

**Exploration of a University Culture: A Papua New Guinea
Case Study**

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Acronyms Used

AcQA	-	Academic Quality Assurance
ACU	-	Australian Catholic University
ASEAN		Association of South East Asian Nations
AusAID	-	Australian Aid International Development
AU\$	-	Australian Dollar
AVI	-	Australian Volunteers International
BSc		Bachelor of Science
CHE	-	Commission for Higher Education
CPA	-	Certified Public Accountant
CTL	-	Certificate in Teaching and Learning
CV	-	Curriculum Vitae
DWI	-	Divine Word Institute
DWU	-	Divine Word University
DWUSP	-	Divine Word University's Strategic Plan
EU	-	European Union
GU	-	University of Goroka
HoD	-	Head of Department
HR	-	Human Resource
JSTOR		Journal Storage
KBS1	-	Knowledge Based Society One
KBS2	-	Knowledge Based Society Two
MTDS	-	Medium Term Development Strategy
MEL	-	Masters in Educational Leadership
OHE	-	Office of Higher Education
PAU	-	Pacific Adventist University
PhD	-	Doctor of Philosophy
PNG	-	Papua New Guinea
PNGK	-	Papua New Guinea Kina
QUT	-	Queensland University of Technology
SSpS	-	Societatis Spiritu Santu (Society of the Holy Spirit)

SVD	-	Societatis Verbi Divini (Society of the Divine Word)
TESAS	-	Tertiary Education Students Assistance Scheme
UPNG	-	University of Papua New Guinea
UNITECH	-	University of Technology
UN	-	United Nations
NOG		Non-Government Organization
UOB	-	University of Botswana
VPAc	-	Vice President Academic
VSO	-	Volunteer Service Overseas
VU	-	Vudal University

Declaration of Authorship

I, Ludmilla Luddy Salonda, declare that the PhD thesis titled: An Exploration of University Culture: A Papua New Guinean Case Study is no more than 100 000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.



March 2008

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Abstract

The primary purpose of this case study on Divine Word University (DWU) is to explore the drivers that influence the organization to assume a particular model of organizing work and managing people in the pursuit of its goals. The key research questions therefore, focus on DWU culture, that is, the deeply embedded taken-for-granted basic assumptions whose influences are made visible in the organization's behaviour and discourse. In particular, this thesis explores the behaviour and discourse associated with two aspects of the organization, the structure of decision-making and HR practices and processes. In exploring DWU culture, the study serves to explore the broader theme of university cultural emergence, embedding, cultural change, and organizational redefinition.

Three ethnographic tools are used in the exploration: the semi-structured interview, documentary sources and observations. Having multiple data sources serves to triangulate the emerging cultural themes across the data sources. The data was collected over a period of six months. Documents were collected and observations made over the first five months. These serve to surface issues, concepts and themes around which interviews are conducted in the final month of data gathering.

The findings show that the primary assumption defining DWU's practices and which influences patterns of behaviour is the ideal of service linked to the missionary commitment to social advancement. This ideal has a profound impact on the culture of DWU. It provides the impetus for people to intervene to provide a service in a context where resource security is tenuous. Service in the context of this thesis is the ideal that serves as the impetus that motivates people, religious and altruistic oriented non-religious people, to render service for none or minimal material reward. This concept is contrasted with the concept of service associated with the university and taken as one of the tripartite knowledge functions. The findings also show that the outcome of the influence of service on DWU is that the behavioural expectations it promotes locate the university away from the behavioural expectations, as they are manifested in its decision-making structure and HR processes, of the collegial values-

based organization. However, the findings also show that the distancing from the collegial cultural values and beliefs is nevertheless not a de-legitimization of the organization from the university field. In the contemporary context of organizational change that is allowing for the broadening of the university concept, emerging models of the university, such as DWU, occupy the contemporary end of the continuum of university models.

Chapter 1: Introduction

If the concept of university was integral to the traditional idea of the university, a powerful counter-ideology has developed in which a university education is perceived as an economic resource (Tapper & Salter 1995).

1.1 Overview

In both this and the next chapter, two pertinent contexts in which to locate this study are presented. Whilst chapter two locates the study in its the national context, this chapter introduces the specific organizational issues that foreground the analysis of the contemporary university's cultural shift not only experienced by the university in Papua New Guinea (PNG) but the university globally. First, the specific organizational issues that prompted the interest of the researcher to explore the culture of Divine Word University (DWU) are described. This is followed by a discussion on the changing social, political and economic drivers that have triggered a concomitant global shift in university culture. Presenting DWU's experiences as a case study of university change serves to locate the DWU within the broader context of university culture change. In doing so, they foreground the broader issues around DWU and university culture change which then are explored in detail through out this study.

1.2 The Aim of the Study

This research is therefore, a study exploring the subsurface values and beliefs or basic assumptions that constitute DWU's culture which permeate the organization to drive, inform and shape organizational practice, processes, behaviour patterns and discourse, aspects of the organization which represent the visible artifacts or manifestations of the culture. The main research question which allowed for the exploration of the culture was: What is the Culture of Divine Word University?

This very open-ended question allowed the researcher the scope to explore multiple aspects of the organization in a holistic manner. The general question was supported

by a list of secondary questions to explore the university's culture. Pertinent literature on higher education management and approaches to culture research informed the research questions.

What are the embedded values and beliefs shaping practice?

What factors informed the values and beliefs that constitute DWU's culture?

How are these values and beliefs manifested in organizational practice and discourse?

What values and beliefs do DWU's HR practices reflect?

What values and beliefs inform DWU decision-making model?

By addressing these questions, this study contributes a live case study of the university in the post-modern society confronting a cultural shift. This study has further significance for universities in the developing-world contexts such as PNG, and for universities established by organizations such as the Catholic Church's Missionary order, the SVD which are motivated by missionary or social service. The study is a contribution to knowledge of how one such university, DWU, responds to the current external and internal economic, political and social realities that threaten its survival and how it manages the constraints and capitalizes on opportunities to exist as a viable institution of higher education.

1.3 Context of Study

In 2006, DWU's first decade as a university was celebrated. In his speech marking the occasion, Fr Jan Czuba, DWU's incumbent president, cited some of the university's achievements which had moved DWU forward since he took control of the organization in 1996. In terms of student numbers, DWU had grown from a single campus organization catering to 300 students to a geographically dispersed multi-campus organization with a student intake of 2000 in 2006. From having typewriters the university had moved into the age of modern information technologies. The institution had also made a transition from a departmental structure to a faculty structure accommodating six faculties indicative of an increase in courses offered. New physical infrastructure, the main additions including the multi-million

Kina, PNG's currency unit, library and auditoriums, had been built and old ones refurbished. In terms of staff, the organizational participants whose experience of the organization is important in the context of this study, Fr Jan stated, DWU was attracting "well qualified and committed international staff." These developments according to him were indicative not only of DWU's shift from a high school learning culture to a university learning culture but also of the organization creating the pre-, conditions for the pursuit of high quality provision in teaching, research and service, its long term strategic goals.

Fr Jan's view of DWU's growth was from the vantage point of the leader. It was symbolic on a number of levels which would have implications on the culture of the organization. It was indicative of the top-down model of organizing work and managing people that DWU had adopted. It was also indicative of the type of leadership and discourse defining the organization.

When Fr Jan took over control of Divine Word Institute (DWI), the organization which would evolve into DWU, the institution was on the verge of closing its doors. The fortunes of the Societatis Verbi Divini (SVD), DWI's founding religious order in PNG, had changed in part reflecting social changes in society. Following independence, local landowners were demanding the return of land acquired during colonization (Sinclair 2005). For the SVD, present in PNG since the 1890s, this meant closing down the ventures they depended on to generate income to support their work in various service areas including education. This development undermined their belief in self-reliance impacting on continued sustainability of their missionary work. Besides their diminished ability to financially support all the areas of missionary work they were involved in, changing attitudes towards religion, particularly in Western societies, were evident in declining numbers of SVD missionaries available to meet the manpower requirements for all its areas of missionary work including education.

These emerging constraints or threats would impact on DWI's viability in 1995, the response to which would impact on the culture of the organization as a university. The SVD faced the prospect of closing the institution as the tenure of the incumbent president, also an SVD priest, came to an end. However, they faced a dilemma.

While they were no longer able to support the institution financially and in terms of the required manpower, the SVD still had the remaining term of the lease on the land on which the institution was built.

The institution's board of governors that year decided to recruit a new president again from amongst the ranks of the SVD. They decided on Fr Jan Czuba, a young 36-year old Polish priest who had become known within his order for his success in running a remote parish in PNG. When he was hired, the SVD half expected him to cease operations soon after. But, Fr Jan did not preside over DWI's closure. Instead, he took stock of the situation that confronted him and proceeded to reinvent and redefine the organization to prevent its demise. Fr Jan outlines the process of deliberation he went through in one of his correspondences:

In 1996 as I thought about the autonomy of DWI, I asked myself the following questions....:

Do we have a clear purposes and goals?

Are the people who make up the DWU community motivated toward those purposes and goals and do they have the skills for accomplishing them?

Are there adequate resources for us to work towards our goals? Do we have the necessary funds, energies, facilities, and buildings to do what we are trying to do with people who are trying to do it?

Is there a system, which permits good communication flow between the different members of DWU? Are we so arranged that we can tell where we have been, where we are, and where we are heading?

Can all this be put together in a structure, which really makes an enabling environment? In other words, does our structure really reflect our purposes and goals, the type of people on our staff, the different resources we are using, and communication system needed to do what God wants DWU—us to do? (Divine Word University 2006)

As he answers these questions, Fr Jan writes: *...I determined there was one thing left for me to do, get a return ticket to the place where I had come from.* But, Fr Jan did not return to his remote parish. The reason as he puts it: *In all those "Nos" I saw opportunities for development.*

One of the first things Fr Jan did upon taking control was to develop DWU's 30-year strategic plan (DWUSP) (Figure 2). In it he outlined what he foresaw as DWU's

establishment, survival, evolution and transition to a university. He envisioned DWU becoming a university distinguished for delivering quality teaching and research in the service of the community in partnership with other institutions, the public, non-government organizations (NGOs) and the corporate sector. What lay ahead for Fr Jan was to move forward a small institute with limited access and provision and resources into a university.

Armed with the existing DWI Charter, which later became the DWU Charter (Appendix A), Fr Jan promoted and gained university status for DWU legitimized with the passage of an Act of PNG's parliament on 10 August, 1996. With these two levels of legitimization, the institution confronted moving forward in substance into what the title already implied, "a university". The DWUSP provided a road map towards a long-range goal that would be pursued in three stages, each stage constituting a ten-year time frame. For the first ten years from May 1996 to May 2006, DWU's goal was: "To make the journey from high school culture into university culture and establish the foundation for introducing quality education."

1.3.2 DWUSP: An Act of Organizational Definition

The development of the DWUSP was a significant step forward for DWU on a number of levels. It marked an act of conceptualization and definition of the DWU model of organizing work. The model resembled the profit oriented management model associated with business organizations as it would be made visible in the type of leadership, decision-making model, and discourse defining practices and processes such as HR. These would have implications for the culture of the organization as a university.

Defining DWU Leadership

The orientation towards an organizational model associated with the business sector would contribute to defining the type of leadership at DWU. DWI's, later as DWU's, link to SVD missionary traditions meant that the organization had always had an SVD priest as its president. In Fr Jan, DWU's leadership represented a break with the

earlier key criteria for organizational leadership appointment being religious affiliation. Not only did DWU acquire in Fr Jan a religious leader by virtue of training as a missionary priest in the Catholic Church, the organization also secured a corporate leader with management competencies. Fr Jan said of the characteristic traits of his leadership in 2005: *...the type of leadership and management I am using at this time of DWU's development is such that no student or staff...can stay still. We are developing everyday.* The type of leadership would become evident in the management and religious concepts, processes and practices defining the organization. The influence of religion and commitment to the ethos of his religious order are not only evident in the discourse defining DWU but also in the observance of religious norms. For instance, in the speech marking the first decade in 2006 (Divine Word University 2006), Fr Jan stated that as DWU moved into its second decade of development, it would encounter challenges that could be met with the help and guidance of Jesus Christ to whom the organization was dedicated as the name, Divine Word, invoked:

As you encounter these challenges, I would ask you to remember one important thing. This University is dedicated to the Divine Word-Jesus Christ. Traveling with Jesus Christ can be rough, can be challenging, for sure, it is never easy, but is always safe. We may not be able to change every difficult circumstance we come across. But we can most certainly change the way we think about them, address them and allow the Divine Word to guide us. With Jesus Christ every seeming defeat in life holds within it the seed of future success .

