since 2006, Tsinghua has openly recruited staff worldwide (Sheng, 2008), a huge demand of academics with overseas backgrounds are called for. The Chang Jiang Scholar Program was designed to have scholars come to work and study at Tsinghua University and to support the university in attain a world-class ranking. It is hiring visiting professors who are actively engaged in teaching and researching at distinguished foreign universities. In another initiative, named 1000 Talents Program, international background is obligatory for candidates, which includes independent overseas working experience in famous international universities, research institutes or worldwide famous companies. In its sub-program targeted for young scholars under 40 with doctorate degrees, mostly the applicants should have overseas working experience for a minimum of 3 to 5 years (Tsinghua University, n.d.). During the general recruitment process, the employees with study or work experiences abroad have more advantages over other competitors. To this end, recruitment travel nowadays is playing a more and more important role as a strategy. However, because these programs put heavy emphasis on researchers' potential in their research fields, special exemptions are permissible for those without overseas backgrounds. Nonetheless, allowances are only made when candidates have outstanding research achievements in their Ph.D. studies or in other areas.

Tsinghua University also implements incentives extensively as a method to generate fierce competition for employing the best academics. In the 100 Top Talent Program, successful candidates are provided with an amount of research funding up to 2 million yuan (around 300,000 euro) after

being hired as his or her starting funds. In addition to their base monthly salaries, subsidies and bonuses, employed talents will obtain a job allowance special for 100 top talents during their full contract period (3 years), which is the same as the allowance given to full Tsinghua professors. Moreover, the university also provides newly hired professors with accommodation on campus at an affordable rental price. For the Chang Jiang Scholar Program, a research fund provided to the distinguished professor is up to 2 million yuan (300,000 euro). Allowance is provided to both distinguished professors and visiting professors, with an amount of 200,000 yuan/year (30,000 euro) and 30,000 yuan/month (4,000 euro) respectively. Housing is included as well; the distinguished professors are offered a three-bedroom apartment on campus to rent; the visiting professors can rent an apartment in Foreign Experts Building during their short stay in Tsinghua (Tsinghua University, n.d.).

In China, inbreeding is the main channel of recruitment. The university takes the pick of master and Ph.D. graduates; the professors are apt to nominate or retain their own students for a position (Deng, 2013). According to statistics by Wei (2005), the number of academic staff working at the university from which they graduated is 27.4%; 21.1% even work in the same program. In terms of the source of employees, like many other universities, Tsinghua employed its own graduates on a large scale; the Tsinghua Alumni Association is also well developed and gives support to recruitment. But, in the meantime as mentioned earlier, the demand for diversified applicants is growing and applicants with experience studying and working abroad are becoming more and more prevalent.

Challenges

As mentioned, KAIST and Tsinghua University have similarities in their recruitment strategies and practices. At the same time, several limitations have commonly been observed. In short, they both heavily rely on inbreeding (Chapman, 2009) and personal connections (Lai & Lo, 2007); lack of long-standing human resource plans; and capability of faculty is unproven.

Although exploiting their own networks as a recruitment channel seems helpful to save resources in a short period, it turned out to cause far more loss in the long-term. Soler (2001) deemed that rates of academic productivity and academic inbreeding are negatively correlated. For the same reason, personal connections may restrict creativeness of disciplines. When it comes to organizational management, newly employed academics already have a close relationship with the professors who made the recommendation for them. Such circumstances have a tendency to form isolated cliques and favoritism, which are surely obstacles to an overall management of an institution.

The reasons for an absence of consistent human resource plans vary from both institutions because of their different national contexts. In Korea, tertiary institutions are expected to adapt to new policies every few years following an election cycle of the university head. On the other hand, in Chinese universities, the plan is just a simple combination of recruiting information reported by departments during the hiring period. It neither gives much thought to the long-term development goals to discipline, department and employees, nor considers the matching problem between the organizational culture and the candidates.

As a result of taking risks of investing in potentially successful researchers, it is uncertain whether all of them will be able to prove their competence as expected. If universities failed to choose the right person who they require, it would bring about choose the right person who they require, it would bring about turnover costs and waste of resources (Li et al., 2006). Still, it is hard to undervalue their efforts to retain young, would-be-prominent scholars. It also remains to be seen how effective they have been at catching visionary academic talents.

Suggestions

One proposal against recruiting through inbreeding and personal connections is broadening the recruitment scope. Universities should seek concrete ways to open their recruitment to wider audiences throughout society, hire people internationally and strengthen cooperation among universities. By ‘exporting’ one's own graduates to other higher education institutions and reciprocate by ‘importing’ faculty, tertiary institutions can raise their academic diversity. Besides employing ‘imported’ scholars, operating an international exchange program also can lead to

positive outcomes as displayed in the continuous development of KAIST and Tsinghua University's visiting scholar programs (Sheng, 2008). A certain solution going beyond politics is necessary for Korean universities. They need to prepare a clear long-term human resource plan, in spite of the changes of the leadership, based on the institutional mission. Concerning Chinese universities, recruiters should first be aware of the qualifications required for their employees as well as the current status and future development of the position. The human resource scheme should be made in accordance with the university's strategic plan. On this basis, in depth analyze of academic department structures and emerging trends are essential along with the development of recruitment strategies that serve institutional needs and various other local factors (Li et al., 2006).

Conclusion

Hiring qualified professors is a key issue of human resources management in Korean and Chinese higher education. Thus, it is essential for universities to design and adopt the most suitable faculty recruitment strategies. As their common practice and general trends presented, they have already been accustomed to using certain approaches. Still, there are a few challenges left that should be overcome on their own. To sum up, expanding horizons of employment on the basis of the long-term plan will be great benefits, not only for attracting prominent scholars, but also for enhancing the core competitiveness of tertiary institutions.

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CHAPTER FOUR

PERFORMANCE-RELATED PAY FOR ACADEMIC STAFF IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Thanh Binh Ha and Sofya Kopelyan

Introduction

In the late 1970s - early 1980s, a "new global paradigm in public management" was adopted, and a series of economic and administrative reforms that followed in many countries was later consolidated under the label of New Public Management (NPM) (Hood, 1995; Dunsire, 1995, p. 21). The application of this mechanism to higher education is no longer an original idea. De Boer (2007) emphasizes the importance of NPM as an integrated approach to redirecting university system: output control requires post evaluation and effectiveness of service delivery, which can be achieved through the use of private sector management techniques. One of them is performance-related pay (PRP). At the institutional level, pay for performances in higher education usually necessitates the alignment of funding streams with the fundamental goals of higher education (degree production, graduation rates and research output, recruitment rates), which requires effort from both faculty and administrators (Scott, 2013).

Even though PRP can be applied on various levels of higher education institutions, this chapter focuses mainly on PRP issues related to academic staff. Traditionally, faculty members were paid according to years of experiences and credentials. Nowadays, there are various practices of linking pay for academic staff to their performance. Faculty work itself is hard to define. Key factors, such as research output, classroom teaching and various kinds of institutional, professional, and community activities (Magnusen, 1987) create a relatively complicated picture of PRP for academics. Moreover, it has been debated whether it is appropriate to evaluate and measure performance of the academics, or whether it goes against the nature of their enterprise and academic culture. This paper analyzes the advantages and disadvantages of PRP for academic staff, presents a number of PRP management solutions and performance indicators, and discusses the effectiveness and applicability of PRP in different contexts.

Overview of Performance-Related Pay

Being one of the leading human resource management initiatives, PRP characterizes a 'tougher' climate, within which organizations, driven by the search for competitive advantage, increasingly have to operate (Lewis, 1993, p. 11). PRP can be defined as "a re-orientation of pay and reward systems away from traditional methods of job evaluation and time-based pay, carried out on a collective basis, to a more individualized approach which recognizes employee contribution" (Shelley, 1999, p.443). Shelley's research on the diversity of PRP shows that in the UK, 65 per cent of pre-1992 universities currently operate a system of PRP for all academic staff with a big emphasis on individual unconsolidated bonus, derived through forms of peer and colleague assessment. Likewise, in Japan in 2007, Prime Minister Abe's Educational Reform Council emphasized a need for PRP that would put an end to seniority pay in university and to the automatic granting of research funds to departments on a historical basis (Goodman, 2010).

The fundamental purposes of PRP are evaluation and development (Flaniken, 2009). Closely linked with evaluation, PRP assesses faculty achievements toward the institutional and their own goals in the past, and further directs and adjusts their capacity in the future. The traditional payment system of basic scale aligned with years of experiences does not have this function. It produces two types of academics: those who only concentrate on doing research and disregard in-class teaching quality, and those who only teach courses without any motivation to do research. Despite the academic autonomy of faculty members, it is important to perform evaluations of their activities in connection with PRP. Although difficulties arise when it comes to measuring the performance of academic staff in teaching, research, and services, PRP becomes more and more prevalent in higher education

institutions. Advocates of PRP suggest that managers have the ability to enhance university success by linking the system of faculty remuneration with university strategic goals (Schulz & Tanguay, 2006).

Benefits of Performance-Related Pay

First and foremost, PRP is widely believed to increase the motivation of academic staff. Davidovitch, Soen, and Sinuani-Stern (2011) point out that since 1990s, economic hardships and tight budgets have resulted in the fact that only strong academic performance leads to higher financial awards. In other words, incentive pay method that is based on past achievements has been designed to motivate and encourage better performance in the future. In developing countries, where basic salary for faculty members is averagely low, PRP can be the major motivation for them to increase efficiency and productivity at work. Thus, for instance, the Resolution on Innovation in Higher Education 2010-2012, issued on January 2010 by the Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam, suggests a PRP mechanism, in which presidents/rectors of higher education institutions determine the pay scale for faculties in accordance with their contribution, and calls for a more effective annual evaluation of academic performance (Regional Training Center, 2014).

PRP has also been involved in the process of selection and recruitment of academic staff. With the above assumption that the system accurately identifies productivity, basing pay on performance can attract and retain most productive human resources. In addition, PRP can serve as a tool for promotion in the institutional context, as it justifies promotion as a fair reward for excellent performance. At the same time, output-based pay creates a market that values teaching and research quality and helps faculty members move to institutions where their talent is rewarded most highly (Lavy, 2007). Thus, higher education institutions possessing a PRP system that rewards effectiveness may attract academic staff with higher abilities. Muralidharan & Sundararaman (2011) demonstrate that more educated and better-trained employees responded better to the incentives, and highlight the potential for incentives to be a productivity-enhancing measure that can improve the effectiveness of the institutions overall.

PRP is strongly linked with quality assurance in higher education, where quality and standards have many different implications (Yorke, 1999). Faculty members who deliver teaching and research activities play the main role in defining institutional recognition. While quality relates to the educational process of teaching, learning, and carrying out research, standards refer more to the intended or actual achievement or outcome. Therefore, ‘linking quality and standards’ is the contribution of educational process to the attainment of a defined standard (Newton, 2006). Here, standard can be viewed as learning and research outcome, which is very often integrated in accreditation process for quality assurance. However, it may not be desirable to apply the concept of quality as mainly related to assessing output to every institution. Burrows, Harvey, and Green (1992) define quality as effectiveness in achieving institutional goals, meeting the stated or implied needs of the customers. Thus, it is of great importance to clearly define the criteria that the faculty should meet in order to contribute to institutional quality, and the criteria for the evaluation of their performance.

The Other Side of the Coin

Motivation derived from PRP is a paradox. In certain cases, PRP fails to motivate academic staff. Studies conclude that PRP schemes have little or no effect on employee motivation, and at worst demotivate them. Employees are rather motivated through non-pay factors, such as job security, satisfaction, personal development opportunities, and peer recognition (Lewis, 1993). Within a single institution or department, the level of motivation, in fact, differs from one faculty member to another. Motivation that is directly connected to payments might increase individual competition, thus weakening academic collegiality and rupturing the relationships among the faculty. To some extent, PRP reduces the possibilities for cooperation, and without teamwork, there can be no quality assurance (Kohn, 1993).

Moreover, there is a major difficulty in defining academic staff performance and in developing measurement schemes and scales at the institutional level. Performance criteria can be chosen and

effectuated in an inappropriate way, or may not lead to accurate measurement. Questionable methods include student evaluation to scale teaching effectiveness, peer evaluation, and measurement of research outcomes related to quantity rather than quality (Honoree & Terpstra, 2008). Furthermore, there is an issue of human resource capability: which managerial staff is competent to carry out PRP assessment? It is necessary to take into account that the nature of academic work performed by faculty members makes it difficult to assess the quality of the outcomes:

Teaching assessments produce disputes concerning the proper weighting of student evaluation of teaching… and classroom visits made by peers. Assessing academic service proves problematic in evaluating the institutional and professional impact of the service and distinguishing between substantial contributions and mere presence at committee meetings. Research assessment stirs controversy in assessing the quality and impact of publication. (Schulz & Tanguay, 2006, p. 73)

PRP is not only outcome-driven but also budget-control imperative. Inadequacy of available funds for the required performance results in disagreement and conflict between academic staff and their employers. Lewis (1993) perceives it as a possibility of demotivating staff: since fixed budget does not allow the award distribution to stretch far enough, the academic staff that really has performed above average will be given an average award. In case university funding is totally dependent on performance as a whole, and if institutional performance is low, there will be even no budget available for PRP. With restrained budgets, higher education institutions are required to perform better at a lower cost. In this reality, it is a major challenge to ensure sufficient financial rewards in a long term manner.

Performance Indicators and Performance Management

It is generally agreed that performance indicators and methods of measuring performance should be designed in a way that would ensure transparency and fairness of monetary payments (Hall, 2009). Nevertheless, as it has already been indicated above, this task is not as simple as it may appear. Not all outputs of the academics' and administrators' work are quantitative, can be assessed objectively, and should be directly associated with a financial reward (Lewis, 1993).

By definition, patterns of PRP cannot be uniform. Although the number of PRP methods is rather limited, their combinations may vary from institution to institution. Assessment criteria, for instance, can be set managerially against the objectives of performance agreements between universities and their stakeholders (governments, sponsors, etc.), and can be formulated in terms of the achievement of objectives. If a teaching-oriented university has an objective to become more research intensive, then a certain number of academic publications in peer-reviewed journals per year would serve as part of individual performance indicators and as a basis for financial reward. Institutions with a higher level of academic autonomy, on the other hand, may rely more on qualitative measures, such as peer and colleague evaluations and student feedback. Three basic forms of PRP are recurrent in the literature (Shelley, 1999):

a) individual pay, based on time and appraisal;

b) individual bonuses, based on targets;

c) collective bonuses (e.g., for project group work).

In fact, remuneration methods include discretionary awards, incremental and bonus schemes, and PRP schemes proper. Non-monetary rewards, such as reduced teaching load, additional holiday time, promotion, or public recognition, can also be part of PRP schemes. These schemes can be applied either to all university employees or to some categories of staff (e.g., only to executive or senior academic staff).

In case of faculty members, evaluation generally revolves around three categories: teaching, scholarship, and service (Magnusen, 1987; Schulz & Tanguay, 2006). This division mirrors the famous notion of universities' three missions. Assessment of teaching is a combination of student feedback and student performance (dropouts, test results, grants, awards, participation in conferences, etc.) on the one hand, and, on the other hand, teaching load, innovativeness, the quality

of syllabi, course materials etc. are reviewed by peers and/or heads of the departments. For this reason, keeping up teachers' portfolios appears to be an effective means of collecting, systematizing, and presenting information on individual performance. Scholarly achievements, in their turn, are made up from inputs (grants received) and outputs (works published; number of citations). Finally, the term 'service' can refer to activities within university (like organizing a conference and editing its proceedings or engaging in academic administration); other professional activities (e.g., being a referee for a professional journal); and community service (e.g., giving public lectures and expert interviews). Complications arise when each of the performance categories is assigned some relative weight and a particular scale, because most criteria are difficult to measure in a way that would be perceived as fair by all faculty members (Honoree & Terpstra, 2008).

Depending on the size of the institution, its organizational structure, national legislation, and country-specific cultural traditions, decisions about remuneration can be made individually (e.g., by a dean hiring a new professor or by a leader of a research team responsible for distributing grant money); by appointed administrators (e.g., an overall scheme developed centrally by an HR department); or by a special remuneration committee. The latter body is usually assembled in private institutions governed by a board of trustees with the purpose of determining pay conditions for senior academic and executive staff, and monitoring their performance. Its members normally include various stakeholders from within and outside the university, whose task is to make sure that senior staff members work in compliance with the institutional mission towards the achievement of common goals, and that higher remuneration rates for these people are justified, necessary, and compatible with their individual performance and reputation. Undue gaps between senior and junior staff salaries, as well as higher executive pay rates in contrast with remuneration in comparable institutions, lead to internal discouragement, confrontation and reputational losses (Hall, 2009). Collegial pay decisions should also be encouraged in public institutions and can be implemented for various groups of employees on all levels, because this form of decision-making guarantees more transparent and objective deliverables, as well as faculty approval, when faculty members are involved into the process.

Effectiveness and Applicability of PRP in Different Contexts

Effectiveness of PRP schemes largely depends on the context of their application. In general, they are more applicable in research institutions, as research outputs are easier to measure quantitatively, and are less applicable in teaching and administrative contexts (Schulz & Tanguay, 2006). They are more effective when the basic pay is low, whereas pay distinctions between various performance levels are high (Hathorn, Hathorn, & Hathorn, 2011). Such schemes are more likely to motivate employees, but they are contingent on university budgets, some of which are too meager to afford them. Hence, it would be unrealistic to expect cross-sector uniformity of PRP in higher education.

Furthermore, studies show that a comprehensive and diversified performance management policy is more effective than the 'one size fits all' approach (Decramer, Smolders, & Vanderstraeten, 2013; Franco-Santos, Rivera, & Bourne, 2014). Different employee groups have different tasks, needs, and cultures, and therefore need different configurations of PRP; there simply cannot exist a universal set of performance indicators and monetary rewards for all groups within one institution. For example, when implementing a scheme based on university strategic targets, it is worth taking into consideration that scholars usually identify with research targets rather than with organizational strategy. When evaluating teaching, distinction should be made between departments, between beginners and experienced teachers, and so on. Integrated systems of performance management that link strategy to measurement and balance the interests of different stakeholders, internal consistency of performance management practices, better communication between HR departments and the employees, and better managerial control are among other factors that support the effectiveness of PRP practices.

From a global perspective, assessment and remuneration of individual performance in higher education sector is more developed and common in Anglo-Saxon countries (the UK, Canada, Australia, etc.). Their best practices are spread across the rest of the world and are adopted via various mechanisms, including those of institutional isomorphism: the UK serves as a model for the US (Scott, 2013); the US serves as a model for Korea (Halx & Joo, 2012), and so on. Since the UK has been the 'headliner' in the modernization of pay structures in higher education, and the experience accumulated by British universities presents rich data for analysis (Universities and

Colleges Employers Association, 2008), it is worth looking at a sample case from one of the UK institutions, which will then be followed by an example from a country, where PRP was introduced only recently.

The University of Glasgow has an elaborate *Performance, Pay, and Reward* policy that is being regularly updated. It rests upon the governmental civil service job grading (from 1 to 10) and provides corresponding salary scales. The policy is meant to create equal opportunities with respect to pay and career progression for all staff, with particular attention given to gender pay gap; to match the reward with job content and performance; to sustain excellence, and to encourage exceptional contributions by means of the *Reward and Recognition Policy* (The University of Glasgow, n.d.). The University tries to make sure that individual objectives of the faculty are aligned with its strategic plan, and conducts annual performance and development review in form of self-assessment and meetings with line managers. Instead of points, it utilizes a scale from 'improved performance required' to 'outstanding'. The former level does not automatically lead to dismissal; it is followed by measures for improvement, a more extensive monitoring, and by application of competency procedures. The latter level entails pay rewards and promotion.

A separate policy is applied to professorial and senior professional (Grade 10) staff as playing a leading role in the realization of university ambitions. Individual profiles of the professors are measured against four 'zones', that is, four levels of academic excellence, from an entry level to the highest academic distinction. Criteria include research output, award generation, supervision, knowledge exchange and impact, learning and teaching, leadership and management, and esteem. Remuneration policy is formulated by the Remuneration Committee every year, depending on budgetary and institutional considerations. In this case, the University takes recourse to a points-based approach (0-4). Occasional outstanding performance (3 points and higher) is rewarded with a modest non-consolidated payment, whereas sustained high-level performance over a three-year period (9 points or over) can be rewarded with a consolidated payment for another three-year cycle. The same 'zones' and points are utilized for recruitment, retention, and promotion; and same procedures (with minor differences in performance indicators and salary bands) are applied to senior professional staff.

Whereas British universities have a considerable tradition of relating pay with performance, Russian universities are only making first steps on the way to PRP. In 2012, the Russian Government decided to refine on the remuneration scheme for civil servants and adopted a notion of the 'effective contract'. It is a contract of employment with the employee, which elaborates on his/her duties, wage conditions, and the indicators and criteria for evaluating his/her performance, in order to determine incentive payments, depending on the results of work and the quality of services (The Russian Government, 2012). Since the Higher School of Economics (HSE) in Moscow won the competition for developing a nationwide roadmap, it became a model institution for the transition to the effective contract. HSE faculty members receive grants, increments, and bonuses if they publish articles in Russia and abroad, contribute to the university reputation, develop original teaching methods and electronic courses, give courses in English, engage in distance teaching, have highest ratings among the students and supervise the students that win research awards. Young faculty members are entitled to additional grants, mobility programs, trainings, and reduced teaching load. Statistical data demonstrates that PRP makes up 23-29% of total faculty income, and the number of applications for performance rewards doubled between 2010 and 2013 (Radaev, 2013).

A broader view of the reform, however, is not so optimistic. University administrators across the country struggle with its implementation, try different schemes, and echo the arguments of their international colleagues (Pavlyutkin, 2014). The major challenges are financial stress, information asymmetry, and bureaucratization. In Russia, introduction of the effective contract has been closely linked to the presidential decree to raise salary level in the education sector to the average regional level. What is more, PRP may comprise 30-80 % of the total salary (compared to 5-10% in the UK and USA; Schugal & Ugolnova, 2013). HSE presents an example of a national research university, member of an excellence program, enjoying increased federal funding. Less sustainable universities, institutions depending largely on regional budgets, and teaching-oriented universities have chosen to pay more to less employees, increasing teaching hours of the remaining academic staff and, consequently, lowering the level of quality, contrary to the reform. Even if an institution finds some means to increase the basic and performance-related shares of salary, most academics feel the remuneration is too small to stimulate better performance and prevent them from supplementing salary by outside work (Derkachev & Pinskaya, 2014; Pavlyutkin, 2014).

Furthermore, communication of the reform to faculty members is often insufficient. There are examples of good practices involving public discussions of the contract and indicators, when university administration amends the draft of the agreement in accordance with the opinion of the academics (National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University, 2014a & 2014b). In other cases, however, administrators use the reform to terminate previous long-term contracts, or set inadequate indicators that would be difficult to achieve and that, as a result, would not be remunerated (Chebakova, 2015). Formalization of indicators and bureaucratization of evaluation provoke superficial performance and imitation of quality (Kurbatova & Levin, 2013). In addition, employees are embogged in a morass of paperwork, reporting on their activities and sitting on various evaluation commissions sometimes as frequently as every month (Schugal & Ugolnova, 2013).

The reform is binding for all state-funded educational institutions, which should transfer to the suggested PRP system by 2018. Since it has not been fully implemented yet, and studies on the effectiveness of the 'effective contract' will be conducted at least until 2020 (National Research University Higher School of Economics, n.d.), it is difficult to assess its overall impact. Current research attests that careers in education have become more prestigious, and more young professionals are attracted to the sector (Derkachev & Pinskaya, 2014). The improvement of quality, however, has been less successful in light of managerial attempts to optimize the costs and increased bureaucratic pressure on universities and academics.

Conclusion

The logic of New Public Management dictates that in order to enhance quality and effectiveness of higher education, pay should be awarded for performance. Performance-related pay is considered a feasible solution when the institution aims at increasing its competitiveness, at rationalizing its organization chart and employee workload, and at tackling its budgetary constraints. Assuming that PRP motivates academic staff to perform better, it can effectively increase the quality and standards of the university as a whole.

Implementation of PRP schemes is far from being ubiquitous. The relevance and effectiveness of PRP in the higher education sector have been questioned by both scholars and trade unions. PRP is based on output management, whereas output measurement appears to be very controversial in the case of academic staff. Even though PRP practices are adjusted to varying national contexts, their proponents face common challenges. Arguments in favor and against PRP revolve around performance indicators and their value, academic autonomy and managerial control, collegiality and competition, methods of assessment, fairness and subjectivity, and the costs of adoption of this approach. Effectiveness and sustainability of PRP solutions depend on many factors, but most importantly on their diversification and flexibility.

All schemes assume a division between the basic and performance-related shares of salary, with percentage of PRP contribution varying from place to place; and all demand a development of evaluation system of some sort, using points, descriptors, levels, grades, etc. to measure individual academic and professional achievements and the alignment of employee performance with organizational goals. Evidently, if remuneration scheme is inadequate, or is applied inconsistently, it can become a demotivating factor for the employees. On the contrary, well-designed PRP systems can improve individual performance, help attract and retain outstanding staff, and enhance the university public image.

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CHAPTER FIVE

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT AND UNIVERSITY PERFORMANCE: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF HUMAN RESOURCES AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY AND UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING

Ana Godonoga and Laura Gutierrez Vite

Introduction

Higher education systems worldwide have undergone many changes in the last couple of decades. The waves of governance reforms in the public sector, which started in the 1980's, had their spill overs in the sector of higher education, opening the floor to more decentralization, marketization, privatization and institutional autonomy (Cai, 2010). The increased competition in the university market as a result of privatization, created the need for more accountability, increased efficiency, and improved performance. As these outcomes are highly dependent on the quality of the human factor, increased attention has been paid in recent years to the role of human resource management.

A large body of research has identified that institutionalization of a strong human resource department could lead to improved organizational outcomes. If organizations want to develop a competitive advantage, they must have "the ability to acquire and effectively utilize human resources" (Guest & Clinton, 2007, p.4). The underlying principle behind this concept is rooted in the resource-based theory, which specifies that human capital, unlike technology and finance, is a scarce resource, and the ability of organizations to manage it effectively could result in better performance (Jiang, Lepak, Hu & Baer, 2012, p. 1264).

Extensive research has been done to identify the practices of HR that have a high impact on organizational performance (Patrick & Sebastian, 2012). Such "high impact" practices are believed to influence the motivation, commitment and productivity of employees, which in turn, influence organizational performance (Guest & Clinton, 2007, p. 28). The current literature, which primarily analyzes the business sector, shows that HR practices such as workforce planning, training and development, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, career planning management, and internal communication are positively associated with firm performance (Beh & Loo, 2013). In the university context, on the other hand, efforts to study the relationship between HRM and organizational performance have been limited.

For that reason, this study aims to extend the research, by showcasing and analyzing the HR departments of two institutions based in the United States: Harvard University and University of Wyoming. As a proxy measure for university performance, the study considers the 2013-2014 Times Higher Education World University Ranking, which places Harvard University at the top of the list of ranked institutions, and the University of Wyoming, at the bottom. Through analysis of HR employee handbooks, communications and reports, obtained from their respective HR websites, this study identifies instituionalized HR practices at each university and benchmarks them against the ones listed by Guest and Clinton (2007) in the *Human Resource Management and University Performance* report.

The remaining of this study is structured as follows: first, a discussion on indicators used to measure the performance of institutions of higher education is introduced. A more extensive discussion is provided in reference to the Times Higher Education World University Ranking, which is used in this study as a proxy measure of university performance. Second, the study provides a discussion on best practices used by human resource departments in institutions of higher education, as identified in Guest and Clinton's (2007) report, which examines the links between human resource management and university performance in the UK. Third, the study analyzes the HR departments at Harvard University and the University of Wyoming, identifying their organizational structure, and HR activities and practices, which are compared to the ones listed in Guest and Clinton's report. Fourth, the study compares the two institutions based on their HR practices, and discusses their

potential implication on university performance. Finally, limitations of the study are raised and recommendations for further research are proposed.

University Performance: The World of University Rankings

A report released by Thomson Reuters (2008), after surveying 89 college and university administrators worldwide, shows that the most common measures of performance tracked by institutions of higher education are: grant funding, faculty salaries, research expenditures, patents, research output, graduation rates, private gifts, enrolment growth, faculty reputation, profitability, revenues, and rankings.