DWU's model of leadership was further defined by a management discourse illustrated in terms such as "initiative and teamwork", "responding to the market" that surfaced in other documents and contexts. It was also evident in concerns about quality and efficiency, concerns that translated into the adoption of efficiency mechanisms and bureaucratized and formalized processes.

1.4 The Implications of DWU Model on Practice

The implications of the top-defined model of organization envisioned in the DWUSP and promoted by the leader would be experienced in tensions played out at different levels of the organization, tensions which are explored from the perspective of the academic staff a number of whom are also in administration by virtue of them being HoDs and Deans of faculties in this study. These experiences would often contradict the management perceptions of the organization. The researcher experienced this model of organization both as a rank and file member of the academic staff and also as a member of the administration from 2000 to 2002. These issues around decision-making and HR practices would foreshadow the interest in university culture that would be investigated in this study.

1.4.1 HR-related Tensions

The experiences related to HR practices and processes served to highlight the link between DWU's resources and the new social constraints confronting the SVD that initially influenced the adoption of the management model. In terms of manpower requirements, the sources from which the staff were drawn had extended beyond the SVD circles, yet not completely away from missionary orders and their shared ethos of missionary service. Fr Jan pointed out in his 10th anniversary speech that DWU was attracting increasing numbers of staff with advanced degree qualifications. These staff were recruited from members of different religious orders of the Catholic Church. They included the SVD and Society of the Holy Spirit or Societatis Spiritu Santu (SSpS), the Christian Brothers, the Marists, Diocesans, the Mercy Nuns and the Spiritants. Of the non-religious staff, some were recruited through international volunteer organizations (VSO). The altruistic motive of the VSO intersected with the missionary service motive of religious organizations. The volunteer staff were Europeans, Australians New Zealanders American and Canadians. Staff were also recruited from predominately Catholic country, the Philippines. The Filipinos also had a long association with DWU through the SVD and SSpS continued to be well represented on the staff. Although, there was also an increasing numbers of Papua

New Guinean staff with advanced degrees, they still made up the majority of staff members who were under-qualified with first or sub-degrees. This was reflective of the state of the academic professional nationally (Rooney 2004).

The issues of staff turnover and under-qualification were staffing issues that contributed to tensions that were played out at the level of departments. From 2003 to 2006, all departments, except the two departments added in 2003, experienced staff attrition. The volunteer staff constituted the group that experienced higher rates of turnover than others. This was due to the short term nature of their attachment. They were initially engaged for two years with a possibility of extension. They were employed as lecturers as well as HoDs. In one department in 2004, there were only two staff members, one on full time and the other a sessional member. The full time member was a volunteer. The tensions resulting from sustained turnover were discontinuity of processes and impact on workload. Staff experienced constant workload redistributions and inter-department rotations. HoDs, for instance, constantly had to engage in searching and recruiting staff.

Staff turnover also had resource implications for DWU. In this context where tenure was defined in limited term contracts, some staff undertaking further training under DWU sponsorship would leave without completion of courses. The instability and under-qualification also contributed to stalled effective implementation of ranking and promotion policies. Staff either did not meet promotion requirements and/or did not remain long enough to engage in the processes stipulated in policy. This resulted in limited career advancement prospects for staff. These factors also worked against an effective classification of staff demonstrated in staff expressing uncertainty about the ranks at which they were classified.

1.4.2 Tensions around Resources

The tensions around resource support of academic work further highlights the disconnection between management perception of the organization and the experience of staff. While the administration publicly pronounces that DWU's investment in information technologies and physical infrastructure such as lecture theaters and auditoriums has contributed to moving the organization forward into a university, on the ground at the level of delivery of courses and research activity, staff experience resource constraints in terms of adequacy and/or currency of both staff and student texts books, journals, and other teaching aids such as cameras or tape recorders. Staff also confront bureaucratic limitations in accessing printing, photocopying and phone services.

1.4.3 Tensions around Decision-making Authority

The decision-making model adopted by DWU is made depicted in the organizational chart (Appendix I). The chart shows that decision-making at DWU escalates a pyramid and spike in the office of the president and descends through line managers who control and coordinate the work at the ground level. In this structure, staff are placed in a super and subordinating hierarchy. This model of organizing work also locates authority over DWU's education goals and academic work in the office of administrators and managers. The centralization of decision making encourages management by directives, in doing so, encouraging passivity and compliance in staff. Some staff contest this model as "authoritarian", "bureaucratic" and "patronizing". These staff feel professionally emasculated and are strident in their contestation of centralized authority. Others demonstrate passive compliance, timidity, obedience, subservience and a deference to higher authority. The tensions are played out in decision-making around resource distribution, the goals of the organization, reward, ranking and promotion, staff development, course content and structure.

1.5 The Global University Context

A growing body of literature on university culture change globally places DWU's within the current trend in university redefinition. The pertinent literature on the university culture change surveyed and presented in chapter three establishes that since the late 1950s in the West, for instance, in England, the United States and Australia, the university has experienced significant culture change. This change is externally induced and emanate from shifting political, economic and social thought. Illustrative of the change are: altered university funding models; a trend towards mass enrolment and away from elitism; the adoption of a professional service ethos giving the organization an external utilitarian purpose; the curtailment of the domination of the professoriate and its privileges; and a move to an amateur organization; the adoption of management tools (product marketing, creating niches, competition) to ensure organizational viability; changed governance patterns; the adoption of new discourse defining work and organizations; and changed HR practices and processes (Arimoto 2004; Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; Marginson, S. & Considine 2000).

1.5.1 University Culture Change Tensions

The changing nature of these surface-level organizational practices and processes consequent to the changing social context are in tension with practices and processes of the university model embedded in values and basic assumptions defined as collegial which had permeated from the bottom-up to shape surface behaviour (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; Nixon et al. 1998; Winter, Richard 2004). The tensions emanate from the internally defined university culture conflicting with the externally defined and top-down imposed culture's values and beliefs. The result is passionate contestation of the new model of organizing work on the one hand and an embracing and subsequent transition into newer models of university such as the entrepreneurial university on the other. These tensions are also played out at DWU.

For universities such as DWU that have embraced the new model of university, particularly at the level of leadership, the shift is part of the extension of the continuum of university models as illustrated in Figure 1. The management or entrepreneurial model is, therefore, considered the latest evolution of the organization which, since its rise in 12th century Europe, has existed and evolved into varying forms, for example, the anonymous, corporate institution that has spread beyond Europe (Perkin 1991; Wieruszowski 1966). The university models that now exist occupy an organizational continuum the main models of which are identified by Marginson and Considine (2000). At the established end sits the collegial model and at the contemporary end of the continuum are the corporate and entrepreneurial models. However, some universities exist as hybrids of one or more of these models with different emphases amongst them (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994).

University Governance Patterns Continuum

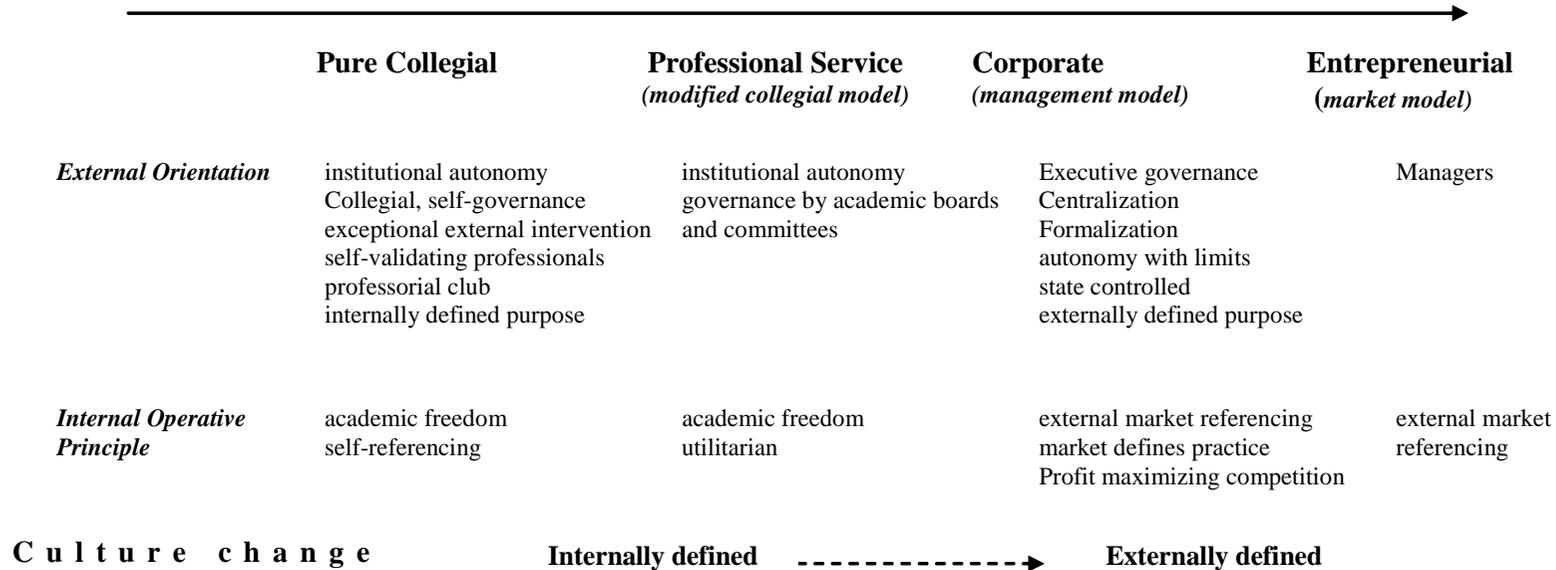


Figure 1. Ludmilla Salonda, 2006: University Governance Patterns Continuum: adapted from Marginson and Considine, 2000

Despite the fact that the different models of the university have to varying degrees moved forward from the pure collegial model,

The notion that the true heart of the university lay with its tenured scholars persisted into the academic practices of many, perhaps most, of those scholars themselves. The newer universities created in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s all replicated the structure of professorial board-cum-academic board and faculty assemblies, in which slow, conservative academic decision-making jostled with administrative logic. Even the post-1986 universities felt obliged to invent for themselves an academic board to be the apex of both scholarly decision-making and collegial identity (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000, pp. 108-109).

The current study seeks to explore the culture of DWU. It explores the visible behaviour, organizational processes and discourse as sign posts to the sub-surface-level values and beliefs that compelled DWU's to adopt certain modes of behaviour or practices. DWU's move towards a management model of a university has implications for what it means to be a university today.

1.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the organizational context is provided to locate the current study. In the following chapter, the social, economic, political influences of the national context are presented. In the subsequent chapter, chapter 3, the pertinent literature on university culture and change is reviewed prior to specifying the research question for the study in chapter 4. The methodology and the methods used to produce data are also presented in chapter 4. The findings of the study are presented in chapters 5 and 6. The findings chapters are followed by the discussion chapter in which the findings are analyzed and discussed in greater detail. The final chapter places the findings in the context of current research and theory and discusses the implications of these for DWU and for university practice in general.

Chapter 2: University Establishment in PNG

The colonial administration of the territory that was Papua in 1912 under Hubert Murray held the view that educating the subjects at tertiary level was unnecessary, just as it was considered unnecessary to extend to them political rights (Lynch 1988).

2.1 Overview

The context of PNG higher education in which DWU is located is complex. In this chapter, pertinent historical, political, economic, social as well as religious factors that shaped PNG's higher education system and contributed to the establishment of DWU are presented. These factors foreground the issues that have had implications on the culture of DWU. The first section presents the colonial social context and the prevailing political attitudes that thwarted attempts, even of DWU's founders, the SVD, to extend higher education to Papua New Guineans. In this environment the first university in PNG was established only in 1965 close to one hundred years after the first western colonizers arrived in the 1880s. The next section presents the post-independence economic and social context which shaped attitudes that gave cause to calls for a reform of the system established before independence. As these reforms involve the whole education sector, they would also have implications on the culture of the PNG universities including DWU. The last section of the chapter presents DWU's conception, establishment, evolution and expansion.