The present study specifically focuses on ranking as a proxy measure for university performance. The Times Higher Education World University Ranking is employed as a tool to measure the performance of universities across the following key areas: teaching, research, knowledge transfer, and international outlook. The methodology uses 13 performance indicators, grouped in five categories: (1) teaching, (2) research, (3) citations, (4) industry income, and (5) international outlook.

Teaching

Performance indicators included in this category account for 30% of the total generated score used to rank institutions. This category comprises results from the academic reputation survey, administered by Thomson Reuters, student-to-faculty ratios, which serve as proxy measures for quality of teaching, doctorate-to-bachelor degree ratios awarded by institutions, number of total doctorates, and income per academic staff.

Research

This category accounts for the volume, reputation and income of an institution's research, and it includes the following variables: university performance for research excellence, income derived from research activities, and research output. This category of variables counts for 30% of the total performance score.

Citations

The citations category, cited by Times Higher Education as the most influential of all, is designed to assess the potential of universities to deliver knowledge. A typical variable listed in this category includes the number of times a university's published work is cited by international scholars. As the previous two categories, 30% of the total performance score is attributed to this indicator.

Industry Income

Variables included in this category are designed to assess a university's contribution to innovation, and its capability of transferring knowledge to applied sectors. This category accounts for 2.5% of the total performance score. Income for research activities received from the industry is one variable included in this category.

International Outlook

This category reflects the diversity of institutions and their willingness to collaborate with international actors on research projects and other education-related programs and initiatives. Examples of variables included in this category are: domestic-to-international student ratios, domestic-to-international faculty ratios, and the proportion of an institution's research publications with at least one international collaborator. The score derived from this category of variables accounts for 7.5% of the total performance score.

As part of data analysis, Z-scores were used to calculate overall rankings for all datasets, except for the academic reputation survey. The score for each observation is calculated based on the difference from the average mean of the whole data set, also presented in the literature as the standard deviation. Further, the derived Z-scores are turned into cumulative probability scores, which are

used to identify where institutions stand on the ranking scale.

It is important to note that certain universities are excluded from the data set if they (a) do not teach undergraduates, (b) are teaching only a few narrow subjects, or (c) have produced less than 200 research papers per year for the last 6 years.

Human Resource Practices

In spite of increased attention paid to human resource management and its role on university performance, the available research in this field is limited.

McCormack, Propper & Smith (2014) provide some insight into the topic; however, their study focuses primarily on the relationship between university performance and management practices. The study does provide informative conclusions, showing that the "provision of incentives for staff recruitment, retention and promotion are correlated with both teaching and research performance" (2014, p. 534).

Amongst the few studies that explicitly addresses the relationship between human resources and university performance is the *Human Resource Management and University Performance* report, by Guest and Clinton (2007), where applications of human resource management in UK institutions of higher education are studied. Apart from analyzing the link between human resource management and university performance, the report also evaluates the perceptions of the university leadership towards human resources.

The report bases its analysis on a set of practices applied by human resource departments in institutions of higher education. A comprehensive list of these HR practices are provided in *Table 1*.

Table 1. *Human Resource Practices (Guest & Clinton, 2007)*

Human Resource Practices
General recruitment and selection
General retention of staff
Job evaluation
Ability to attract top quality staff
Ability to retain top quality staff
Diversity/equal opportunity
General training and development
Managing flexible employment
Discipline
The design of job content
Reward systems
Academic leadership training and development
Processes of employee involvement
University leadership training and development
Appraisal
Two-way communication
Attendance/absence
Managing poor performance
Staff planning/succession planning
Performance management

The researchers use these practices to evaluate the effectiveness of HR departments of different institutions in the UK, mentioning that "more of these that are present, the higher the performance" (2007, p.5).

To evaluate the HR departments of Harvard University and the University of Wyoming, this study considers the practices proposed by Guest and Clinton as benchmark tools. After providing an overview for each HR department, the study under review synthesizes the information in a tabular form, showcasing the HR practices implemented by each university.

Case Study I: HR at Harvard University

Harvard University, founded in 1636, is the oldest higher education institution in the United States, and currently one of the most prestigious universities in the world. It is recognized for providing world-class teaching, learning and research, as well as developing leaders in a wide variety of disciplines.

The University, located in Cambridge, in the state of Massachusetts, has approximately 2,400 faculty members and 21,000 degree students, including undergraduate, graduate, and professional students. Harvard has more than 13,000 staff members supporting the University's mission. The faculty of Harvard's Schools has produced 47 Nobel Laureates, 32 heads of state, and 48 Pulitzer Prize winners. Furthermore, it is the fifth-largest employer in Massachusetts, providing jobs for approximately 18,000 people.

Harvard is governed by the President and the Fellows of Harvard College, the President of Harvard University, and the Board of Overseers. The University is integrated by eleven principal academic units: ten faculties and the extension school Radcliffe Institute for Advanced Study. Each School

and department has its own mission, unified, however by an overarching common mission. The Schools are managed by officers and deans, who are responsible for Harvard's academic programs and curricula (The President and Fellows, 2015b).

This institution has been highly ranked by many international and domestic ranking agencies. Since 2011, Harvard University has been at the top of the Times Higher Education World Reputation Rankings for its excellence in teaching and research (Times Higher Education, 2015).

Human Resources Organizational Structure

Harvard University has developed a well-integrated system of Human Resources Management. The system is comprised of a central Harvard Human Resources department and of individual HR units in Harvard Schools. The central HR unit, managed by the Vice President for Human Resources, employs a team of professionals in the field, who support the faculty and the staff across the institution. The local Human Resources units are in charge of assisting leaders, managers, faculty and staff regarding HR issues, in collaboration and coordination with the central HR. The Human Resource department of the institution is believed to have a strong commitment in supporting the mission of the schools and the university as a whole.

Both at the central unit level, and across local units, a high number of HR practices are in place, such as recruitment and staffing, diversity, employee and labor relations, compensation, performance management, employee development, HR information management, employee recognition, and regulatory compliance.

The remaining of this section provides a brief description of the main HR subunits, and the practices they support, according to the information stated on Harvard's web page.

Human Resources Consulting Group

At the institutional level, the Human Resources Consulting Group provides human resources consulting services to the departments of the central administration. These consulting services include employee and labor relations, talent management, grading and compensation, recognition, training, organization, design/development, change management, and manager effectiveness. Additionally, the group collaborates with leaders, managers and employees from different departments of the university to adopt policies and practices that could lead to increased performance and productivity. Analyzing the activities of this unit, according to Guest and Clinton's report, the following HR practices are fulfilled: *general retention of staff*, *diversity/equal opportunity*, *general training and development*, *managing flexible employment*, *reward systems*, *processes of employee involvement* and *performance management*.

Harvard Benefits

Harvard Benefits is the unit focused on ensuring the design, delivery and administration of benefits that Harvard offers to the employees, especially regarding health and financial security issues. Professionals working in this unit are concerned with developing a highly-competitive and attractive *rewards system* to ensure motivation and satisfaction of employees.

Harvard Compensation

Harvard Compensation provides pay programs to support the University in attracting, motivating, empowering and retaining a highly qualified workforce. The department supervises the alignment of employee incentives with organizational objectives, adapting the compensation models to meet the specific needs of each school. The HR practices advanced by this unit are: the *ability to attract and to retain top quality staff*.

Center for Workplace Development

HR practices used by the Center for Workplace Development are *general training and development,* as well as *academic leadership training and development*, according to the needs of the university. In order to achieve organizational and individual effectiveness, the center offers, among other tools, classroom instruction, online learning, coaching for employees, coaching for leaders, and talent development programs.

Labor and Employee Relations

The Labor and Employee Relations (LER) serves as the University's chief representative of all labor relations matters. LER provides guidance on employment policies for non-represented staff. Additionally, to ensure the fair and consistent treatment of all Harvard staff, LER also provides advice and support with respect to workplace issues.

Work/Life

Harvard's Office of Work/Life supports the health, well-being and work/life integration of faculty, staff, and postdoctoral fellows. They offer support for employees regarding their personal matters, provide workplace and work group consultations, tips regarding stress management, and work/life management. These HR practices, which are highly relevant, seem to be missing from Guest and Clinton's report.

Individual HR Units

There are other specific programs and initiatives institutionalized to help managers grow and develop better competencies, skills, practices and relationships with their employees. These programs have been implemented at various levels of management (supervisor, mid-level manager, senior manager, executive) amongst all schools.

As observed, Harvard University has designed and implemented a robust Human Resources system. The second case study is described in the next section, which provides the background, organizational structure and HR practices at the University of Wyoming.

Case Study II: HR at the University of Wyoming

The University of Wyoming (UW) was founded in 1886 and is located in Laramie, in the southeastern part of the state. UW enrolls approximately 14,000 undergraduate and graduate students, representing 50 states and more than 90 countries.

The HR department at UW (n.d.) defines itself as a "key administrative unit within the Division of Administration". Its mission is "to serve as the primary human resources unit for the University of Wyoming providing and continuously improving services for employees, students, retirees, applicants, departments and external agencies; thus enabling the University to serve the people of the State of Wyoming" (n.d.).

The HR department is centralized, and it employs 23 staff members. At the top of the organizational chart is the Associate Vice-President (VP) of HR and Diversity, followed by the Assistant to the Associate VP. Below the Associate VP, there are five managers responsible for the following subunits: benefits and training, classification and compensation, employment and employee relations, and manager of records. HR specialists report to HR managers, and the highest number of professionals are working in the Employment and Employee Relations subunit.

Classification and Compensation Department

The Classification and Compensation Department is the HR subunit responsible for the administration of the compensation program of the university. Amongst the main tasks of the unit are: the audit of current positions, provision of training on compensation and salary procedures, implementation of evaluation reports pertaining to salary and individual job performance, and administration of compensation-related surveys to current employees. The Classification and Compensation subunit is directly involved in the following HR practices: *rewards system* and *managing performance.*

Employee Relations

The employee relations is the largest subunit of the HR department at UW. Three main practices of HR fall under its responsibility: *discipline procedures, performance evaluations,* and *professional*

development.

The disciplinary procedures team provides support and guidance to supervisors who want to ensure the discipline of their employees. They display information related to workplace violation practices, and develop appropriate disciplinary actions, which range from oral warning and performance improvement plans to termination of employment contract.

With respect to performance, the department uses online performance evaluations, also called ePerformance, a system which allows supervisors to evaluate the work of their employees. To ensure transparency and a *two-way communication*, a practice of HR defined by Guest and Clinton (2007), the HR department provides ePerformance guides both for the supervisors and for their employees.

With respect to training and personnel development, the HR department at UW offers a wide range of programs such as the Staff Training and Enrichment Program, the UW Leadership Academy, the Human Resources Employment Law and Policies, etc. Online workplace trainings cover topics related to performance appraisal, workplace etiquette, stress management, customer service, etc. Training programs and online modules for staff development are available both for new employees and for supervisors.

Workforce Management

The workforce management team provides recommendations and support related to hiring personnel. Their activities are particularly oriented towards professionals working in management positions. They provide information and tips regarding all steps of the employment cycle, from advertising new job positions, to termination of contract. They also provide information related to the hiring process of academic staff, advertising of administrative/faculty/academic professional positions, interviewing, onboarding, etc.

An interesting feature of the HR department at the UW is its lack of participation in the appointing process of new academic staff. This function falls under the direct responsibility of Appointing Authority members, who are professionals designated by the President of the university. They are also responsible for the design of job descriptions, and they participate in the audit process of positions that need to be re-evaluated. Other functions, such as promotion, post-tenure review, and dismissal of academic staff, which generally fall under the responsibility of HR, are carried out by the Office of Academic Affairs.

Benefits

The HR department of UW offers a wide range of benefits as a practice of *rewards and incentives.* The following benefits are covered in the compensation package of full-time employees: campus breast pumping program, employee assistance program, tuition waivers, health and dental insurance, retirement plans, social security, discounts on athletic season tickets, use of UW libraries and gym facilities, etc.

Discussion and Conclusions

Based on the analysis of the HR departments of both universities, the following observations are advanced:

In terms of HR practices, which are summarized in *Table 2*, the HR department at Harvard fulfills 17 of the 20 practices, and the University of Wyoming covers 14 of the total. At Harvard, gaps were identified with respect to *discipline, appraisal of staff* and *two-way communication*. The HR department at UW shows limitations with respect to the *ability to attract high quality staff, ability to retain high quality staff, managing flexible employment, the design of the job content, processes of employee involvement,* and *staff planning*.

Table 2. *Human Resources Practices-Comparative Analysis*

HR Practices	Harvard University	Univeristy of Wyoming
General recruitment and selection	x	x
General retention of staff	x	x
Job evaluation	x	x
Ability to attract top quality staff	x	
Ability to retain top quality staff	x	
Diversity/equal opportunity	x	x
General training and development	x	x
Managing flexible employment	x	
Discipline		x
The design of job content	x	
Reward systems	x	x
Academic leadership training and development	x	x
Processes of employee involvement	x	
University leadership training and development	x	x
Appraisal		x
Two-way communication		x
Attendance/absence	x	x
Managing poor performance	x	x
Staff planning/succession planning	x	
Performance management	x	

With respect to the role of the HR department inside the institutions, the University of Wyoming seems to fulfill primarily the role of an administrative unit, as mentioned previously. Another supporting evidence is the lack of involvement of the HR unit in the hiring process of academic staff. At Harvard, on the other hand, the central HR unit defines itself as strongly committed "to advance the University's mission of teaching and research" (The President and Fellows, 2015a). By analyzing the mission statements provided by the HR departments of both institutions, it seems that the HR department at Harvard is more closely aligned with the overall mission of the university, compared to the HR department at the University of Wyoming. At the same time, the above analysis seems to indicate that Harvard's HR department, rather than fulfilling only the role of an administrative unit, it also plays a strategic role within the organization.

Linking these findings back to the ranking of the two institutions, an association between human resource management and university performance does seem to exist. Although the analysis presented above is only at the preliminary stage, with no actual data-driven evidence, to an extent, this study seems to support Guest and Clinton's claim that the more practices an HR department supports, the higher the university performance will be.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the analysis presented above, complemented with a thorough screening of the literature, it can be stated that human resources are a fundamental element of an institution's organizational structure. The effectiveness and the degree of integration of the HR department with the overall mission and institutional strategy is likely to play an influential role on the work activity of key actors including managers, administrators and academic staff, as well as, on the university

performance as a whole.

It is important to note, however, that universities are complex organizations, and measures of performance depend on multiple internal forces and stakeholders. Thus, providing an objective and accurate comparison proves challenging and several limitations have to be considered.

First, the HR practices of both institutions were analyzed based only on the information available on their web page. Therefore, certain HR practices identified as missing could still be applied, without necessarily being documented in written form. In order to gather more reliable data and increase the validity of the results, it is suggested that a study *in-situ,* where primary data could be collected and analyzed.

Another limitation is related to the use of ranking as a proxy for university performance. The use of ranking tools to showcase quality of institutions has attained criticism from the literature (Raughvargers, 2011). Therefore, the use of alternative measures of performance in similar analyses may lead to more confident results.

Additionally, the team acknowledges that the impact of HRM on university performance can also be influenced by other extraneous factors, such as leadership, organizational structure, availability of financial resources, size of the university, level of development of HR departments and effectiveness of implementation of HR practices.

Last but not least, this study shows that a correlation is likely to exist between human resource management and university performance; however, no conclusions can be made with respect to causality between the two variables. In order to increase the validity and the general applicability of the study, a more extensive quantitative and qualitative research approach is recommended, which includes not only the voice of HR professionals, but also top level managers of a larger sample of higher education institutions.

In spite of these limitations, this study proves valuable and supportive of Guest and Clinton's idea that "the HR function must be a central player, rather than an administrative side-show" and that "a range of practices should be deployed in a way that is designed to achieve strategic goals" (2007, p.3). However, further research is needed to gain a better understanding on how effective Human Resource Management could influence university performance.

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CHAPTER SIX

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT, INTERNATIONALIZATION AND ACADEMIC STAFF MOBILITY

Grischa Fraumann and Işıl Güney

Introduction

Academic mobility has always been a part of European universities. As Musselin (2004, p. 55) puts it: "In Europe, academic mobility has a long tradition which began with the birth of the European universities in the middle ages". Nowadays, along with internationalization, academic staff mobility has been at the heart of Bologna process and EU policy discussions and formulations.

Academic staff mobility not only constitutes a part of universities' internationalization strategies, it is as well of great importance to academic staff development (Wächter 1999: 32). However, all mobility initiatives do not take place in a vacuum and have to be backed up by institutional strategies. In this context, this study aims to analyze academic mobility as an academic staff development tool in its relation to human resources management (HRM) practices of higher education institutions in their internationalization efforts. To this end, the study provides some theoretical background information about role of HRM in academic staff development and academic mobility. Then, the relation between internationalization of institutional strategies and HRM are introduced. The study defines institutional structures, processes and key players to give a thorough understanding of an effective strategy in promoting academic staff mobility. Finally, support and incentive mechanisms are addressed. The study concludes that despite ever-increasing importance attached to academic staff mobility, there is still a lack of human resources tools to support and manage academic staff mobility as a staff development tool. It is argued that defining an institutional strategy with an effective university leadership on top, at the same time taking into account all departments and putting the HRM department and the international office on a prominent position is one precondition to reach this goal.

Background

Human resources management has become one of the most challenging issues in higher education institutions worldwide due to higher education landscape being transformed by such forces as massification, globalization, marketization and internationalization. To be able to face these challenges and stand out in the competitive market with sound research and teaching capacity, a diversified and qualified work force is required. Recruiting and retaining qualified and skilled academic staff becomes vital for modernization of higher education, which in turn necessitates proper management of human resources both at national and institutional level so that institutional capacity for the future could be built (Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007, p. 136). Dunkin (as cited in Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007, p. 140) identifies six key elements of a human resource strategy to retain qualified knowledge worker staff, which are:

1. determining number of people needed, what and how they need to and how to manage them,
2. determining skills needed,
3. attracting and retaining high quality staff,
4. managing performance and performance measurement,
5. rewarding and acknowledging good performance,
6. ensuring continuous staff development.

In this context, modernization of human resources management brings the issue of academic staff development into the spotlight. Defined by Webb (as cited in Blackwell & Blackmore, 2003, p. viii) staff development refers to "the institutional policies, programs and procedures which facilitate and

support staff so that they may fully serve their own and their institution's needs." As this definition suggests, staff development is related not only to the individual level, but it also has an institutional function. Archer states that (2005, p. 51) during the process of modernization of human resources management, human resources (HR) in higher education institutions "shifted from an administrative support function to a valued strategic partner for the top team". In terms of staff development in strategic human resource development, a learning culture based on reciprocal relations between staff development and corporate strategy is aimed to be created (Blackwell & Blackmore, 2003). That means staff development not only affects corporate strategy, but also is shaped by it. However, the relationship between HRM in higher education institutions and staff development is a controversial one. At universities, HRM and staff development activities may not be considered related since HRM may be regarded as a low-status activity or having too close relations with "management" (Elton 1995 as cited in Blackwell and Blackmore, 2003, p. 6). It may also be considered more as an academic task not to be performed by HRM units. A survey conducted about educational units in the United Kingdom demonstrates that while 38% of those educational units were stand-alone central units, the rest was grouped into eight categories. HRM constituted the largest group among them with 17% followed by education departments with 13%. However, as argued by Archer (2005, p. 6), although staff development sometimes does not fall into the responsibility of HR departments, it is central to its purpose and an integral part of culture change. Blackwell and Blackmore (2003) also claim that less favoring position though it may have in academic culture, HRM may succeed under appropriate conditions such as having autonomy and independence to act, design strategies to serve needs of top, middle and bottom interests, and taking into account cultures of academic disciplines. Given support from leadership and run by individuals who gain confidence of senior academic staff at departments, HRM can fertile grounds for academic staff development.

There are numerous ways that human resources management can support academic staff development and make the academic professions more attractive through such mechanisms as recognition and reward, promotion, guidance, funding and support for mobility. At a time when internationalization has gained a firm foothold in higher education in Europe and worldwide, mobility became a key issue in terms of academic cooperation and knowledge transfer. With efforts of governments to make higher education well-prepared for the challenges of globalization, economy, and labor markets (van der Wende, 1997, p. 19), academic staff mobility gained importance both in terms of academic staff self-development, their contribution to their institutions' qualified human capital force and in preparation of universities and students function in international and intercultural contexts. As mobility is considered one of the main instruments of internationalization of higher education, European higher education agenda has been characterized by discussions of barriers and incentive mechanisms for academic staff mobility. While international offices played a significant role to manage international management of mobility, it is clear that "there is a need for system-level and institutional career systems, human resource strategies and practices, and industrial relations machinery to 'catch up' with the idea of staff mobility" (Cradden, 2007, p. 46). One of the most important institutional effects of attracting talents worldwide is to further strengthen the capacity and reputation of the university itself, as the human capital of an organization is important to reach the organizational goals by obtaining a competitive advantage compared to other organizations (Ásványi, 2014, p. 84-5). Nevertheless, one has to be realistic in that not every visitor will provide top class teaching and research, and will enrich the institutional profile (Ferencz & Wachter, 2012, p. 54). At the same time individuals benefit from the so-called "mover's advantage" regarding their future career plans, and they should be provided with incentives to take part in stays abroad (van der Wende 2013, p.1-10.; Wächter 1999, p. 73-4.). Cradden (2007, p. 8) points out that the benefits of academic staff mobility is so taken for granted that its benefits for HE institutions and systems are not well studied. In terms of socio-cultural exchange, exchange of knowledge and culture and pedagogical approaches are immense. Additionally, mobility is regarded as a significant tool for advancing one's academic career. It is argued to have become a professional standard in some disciplines in Europe. In terms of academic staff development, along with its contribution to disciplinary knowledge and exchange of pedagogical practices, it enables academic staff to establish new professional networks, brush up on foreign language skills, and gain knowledge about other higher education systems (Netz & Jaksztat, 2014, p. 36).

Internationalization and international mobility as both staff development tool has been supported by the European Union for the last few decades. With the Bologna Process, international dimension of higher education, staff and student mobility, international cooperation, harmonization of degree systems became key topics in the field of higher education. Starting from 2000, the concept of

“internationalization at home” was raised by the European Association for International Education (EAIE), which refers to the idea of ensuring internationalization within a higher education institutions by incorporating international elements to the curriculum and familiarizing students with international culture and helping them gain international and intercultural skills and competences. The academic staff becomes the key actor in implementing internationalization and creating an environment for intercultural and international learning at home (Beelen, 2011).

One of the Key Actions of ERASMUS+, the flagship programme of the European Commission that was established at the end of 2014 defines mobility as a main activity as regards to professional development “to improve skills and competences of both academic and non-academic staff, opened to partner countries in both direction” (European Commission, 2014, p. 26). Furthermore, another policy initiative connecting ─ among others ─ academic mobility and HRM with overall strategies of universities and involving several institutional units is the so-called “Human Resources Strategy for Researchers” set up by the European Commission and implemented in many institutions. Upon successful completion, the HEI receives a “HR Excellence in Research” logo, which 102 institutions have already obtained (European Commission, 2015). Finally, there is an ongoing debate on academic mobility, as shown in several international conferences highlighting this topic[1], and even research centres that are dedicated only to this goal, such as the Institute for International Education's (IIE) Center for Academic Mobility Research and Impact (IIE, 2015).

In the light of these developments, it is important for universities to develop strategies that deal with academic mobility. These have to be implemented within the institutions and should be accompanied by clear targets, for instance regarding the amount of faculty exchange, which are monitored regularly (Wächter, 1999, p. 73-74). Thus, what kind of institutional structures and processes are needed, and which key actors are involved?

Institutional Structures, Processes, Support and Incentive Mechanisms

As universities are facing international challenges today, they should develop an internationalization of their institutional strategy and HRM. To achieve an effective internationalization strategy several preconditions have to exist at a university, which are closely connected to staff development such as:

> …college leadership; faculty members’ international involvement in activities with challenges, research sites, and institutions worldwide; international curriculum; the availability, affordability, accessibility, and transferability of study-abroad programs for students; the presence and integration of international students, scholars, and visiting faculty into campus life; and international co-curricular units (residence halls, conference planning centres, student unions, careers centres, cultural immersion, and language houses), student activities, and student organisations. (Taylor, 2004, p. 150-151)

Institutions use a variety of strategies to achieve internationalization and support academic staff mobility. In some cases, institutions achieve a higher visibility for instance by nominating a vice-rector for international affairs (Pausits, 2006, p. 200; Wächter, 1999, p. 46). In some other cases, institutions connect their overall strategy to the recruitment strategy in order to attract new international applicants. At the same time, teaching and research of visitors should match the institutional profile, but for instance added by an international perspective on a certain topic (Wächter, 1999, p. 31). Further, an institutional strategy always has to be backed up with enough resources, such as personnel and funding (Wächter, 1999, p. 46). Thus, the following section gives an overview of tools and structures that are applied by several universities. The aspects that are covered are related to the tasks of the international office, faculties, and the HRM department.

To start with a recently established initiative, universities use to set up dual career programs to attract skilled professionals. By doing so, the cohabitant of the hired staff is supported by the university, because they offer her/him guidance regarding professional development in the new host country. Actually, that does not only apply to foreign applicants, but it could be more helpful for them than for new staff members from the same country (Harvey et al., 2009; University of Heidelberg, 2015).

Another important way of enhancing staff mobility, is providing advisory and counselling for staff members at central or faculty level. Similar to students that facing a stay abroad, trained staff of the university can support other staff members in preparing for a stay abroad. It is also important to have a single point of contact for foreigners that want to apply at a certain university. This can be supported by specialized university managers. As an extension of preparing staff for academic mobility, intercultural trainings can be provided inside the university, respectively in cooperation with external partners (Wächter, 1999, p. 46-5).

Further, a crucial part of receiving international academic staff nowadays is building up a welcome center. These centers can provide advice, how to prepare for a stay at the university and can help the international academics to settle down. Some welcome centers even offer apartments for the first months in the new country. Nevertheless, this special kind of guidance does not end after the first months. Welcome centers have also set up mentoring programmes. On the one hand, internationals can find help regarding language barriers or when they want to get things done at the city administration. On the other hand, it is also an effective tool to relate them with local citizens. Due to the fact, that local mentors do not have to be members of the university, it is also possible for internationals to connect with new people beyond the scientific community. Therefore, this can be a first step towards the integration in the local community, because their mentors can also facilitate contacts with their friends, etc. (IO, 2011). Welcome centers were created at many universities worldwide, to attract more international academics or to make their stay as convenient as possible. Meanwhile, at the University of Mannheim a Research Alumni Network was created, to foster the relations to former guest scientists by providing services such as reunion grants (University of Mannheim, 2015). Ultimately, the effect of such centres is not well studied yet, and is also difficult to grasp.

On these grounds, another way to increase the amount of staff that takes up a stay abroad, is by the universities providing funding for that kind of personnel development. Meanwhile, funding programs such as ERASMUS+ also contribute to this funding scheme. As introduced by the European Commission as a special program to enhance the student mobility for studies, nowadays it is also possible for staff to take part in this programme. This encompasses the position of an ERASMUS+ lecturer at a foreign university. That is only one example to illustrate the diverse funding options, whereas a lot of other funding exist as well, such as national or regional programs. All these funding opportunities have to be coordinated by trained staff, which is again connected to university managers. This personnel can also organize information events for staff to raise the awareness among them. The university can also offer higher positions to staff that aims spending a term or more abroad. This can also erase barriers for stays abroad.

Besides, paid leave possibilities, such as sabbaticals for professors can also be offered. Actually, this offer is referring to professors who want to conduct research for one semester without having teaching duties. Generally speaking, this can also be carried out at host universities.

To illustrate a different concept regarding mobility and providing a community for international students and lecturers the Venice International University will be introduced. This institution was set up by a group of universities from all over the world, and provides a common space for student and staff mobility. The university offers specialized programmes only for students of their partner universities which are held by international lecturers. One could argue that this structure also facilitates the stay abroad and maybe makes it possible to reduce some barriers of moving to another country. American universities and colleges provide similar programmes, which are organized by themselves. This always has to be backed up by lecturers from the home university (Wächter, 1999, p. 37). Some universities even set up a branch campus abroad, which is most of the times supported by the government. Examples of such activities are TUM Asia in Singapore by the Technical University of Munich or campuses of some US universities in the Middle East, such as the New York University Abu Dhabi. The Venice International University is one example of international partnership in teaching and research and there are large amounts of universities that take part in certain international networks, such as the League of European Research Universities (LERU). There is even an initiative to establish the first multinational campus, the so-called European Campus, initiated by the University of Freiburg (Germany), University of Basel (Switzerland), University of Strasbourg (France), Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (Germany), and University of Upper Alsace (France). By doing so, universities can save resources and help to develop their staff (and students) internationally (VIU, 2015; TUM Asia, 2015; NYU Abu Dhabi, 2015; University of Freiburg, 2015a; 2015b). Nevertheless, criticism about the set up of branch campuses has arisen,

such as high costs, and low student recruitment. Further, an effect on reputation could emerge after the close of a branch campus, as some of them were closed (C-BERT 2015; Havergal 2015). A HEI may also start to internationalize parts of their curricula, before setting up international joint or double degrees (Wächter, 1999, p. 73). There are also international institutionalized networks, which provide double degree study programmes abroad with integrated curricula, such as the International Partnership of Business Schools (IPBS) (IPBS, 2015).