2.2 The University under Colonialism

The university, one of western society's iconic institutions, reached PNG via Australia. In fact, it was imported in haste during the final days of Australian colonialism and established in 1965, decades after European colonialism first reached PNG in 1884, and just as colonialism was coming to an end (Meek 1982). By then, the territory had changed hands between three different colonizers. Australia, the final colonizer, superseded Britain and Germany under the 1949 United Nations' mandate in the form of the Papua New Guinea Act that unified the two territories

under a single administration for military expediency at the outbreak of the World War Two with the Japanese invasion in 1942 (Bray 1997; Meek 1982; Sinclair 2005). The territory of Papua, formerly a British crown colony, came under Australian administration in 1906. The territory of New Guinea, a German possession from 1884 to 1914, came under Australian responsibility as a UN Trusteeship following the defeat of Germany in World War One (Sinclair 2005).

The late emergence of higher education and the university in PNG was in part due to the fact that colonial interests lay with economic exploitation and also due to racism (Latukeyfu 1985; Meek 2004). The ad hoc rudimentary education system that existed was established by different overseas Christian missions who tailored it to serve their needs of advancing missionary work (Meek 1982). Higher education or what was considered as, “too much education”, was out of question as some colonizers considered an educated local a threat to the established order (Commission for Higher Education 1986; Meek 1982). The Australian administration’s official position on higher education in 1961 was that no university was justified and that it would be some time before one could be established (Meek 1982). In fact, the colonial administration of the territory that was Papua in 1912 under Hubert Murray held the view that educating the subjects at tertiary level was unnecessary, just as it was considered unnecessary to extend to them political rights (Lynch 1988).

This neglect would have continued but for the rise globally of anti-colonial movements that saw the United Nations (UN) put pressure on Australia to fast-track higher education provision for Papua New Guineans. The UN’s Visiting Mission headed by Sir Hugh Foot visited the territory in 1962 to report on the state of preparedness of Papua New Guinea for independence found Australia complacent (Lynch 1988; Meek 1982). Subsequently, the Commission recommended the immediate establishment of secondary and higher education institutions to produce the manpower needed to run an independent state (Meek 1982). At the time of the visit by the UN mission, the total number of Papua New Guineans with any higher education qualification was two, one with a BSc in Agriculture and one with a BA in Economics. Twelve others were enrolled in undergraduate courses in Australian universities (Institute of Applied Social and Economic Research 1979).

These external shifts in political and social attitudes forced a complacent Australia to move swiftly from a position of disinterest to one of urgency to educate Papua New Guineans at tertiary level in preparation for the administration of a looming independent state (Lynch 1988; Meek 1982). The Currie Commission tasked to enquire into higher education provision in PNG in 1963 recommended that a university be established in PNG. However, as Meek (1982) writes, Australia confronted a situation where no higher education was viable because its anti-education for the Papua New Guineans attitude meant that the existing tenuous primary and secondary school system lacked the capacity to produce a recruitment pool for any university that might be established. To produce the pool of potential university enrollees, the first secondary schools opened in 1962, the year the UN mission visited (Institute of Applied Social and Economic Research 1979). The University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) was established in 1965 even when the colonial administration had decided on making mass primary education a priority (Commission for Higher Education 1986; Meek). The process of its establishment was more a transplantation of an Australian model imported “lock, stock and barrel” (Meek 1982, p. 66). UPNG’s founding was soon followed by the creation of the University of Technology in 1967.

2.2.1 The Inception of DWU

The Catholic missionary service ethos extension that resulted in the conception of DWU would contribute to shaping the culture of DWU. The idea of a Catholic university in the Pacific region was first raised in 1958, preceding the establishment of the first university in PNG, UPNG, in 1965. The Superior General of the Catholic missionary order, SVD, Fr John Schuette, visited PNG in 1958 and first raised the possibility of establishing a university for the South Pacific region in Madang¹. The SVD were already established with German colonization of New Guinea opening up their first school in 1897, one year after they first arrived in Madang known then as Friedrich Wilhelmshafen (Sinclair 2005, p. 36).

¹ The SVD is a global congregation with universities around the world. In the Asia-Pacific region the SVD have universities in the Philippines, Taiwan, Indonesia and Japan.

However, the prevailing attitude against higher education for Papua New Guineans would mean that the idea of the Catholic university would only move closer to becoming a reality during the urgent scramble to introduce higher education in the final days of Australian colonization. Following their superior's visit, two SVD missionaries, Archbishop Adolf Noser and Fr. Paul McVinney, in line with the tradition of their religious order, undertook an exploration to gauge views on the possibility of involvement in tertiary education in PNG. Their resolve led to the securing of a 99-year lease of a 99-acre piece of land in 1964. With the land secured, they set about negotiating a funding arrangement with the then Australian colonial administration (Divine Word University 2004). As has been suggested by Meek (1982), the existing view which preferred a gradual approach to higher education for the locals would also thwart the attempts of the SVD. Furthermore, suspicion of foreign missions many of whom were German, barred the missions from participating in education provision (Meek 1982). The order subsequently scaled down their ambitions and settled for an involvement in secondary school provision instead. This led to the establishment in 1966 of the Catholic co-educational high school, SVD High School, in Madang one year after the UPNG's foundation.

In terms of securing resources to support their various areas of missionary work including education, the SVD believed in being self-sufficient both in terms of funding and manpower. They established plantations, sawmills, workshops and raised cattle (Divine Word University 2004) to generate funds. In terms of manpower needs, they drew from their own ranks. Their commitment to self-sufficiency would minimize the dependence on the state to support their schools. However, following independence, the source of their income would cease from pressure from landowners for the return of land acquired during colonialism. This would impact on DWU's viability in the 1990s and subsequently contribute to influencing the model of organization of DWU.

2.3 The State of the University after Independence

Following independence, a further shift in views about higher education would have implications on the culture of the organizations including DWU. In the post-

independence context, the universities in PNG would constitute a Higher Education system whose outcomes were perceived to be in some respects socially detrimental and economically demanding, pressures that increased as PNG faced severe fiscal constraints following independence. The system was fragmented, small and limited in terms of reach. It was costly, inefficient and elitist, outcomes that were detrimental to national social cohesion (Bray 1997).

Indicative of its fragmentation was that in 1970 PNG had not only two universities but also numerous single-discipline colleges embedded in separate government departments. These institutions in the 1990s totaled 30 (Office of Higher Education 2000b). They included colleges for training teachers, agriculturalists, nurses, seminaries and administrators (Bray 1997). As of 1997, there were six universities with enrolments ranging from 200 to 4000 full-time students (Office of Higher Education 2000b). From 1979, Divine Word Institute (DWI), the outcome of the transition made by SVD High School, was a component of this fragmentary system.

The high number of institutions that constituted the fragmentary system however was not matched by high levels of HE participation by Papua New Guineans. In 1970, the total HE participation was 3500 (Commission for Higher Education 1986). In the 1980s the participation rate in higher education as a proportion of the total population was 0.3 per cent (Commission for Higher Education 1986; Office of Higher Education 2000a). Of the college age population of 17-25 year olds, only 1.5 per cent participated in higher education as compared to 7 percent the average participation rate for all developing countries (Office of Higher Education 2000a, p. 25). In 1995, the total number of students enrolled in all types of higher education institutions including universities was 14 158 out of which 9359 were enrolled full time, 586 as part time and 4210 as external students. In 2003, PNG's Prime Minister, Sir Michael Somare, in a speech to the UPNG Alumni, cited that of the 1.1 million college-age Papua New Guineans, less than one per cent participated in higher education (The Post Courier 2003). The figure showed that the rates of participation had changed little in 20 years (The Post Courier 2003).

In terms of costs, the unit costs comparison in Table 1 shows that the low level of HE participation demanded disproportionately high levels of public funding. At the cost

of educating one Papua New Guinean at the tertiary level more Papua New Guineans could be educated at all of the lower rungs of the education ladder.

Table 1: Average Unit Costs per subsector in 2001

Education Sub-sectors	Average cost per student in 2001	Number of students affordable per Tertiary student
Elementary	323	61
Primary	698	28.2
Secondary	1 875	10.5
Vocational	1 837	10.7
Technical	7 936	2.5
Distance	123	40.2
Tertiary	17 424	1

Note: Amounts are in PNG Kina (1 PNGK =AU\$ 0.454632); Source: Medium Term Development Strategy 2005-2010

These comparative costs would contribute to influencing the perception that social spending supporting a system that promoted elitism was not justified (Bray 1997). The perception would get further entrenched as PNG faced serious fiscal problems. The initial articulation of the shift in perception came from one of PNG's elder statesmen and incumbent Governor General, Sir Paulias Matane, who in the report named after him, the Matane Report, recommended in 1985 that the cost of higher education be the responsibility of those who benefited most from it, the individual consumer. The Matane Report went further in recommending that public funding be redirected from higher education to universal primary education (Office of Higher Education 2000b).

The prevalence of this view in politics was again demonstrated in 2005. Higher education was passed over as a priority expenditure area in the Somare government's *Medium Term Development Strategy 2005-2010* (MTDS) (Department of National Planning and Rural Development 2005). The MTDS reaffirmed the government's focus on basic education, or universal primary education as the preferred expenditure area in the education sector.

2.3.1 The Re-conceptualization of the University

The perception indicating a shift in attitude away from higher education marked a shift in the conceptualization of the university and its purpose for PNG. This would subsequently have implications on the culture of the universities including DWU. Sir Matane's views marked the beginning of a new discourse defining the university in PNG. They also marked a shift from the concept of higher education as a public service to the concept of education as serving private interests.

The reconceptualization of the university was further evident in the ambiguous public policies on higher education. At the same time as excluding higher education as the Somare government, voted in 2002 and reelected in 2007, excluded higher education from its priority expenditure area included in its MTDS, it continued to demand that higher education serve the interests of that state and society (Department of Education of Papua New Guinea 2001).

At the time of establishment of UPNG in 1965 the prevailing concept of the university was that it was an organization devoted to the service of the collective good of society. This collective good translated into the training of manpower and extended in the 1990s to include the democratic goal of education of shaping a responsible citizenry and the provision of relevant research and consultancy (Bray 1997; Lynch 1988). In this respect, UPNG was not unlike the sandstone universities of Australia. Universities such as the University of Sydney and University of Melbourne which were committed to serving a public good in contributing to nation-building (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000).

The reconceptualization of the university as an organization serving multiple and narrow interests was indicative of a shift that manifested itself in the steady decline in funding to the sector as is illustrated in Table 2. Overall funding to the HE sector declined 30 % in four years leading to 1996 (Office of Higher Education 2000b).

Table 2: Level of Government Funding of Public Higher Education Institutions from 1993-1996

Higher Education Sector	1993	1994	1995	1996
UPNG (4 campuses)	44.69	36.54	35.86	31.87
PNGUT (4 campuses)	24.17	24.60	24.83	25.99
9 Teachers' Colleges	3.18	3.70	3.26	2.87
6 Technical Education Colleges	4.85	1.51	4.97	4.78
9 Health Education Colleges	0.00	6.33	3.49	4.02
1 Fisheries Education College	0.72	1.07	0.70	0.04
1 Agriculture Education College	0.86	0.80	1.09	0.87
Total	78.47	74.55	74.21	70.88
Notes: 1. All values are in millions of PNG Kina (1m PNGK = AUD 454 631. 83 in 2006) Source: the national higher education policy and implementation strategy, 2000 volume 1				

However, the reduction in social spending in support of the HE sector has drawn robust criticism. Tagis (2003) and Patience (2005), a UPNG lecturer, highlighted that continued decreasing levels of public funding to the higher education sub-sector was impacting adversely on quality processes and institutional survival and capacities to keep up with increasing demand for higher education as a public service. Patience (2005) noted that MTDS had failed to deal substantially with the challenges facing higher education which were consequently resulting in a declining and non-performing university system that was depriving Papua New Guineans of any chance of receiving quality education. Ultimately, the averting of attention away from the HE sector was leading to the country's intellectual and administrative sovereignty being compromised (Patience 2005).