Conclusion

The aim of this study has been to provide an overview of academic staff mobility, connected with internationalization and the necessary structures, key players and processes at higher education institutions in relation to the role of university leadership, the HRM department, international office and faculties. In the end, all departments of the institutions have to work together to reach this goal by introducing an institutional strategy and developing a working plan for all agents. The HRM department in this context plays one of the most important role in coordinating all these efforts. Mainly, because the most important effects of mobility is personnel development and institutional capacity building and this should be coordinated by the HRM department. The study also provides an overview of possible support and incentive mechanisms that can contribute to reaching a large amount of internationally experienced staff. Yet, one needs to bear in mind that awareness for internationalization should also be raised at universities and obstacles should be decreased.

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[1] See for instance: 1st international conference. Higher Education and Mobilities. 2013, Grenoble, France; 13th International Mobility Conference, 2009, Marburg, Germany; ACA 20th Anniversary Conference: Internationalisation and international mobility. Where do we stand, where are we heading?, The Hague, 2013; EU2013 – Researcher Careers & Mobility Conference, Dublin, 2013.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ONE SIZE FITS ALL? A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPED COUNTRIES' TENURE TRACK MODELS WITH DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Habtamu Diriba and Nowreen Yasmin

Introduction

Ever since the scientific inquiry of management began, there has been a hotly contested debate between two extremes. On one hand are those who believe there is one best way of doing things, which are best described as "universalists". On the other end of the continuum are those who believe "the best" is contingent on contextual factors, hence, the key lies on finding not the best practice per se rather the "right fit" (Waiganjo & Awino, 2012; VanWart, 2015; Chênevert & Tremblay, 2011). Both schools of thought are not shy of proponents as well as critics. In this vein, it has become a norm to scrutinize every managerial strategy from these two contrasting perspectives and human resource strategy is no exception. Under the umbrella of this debate, this paper addresses the fit of the tenure track models developed by advanced nations in the context of developing countries.

To this end, an extensive review of relevant literature was made including government and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) document. Additionally, to compensate the lack of sufficient literature on the case of developing countries and also to triangulate the misleading nature of some of the literature (as they more often than not fall under political influence and informal norms) (Abebe, 2012; Mesfin, 2012), some purposively selected academics were communicated through telephone interview and mailed questionnaire. The information from the experts was then used to complement the data collected from the literature.

This chapter is divided into four major sections. While the first section justifies the relevance of the topic under consideration, the second illustrates the basics of tenure track (TT), which is accompanied by an evaluative description of four major models in developed nations. Thirdly, the contextual realities of developing countries will be revealed before the fit of the TT model in advanced nations is scrutinized. Finally, a concluding remark is made.

Justification of the Study

Before the essay progresses any further, it sounds commonsensical to justify the relevance of the topic under consideration. To this end, three claims are made by the authors: TT model is vital, intriguing, and conceptually and practically underdeveloped.

To begin with, it goes without saying that resources are pivotal to any organization for without them the achievement of any sort of meaningful objective is inconceivable. In this regard, as most notable scholars echo time and again, it can be argued that human resources are the most valuable assets that an organization could potentially possess (Denton, et al., 2004; Gabčanová, 2011; Becker, Huselid, & Ulrich, 2001; Swathi, 2014). Such claim holds true not only in the manufacturing industry, but also to service giving entities. In this vein, it can further be asserted that, HEIs being service-giving institutions, should have a robust human resource management strategy. Central to such a strategy is a TT model that is capable of projecting career trajectories in the academic arena and ultimately determining the odds of HEIs in attracting and retaining qualified and motivated work force.

Secondly, a mere observation of TT trends in some of the largest economies of the world reveals a startling development stimulating a great scholarly curiosity. To illustrate, countries in North America, such as the U.S and Canada, are moving away from a stable and predictable TT model (Pechar, 2012). This is evidenced by the declining number of tenured positions in such countries (Jaschik, 2009; Finder, 2007; AFT Higher Education, 2009). However, countries in Central Europe,

such as Germany and Austria, are loosening their traditionally highly unpredictable and rigid models and are opting for a more flexible and predictable system and in such countries, the number of tenured positions is increasing (Pechar, 2012).

Thirdly, it is possible to argue that TT is conceptually and practically underdeveloped. The theoretical underdevelopment can be justified by the dearth of research regarding TT models, especially in the context of developing countries. For example, an online review of the thematic areas published by the oldest academic journal of education in Ethiopia (The Ethiopian Journal of Education) indicated that, although some elements of TT have been analyzed with other variables, there is no consolidated research under the theme of TT. Similarly, the "key word" search of TT in some well-regarded journals from advanced nations (Journal of Research in Science Teaching, Review of Educational Research, American Educational Research Journal, and Journal of Teacher Education) reaffirms the fact that TT is understudied. Moreover, the contrasting development in different parts of the globe can serve as a true testimony of the practical contradiction surrounding the concept.

In light of such astonishing developments, this paper brings the contextual peculiarities of developing countries into the equation and tries to evaluate the fit of the major TT models formulated in the advanced part of the globe.

Tenure track: Different Trajectory under One Name

Different definitions prevail under the umbrella of TT systems (Figlio, 2013; Kaplan, 2010). As Gravestock & Greenleaf (2008, p.3) stated "tenure is a topic better illuminated by multiple spotlights than a single floodlight". Being introduced by American Research universities in 1915 (González et al., 2012); now TT has been implemented in many advanced countries. Similarly, many developing countries have introduced some forms of TT systems in their HEIs. Traditionally "TT was regarded as a probationary period for one candidate on the way to an available, albeit not guaranteed, tenured position" (Schiewer & Jhele, 2014, p.5). The basic concept is to provide security to academics who have served a proper period of apprenticeship. Put differently, it requires adequate reason for them to be subject to exclusion from their post (Byse & Joughin, 1959). In this chapter, the TT system is conceptualized as the mechanism of recruiting faculties in HEIs permanently after completion of a substantial probationary period in the institution as a temporary employee. Probationary period is given to faculties when they first join universities. The time to tenure ranges from three to seven years based on previous professional experience and rank during appointment. However, promotion is dependent on positive evaluation and no renewed advertising and application are required (Schiewer & Jehle, 2014).

The most cited advantages of TT are: it provides academic freedom and job security to the faculties at an early stage, it strengthens faculties bonding and commitment to the respective HEI, it gives access to broad range of academic resource to support the TT appointees, it induces HEIs to maintain an extended system of evaluation to ensure quality management, it helps to attract and retain creative minds, and it ultimately improves overall performance of HEIs (Figlio, 2013; Cameron, 2010; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Walden, 1980; Schiewer & Jehle, 2014;Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

According to a report of League of European Research Universities (LERU) four broad categories of TT system prevail in Europe and North America. Namely: the probation on the job model (UK), the two-tier promotion and habilitation model (Central Europe), the centralistic model with state approbation (France), the North America tenure-track model. The major points of departure being: year of application, terms of contract, and name and level of position (Schiewer & Jehle, 2014).

In all categories except the habilitation model, a PhD is required to join the academic pathway. However, in the habilitation model, a post doctorate degree is obligatory in order to apply for a permanent academic position. Among these four systems, acquiring tenure position is most uncertain in the habilitation model. On top of that it takes the longest time to become tenured with it taking more than seven years in some cases. A study by Kreckel (2010) showed that in 2009 almost 85% of faculties (whose main occupation was at a university in Germany) worked as dependent mid-level faculty below professor level. To sum up, the habilitation model of Germany is criticized for being rigid, time consuming, and uncertain (Pechar, 2004; Schiewer & Jehle, 2014).

The North American TT model takes about six to seven years on average (Hohm & Shore, 1998), but it has more certainty of achieving tenureship than the habilitation model. However, in the UK there is no fixed term and in France the probationary period lasts four to ten years (Kaplan 2010, Schiewer & Jhele, 2014). It is also argued that U.S. research universities provide the most prospective job offer to early stage researchers (Janger, Strauss & Campbell, 2013; Cameron, 2010). Moreover, when a tenure-track position is awarded in the American system, a mobility period for experiencing a new environment away from old networks and mentors is mandatory. At the end of this period, another evaluation – "six year up-or-out" – will be performed to decide whether the candidate is eligible for a tenured position or not (Pechar, 2012). Nonetheless, the U.S. TT system is not without its critiques in being considered as a long-term investment with risk both for the tenured and non-tenured candidates, although it should be noted that being non-tenured does not necessarily mean the end of one's academic career in. This is in sharp contrast to Europe where a negative appraisal can be career-devistating situation (Schiewer & Jhele, 2014).

In France, a centralized and state-dominated tenure system is used, which combines habilitation and probation. This system does not provide long-term commitment at a very early age (Janger, Strauss and Campbell, 2013). In this system it is comparatively easier for early career researchers to apply for permanent positions, but it undoubtedly takes time to be tenured as it follows the habilitation model for further career advancement at the university.

The tenure model of the UK provides academic freedom to permanent staffs, but now universities in the UK are limiting tenure positions by increasing fixed-term contracts, which is creating an inequality between permanent and temporary academic staffs (Kaplan, 2010; Enders & Weert, 2003).

All in all, the considerable variation among advanced countries TT system clearly indicates how pivotal contextual factors are.

Peculiarities of Developing Countries' Higher Education System

This section presents some pertinent features of HEIs in developing countries in contrast to their counterparts in developed countries. In this vein, six major points of differences have been identified, namely: stage of HE development, Demand-Supply (DD-SS) dynamics, brain drain-gain dynamics, working condition, academic in breeding and TT dynamics.

Firstly, most developing countries are experiencing massification of their HE system, while this trend seems to have lost momentum in developed countries with a vast majority of them having realized universal tertiary education (Trow, 2002). Perhaps most of the challenges HEIs in developing countries are facing at the moment can be drawn parallel with that of advanced nations in 1980's when similar expansion measures were undertaken. Consequently, developing countries are confronted with practical issues such as scarcity of resource and deterioration of quality (Aminuzzaman, 2007).

Secondly, DD-SS dynamics is another major point of departure between developing and developed nations. More specifically, as a result of the expansion measures described earlier, there are relatively a large number of vacant positions; however, the number of qualified professionals in the labor market seems to be in short supply (Miller et al., 2014, p. 2).The DD-SS dynamic of developed countries, on the other hand, is characterized by a completely different imbalance. In that, the relatively higher number of qualified human resource available in the labor market coupled with their capacity to attract scholars from other parts of the globe has endowed them with an abundance of trained manpower. However, the number of positions the HEIs offer are quite limited (Altbach, 2011; Cyranoski et al., 2010; Reis, 1997). Similar to the previous construct, The DD-SS dynamics has its own bearing on human resource (HR) strategies and functions such as recruitment & selection and training & development. To exemplify, according to a survey by Manpower Group (2014) who inquired the strategies of institutions in coping up with the imbalance in the labor market, "Some institutions have found it useful to appoint people who don't currently have all of the needed technical skills, but who have the potential to learn and grow" (p.8). Such a shift in recruitment strategy in turn will clearly have an implication on training and development strategy of institutions.

Thirdly, working conditions can be compared. In this chapter, working condition is broadly operationalized to encompass not only financial, physical, and social aspects of a job, but also the political environment which may interfere with the autonomy of the academic staff. In this token, it can be argued that developed countries take the upper hand in offering better career prospects. Particularly, with a high concentration of the world's prestigious universities, smart and ergonomic work environment that is almost free of political interference, well established network and relatively better financial package. Developed countries appear beguiling to academic profession aspirers and members (Rumbley, Pacheco, & Altbach, 2008). However, in terms of providing opportunity for training and development, developing countries offer better prospects (see *Section 5*).

Fourthly, brain drain-gain dynamics is a case for consideration. The term brain drain is used to describe the migration of skilled individuals who are induced by better working condition from one place to another (Comandor et al., 2004). While countries losing their qualified human resource are said to be experiencing brain drain, the host countries towards which the scholars are flowing experience brain-gain (Milio, 2012). With respect to this dimension, also there is a considerable difference, in that while most developing countries are being highly affected by brain drain; developed countries are well positioned for brain gain and this is adversely affecting developing countries (Kabir, 2012; Tekle, 2011; Rahman, 2010). As one of Bangladeshi HE experts reflected "brain drain is negatively affecting most developing countries endeavor of achieving sustainable socio economic development" and he further stressed the role of the government and universities in facilitating the return of such skilled human power to their home country.

Part of the reason can be attributed to better working conditions discussed earlier, but according to one of the experts interviewed there is more to it. He specifically mentioned the coordinated effort of advanced nations in luring skilled manpower. "Of course there is a better working condition in western countries, but the key is being conscious they are taking advantage…. They [advanced countries] are making their immigration policy very flexible, while developing countries are simply acting as spectators".

Fifth, academic inbreeding can be used as a parameter to highlight the major difference between developing and developed countries HE system. As Horta (2012) and Hugo (2013) point out, although academic inbreeding has different conceptualization, it generally refers to a situation where academics are working in the same university they graduated from. Put differently, it concerns the lack of academic mobility. Among other things, academic inbreeding is assumed to adversely affect scientific productivity, which is at the heart of the academic profession. On this criterion also, yet again there is a considerable difference between the realities of developing and developed part of the world. In this regard, both review of the official documents as well as the opinion of the experts involved in the study indicate that academic inbreeding is more prevalent in developing countries. As a Dean from Bangladesh reflected *"*I believe there is a lack of awareness about the adverse impact of inbreeding. To my knowledge, there aren't even any efforts by the university administration to address the problem*"*. His opposite counterpart in Ethiopia also voiced reaffirming the prevalence of academic inbreeding:

> As far as I know there is no formal system in place to encourage academics to try their ability in different environments. There is also no special treatment or preference so to speak for those who have worked in other universities, in fact, to the contrary there is an inclination towards favoring our own graduates.

Lastly, there is a considerable difference in terms of TT model: A topic that will be expounded upon in the next section.

TT Systems in Developing Countries

Although both developing and developed countries exhibit considerable variation within themselves, it is however possible to identify some recognizable difference between the two regions with respect to TT. To illustrate the TT system of developing countries, two of the most senior universities in Bangladesh and Ethiopia (University of Dhaka and Addis Ababa University) have been used as a case study. Accordingly the official documents of each university along with the

reflection of some the most experienced academics in each university have been considered. Based on this analysis the following features were identified.

To begin with, unlike TT systems in developed countries that require a PhD as a minimum requirement, academic careers start quite early in developing countries with a lower educational qualification. (Schiewer & Jehle, 2014; Pechar 2012, Altbach 2000), In Ethiopia, for instance, there is a possibility to embark on an academic career with only a bachelor degree as graduate assistant (Addis Abada University Senate, 2013) Similarly, it is possible to join the academic arena in Bangladesh with a master's degree (Punday & Jamil, 2010; University Grant Commission, n.d.). Furthermore as the opinion of the academics indicates personal relationship and political affiliation has an effect on the recruitment and selection process (see *Table 1* & *5*).

Secondly, the probationary period is usually shorter in developing countries. For instance in Bangladesh, some teachers join as permanent full-time employee and some also join as temporary full-time employees. When they will become permanent employee totally depends on the availability of vacant positions in respective departments (Dhaka University Order, 1973). Therefore, in terms of temporary full-time teachers, there is no fixed duration for the probationary period. Similarly, in Ethiopia it takes only a one year probationary period (Addis Abada University Senate, 2013). Thirdly, with respect to further progression through the academic ladder; in addition to the official criteria's used for promotion such as service year, engagement in community service, teaching and research performance other factors come in to play. For instance, according to significant number of the Bangladesh academics involved in the study (37.5%) personal relationship has a moderate effect in the promotion of academics (see *Table 3*). Where as, in the case of Ethiopia, the majority of the respondents (85.7%) concurred that personal relationship and political affiliation have a role to play in an individual's likelihood of being promoted with the latter having stronger influence (see annex in *Table 7*). What makes the situation more pressing in the case of Ethiopia is the fact that political affiliation ranks even higher than research performance and engagement in community service (see annex in *Table 7*). Similarly, in the case of Bangladesh, personal relationship matters much more than engagement in community service (see annex in *Table 3*).

However, according to the majority of respondents in both countries, it is not the university legislation that usually creates a problem; rather it is its implementation (see annexes in *Table 4* & *8*). In this regard, one Ethiopian expert, reinforces the above argument: "Although the legislation clearly states what is expected to apply for assistant, associate and full professorship, in my university it is a common trend to see academics application being delayed without any legal ground".

Fourthly, universities take the responsibility of providing professional development opportunities in contrast to developed countries where academics shoulder the responsibility of financing their studies (at least up to PhD) (Schiewer & Jehle, 2014). In this regard one of the deans stated "As soon as our staffs satisfy the minimum requirements and become eligible for educational opportunity, the university strives to provide opportunity by collaborating with key national and international partners".

Lastly, unlike Germanic and North American systems, TT in developing countries does not encourage mobility and hence is susceptible to academic inbreeding (Pechar, 2012).

As it stands, TT in developing countries can be applauded for its strong link with staff development as well as for its predictability. However, the loose link of performance between recruitment, selection and academic progression and also the lack of academic mobility have clear implication for quality of education.

TT Fits in Developing Countries

The first section discussed the difference between TT systems in developed countries with their relative merit and demerit. The second outlined some unique features and challenges of HE in developing countries. This section evaluates which TT system best fits with the context of developing countries. To this end, the peculiarities and challenges of HE identified in previous sections will be used as a criteria.

To start with, the UK's probation-on-the-job model can be examined. One of the most commonly cited advantages of this model is the fact that it is relatively predictable and it offers tenure at an early career stage (Schiewer & Jhele, 2014). However the requirement of PhD as a minimum qualification makes its application practically impossible in the context of developing countries. As described earlier, these countries are affected by acute shortage of qualified workforce and also, owing to the poor working conditions, attracting such a workforce from the global market seems to be beyond their reach at the moment (Kabir, 2012; Rahman, 2010). It is hence, difficult to implement the probation model at least in its entirety. However, there are some important lessons to be drawn from UKs system. More particularly, academic freedom and merit based promotion are important mechanisms for readdressing the quality problem developing countries are battling with.

Secondly, the fit of Central Europe's two-tier promotion and habilitation model can be checked. In this regard, it can be argued that, this the TT model with highest misfit. For one thing, its initial requirement is so high that it does not resonate well with the DD-SS dynamics described earlier. Secondly, the highly unpredictable nature of the system coupled with the lowest promotion to tenure position (Schiewer & Jehle, 2014) makes it highly unsuitable to developing countries. To elaborate, such unfavorable structures coupled with poor working conditions in developing countries only worsen brain drain problems that such countries are experiencing. What is more, it will clearly have an adverse impact on the quality of education.

Thirdly, the suitability of state approbation model in France can be evaluated. Similar to the UK's probation model, the French system has the advantage of providing young scholars the academic autonomy and stability at an early stage. However, progression to full professorship encounters the same problem as the rehabilitation model. Hence, its initial high requirement added with its unpredictability makes it less attractive to developing countries.

Fourthly, the fit of The North American tenure-track model can be explored. Perhaps this the TT model with the highest fit. Put differently, many of its feature has a potential to address the currently, prevailing challenges of developing countries. For one, the existence of ongoing evaluation of performance and most importantly its clear link with the progression through career ladder has a key role in terms of addressing quality challenge of developing countries. Moreover, the existence of career guidance and support could significantly improve the ability of developing countries not only to attract, but also to retain qualified human power. In addition, the mandatory mobility program associated with this TT model is also invaluable in addressing the chronic problem of academic inbreeding. However, two key factors make its implementation dubious. First, as is true to all previous models, it has a high initial requirement. Secondly, the continuous evaluation and mentoring makes it resource-intensive and less practical in the context of the so often financially constrained developing countries.

Finally, before making any suggestion for the most suitable TT system, it is essential to evaluate the pros and cons of the currently prevailing TT systems in developing countries. Such evaluation would allow the identification of practices that should be retained. First and foremost, the developmental nature of the TT system is of paramount importance in addressing most of the challenges of developing nations such as the acute shortage of qualified human power, brain drain and quality deterioration and hence should be retained. Secondly, the predictability of the prevailing TT is another aspect worth retaining. Thirdly, the relatively lower requirement that would give young promising graduates a chance to embark on academic career is also another aspect worth hanging on to at least for the time being. That being said, however, prevailing problems in the system such as lack of strong links between academic progression, performance, and poor working conditions should be resolved.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion, considering the peculiarities of developing countries' HE system discussed throughout this chapter, it is practically impossible to implement any major TT system in its entirety. However, each TT system has pertinent elements that are relevant in readdressing various challenges developing countries are experiencing. Hence, a hybrid TT model that amalgamates some of the strong features of the currently prevailing TT system of developing countries with some of the pertinent and feasible features of advanced nations TT system is suggested.

Therefore, the proposed model includes: a relatively lower academic qualification (at least until the supply demand dynamics swings in favor of recruiters; however, with transparent and competitive recruitment and selection procedure). Secondly, a mandatory probationary period for retaining starting position to be justified by performance. Thirdly, similar the North American system there should be clear criteria of what is expected not only to maintain, but also to be eligible for development and promotion opportunities. Fourthly, provided a master's level minimum qualification and the ability to demonstrate the performance criteria set by the institution for a reasonable period of time (similar to UK's model), tenure in a form of academic independence such as, the ability to be a principal investigator in a project should be granted. Fifth, similar to the North American system, continuous mentoring to help young promising academic professionals navigate through the career ladder with relative ease should be established. Lastly, opportunity for mobility should be created to enhance the flexibility, creativity and collaboration skills of would-be tenured academics.

In the long run, however, when HE expansion measures of developing countries pay off, there will be an increase in their stock of qualified academics. As a result, TT models should also evolve. During such time, a move to a more "North American" like TT system is commended. Accordingly, the requirements for entry should be raised and also a more predictable, competitive and performance based TT system should be implemented.

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Appendix

Table 1- Recruitment and selection in Bangladesh

Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Educational Qualification	16	4.88	342	1	0	0	0	2 (12.5%)	14 (87.5%)
Experience	16	3.25	683	6	0	0	0	14 (87.5%)	2 (12.5%)
Teaching Competence	16	3.13	1.204	2	0	8 (50%)	0	6 (37.5%)	2 (12.5%)
Research Competence	16	3.38	719	4	0	2 (12.5%)	6 (37.5%)	8 (50%)	0
Political Affiliation	16	3.13	1.746	5	6 (37.5%)	0	0	6 (37.5%)	4 (25%)
Personal Relationship	16	4.13	957	3	0	0	6 (37.5%)	2 (12.5%)	8 (50%)

Table 2 - Educational Opportunity in Bangladesh

Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Teaching performance	16	4.00	1.033	2	0	0	8 (50%)	0	8 (50%)
Research performance	16	5.00	0.000	1	0	0	0	0	16 (100%)
Engagement in community service	16	2.50	2.000	6	10 (62.5%)	0	0	0	6 (37.5%)
Service year	16	4.25	1.000	3	0	2 (12.5%)	6 (37.5%)	8 (50%)	0
Political Affiliation	16	2.25	1.438	5	6 (37.5%)	6 (37.5%)	0	2 (12.5%)	2 (12.5%)
Personal Relationship	16	4.00	0.000	4	0	0	0	16 (100%)	0

Table 3 - Promotion in Bangladesh

Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Teaching performance	16	3.63	1.025	3	2 (12.5%)	0	0	0	14 (87.5%)
Research performance	16	5.00	0.000	2	0	0	0	0	16 (100%)
Engagement in community service	16	2.88	0.806	5	2 (12.5%)	0	12 (75%)	0	2 (12.5%)
Service year	16	5.00	0.000	1	0	0	0	0	16 (100%)
Political Affiliation	16	1.50	0.516	6	8 (50%)	8 (50%)	0	0	0
Personal Relationship	16	2.88	1.204	4	4 (25%)	0	6 (37.5%)	6 (37.5%)	0

Table 4 - Implementation of university legislation in Bangladesh								
Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Frequency				
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Recruitment and selection	14	3.1250	1.31022	2 (12.5%)	4 (25%)	2 (12.5%)	6 (37.5%)	2 (12.5%)
Educational Opportunity	14	3.0000	1.03280	2(12.5%)	2 (12.5%)	6 (37.5%)	6 (37.5%)	0
Promotion	14	2.5000	1.26491	4 (25%)	6 (37.5%)	0	0	6 (37.5%)

Table 5 - Recruitment and selection in Ethiopia									
Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Educational Qualification	14	5.00	0.000	1	0	0	0	0	14 (100%)
Experience	14	3.07	0.917	3	0	3 (21.4%)	9 (64.3%)	0	2 (14.3%)
Teaching Competence	14	3.14	1.231	5	0	7(50%)	0	5 (35.7%)	2 (14.3%)
Research Competence	14	3.36	0.745	4	0	2 (14.3%)	5 (35.7%)	7(50%)	0
Political Affiliation	14	3.71	1.383	6	2 (14.3%)	0	3 (21.4%)	4 (28.6%)	5 (37.5%)
Personal Relationship	14	4.00	0.877	2	0	0	5 (37.5%)	4 (28.6%)	5 (37.5%)

Table 6 - Educational Opportunity in Ethiopia									
Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Teaching performance	14	4.21	0.893	1	0	0	4 (28.6%)	3 (21.4%)	7 (50%)
Research performance	14	4.07	1.328	2	0	3 (21.4%)	2 (14.3%)	0	3 (21.4%)
Engagement in community service	14	1.79	1.424	4	9 (64.3%)	3 (21.4)	0	0	2 (14.3%)
Service year	14	4.50	0.519	3	0	0	0	7 (50%)	7 (50%)
Political Affiliation	14	2.93	1.492	5	5 (35.7%)	0	0	9 (64.5%)	0
Personal Relationship	14	3.71	0.726	6	0	2 (14.3%)	0	12 (85.7%)	0

Table 7 - Promotion in Ethiopia									
Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Rank	Frequency				
					No Impact	Minor Impact	Neutral	Moderate Impact	Major Impact
Teaching performance	14	3.21	1.051	2	2 (14.3%)	0	5 (35.7%)	7 (50%)	0
Research performance	14	4.36	1.277	5	0	3 (21.4%)	0	0	11 (78.6%)
Engagement in community service	14	2.50	0.760	4	2 (14.3%)	3 (21.4%)	9 (64.3%)	0	0
Service year	14	4.79	0.426	1	0	0	0	3 (21.4%)	11 (78.6%)
Political Affiliation	14	2.86	1.351	3	2 (14.3%)	5 (35.7%)	2 (14.3%)	3 (21.4%)	2 (14.3%)
Personal Relationship	14	3.29	1.204	6	2 (14.3%)	2 (14.3%)	0	10 (71.4%)	0

Table 8 - Implementation of university legislation in Ethiopia								
Factors	N	Mean	S.D	Frequency				
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Recruitment and selection	14	2.6429	1.21574	2 (14.3%)	5 (35.7%)	5(35.7%)	0	2 (14.3%)
Educational Opportunity	14	2.3571	0.74495	2 (14.3%)	5 (35.7%)	7(50%)	0	0
Promotion	14	2.6429	1.00821	2 (14.3%)	4 (28.6%)	5 (35.7%)	3 (21.4%)	0

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONSIDERING CORPORATE MEASUREMENTS OF E-HRM EFFECTIVENESS FROM A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Marsela Giovani Husen and Jon Maes

Introduction

For nearly half a century, the use of information technology (IT) in higher education has become increasingly prevalent. From student records and digital classrooms to email servers and financial reporting, it is safe to say that IT has become an inseparable part of campus operations at modern higher education institutions (HEIs).