2.3.2 Higher Education Reforms

As a consequence, the reforms promoted earlier to make financially stressed institutions viable could not move forward due to financial constraints. This situation was further exacerbated by apathy from a government whose education priority had shifted away from universities and higher education.

Despite the growing robustness of the criticism, given the shortcomings of the system and shifting political attitude, demands for reforms of higher education at the system and organizational levels began in the 1970s and gained momentum in the 1980s and 1990s (Department of Education of Papua New Guinea 2001; Office of Higher

Education 2000b). A legal framework to facilitate reforms came with the passing of the Higher Education Act in 1983 which established the Commission for Higher Education (CHE). The CHE became the principal consultative and advisory body to government on matters pertaining to higher education (Bray 1997; Commission for Higher Education 1986). In 1986, the CHE submitted a plan outlining a strategy for the rationalization of the higher education sector in the five years from 1986 to 1990. The main objectives of the reforms as contained in the abstract of the submission were to tailor higher education to meet the manpower requirements of the country at the same time as maximizing savings through elimination of waste and duplication (Commission for Higher Education 1986).

In 2002, the Office of Higher Education (OHE), in another reform plan that was motivated by resource constraints, submitted a strategy aimed not only at increasing higher education access but also at making institutions financially viable and less dependent on the state (Office of Higher Education 2000b). One of its recommendations, which was in fact a reiteration of the 1986 rationalization objectives, was to streamline the sub-sector by bringing the current fragmentary system under a unitary and comprehensive national structure within a supportive legislative framework (Office of Higher Education 2000b). Under this plan, single program colleges embedded in separate government departments were to either affiliate or amalgamate with universities.

In setting the new direction for the universities, the OHE was responding to the changed funding patterns that were due in part to shifting views about higher education. As a means to alleviate the universities' dependence on the state, the body proposed a "relative funding model" based on agreed unit costs (Office of Higher Education 2000b). The model encouraged shared responsibility for the cost of provision as well as institutional initiative in attracting funding from non-government sources (Office of Higher Education 2000b). It was in fact a reiteration of the defining belief shaping the government's education policies when it stated that: "Those who directly benefit the most from higher education should contribute more to the high cost of sustaining and developing the current provision" (Office of Higher Education 2000b, p. 2).

Ironically, in going against the rationalization intent of these reforms, PNG witnessed an expansion in the number of universities (Table 3). In 1997 the number of universities had grown to six, four public and two private, one of which is DWU. In 2006, two more private universities were in the process of establishment, one sponsored by the Assemblies of God Church and the other by the Lutheran Church. Of the private universities only Pacific Adventist University's (PAU) and DWU have clearly stated missions. Whilst PAU aims primarily to serve the human resource needs of the churches which is its sponsor (Kemba 2005), DWU, like PAU, is not dependent on public funding for its operational activities, and exists to serve national social and development needs.

Table 3: PNG Universities

Institution	Year established as University	Sponsoring Agency	Academic Orientation
University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG)	1965	Public	Multi-discipline
PNG University of Technology	1967	Public	Applied sciences
University of Goroka evolved from Goroka Teachers' College	1997	Public	Education
University of Vudal evolved from Vudal Agriculture College	1997	Public	Agriculture
Adventist University , evolved from Adventist College	1997	Seventh Day Adventist Church	Business, Education, Health and Theology
Divine Word University evolved from Divine Word Institute	1996	Catholic Church	Limited range of disciplines Arts, Business, Journalism, Religious studies, Health, Education, Information Technology
Jubilee University <i>[There is still uncertainty about the legal status of this university.]²</i>	2005	Assemblies of God Church	Business
Lutheran University Approved by PNG Cabinet in 2006	2006	Lutheran Church	Theology, Education

2.4 The Establishment and Evolution of DWU

As stated earlier in the chapter, the institution that began as the SVD High School in 1966 made a transition to a tertiary education institution, DWI, in 1979. The transition was a reviving and a movement forward towards the fulfillment of the 1958 goal of SVD, to establish a university. The SVD in partnership with the SSpS, a

² One of PNG's daily newspapers, The National, reported on 26 February, 2007 that Jubilee University through its Counsel was seeking a declaratory order from the courts affirming the institution's legal status as a university accorded it through PNG's National Executive Council decision of 24 August, 2005.

congregation of nuns also founded by the SVD founder, Arnold Janssen, revisited the original plan to engage in tertiary education and undertook a feasibility study in 1977 to look into the possibility of moving into tertiary education provision (Divine Word University 2004). The study led to the drawing up of the Divine Word Institute (DWI) Charter, which became the DWU Charter (Appendix A). This document provided one level of legitimization setting out the institution's philosophical orientation. DWU's Philosophy reads in part:

The foundation of education at Divine Word University is a program of courses that develop human, social and religious values and help Divine Word University graduates become active in the development of PNG as one nation. DWU fosters a genuine Christian spirit, where people from all parts of PNG build up a harmonious unity as a true model for PNG society. DWU aims at full human development. Students from disadvantaged areas are recruited and encouraged to reach their potential.

DWU provides a religiously oriented and socially conscious environment. While becoming professionally competent, students are encouraged to examine the ethical aspects of their profession. Students grow in their Christian faith and awareness of their social responsibility towards the underprivileged (Divine Word University 2004, pp. 6, 7).

The establishment of the Charter began a phased cessation of the order's involvement in secondary education provision and entry into higher education delivery (Divine Word University 2004). The first programs were limited to diploma programs in Business Studies and in Communications. In 1980, Divine Word Institute was established by an Act of Parliament as an institution of higher learning. The first class of pioneer students graduated in 1982 (Sinclair 2005). With this authority, the institute expanded its academic base introducing programs in Diploma in Religious Studies (1984); Certificate in Christian Education (1986); Bachelor Degree in Accounting (1988); Certificate in Applied Communication (1989); Bachelor Degree in Development Communication (1990); and Diploma in Arts (Papua New Guinea Studies) in 1993.

2.4.1 The Transition from DWI to DWU

DWU emerged when the DWI reached a watershed moment. In 1995, continued support for DWI from the SVD in terms of manpower and funding looked tenuous in

part reflecting the changed circumstance of the organization. The SVD had fewer men than in the early days of the religious order's missionary work in its different areas of missionary commitment. Besides, the organization was ceasing many of its money-generating activities due to pressures from landowners demanding a return of land acquired during colonial times (Sinclair 2005). These resulted in a streamlining of the congregation's activities. According to Fr Jan Czuba, DWU's incumbent president, funding was so tenuous that he could not foresee where to secure funds to remunerate the staff let alone operate the rest of organization. Fr Jan said some members of his congregation expected him to "switch off the lights" and close the institution. Two factors still in DWU's favour were that it still had possession of adequate land under the remaining life of the lease and physical infrastructure. Rather than close the doors, in May 1996, Fr Jan developed a strategic plan which set the direction of the organization by launching a three-decades and three 10-year phase developmental plan for the institution's evolution (Figure 2). This move was not only indicative of the type of leadership that would shape the organization but also indicative of the type and orientation of DWU. Fr Jan has said of his leadership: *...the type of leadership and management I am using at this time of DWU's development is such that no student or staff...can stay still. We are developing everyday.*

DWU Plan – Three Decades

May 2016 – May 2026

Develop collaborative research, teaching and community service programs, and activities with other local as well as regional institutions of higher education, government, the public, NGO and corporate sector.



May 2006 – May 2016

The second decade will put the right conditions in place for DWU's sustainability in quality of research, teaching and community service



May 1996 – May 2006

To make the journey from high school culture into university culture and establish the foundation for introducing quality of education.

Figure 2. Czuba 2006: DWU's Thirty-year Strategic Plan

The same year on the 21 August, in the National Executive Council Decision No: 134/96, DWU was recognized as a partner university in the development of higher education in PNG (Divine Word University 2004). The contribution DWU is making to PNG's development is captured in the words of the president made in an email correspondence in 2005 in which he reflected on DWU's purpose:

I believe that what makes Divine Word University special, even unique, is that, that our search for academic and professional excellence is accompanied by a strong emphasis on Christian teaching. Consequently, all our graduates leave here with a commitment to a high standard of professional ethics, which we hope they will live by throughout their working lives. This is what I think development and progress are about.

2.4.2 DWU's Expansion

Spurred on by the vision, DWU expanded its course offerings. In 1998 DWU added diploma programs in Health Administration and in Tourism and Hospitality Management. It was the year that the OHE, the statutory body tasked to coordinate the higher education system and policies in consultation with the higher education institutions was established whose reforms objectives would drive DWU's expansion.

In 1999, degree programs were added in Communication Arts and Papua New Guinea Studies. These were followed in 2000 by the addition of diploma programs in Management and Human Resource Management offered in mix mode. In 2001, DWU moved into postgraduate training by offering a Masters degree in Educational Leadership also offered in mixed mode, and PhD courses (Divine Word University 2004).

In 2004, DWU expanded further with the amalgamation of three colleges affiliating with one other. With amalgamation, DWU shifted into an organization with geographically dispersed units (Divine Word University 2004). It was also a tangible indicator of its commitment to reforms in the HE sector. One of the drivers of the change was the national higher education reforms aimed at streamlining and raising quality of higher education provision. The attendant consequences of this expansion saw increases in the number of courses, departments and staff and students. It also saw the expansion of the academic structure with departments brought under the faculty structure and therefore, adding a new tier of administration. From a steady enrolment of just under 500 students in its institute days, DWU's enrolment increased over 100 per cent to 750 in full-time study and 450 in the distance education study out of its main Madang Campus. In addition on its St Benedict's Campus in Wewak, forty minutes away by plane, there are 350 students enrolled in full-time study and 300 in distance mode. In 2006 during the organization's 10th anniversary celebrations, the president said DWU student body stood at 2000. In 2007, DWU made known its plans to move into a regional university extending its reach into the Pacific Islands such as the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and Nauru (Elapa 2007).

In terms of resources, DWU has tapped into aid and volunteer organizations to secure resources in terms of both human resources and funding. The number of academic staff increased threefold in 2004 as three colleges merged with DWU. With help from international donors such as AusAID and EU, DWU has built key pieces of teaching and learning physical infrastructure such as lecture theatres and the library. Dilapidated buildings have been renovated. The campus surroundings have been given major face-lifts with roads tiled and grounds given landscape attention as is shown in the picture in Figure 3.



Figure 3: DWU's Madang campus Surroundings: Photograph: L. Salonda, 2006

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the factors that contributed to the establishment and change of the university in PNG and in particular DWU were outlined. DWU was established as the historical, political, social and economic factors would intersect with religious belief. These factors have contributed to the shaping of DWU's decision-making model and HR processes. In the literature review chapter that follows, existing literature on university, its model of governance and HR processes and factors that inform and justify them are examined.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

Management of an institution, whether a business, a university, a hospital, has to be grounded in basic and predictable trends that persist regardless of today's headlines (Drucker 2002, p. xiii)

3.1 Overview

The university organization serves society's higher education function, a function that contributes to the integration and functioning of the modern society. In its governance structure and internal integrative processes including HR or staffing practices, the university is informed and justified by deeply held socially defined beliefs and values of institutional autonomy, academic freedom and security of tenure. In the post-industrial society of the late 20th and early 21st centuries, these beliefs and values that constituted the university's culture have shifted to the extent that they are undermined by revolutionary societal change. As the culture is contested, the new values and beliefs are permeating and reshaping the university's practices and are manifested in changing patterns of decision-making and changing HR or staffing policies and processes.

The literature reviewed in this chapter reflects the trend in HE generally and university culture more specifically, where even with increasing research in the field, practice is moving ahead of research (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000; Tight 2004; Wisniewski 2000). In the chapter, the changing concept and purpose of the university as well as the subsequent changes at the level of organizational practice are presented. Also in the chapter, the external factors driving these changes are presented. In the first section, concepts pertinent to this study are defined. These include the concept of mission, the concept of service and the concept of culture. In the second section, university culture is defined and how its values and beliefs translate at the level of organizational practice is discussed. In the third section, the discussion focuses on the collegial university model and its professional service variant. In particular, the collegial university's defining functions and validating ideology, its structure in terms of its governance model and HR practices are outlined. The next section of the

chapter discusses one of the main and current themes of university culture change. It presents the social, economic and political forces that have led to the changing nature of higher education worldwide. In the last section of the chapter, the changing model of the university and the consequence of the changes on the university's goals, governance pattern and HR processes are discussed. Throughout the review of the literature in this chapter, particular reference is made to DWU's practices.