In particular, this includes IT solution for personnel-related administrative tasks that colleges and universities perform on a daily basis. Originating in the corporate sector, these Electronic Human Resource Management (e-HRM) tools are progressively replacing conventional HRM processes that are reliant on paper-based and face-to-face interactions. One of the central drivers for why organizations make the switch to e-HRM is to improve the effectiveness of their HR system with various goals and performance indicators used as metrics for evaluation.

While there are many studies that analyze the impact of e-HRM in corporate and government settings, research is comparatively limited concerning the use of e-HRM at colleges and universities. As such, what considerations and measurements should HEIs use to determine the effectiveness of their e-HRM systems? This is a question that senior leadership must ask if they are to gauge the successful implementation of e-HRM on their campuses. Attempting to provide some answers, this chapter will discuss the topic of e-HRM effectiveness in higher education contexts including recommendations for future research.

Background Information

Before going into further detail about e-HRM effectiveness as it applies to HEIs, it is practical to first give some background information as an initial point of reference. Namely, to define e-HRM and provide a short history of its development including the study of e-HRM effectiveness.

Definitions

Simply put, Strohmeier (2007, p.20) describes e-HRM as "the application of information technology for both networking and supporting at least two individual or collective actors in their shared performing of HR activities". Bondarouk and Ruël (2009) also added that e-HRM is "an umbrella term covering all possible integration mechanism and contents between HRM and Information Technologies aiming at creating value within and across organizations for targeted employees and management" (p. 507).

These two definition indicate four fundamental aspects of e-HRM. First is the use of IT solutions (e.g. software programs, databases, cloud servers, etc.) to support all HRM activities. Second, implementation of e-HRM is an interdepartmental process that requires participation by all ranks of the organization from entry-level staff and line managers to the upper reaches of executive officers. Third, value creation means that the purpose of investing in e-HRM is for improving HR operations towards achieving the firm's overall strategic objectives. Fourth, e-HRM has a spatial dimension in seeking to connect personnel units located either in the same workplace or that are geographically separated as is the case for international organizations.

Furthermore, it is important to note that there are other terms in the industry that have been used interchangeably with e-HRM such as HR Information System (HRIS), virtual HR(M), web-based HR(M), business-to employee (B2E), and intranet-based HRM (Strohmeier, 2007; Bondarouk & Ruël, 2009). The imagery depicted by these characterizations highlight the online and relational nature of e-HRM methods with these expression having its own merits. However, this chapter solely uses "e-HRM" for consistency and because it appears to be the most widely-used term in this contemporary field of scholarship.

Brief History of e-HRM and e-HRM Studies

E-HRM research and development during the mid-1990s is closely related to the rapid technological advances brought on by multinational corporations responding the challenges of globalization (Bondarouk & Ruël, 2013; Ruël, Bondarouk & Looise, 2004). Regarding studies into e-HRM effectiveness, Bondarouk, Ruël, and van der Heijden (2007) pay respect to Huselid's research on High Performance Work Systems in 1995 as the first presentation of empirical evidence showing e-HRM's positive outcomes in corporate settings. Following these results, other experts joined Huselid in assessing the relationship between HR practices and firm performance (Kane et al., 1999; Delery & Doty, 1996; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000; Boselie et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2005; as cited in Bondarouk et al., 2007).

Meanwhile, vendors of e-HRM applications did not take long to see the opportunity in adapting their IT business solutions for higher education purposes. As of 2011, there are now at least 47 providers in the United States alone with five of them owning 79% of the market share (Grajek, Lang, & Trevvett, 2012). Of these top five, Oracle remains the industrial leader in supplying approximately 30% of U.S. colleges and universities with its PeopleSoft Human Capital Management platform (2012). Other major e-HRM software companies include SunGard Higher Education, Datatel Colleague, Jenzabar, and SAP Human Capital Management. Amidst such a diverse field of players, experts such as The Tambellini Group project that Oracle is likely to lose some of its market share as other companies capture larger pieces of the proverbial e-HRM pie (Tambellini, 2014).

In addition, there are some U.S. HEIs that create e-HRM applications in house through their own IT department resources. These homegrown tools make up 8% of the market (Grajek, Lang, & Trevvett, 2012). e-HRM has also become a part of the open-source movement in higher education over the past two decades. One example that has gained significant media attention is the Kuali Foundation. Priding themselves as "an open-source, comprehensive HR/Payroll System built by higher education for higher education" (Kuali, 2014), Kuali was first launched in 2004 by Indiana University and University of Hawaii in challenging mainstream business software companies by offering a free alternative with no licensing fees (Young, 2004). This can be an enormous cost savings for HEIs with commercial ERP system expenditures in the tens of millions of dollars (O'Neil, 2014). Such financial incentives have helped increased Kuali's gathering of partner institutions since its inception; however, the project's future is still unclear with skeptics questioning if open-source will be able to perform such a grand scale of campus operations and processes (2014).

These days, the academic community studying e-HRM continues to grow. Since 2004, Bondarouk (2014) informs that "60 master students have graduated with research topics about e-HRM… and more than half of those theses have inspired academic publications" (p. 8). This is at the University of Twente, Netherlands alone, which is certainly an accomplishment worth of praise. In reviewing the literature on e-HRM, Strohmeier (2007) even noted that the amount of scholarship is substantial enough to have produced "an initial body of research" (p. 19). Nonetheless, there is still work to be done before it can be considered its own field of study (Heikkilä, 2014; Bondarouk, 2014).

Theoretical Framework

Referencing empirical research on e-HRM that has spanned three decades, Maatman (2006) proposes a theoretical framework for measuring the effectiveness of e-HRM within the Dutch Ministry of Interior Affairs that can used as an initial guide for higher education contexts. Specifically, his research construct follows the directional influence of how e-HRM goals and the

uses of e-HRM impact the effectiveness that e-HRM has on an HR system. This section will briefly summarize these facets within Maatman's theoretical framework.

e-HRM goals

One major selling point for e-HRM tools is the claim that they improve HR activities. For example, e-HRM automation is capable of simplifying administrative tasks and reducing HR transaction times for processes such as record tracking, payroll, and employment benefit programs (Maatman, 2006). Bondarouk (2014) expands this list to include 115 positive outcomes that e-HRM has had on companies since the 1970s. While this is an impressive inventory, it would be difficult for an organization to examine the full spectrum of potential consequences when deciding whether or not to adopt an e-HRM system. Subsequently, the four main categories provided by Ruël et al. (2004) assists with consolidating this vast range of e-HRM goals. They are: (1) cost reduction / efficiency gains, (2) client service improvement / facilitating management and employees, (3) improving the strategic orientation of HRM, and (4) allowing integration of a dispersed HR function (adapted from Maatman, 2006).

Maatman (2006) also elaborates on each of these four e-HRM goals. In short, cost reduction / efficiency gains involves the amount of financial savings and work productivity that the organization achieves versus the amount of money, time, and effort spent on implementing and maintaining the e-HRM system. Client service improvement / facilitating management and employees deals with the interaction between personnel and the HR department including features such as availability, accessibility, timeliness, and IT interface design. Improving the strategic orientation of HRM encompasses numerous activities from the development of coping mechanisms for market changes to better forecasting of HR needs like task assignments and employee coordination. Lastly, integration of a dispersed HR function is the better management of multiple units—often across organizations—by standardizing and/or harmonizing HR processes.

Uses of e-HRM

This influential factor considers the function of IT within the application of e-HRM for HR processes in a given organization. Maatman (2006) divides the use of e-HRM into three subsets (p. 71). First is the e-HRM activities themselves, which includes their strategic value and the time spent on conducting each operation. Second is the type of technical support that e-HRM offers from the intended impact of the technology to the actual roles of IT in reinforcing and sustaining HR activities. Third is user acceptance of the technology, which Maatman bases on the work of Venkatesh, Morris, Davis and Davis's in 2003. These four experts assembled a unified theory for determining the influences that affect personnel's attitudes towards the technology and their usage behaviors. Much of this is based on employees' expectations for how e-HRM will either positively or negatively impact their job duties and the amount of effort they will have to exert for using the technology. Also, the impacts that social influences and perceptions of the organization's support mechanisms have on levels of technology usage.

Effectiveness of the HRM System

In this subcategory Maatman (2006) delineates between HR performance indicators and the job of HR professionals. In regards to the former, he makes a distinction between efficiency and effectiveness; however, both performance indicators remain relevant to this discussion.

Efficiency being the internal workings of the organization as they affect the money, time, and effort spent on e-HRM. This is in terms of financial return on investment, work productivity, and the degree of outputs needed for completing HR activities. Effectiveness is about the organization's goals, strategies, and structures as they relate to the best possible functionality of HR policies and services. For HR policies, e-HRM should strive to be distinct, consistent, and create consensus among personnel with HR services aspiring for the highest level of responsiveness, quality and helpfulness.

Then, for the latter, Maatman (2006) outlines the roles of the HR professional and the ideal areas of additional skills and training they obtain. Referring to Ulrich in 2007, he advises that HR professionals have four responsibilities of being strategic, administrative, employee champions (counselor and/or advocate), and change agents. In this way, they are seen as business partners, especially for the e-HRM goal of "improving the strategic orientation of the HRM" as mentioned

previously in this section.

Discussion: Towards e-HRM Effectiveness in Higher Education

There are two main themes for this discussion on e-HRM effectiveness in higher education contexts. The first is reverence for the initial body of e-HRM research in support of its continual growth. Second is noticing the similarities and differences of e-HRM effectiveness in higher education, corporate, and government contexts. This is based on the understanding that HEIs can learn much from the depth and breadth of e-HRM research currently available including Maatman's theoretical framework, Bondarouk's ongoing research, and the contributions of various other scholars. Concurrently, the field of e-HRM can also benefit from more HEIs sharing their viewpoints on the subject. To an extent, this form of codependency is in line with Etzkowitz's (2003) Triple Helix Model of university-industry-government relations. Through the collaborative interaction of these three spheres—in this case, for expanding the combined knowledge on how e-HRM impacts different types of organizations—all sides will prosper from the discoveries that result.

Another consideration for researchers and decision-makers is to avoid completely "reinventing the wheel" when evaluating e-HRM effectiveness in higher education settings. For instance, the interrelated categories of e-HRM goals, uses of e-HRM, and performance indicators for measuring e-HRM effectiveness are widely applicable concepts across public and private sectors. Additionally, there is what Bondarouk (2014) describes as "contradictory organizational realities". Returning again to Strohmeier (2007), e-HRM has the capacity to bring advantages to certain HR activities while creating difficulties for others. There are also instances where research designs were unable to replicate previous results, which means that e-HRM findings cannot be generalized (Strohmeier, 2007; Heikkilä, 2013). HEIs should be mindful of these circumstances when proceeding with comparative studies into their e-HRM effectiveness.

On the topic of commonalities, there are e-HRM aspects that are mutual among higher education, business, and governmental organizations. One is how cost reduction/efficiency gains is often the e-HRM goal that is given top priority. Over the years, studies have shown that the expectation of financial benefits is the most cited motivation for why companies implement e-HRM systems (Ruël et al., 2004; Bondarouk & Ruël, 2013). This should not come as an enormous surprise when considering corporate responsibility to maximize profits for shareholders. Meanwhile, empirical evidence for why government offices adopt e-HRM systems are not as readily apparent; however, European Commission campaigns such as the "eGovernment Action Plan 2011-2015" and "Pilot Projects towards an efficient E-Administration" do cite cost reduction, efficiency and effectiveness as targets. In respect to HEIs, the same appears to hold true. The international influences of neoliberal and New Public Management on higher education (Verger, Altinyelken, & Novelli, 2012) suggest that colleges and universities around the world would place cost reduction/efficiency gains high on their lists of e-HRM goals. Particularly, this is consistent with higher education trends in the U.S. where public funding is diminishing and market demands are pressuring HEIs to display greater accountability and transparency (Cohen & Kisker, 2011; Altbach, Gumport, & Berdahl, 2011).

Conversely, there are certain characteristics of HEIs that diverge with corporate and government organizations when comparing e-HRM effectiveness. An example is how employment policies in each sector differ and the effect that this has on HR performance indicators such as staff retention rates. At some colleges and universities, faculty mobility to work at other HEIs is highly encouraged. There is also the distinct higher education practice of offering professors sabbatical leave allowances. These two circumstances can cause fluctuations in employee turnover that do not directly translate with HR strategies in companies and government offices that do everything in their power to keep talent.

Institutional diversity in higher education is another essential factor that must be taken into account. To be more concise, centralized departments that oversee HR activities are a common feature in nearly all large companies and government offices. However, it is not necessarily a typical standard in higher education. An argument can be made that HEIs having their own internal HR operations is growing, especially with the number of universities assuming entrepreneurial models. Towards this end, many U.S. HEIs come to mind again. However, there are still higher education systems found in other corners of the globe where human resources are managed differently. For example, there are

some universities that have traditions of high academic self-governance where each individual school within the university has authority over their HR functions. On the other hand, there are also nations where the state heavily regulates higher education and HR is controlled externally by the government. These differences have significant research implications for the study of e-HRM effectiveness in higher education.

Conclusion

The principle aim of this chapter was to join the conversation on e-HRM effectiveness from a higher education institutional perspective. In particular, the question was asked about what approaches should be taken when evaluating HEIs' e-HRM systems. As shown in the glimpse at how complex the international higher education arena is, answers to this inquiry are not easy to come by. This also makes the application of corporate/government-based metrics to higher education settings somewhat of an inexact science.

Nevertheless, the parallels that HEIs share with corporations and governments serve as a constructive starting point despite the variances between them. The significant amount of data collection required and assortment of variables should not discourage higher education researchers from espousing this scientific endeavor. Neither should the task of constructing theoretical frameworks for measuring e-HRM effectiveness that are tailored for the unique characteristics found in higher education contexts. At the same time, bearing in mind there are useful insights from e-HRM studies over the past three decades that HEIs would be wise to incorporate. Therefore, it is recommended that future investigations into e-HRM effectiveness work to enlarge the comparisons between HEIs, corporations, and government offices. The short list of similarities and differences presented here is anything but exhaustive, which is undoubtedly one limitation of this chapter. Deeper analysis from a HEI perspective into the various subsets within the three categories of Maatman's theoretical framework is also an area that future research could improve on.

Finally, in keeping abreast with current e-HRM findings, higher education studies can lend support for tackling the theoretical challenges that the emerging field of research is facing. One observance is that e-HRM research has been described as "fragmented" (Heikkilä, 2013, 13-14) and "drifting" (Bondarouk, 2014, p. 49) in having a lack in focus. Bondraouk is also calling for a move away from the prevailing emphasis on case studies for "cost containment and return on investment" (2014, p. 47) towards asking other kinds of questions. She urges researchers to give more attention to how HRM frames and architectures effect the interpretation and value of e-HRM within individual organizations and across international environments (2014). Experts that undertake studies into e-HRM systems at HEIs could also offer their support for these causes.

Ultimately, the full extent of how higher education studies can assist with developing e-HRM research is left to be determined. Even still, it is safe to say that coordinated efforts within university-industry-government relations for studying e-HRM effectiveness in HEIs is to everyone's advantage.

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CHAPTER NINE

PEER LEARNING AS AN APPLIED STRATEGY BY HIGHER EDUCATION HUMAN RESOURCES FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGERS

Hacer Tercanli and Ruixue Chen

Introduction

Despite its use as a learning strategy for both students and instructors for over a few decades, peer learning for the professional development of managers in higher education (HE) is a relatively new concept. In the European context, modernization of higher education policy has particularly pushed forward the need for training platforms and knowledge exchange among higher education professionals. The need for skilled management has also become accute with universities becoming more and more complex. This chapter will introduce the evolution of peer learning concept and the recognition of peer learning as an efficient and effective tool by HE Human Resources among HE managers and leaders in EU countries by presenting and analyzing typical peer learning programs and activities in Germany and the UK. The goal is to offer practical suggestions for modern human resource management units to speed up the integration of peer learning into routine higher education work responsibilities across the EU.

Changing Roles of University Managers

Higher education institutions around the world are under continuous pressure to make changes in response to widening access, competition in a globalized teaching and research market, introduction of tuition fees, and lack of government funding (Fullan & Scott, 2009). Consequentially, the management of higher education institutions in this fast-changing environment grows to be more complicated than ever. While leaders try to steer their institution affected by external forces, they strive to affect the change, too (Fullan & Scott, 2009). Higher education institutions in Europe are going through a transition period. Towards the creation of a competitive knowledge based economy, Humboldtian model governance was abandoned, several reform initiatives came into effect, and institutional autonomy is established in many European universities. However, despite the adoption of new models, universities in Europe still cannot meet expectations when it comes to global competition and their contribution to society. The reason is explained as a clash of incongruity between traditional intra-university governance culture and the modern university governance structure (Maassen & Pausits, 2012, p. 8). Firstly, due to the somehow inability to maneuver around laws and restrictions, university managers find it challenging to perform strategic decision-making duties. Secondly, managers of modern universities are not fully equipped with necessary training and guidance systems that new leadership and management functions entail. Sadly, situations are much more severe for human resources management in higher education institutions. Skilled and trained human resources professionals in higher education are rare, while universities require professionals with strong academic background in the field so as to help solve ongoing dysfunctional issues in human resource departments, which are raised by conflicts with the rest of the departments inside the organization (Julius, 2003).

Peer Learning As an Emerging Tool

The definition of “peer” has changed over time. Peers were nobleman, aristocrats, and lords, titled men and patricians in the old days when kings and queens ruled England. The English word of peer simply refers to people who are equal in such respects as status, age, education or belonging to the same social class, group, etc. Later in modern times, the word has come to mean fellow, buddy, counterpart, co-equal, colleague or match according to the dictionary of synonyms (Merriam

Webster, n.d.). Until recently "peer" has started to be used in reference to training, and now viewed as an effective behavioral change strategy in the education field (UNODC, n.d.).

The evolution of peer learning as a behavioral concept in education took place gradually. The term “peer learning” initially existed only among students as an educational practice in which they interact with each other to attain educational goals (O'Donnell & King, 1999). Later on, it was identified and borrowed by teachers to help students learn by improving teaching approaches. There is a variety of peer learning related terms and models: peer assisting, peer review, peer coaching, technical coaching, collegial coaching, team coaching, mentoring, cognitive learning, and challenge coaching. Each model is slightly different, but all have the same end goal, which is to involve the collaborative efforts of peers to achieve the goal of improving management efficiency and teaching quality. Dalton and Moir (1991) proposed that peer coaching is a professional development model that enhances colleague relationships, a process through which school teachers share their expertise and insight, provide one another with feedback, support, and assistance for the purpose of refining presentation skills, learning new methodologies, and solving administrative issues. Therefore, peer coaching has the potential to enhance both existing and new managerial practices.

Since the 1980s, peer-to-peer learning and knowledge exchange among HE professionals began to draw the attention of European academics, in that it proved to be an effective way for higher education institutions and organizations to provide professional development for employees, especially in light of financial constraints caused by budget cuts from EU member state governments. The realization also started to spread that traditional classroom-based learning is not the panacea once thought and that being coached by a line manager, mentored by an experienced colleague, or participating in peer learning activities can be much more beneficial. According to CIPD (2012) and Cornerstone's most recent OnDemand’s Learning and Talent Development Survey, in-house development programs and coaching by line managers were cited as the most popular and effectgive training methods by 52% and 46% of learning and development professionals. Whearas, only 16% of survey recipients opted for formal education courses and the same percentage for coaching by external practitioners (CIPD, 2012). A quarter of the public sector organizations that participated in the same survey expressed their preference for less trainer-led instruction.

Within one organization or institute in higher education, there is a growing trend to conduct peer learning & coaching activities among the managers and this kind of team shares some common characteristics. Firstly, the team members own a high degree of cohesion and solidarity. The second is the diversified background among participating peers. As each team member has different education backgrounds and life experiences with various perspectives on how to confront issues, it helps such the teams form broad and deep insights for analyzing and better solving problems. University managers, being a special group of teachers, show unique features when participating in peer learning & coaching activities. The first one is that they hold common management and academic objectives at work. Managers are all placed in the frontline to serve students, academics, society and the government with common working and research goals. This lays the foundations for developing and performing peer learning and coaching programs that are tailored specifically for managers. Secondly, it helps with more efficient communication and mutual improvement both individually and professionally. Besides, the guidance of outstanding school managers often brings expected results for young managers by way of information exchange on how to solve practical difficulties and problems.

Case Study of Peer Learning Practice in EU Universities

The global integration of knowledge sharing and cooperation is having a strong impact on public organizations, including higher education institutions. Their focus now is to develop high-potential employees, train future senior leaders with international perspective, and equipping international staff with local information. For instance, peer learning, coaching, and mentoring activities are adopted by management programs to help professionals move into key roles. Here are two examples taken from universities in Germany and UK to offer a vivid picture about how higher education managerial strategy can integrate peer learning pratices, especially when internationalization and gender equality are taken into account.

Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München: Center for Advanced Studies

Among EU state members, Germany is an active leader in peer learning programs, with the participation of both the government and the private sector. Here takes an example from Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München (LMU), which is one of Europe's premier academic and research institutions. At LMU, the Center for Advanced Studies (CAS) was founded as a forum for intensive interdisciplinary academic exchange, whose main duty is to prepare and organize conferences and regular working groups. In order to cultivate academic exchange, CAS members are encouraged to invite outstanding researchers from Germany and abroad for short-term visits. CAS pays much attention to promote junior researchers, and promising young scholars are appointed as members of CAS's Young Center, in which they profit time to time from interdisciplinary communication and the experience of senior CAS members via various workshops, summer schools and dialog with leading academics (CAS, n.d.) Additionally, junior members of the Young Center are supported to organize events tailored to their career needs and to develop interdisciplinary projects such as junior research groups (LMU,n.d.). In general, this program held in LMU integrates several forms of peer learning education, such as mentoring, peer learning, peer assistance, etc.

Several points could be drawn from CAS's practice. One of the most impressive is the talent developing management that the Young Center fosters, which successfully integrates coaching, organizational development and performance management. Each individual is limited in time, energy and ability, only when positive peer-to-peer learning relationships are established and maintained that leveraging the performance of the whole team will be achieved. CAS adopts mixed developing schemes, which contribute to the success of peer-to-peer learning because participants usually do not have a refreshed feeling in themselves without a balance of learning options being conducted. Coaching, workshops, conferences, external trainees, internal knowledge sharing events, and buddy mentoring are included in the offering of CAS duties. This practice also implies that developmental opportunities contain a tangible meaning, in this case, a recognized membership as certain level of academic status, often have a greater impact on the motivation and commitment levels of an employee. As is known to all, the work of higher education managers are often heavily loaded and are required to respond to different stakeholders. They are easy to feel pressured and thus may suffer from career burnout, which is likely to result in resignation, bringing huge personal and economic loss to the university or institute. Peer learning can be a solution to this phenomenon because the comfort, understanding and professional assistance from peer learning activities release the major part of the pressure and anxiety. Meanwhile, career achievements afterwards directly bring job satisfaction. Thus, a certain positive circle is generated.

University of Bath: Aurora Program

In the UK, a variety of leadership development platforms are offered to address the different needs and expectations of university managers that are seeking career advancement. UK institutions also ensure that peer learning activities are integrated in leadership training programs and that they are carried out with the involvement of groups of trainers with different expertise. Looking back at the findings of the MODERN project, participants were asked about their preferences of teaching staff in the training programs. Of the three options given, peers being leadership staff from a different higher education institution were rated the highest (Maassen & Pausits, 2012). In that respect, the following UK university leaves room for peer-to-peer interaction in its in-house trainings, observing the need for one-on-one exchange experiences.

The University of Bath is one of the foremost staff development providers in the UK. They provide a wide variety of leadership development programs, which include job shadowing, coaching and mentoring, online learning modules, and courses with topics ranging from performance management to awards in team leading and effective networking. Among these programs the university has a five-year commitment to a unique peer learning program called “Aurora”.

Aurora Network is a women-only leadership development community initiated by the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education based in England and Wales. Ten female participants are chosen each year to increase the number of women in leadership roles, to create a platform for networking, and to meet the demand of creative leadership that has complex managerial skills for daily operations. Besides self-directed learning and online resource content of the program, “development days” offer a series of peer learning activities where participants are either required to work with an assigned mentor at their home institutions, or be serve as a role model if they have substantial managerial expertise. Both roles enable participants to develop leadership identities and allows their institution to maximize the potential of these employees.

One important aspect of the Aurora program is its follow-up component, a crucial element overlooked in most peer learning programs. According to Professor Millar (2014) from University of Bath, it is of the utmost importance for the institution and the participants to enhance the program through alumni meetings. To achieve this aim, the alumni organize regular meetings and discussion sessions for information and experience exchange.

Analysis and Identification of the Difficulty of HE Human Resources in Fostering Peer Learning

From the two examples presented above, as well as the literature reviews, one conclusion that can be drawn is the function of higher education human resources for professional development of university managers has not been adequately explored. The majority of the peer learning activities and programs are organized and conducted either by the academic departments or external agencies. Today, the expansion of higher education marketization forces public sector institutes and universities to compete for excellent people and turnover rates of specialized staff. Thus, it is imperative for them to develop a well-managed human resource system (Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007). As a result, reforms and new arrangements in the role and task specialization of human resources units are called for. In order to be in line with the new demands, human resources units should pick up the role of being the primary advocates and sponsors of professional development that enhance individual growth and upward mobility within universities and institutes (Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007).

Arguably, peer learning networks are feasible alternatives and complementary mechanisms to more traditionally structured learning environments for managers. While most higher education professionals mention their need for professional development, the ones who have received formal training find it “inappropriate” or “too generic” (Inman, 2009). This approach towards degree courses support the findings of the MODERN project survey that only 15% of the participants agreed with the statement in regards to the desire in participating management degree programs and training courses (Maassen & Pausits, 2012). It is also noted that the training leaders receive will only become meaningful once it is applied in the context. For the learning to be owned and flexible, engagement with the real needs is crucial. In this regard, peer learning platforms would offer an authentic environment for professionals where challenges and trends are discussed, and solutions are offered for improving practices.

Suggested Countermeasures to HE Human Resources

The following is an illustrative work description of how human resources units should integrate peer learning programs into their work responsibilities is:

- Promote the concept of peer learning and integrate it to the strategy agenda as an essential element of their organizational learning and development responsibilities.
- Conduct needs analysis for the development of professional development programs with peer learning components in cooperation with acadmeic departments and schools to identify any emerging professional consultation, workshop, or training needs.
- Carry out follow-up schemes after professional development programs are completed. This would build up the alumni as a strong graduate cohort, bring them together to work and improve program quality, and provide reflective feedback on the training they receive as to whether or not it was useful or irrelevant.
- Develop strategies and adopt actions to ensure higher education professionals benefit from a peer learning environment where they are encouraged to employ critical thinking abilities and communicate their true competence and expertise. In peer learning, the possibility of peers succumbing to the Dunning – Kruger effect should not be overlooked. For example particpants in experience and knowledge exchange processes may either be unaware of institutional management conditions and the reality of the other party or they may present over-confidence, which can also be associated to “meta-ignorance” (Huang, 2013).

In addition to the abovementioned institutional actions, it is suggested that the expansion of peer learning platforms be considered at national system and regional levels. Two common challenges that European higher education leaders face for not participating in professional development programs is described as lack of time and monetary incentives (Maassen & Pausits, 2012). In order to overcome these time and financial limitations, national governments and the EU should enact policies that entice university leaders to network and further their professionalization. Budgets should be allocated for the development of customized web-based peer learning programs to increase access. Existing peer learning networks should be diversified, and tailor made programs should be designed. Finally, follow-up strategies and actions to the MODERN project should be initiated by the European Commission to ensure the sustainability of the modernization process, through new funding schemes for the collaboration of higher education professionals and the increase of information exchange.

Conclusion

Peer learning is a relatively recent concept in the context of mutual learning among higher education managers. Countries, such as those in the EU, where new organizational and managerial cultures are being adopted, generating peer learning platforms concurrently would complement and foster the better functioning of those new systems. Therefore, a lot of pressure is placed on human resource professionals at universities or institute where human resources are still thought of as a staff function that is tangential to the organizations' primary mission or an unnecessary by-products of bureaucratic accretion (Julius, 2003). Instead, a new and urgent requirement must be emphasized that traditional practitioners need to be equipped with strong insight into the work of the academic administrators and faculty. In this way, they can gain the requisite authority to advance policy and get others to follow procedures, for instance, viewing their attendance to peer learning programs as routine managerial development training other than some extra workload that could be casted off by random excuses.

Despite the current challenges and practical difficulties in implementation and resistance towards the launching and developing of the peer learning activities in higher education management, the platforms will prove their value and effectiveness in the long term by maximizing the potential of academic leaders.

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