3.2 Defining the Key Concepts

The concepts of mission, service and culture are associated with organizational analysis and therefore are pertinent to this study.

3.2.1 The Concept of Mission

In his analysis of the changing missions of the university Scott (2006, p. 1) defines the concept of mission as "the life force of any enterprise". Fenske (1990), as referred to by Scott (2006), treats mission as a management concept that is often unstated but one which contains the collective and aspirational goals that the public or society hopes an organization meets. Though mission may have an external purpose in expressing the hopes of the public, it nevertheless serves as a focal point guiding a range of internal organizational purposes which include providing a clear sense of purpose; facilitating decision-making; enhancing communication between and among internal and external stakeholders; aiding institutional evaluation and measurement; as well as clarifying marketing strategies (Peeke 1994).

Scott (2006, p. 3) also argues that, as far as the university is concerned, its missions are not only multiple and multilayered, they are also "dynamic and fluid". Over eight centuries of the organization's existence since its rise in medieval Europe, new missions have been added to these three and their emphases change in tandem with periodic revolutionary societal change (Scott, CJ 2006). Of the multiple missions, the fundamental and traditional three are teaching, research and public service. Even within the new entrepreneurial universities, they remain the most important missions

of the university (Lazzeroni & Piccaluga 2003). In all, Scott (2006) identifies six different missions of the university. These include from the earliest medieval to the most contemporary post-modern missions: teaching, research, public service, democratization and internationalization. The medieval university's mission was primarily the teaching of divine truths (Scott, CJ 2006). The modern university, an institution of modern society was shaped by ideals rooted in secular humanism and tailored to teach empirical or scientific knowledge (Perkin 1991; Scott, CJ 2006). In shaping this model, the interplay between teaching and research was institutionalized in the German University of Berlin (Perkin 1991). The American variant of the model university was oriented to the public service and democratic missions. These missions indicate that the modern university was established to serve the interests of the nation state (Perkin 1991; Scott, CJ 2006).

In the 21st century, the nation state has given way to the postmodern society, a society constituted by multinational groupings such as the European (EU), the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), and transnational corporations. In responding to the knowledge demands of the new globalized society, a new mission has been added, the mission of internationalization (Scott, CJ 2006). Lazzeroni and Piccaluga (2003) identify four missions which are evocative of the new entrepreneurial model of the university. The new university they describe as being at the same time a “knowledge factory”, “a human capital factory”, “a technology transfer factory” and a “territorial development factory” (Lazzeroni & Piccaluga 2003, p. 40).

As for the universities in PNG, the first university, UPNG, was established as a state institution and therefore, was very much an organization with public service missions in mind (Meek 1982). Originally, the mission of teaching aimed to train government elite in technical skills that were necessary for the functioning of the state bureaucracy (Bray 1997; Meek 1982). This mission would later expand to include research and public service and the democratization, that is, the mission of preparing students for democratic participation (Bray 1997).

The number of universities in PNG has increased to six, with two more in the process of being established. Of these, DWU as the focus of this case study, like universities elsewhere was established to provide a higher education service in the interest of the state and people through its missions of teaching, research and public or community service, missions that are stated in its Charter (Appendix A). However, despite its public service mission purpose, DWU's differs from other state institutions in that its establishment was not an initiative of the state. Rather, it was established by religious orders of the Catholic Church.

3.2.2 The Concept of Service

Like the concept of mission, the concept of service is inherent to the existence of the university (Scott, CJ 2006). However, other than linking service to the various knowledge-based missions or functions of the university, Scott does not provide a working definition of the concept. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Wehmeier 2000), service refers to the provision of something, such as education, health or product to the public by a state or a business organization. This definition provides the basis for Scott's (2006, p. 3) additional argument in his analysis of the university missions that:

All universities were and are social organizations designed to provide higher educational services such as teaching, research and a host of other academic services to the church, government, individuals, public, and in the future perhaps the world.

DWU's engagement with the delivery of educational services in the interest of the church, state and the general public makes it a university like other universities. However, unlike other universities, service acquires an added layer of significance in the context of DWU. Here, the concept of service is also linked to a motivation or an impetus rooted in religious belief that propels someone or organization to engage in service provision for the good of others and at some personal cost. This concept of service is associated with both religion and philosophy and has its basis in moral values which compel people to act in the interest of others without expectation of reward or positive reinforcement (Karra, Tracey & Phillips 2006). In the context of

the Roman Catholic Church, Burke (2005) explains that the concept of service derives its meaning from the seven “corporeal works of mercy” which are based on Jesus Christ’s teaching that acts of charity demonstrated towards those in need is charity rendered to Him. These acts of mercy or charity are a command for believers to feed the hungry, to give drink to those who are thirsty, to clothe the naked, to shelter the homeless, to visit the sick, to save the prisoner and to bury the dead (New Advent 2006).

The religious faith-based concept of service has significance for DWU, as it is a tangible manifestation of the belief in service to the less fortunate. Its establishment stemmed from the missionary convictions and traditions of its founders who are members of two religious orders of the Catholic Church rather than political motivations. Despite this, the missionary orders also had service to PNG in mind.

In DWU, the missionary concept of service intersects with the knowledge based concept of service. The outcome is a broader definition of service embraces both concepts. Fr Czuba (2005), the president of DWU since 1996, illustrates what service means to DWU in one of his letters to the staff. He defines service as “community service”, which

includes...commercial and non-commercial activities and programs, offered by members of the University, which involve interaction with individuals, groups and institutions internal and external to the university at the local, regional, state, national levels. Community service can take the form of intellectual, educational, cultural, scientific, religious and other services, and contributes to social progress, economic growth, spiritual or cultural development of individual, groups, institutions, or the community as a whole.

3.2.3 The Concept of Culture

Besides the concepts of mission and service, the concept of culture is also central to the analysis of organizational behaviour. Culture is an “organizing concept” (Zaharlick 1992, p. 117) that applies to any size social unit “that has had the opportunity to learn and stabilize its view of itself and the environment around it...” (Schein 1985, p. 8) such as a company, university, or a professional group. Since the

19th century, culture has been a key concept that has made it possible for sociologists and anthropologists to “theoretically conceptualize diversity” in their disciplines and sub-disciplines such as educational anthropology (Gonzales 1999, p. 432). Beginning in the 1980s, the concept has been adopted by organizational researchers (Lewis 1996; Smircich 1983).

Culture “allows people to see and understand particular events, actions, objectives, utterances, or situations in distinctive ways”(Morgan 1997, p. 137). It contributes to the integration of an organization and helps focus attention on the pursuit of its missions or goals (Deal & Kennedy 1982). In the organizational field, culture provides the ingredients on which organizational success depends (Deal & Kennedy 1982).

Definitions of culture vary ranging from the most general to the more specific. General definitions of culture include culture as a “clearly bounded and determined, internally coherent and uniformly meaningful” way of living (Eisenhart 1999, p. 462); culture as “the acquired knowledge people use to interpret experience and generate behaviour” (Spradley 1980, p. 6); or culture, as sociologist Becker suggests, is that which enables people to act together (cf. Bogdan & Biklen 1998, p. 28); and culture as the “expressive social fabric” that constitutes shared beliefs, ideologies, values or dogma that give meaning and compel individuals to action (Dill 1982, p. 307).

The earliest detailed definitions of culture are dichotomous. On the one hand, culture is viewed as intangible and unquantifiable symbols of shared meanings and basic assumptions, values ideologies dogma and norms that are non-negotiable (Dill 1982; Lewis 1996; Schein 2004; Shelley 1998). This view of culture sees culture as a “root metaphor” and something the organization simply is (Smircich 1983). On the other hand, culture is viewed as a critical organizational variable an organization “has” that is constituted by tangible and quantifiable forms or artifacts (Lewis 1996; Smircich 1983). This concept of culture is associated with business organizations and is often seen as a mechanism of control at the disposal of managers who seek to purposively shape in concrete terms organizational participant behaviour and attitudes to serve the purpose of management (Deal & Kennedy 1982; Smircich 1983).

The definition of culture that informs this study views culture as both a mixture of that which is observable (artifacts) and the non-observable meanings or basic assumptions. According to Lewis (1996) most researchers adopt the definition of culture with scope to accommodate both form and meaning. Wisniewski (2000) goes further to promote that any definition of academic culture takes this broadest definition of culture.

One organizational researcher who takes a more encompassing view of culture is Schein (1985; 2004) who defines culture as deeply embedded system of meaning, which he terms as a pattern of basic assumptions, and values and the more tangible and observable behavior or symbolic devices such as myths and rituals and discourse (Smircich 1983).

Lewis (1996) goes so far as to suggest that organizational culture researchers not only define but also consider the process of culture creation and establishment and transmission. Schein's (1985, p. 9) formal definition of culture is not only broad, it also incorporates culture creation and transmission processes:

A pattern of basic assumptions—invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration—that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems.

This definition establishes that culture is the end product of a process which involves inventing, discovering and developing the basic assumptions of a group that over time come to constitute the deeply embedded basic assumptions of its culture. Morgan (1997, p. 137) describes the process of culture creation and embedding as “a process of reality construction that allows people to see and understand particular events, actions, objectives, utterances, or situations in distinctive ways.”

Organizations differ in their cultures as they respond to different imperatives in the environment (Deal & Kennedy 1982). One of the theories explaining why organizational culture differs between different types of organizations is resource contingent theory (Hall & Tolbert 2005). Resource contingent theory advances that the external relationships and internal stability of organizations that depend on the

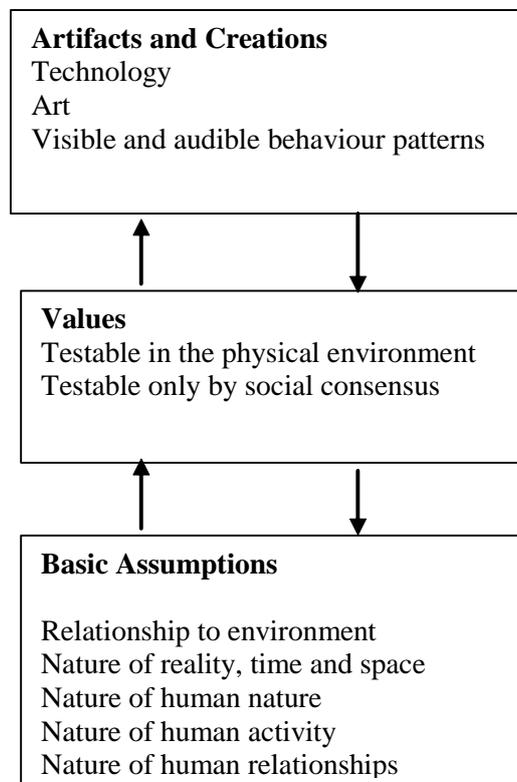
market for success are influenced by the state of resources in the environment (Deal & Kennedy 1982). However, as the market is in constant flux, the values of these organizations are more predisposed to change (Zucker 1987).

The culture of organizations such as the university was originally shaped by pressures from established organizations in the field to conform to values, ideals, or ideologies that are institutionalized and accepted within an organizational field as legitimate (Hall & Tolbert 2005; Meyer & Rowan 1977; Scott, WR 1987). These dictated behaviour across the organizational field. Institutional theory advances that such organizations behave in ways that are in conformity with deeply embedded basic assumptions which are values drivers as opposed to market imperatives.

Levels of Organizational Culture

Schein (1985) takes the concept of culture further by segmenting culture into three levels, as is illustrated in Figure 4. The concept differentiates between surface level activities, multiple values of subgroups within an organization which are often included in definitions of organizational culture, and basic assumptions that operate at the deepest sub-surface level. The first of the three levels of culture is the surface level of artifacts and creations. This is the “constructed physical and social environment” within which are such things as the look of the physical space, technological output, written and spoken language and visible behaviour patterns of organizational members (Schein 1985, p. 14). It is the most visible level, yet the artifacts and creations are linked to the deeper level values or basic assumptions that are not always decipherable. The second level of culture is the first of the two sub-surface levels of culture. It is constituted by values which may not always be shared. At this level, there is a greater awareness of the values that motivate and justify action or behaviour. The third level of culture is the deeper sub-surface level of basic assumptions or beliefs. They are what Schein advances as constituting the core cultural drivers of an organization’s manifest behaviour. They are an organization’s culture and are shared values that have become embedded and operate at an unconscious level (Schein 1985).

Three Levels of Organizational Culture



Levels of Awareness

Visible but often not decipherable



Greater level of awareness



Taken for granted
Invisible
Preconscious

Figure 4. Source: Adapted from Schein 1985, p. 14

3.3 Defining University Culture

University culture is a distinct type of organizational culture whose values and beliefs and basic assumptions are held in common by all universities (Dill 1982). Kuh and Whitt's (cited in Birnbaum 1992, pp. 8,10) definition of university culture below applies to universities at the level of the collective university field. University culture they define as:

A collective mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide behaviour of individuals and groups...and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus.

In figure 5, Schien’s concept of organizational culture is adapted to illustrate the culture of the university and the particular elements of the culture that constitute each of the three levels of culture.

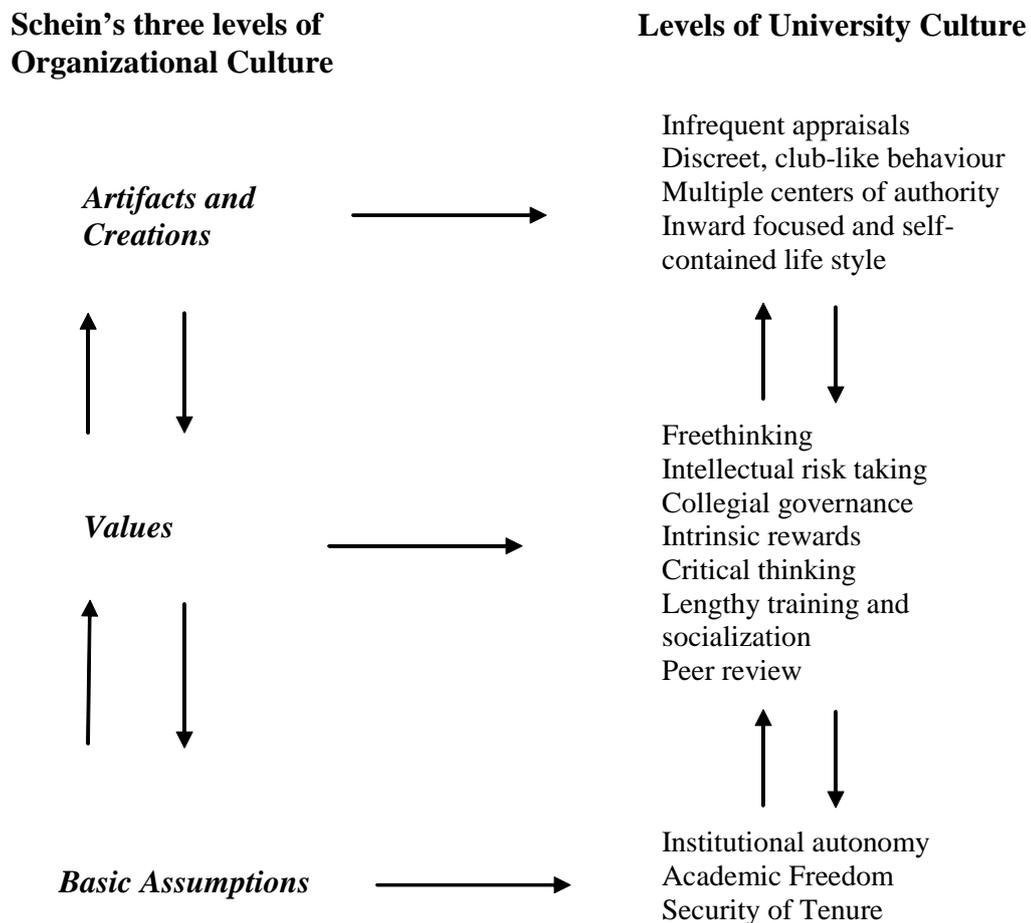


Figure 5. Salonda 2007: Adapted from Schein's three levels of Collegial University Culture Culture

The figure shows how the university’s basic assumptions shape values and permeate up the organization to influence behaviour that is manifested at the enterprise or organizational level, at the academic profession level and at the level of the academic discipline (Clark 1981 cited in Dill 1982). At the organizational level, Bowen (2001) and Shelley (2001) write that the guarantee of autonomy secured reliable state support of the organization. This security contributed to the development on an organization characterized by norms of freethinking, intellectual risk taking, critical thinking, debate and intellectual experimentation, as well as flexibility and intrinsic job

satisfaction. These values and norms have defined the university as sacrosanct making it resilient and resistant to change (Bloom 1987; Hancock & Tyler 2001; Perkin 1991). At the level of the profession, any threat to curtail professional practice would suggest a contradiction of the mission of the university to advance knowledge and ideas (Bloom 1987). Such limitations would subsequently threaten the stability and progress of society (Bloom 1987). The prospect of harm to society allowed the academic professional to set his/her own values and pursue knowledge according to the inner dictates of science (Bloom 1987). Academic freedom also made it possible for the academic profession to evolve a life style that was self-contained and inward-looking (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Spiro 2003). It would also over time construct an image of a profession displaying behaviour associated with exclusive clubs where members felt they were above the common folk and therefore were expected to be discrete in behaviour (Wisniewski 2000).

In more recent times, however, the public image of academic insularity has led to the concept of academic freedom slipping in meaning to suggest something close to “sovereignty or isolationism” (Segrera 2004, p. 3). Thus, it attracts cynical charges that academic freedom is but a cover under which individual academics pursue their self-interests rather than serving the public service missions (Altbach 1995; Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Marginson, S. 2006).

The process of creating and embedding the values and basic assumptions that constitute university culture reach as far back in history as the medieval Europe (Perkin 1991; Wieruszowski 1966). The modern 19th century reiteration of the university’s basic assumptions is credited to Humboldt, the founder of Berlin University (Perkin 1991). Perkin (1991, pp. 185-186) writes that Humboldt saw the university as “the moral soul of society and source of national culture and survival” and argued that the highest form of knowledge could only be assured under conditions that permitted absolute freedom of teaching. In this belief, Humboldt articulated what became the university’s key basic assumptions or principal beliefs of institutional and academic autonomy and security of tenure (Perkin 1991). These beliefs established the “tacit contract” and “paradoxical” relationship between the university and the state under which the secular state was committed to providing material support and defending academic freedom from the most dangerous threat, the state itself whilst

guaranteeing protection of the academic profession from the harsh logic of the market (Perkin 1991; Spiro 2003). In return, the institution, and by extension the academic profession, were committed to the service of society by pursuing the various knowledge-centered missions. These have over the centuries guided the university's practices worldwide, including PNG.

3.4 The Organization of work in a Collegial University

In organizational analysis, the university that is grounded in cultural assumptions and values as defined in Figure 1, is often referred to as the collegial model of university (Bowen 2001; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; McNay 1995; Raelin, JA 1991). Universities that epitomize the collegial model are the British Oxbridge group of universities which include Oxford and Cambridge (Coaldrake, Peter, Stedman & Little 2003). The “professional service” model is one variant of the collegial university, which is a shift not in terms of beliefs and values but in terms of its external public service orientation. This model, which served as the model for the first university in PNG, UPNG, was a creation of the modern industrial society after its own image to meet the education needs of the new industrializing society characterized by a new economy and expanding state bureaucracies (Perkin 1991). The modern university's main purpose or mission was to train a wide range of leaders for industry, commerce, finance, and growing state bureaucracies; and also train professionals who were engineers, accountants, social administrators and educators (Perkin 1991). These demands began, as Perkin (1991, p. 199) describes, to trigger an “unprecedented expansion of higher education” marked by mass access, a trend which would continue into the new millennium.

The “profession service” model was itself a shift from the “pure collegial” university, a model whose culture was shaped by the social tensions of pre-industrial Europe (Scott, CJ 2006; Wieruszowski 1966). Although, the “professional service” model was a departure from the collegial model in terms of its external outlook, it nevertheless remained faithful to its core beliefs or basic assumptions of institutional autonomy, academic freedom and security of tenure. The “pure collegial” model met the demand of training the upper classes in manners and political awareness rather

than intellectual improvement (Perkin 1991). Access was elitist, and it served to train members of the ruling classes and religious supporters to serve state and Church bureaucracies as members of the clergy, lawyers and doctors (Perkin 1991; Scott, CJ 2006). The “professional service” model served the advanced knowledge function, a function that translated into the objectives of “the production of new knowledge, the conservation, critical testing and refinement of existing knowledge and the development of knowledgeable understanding in students, and transforming them into professionals and citizens” (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999, p. 17).

In the context of this study, the “professional service” model of the university, in terms of its objectives, served as the model for the university in PNG, a nation created as a consequence of European colonialism (Meek 1982). The expectations of society from the university in PNG were similar to the expectations that confronted the western university during industrialization, a period which increased demands for trained professionals. But the need for professionals in PNG was driven primarily by demands for the function of state bureaucracy to drive nation building (Meek 1982). The professional training mission would be extended later to include the mission of educating for democratic citizenship (Bray 1997).

3.4.1 The Collegial University Structure

Culture affects all aspects of organizational life including how it is structured (Deal & Kennedy 1982). Structure constitutes work divisions, a hierarchy of social and functional positions, and degree of formalized processes and procedures in place to coordinate and control work and participants (Hall & Tolbert 2005). It serves to minimize individual variance and regularize behaviour and allows for power to be exercised and decisions made (Hall & Tolbert 2005). Structure, or the way organizations organize work and manage people for the pursuit of goals, vary in form in terms of their complexity that is, the level of their vertical or horizontal differentiation, and in terms of the degree of formalization and in the degree of centralization of authority (Hall & Tolbert 2005). They also vary from one type of organization to the other, differences reflective of differences in the goals pursued

(Buchanan & Huczynski 1985). Based on this definition, the structural arrangement of the collegial university was tailored to serve the organization's specific goals.

The purpose of the university subsequently informs not only the decision-making structure but also its HR processes. The work arrangements and relationships between participants within a collegial university differ necessarily from the decision-making structure and HR processes associated with business sector organizations and state bureaucracies (Dill 1982; McKelvie 1986). The collegial university's model of organizing work and the basis of its relationship to its key participants, the academics, are justified by a commitment to values illustrated in Figure 5. Organizations that are values-driven, such as the university, are "value rational" as opposed to market-rational (Satow 1975, p. 527).

3.4.2 Defining Collegial Model of Decision-making

The collegial university's decision-making structure has been described as "loosely coupled", or a "flat hierarchy" in contrast to the "tall hierarchy" of command and control that is characteristic of market-based business organizations and state bureaucracies (Buchanan & Huczynski 1985; Dill 1982; Satow 1975; Weick 1976). McNay (1995, p. 105) sees the collegial university's decision-making model as one characterized by "a relative lack of coordination; a relative absence of regulations; little linkage between the concerns of senior staff as managers and those involved in the key processes of teaching and learning; a lack of congruence between the functional structure and activity; differences in methods, aims and even missions among different departments; little lateral interdependence among departments; infrequent inspections and the 'invisibility' of much that happens". Cohen and March (1974, p. 2) use the imagery of the "garbage-can" and "organized anarchy" to describe the defused structure and processes of decision-making characteristic of the university. Moses (1988, p. 129) writes that the oxymoron "organized anarchy" has become an accepted metaphor of university structure. Not only is it graphic but it suggests...

... the fluidity of the system which is implied in this term and the stress on the only partly hierarchical, on the largely non-rationally derived, forms of decision-making reflecting the reality of universities as experienced by participants.

What the imagery portrays is the model of decision-making that Middlehurst (1995) elaborates as one that is defused rather than centralized and is based on collegiality and collaboration, consensus decision-making centered around committees and boards. These defused and multiple centers of authority of decision-making makes the university, as Clark (1977, p. 73 cited in Moses, I. 1988) describes, a “bottom heavy” organization. Moreover, these characteristics make the university both “unique” and “distinct” (Moses, I. 1988, p. 127). Satow (1975) defines such organizations as “value rational” organizations constituted by profession who profess commitment to an ideology.

3.4.3 Collegial University’s HR Practices and Processes

Organizational analysts state that besides the basic authority structure, organizations including the university also have operating mechanisms that reinforce the structure by informing organization participants of expectations as well as motivating them (Buchanan & Huczynski 1985). Some of these mechanisms serve to manage people and translate into HR practices and processes. In the context of this study, the operating mechanisms are shaped also by the values and beliefs that inform the other practices of an organization.

Recruitment and Selection

As with the private sector organizations, the recruitment and selection function within the university also serves to secure and align appropriately qualified people for the performance of organizational work that contributes to the achievement of its goals (Bolman & Deal 2003). But, like other activities and behaviour of the organization, this HR function is also shaped by the university’s basic assumptions and values.

The nature of knowledge work means that the recruitment and selection serves universities, including DWU, to induce, recruit and retain appropriately qualified academics. University work is centered on the knowledge creation through research; its communication through teaching and its application through public service in multiple disciplines (Moses, I. 1988). Yet, academics constitute a complex profession (Cohen & March 1974; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994) amongst which are researchers conducting basic, applied and contract research within diverse disciplines as well as being culturally diverse (Bartell 2003). In spite of its complexity, the centrality of the academic professionals to the university is why Altbach (1991) and Slaughter and Leslie (1997, p. 1) place them at the “heart” of the organization and view their work as the “essence” of the university.

In terms of qualification levels, except for applied vocationally oriented disciplines, a doctorate degree or PhD is obligatory for entry into the profession (Becher 1989). Acquisition of the qualification involves a lengthy period of training during which candidates are socialized in the professional and disciplinary cultures and associated values, beliefs and assumptions about work (Altbach 1989; Bogler & Kremer-Hayon 1999; Raelin, AJ 1986; Vasutova 1998). Recruitment for advanced knowledge work therefore seeks to secure academic professionals in the various specializations for the performance of these functions. Their stature amongst peers reflects the standing of their organization amongst other universities. Drucker (2002, p. 125) underlines the link between academics’ profile and the standing of their organization stating that:

What makes a university a great university is that it attracts and (above all) develops outstanding teachers and scholars and makes it possible for them to do outstanding teaching and research.

Nevertheless, the assumptions about the academic profession are western-centered. For university such as DWU, as its qualifications profile of staff (Table 5) shows, PhD holders are a minority amongst the staff.

Reward, Motivation and Organizational Commitment

The reward and motivation serve to entice people not only to join the organization, but once recruited to commit long term to the organization (Hughes 2006). Research shows that academics are self or intrinsically motivated and are likely to remain with an organization even when they might be dissatisfied with the extrinsic elements of their work such as salaries and fringe benefits (Lacy & Sheehan 1997; Moses, Ingrid 1986; Pearson & Seiler 1983). The primary intrinsic motivators are associated with autonomy over content and are related to functions of research, teaching and professional service (Pearson & Seiler 1983). The promise of intrinsic rewards such as professional privilege or academic freedom and tenure contribute to influencing potential academics to join the profession or a university organization (Becher 1989).

Ward (1998) sees career advancement through promotion and the eventual achievement of tenure as rewards that demonstrate the success of a university in the performance of its tripartite functions of teaching, research and service. These functions are, however, not equally weighted in reward structures and differences in emphasis between them signal institutional values (Ward 1998). Thus, an organization with a research emphasis will value research over teaching as such, staff will be inclined to devote more time in research activity. By the same token, a university that values service over teaching and research will reflect this priority in its reward structures, subsequently, influencing staff to channel more time into either service at the expense of teaching and research (Ward 1998). However, Beiber and Lawrence (1992) found that amongst the US academics, the experience was that the primary criteria for promotion to full professor rank was research performance based and that the multiple criteria based promotion for full professorship belonged to past practice. The privileging of research as the key validation of academic work influences academics to channel more time into research activity and treat management and administration work with disdain and to consider teaching as low priority (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Shelley 1998).

University Staff Development

Staff development within the university context is a developing area of research (Akerlind 2005; Sparks & Bradley 1991). The increasing interest in staff development on university campuses reflects the changing nature of academic work in the context of the political, economic and social change (Sparks & Bradley 1991). In the Australian context, for instance, demands for staff development increased as reforms created a single higher education sector, as vocational faculties and courses increased and as new technologies and new performance evaluation processes were introduced (Sparks & Bradley 1991). But, staff development is an HR function associated with public or private sector organizations which serves to align work expectations with people's skills and competencies (Kearney 1978; Keel 2006b). These organizations aim to find an optimal fit between the two enhancing both individual performance and career advancement prospects and advances an organization's prospects of achieving its goals (Keel 2006b). Training plays a part in determining the performance outcomes not only at the level of the job but also at the level of the organization (Kearney 1978).

Under the collegial model of university, however, staff development was considered redundant (Akerlind 2005). The assumptions on which this view was based were that research skills were acquired prior to appointment in the course of post-graduate training and post-doctorate research; that committee work and administration competencies were acquired through experience on the job; and that teaching competencies did not figure as necessary for job performance (Akerlind 2005).

3.5 Collegial University Change

University change constitutes one significant strand of current literature on the university (Middlehurst 1995). This strand of literature defines the scope of the change, its drivers and the impact it has on not only the nature of the organization but also on the nature of work and the academic profession. The scope of university change is global, large scale and one that is set to continue to accelerate into the future (Lazzeroni & Piccaluga 2003; Middlehurst 1995). The process of large scale

organizational change began in both England and the United States as early as the 1950s increasing in momentum in the 1960s (Beiber & Lawrence 1992). The British higher education system underwent a period of rapid and large scale change from the 1960s to 1990s (Middlehurst 1995; Wagner 1995). Universities in Australia, New Zealand and Canada also experienced similar change in the 1980s (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Dunkin 2003; McInnis 1998; Winter, R. & Sarros 2002; Yielder & Codling 2004). University change is also observed in the Italian context (Lazzeroni & Piccaluga 2003).

Change is also observed in the developing world context (Adenso-Diaz & Canteli 2001; Fako 2004; Ssesanga & Garrett 2005; Suwanwela 2004). In the context of PNG, university change is evident in public commentary and political policy documents (Commission for Higher Education 1986; Department of Education of Papua New Guinea 2001; Office of Higher Education 2000a;2000b; Ogio 2007; Patience 2005; Puton 2004). These indicate that the university in PNG is also confronting change that resembles the kind of change that is redefining the organization in the west. PNG's reform initiatives of the 1980s and 1990s aimed to link higher education to PNG's economic and social development, but within a changed funding model and within revamped organizational structures that were to resemble those of business organizations (Arimoto 2004; Office of Higher Education 2000a; Ogio 2007; Patience 2005; Puton 2004). Change is also observed on university campuses in other developing world contexts. For example Fako's (2004) research on the University of Botswana, Africa; Charafeddine's (2004) research on the University of Labanon in the Middle East; Segrera's (2004) and Torres and Schugurensy's (2002) research on HE trends in Latin American; and Suwanwella's analysis of university change in Thailand (Suwanwela 2004) speak of the global reach of university change.

3.5.1 Forces Driving Modern University Change

The forces driving university remodeling emanate externally from social, political and economic shifts in society (Altbach 1995; Rosenzweig 1999; Scott, WR 1992). These forces of societal change are described as “hyperturbulant”, “hyper-accelerating” and

“systemic and evolutionary” (Waddell, Cummings & Worley 2000, p. 432).

University analysts identify a number of factors driving the change that is affecting a cultural change within the organizational field.

3.5.2 The Modernization Trend

Arimoto (2004) identifies one of these external forces driving university change, a force he refers to as a new modernization trend. This trend encompasses the many facets of the economy and translates into a process that is remolding the economy, redefining work and changing the face of labour (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 2002; Perkin 1991). Arimoto (2004) illustrates, as shown in Figure 6, that the process of modernization is further driving changes that are redefining the university’s missions. Not only is the modernization trend redefining the relationship between the state and the university but also redefining the functions and objectives of advanced knowledge in society.

Arimoto illustrates that the function of knowledge has shifted from the knowledge function it served in the Knowledge-based Society 1 (KBS1), the industrial society; to the function it serves in the Knowledge-based Society 2 (KBS2), the Information or “Next Society” (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 2002; Evan 2000).

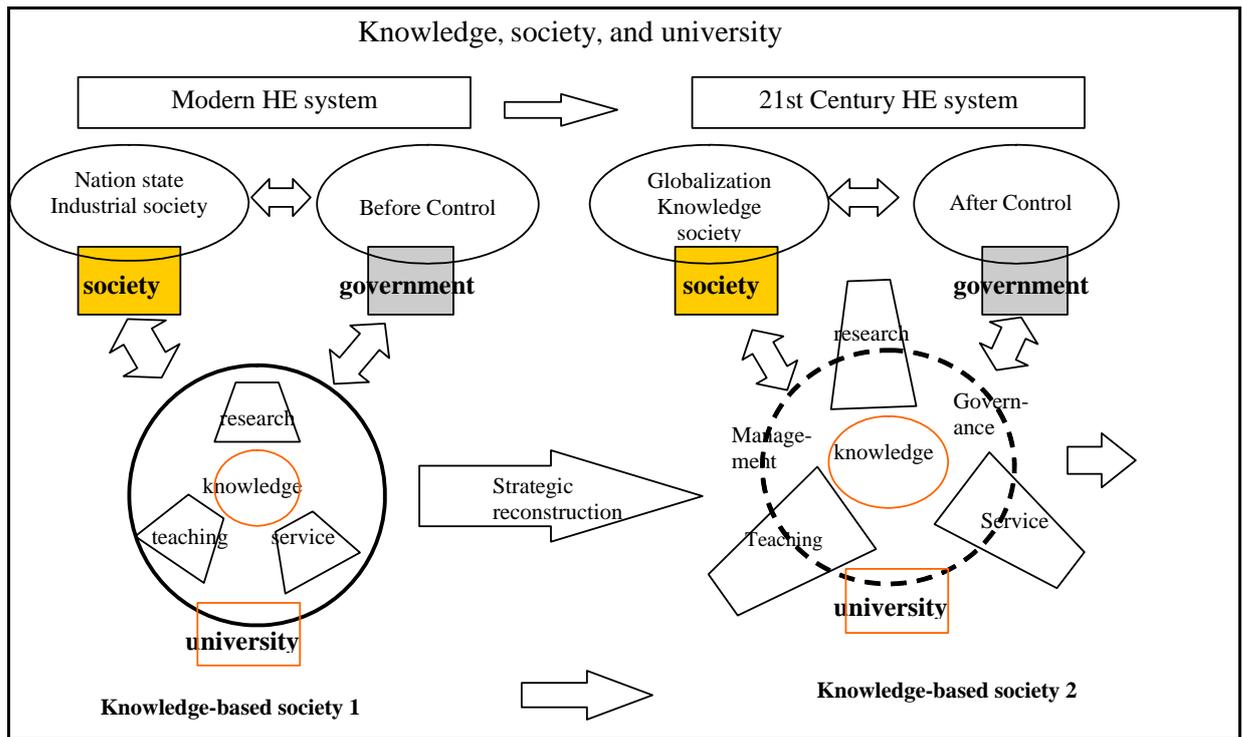


Figure 6. Arimoto 2004, p. 4: Knowledge, society, and university

The knowledge function that the university served in the modern industrial society took form with the invention of the steam engine in the late 1800s which ushered in the modern industrial society. Mechanized manufacturing created the factory work and worker and subsequently shifted the locus of economic activity from the family unit to the nation state (Drucker 2002). In this KBS1 dominated by the industrial-mechanical model of production, the university in its professional service orientation played a central role in knowledge production (Arimoto 2004). Under conditions of corporate autonomy and academic freedom and security of tenure, the state or government intervention of university work and practices was barred and yet the state was responsible for securing a flow of resources to the organization (Perkin 1991).

This model of relationship between the state and university became the model which informed the relationship between UPNG, the first university in PNG, and the state of PNG. From its establishment in 1965, the university in PNG assumed the central role in knowledge production, on which state development was dependent. Today, more universities, including DWU, are contributing to national development in increasing access to higher education by Papua New Guineans.

The Nature of Work and Patterns of Organizing Work in KBS2

A second revolutionary invention propelled the modernization trend further forward and contributed to redefining knowledge and the place of the university in society. This had significant implications for the culture of the organization. The invention was the computer in the 1940s nearly 200 years after the invention of the steam engine which first transformed society and set off the modernization trend (Drucker 2002). The computer triggered the information revolution that not only further transformed society; it also further redefined the purpose of advance knowledge and the place and purpose of the university in society.

The transformation of society was evident in different spheres of activity. At the social structure level, the computer affected a societal transition from the modern industrial society, KBS1, to the post-industrial society, KBS2, also variously referred to as the Information/Knowledge Society, or “Next Society” (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 2002). The shift was further evident in the expansion of the basic locus of economic and social life from the modern nation-state to either multi-national regional groupings or even to the extent of a global supra-structure (Djelic & Quack 2003; Giddens 1998).

In the economic arena, as society and the workplace have become more knowledge-dependent thereby embedding knowledge in society at large, knowledge has become the new driver of the economy, its “true capital and the premier wealth-producing resource” (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 1989, p. 232;2002). The embedding of knowledge within the broader society has implications for the university. It contests the status of the university as the sole provider of advance education and in so doing challenges the control the university exercises over knowledge production and application in the KBS1 (Arimoto 2004). Kogan, Moses and El-Khawas (1994) and McInnis (1998) go so far as to suggest that, in light of these changes, a new higher education mandate and boundaries ought to be re-negotiated.

In the context of work, the routinization of processes made possible by computer information and digital technologies not only redefined the nature of work, it also changed the face of labour (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 1989). Arimoto (2004)

characterizes the new work setting as one where complex machine power had replaced muscle power and one that was governed by the micro-chip, robotics and automatic self-regulating machines. As the work became more knowledge dependent, it demanded a more knowledgeable worker, a worker with specialized literacy, mathematical and technical competencies as well as generic transferable skills (Burkart 1991; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994).

In terms of the organization of work and the management of people within the work organization, as the worker has become more knowledgeable, the model of organizing work and the management of people in the workplace has witnessed a subsequent shift. It has moved away from one where a small group of professional managers would control and coordinate a workforce constituted by a large numbers of blue-collar workers with little or no education to one tailored to meet the needs of a workforce that was predominately knowledge-based (Arimoto 2004; Drucker 1989). The factory-floor workplace model of industrial society was replaced by what Torres and Schugurensky (2002, p. 432) describe as a workplace characterized by increased segmentation with “ a small cadre of supervisory, system-oriented, managerial personal with flexible skills and comprehensive knowledge, and a large pool of lower level workers with narrowly specialized job skills predisposed to what Castell (cited in Webster 2000, p. 314) terms as “self-programmability” that is, the ability to adapt to changing knowledge and new competencies. Such a work context exhibits greater tolerance of mistakes, and allows for risk-taking and experimentation (Dunkin 2003).

As the university responds to the changing purpose of knowledge in society in the context of changing work organization practices, university change literature notes an ironic trend within the university field. The irony observed in the organization of work within the university, the organization of highest qualified knowledge workers (Etzioni 1964; Slaughter & Leslie 1997) is observed to be adopting models tailored to serve the less knowledgeable workers of the industrial society.

In the context of these global changes impacting on the university, countries such as PNG are at once located within the globalized world and yet they remain disconnected and on the periphery and unable to effectively make the transition into KBS2. Universities such as DWU which are located in contexts such as PNG, remain

at the center of knowledge production serving the primary function of nation building. Yet, in terms of organizing work, universities in PNG confront changes that parallel changes experienced by the universities in the west (Office of Higher Education 2000a; Puton 2004).

3.5.3 Neo-liberalism and University Change

Another factor driving university change that is redefining the university emanates from the political sphere in the ideology of neoliberalism. Neoliberalism represents an ideological shift from social democracy. Its rise to prominence in western societies, consequent to the world financial crisis in the 1970s and 1980s, resulted in funding shortages giving rise to questioning social expenditure under social democracy (Moser 1989). Social democracy, an ideology which saw social spending as justified, and which dominated western societies before 1970 and 1980s, gave way to neo-liberalism, a free-market sympathetic ideology which advances that the state curtail public service spending and instead promote free-market forces to generate wealth or fund public service provision (Middlehurst 1995). In both the United States and England, the downturn in economic performance provided one of the main impetuses for the neo-liberal governments in power then to remodel organizations along corporate-world practices emphasizing market values and competition as a means to improve performance (Beiber & Lawrence 1992; Middlehurst 1995). This gave rise to increasing public perception against public service spending including higher education (Altbach 1995). In the US particularly, militant involvement by students in the affairs of society and academic professional perceived as self-serving contributed to the rise in demands for accountability for public funding and diminishing levels of public support for universities (Altbach 1995; Rosenzweig 1999).

As neoliberalism has become dominant in the shaping of public policies, it has contributed to the cultural redefinition of the university by redefining the organization's external relations with the state as well as its internal practices (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). Pressure was exerted on higher education to play a definitive role in assisting governments to

pursue their social and economic agendas (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). This was a development that Perkin (1991, p. 170) forewarned when he argued that the university was in danger of being made “an integral organ of state”, a development that would threaten institutional autonomy and academic freedom. These were changes that set in train what Marginson (2006, p. 44) describes as the “evacuation of public values inside and outside the university” as the public service missions of the organization are made subordinate in favor of the private sector wealth-creation mission.

The ideological shift in society, as Arimoto (2004) illustrates in Figure 6, created an opportunity for the state in KES2 to directly intervene in the operations of university in the belief to reorient the organization to better serve the state. However, in doing so, the state breached the conditions of corporate autonomy at the institutional level, and academic freedom at the professional level. The undermining of these defining beliefs are evidenced in state intervention in shaping curricula and programs, in the burgeoning and demographically complex student body, in the standardization and routinization of academic work and in the redefinition of knowledge (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; Middlehurst 1995).

Yet, the beliefs driving government policy changes intersect with neo-liberal ideals driving policy shifts that redefine higher education in the west. Public policy in PNG is promoting a funding model that encourages entrepreneurial and self-funded provision of higher education (Commission for Higher Education 1986; Department of Education of Papua New Guinea 2001; Office of Higher Education 2000a; Ogio 2007). One former higher education minister, in response to pleas by the higher education institutions for additional funds, advises them not to anticipate additional funding as none would be forthcoming (Puton 2004). He proceeded to suggest that the institutions are either to manage with their current provision levels or “sink or survive” (Puton 2004, p. 1).

3.6 The Post-Industrial University Model

In the post industrial period, the values and beliefs associated with the university in the modern industrial period are contested. The contest stems from the shift in purpose of the university. The organization's public service mandate to advance society's cultural survival by first ensuring that values and virtues necessary for an ideal society are inscribed in students as citizens and second, by being the critic and conscience of society has been made subordinate to the new economic mandate or mission, the intentions of which are oriented to the service of the private or individual good (Perkin 1991; Sharrock 2004). With the transformation of knowledge into a commodity, its public purpose has given way to a private purpose. The shift has introduced competitive behaviour into universities and subsequently, given cause to the rise of managerialism as market imperatives drive leadership styles and approaches to learning (Dill 1982; Drucker 2002; McInnis 1995). Furthermore, with knowledge as a product of trade, and as it has become embedded in society at large, the entry into the production and trade in knowledge by non-university providers has affected a redefinition of the status of the university as *the* center to *a* center of knowledge production for training and transmission of skills and credentialing workers (Drucker 1989; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994).

The changed purpose of the university has affected a redesigning of the organization, the manifestations of which are visible at various levels of the organization. Changes are observed at the level of decision-making: in how staff are managed; at the level of university culture, that is, its core beliefs and values; in the relationship between the state and the university with changed funding as indicative of the changed relationship; and in the rise of academic entrepreneurial and managerialism on university campuses (Arimoto 2004; Deem 2001; Drucker 2002; Dunkin 2003; Marginson, S. 2001; Perkin 1991). The act of redesigning of the university is further evident in the redefinition of the academic profession. The redefinition of the profession is observed in the profession's deeply-embedded and validating core beliefs and values of institutional and academic autonomy and tenure becoming contested (Altbach 1995).

3.6.1 Changed Decision-making Model

The model an organization adopts to organize work and manage people is informed in part by the goals it pursues (Buchanan & Huczynski 1985). As suggested above, the changed purpose of the university is reflected at the organizational level in the changed model of decision-making. One group of commentators on university change agree that a new public sector management model has entered the university and redesigned the organization away from an organizational model tailored to serve professionals to one that is hierarchic and management-centered tailored to serve non-professionals. This shift is evident in norms of practice characteristic of a professional organization giving way to norms of practice associated with the hierarchic management system of organization (Drucker 1989;2002; Peeke 1994; Raelin, AJ 1986; Silverman 1994; Slaughter & Leslie 1997; Wilderom & Miner 1991). Wilderom and Miner (1991) define the management-controlled system as a hierarchic system where management exercises authority over all aspects of the organization. Within this system, management sets the operating rules and regulations which limits the individual's freedom to act; evaluates job results; introduces organizational change; judges individual competence; appoints organizational leaders; manages employees, allocates resources; and calls for and conducts meetings (Wilderom & Miner 1991).

Managerial intervention in the university is observed in:

“...strict financial management and budgetary control; efficient use of resources and emphasis on productivity; the extensive use of performance indicators; the development of consumerism and the concepts of the market; the manifestation of consumer charters: the creation of a flexible workforce, using flexible/individualized contracts, appraisal systems and performance-related pay; and the assertion of managers rights to manage”(Shelley 1998, p. 344).

The subsequent operational changes that are the outcomes of the rise of managerialism within the university context are present in the analyses of the organization by observers and commentators, and researchers alike. Most of the responses to university change is critical, some more stridently so than others. The

views of Giroux (2002) and Marginson and Considine (2006; 2000) are amongst the most strident. Giroux (2002) deplores the changes in purpose shift as “dangerous” to democracy itself. Marginson (2006) suggests that the university, whose mission was public-service, lies in ruins swept aside by the market forces.

Some commentators see the increased managerialism within the university as a trend that is referencing an obsolete organizational model. Morris (2005), for instance, views the shift from the professional organizational model as not an advancement but a throw back to Frederick Winslow Taylor’s management model, a model tailored to produce productivity increases in the factory setting. Taylor, Drucker (1989) explains, developed between 1885 and 1910 the system that aimed to break tasks down into individual, unskilled operations that could be learnt quickly by the large numbers of blue collar workers with little or no education. Flood (1999, p. 30) further explains the efficiency goals of factory work were shaped by perceptions of organizations as “well-oiled machines” where:

Senior managers are governors, whilst middle managers and supervisors are engineers keeping the machine well oiled (by commanding people) so that it can relentlessly achieve the purpose for which it was assembled.

Drucker (2002) describes the restructure of the university as an act of replacing a system which served the worker with one where the worker serves the system. The emergence of competition-driven academic practice is setting one academic unit against another and is diminishing collegiality and a sense of common purpose (Beiber & Lawrence 1992). Such divisive competitive behavior on the University of Michigan, for instance, prompted its English professor to label the institution as “a sham” going by the title of the university when it was really a corporate entity (Beiber & Lawrence 1992).

The change in discourse defining the university is further indicative of the shift in the organizational model. Many analysts do not welcome the attempt to reconceptualize the university and academic work through a new discourse. Prichard and Willmott (1997, p. 288) liken the shift towards the corporatization of knowledge and academic work discourses as an attempt at “colonization” or “imperialism” by management. Further evidence of the management discourse re-constructing the university is

expressed in terms such as “regulations”, “power”, “clients” and “customer satisfaction”, “academic capitalism”, “academic entrepreneurialism” and “new managerialism” (Deem 2001; McNay 1995, pp. 106, 107).

Such concepts associated with management discourse are also observed within DWU. They are also surfacing in policy documents and newspaper commentary on the universities in PNG generally (Department of National Planning and Rural Development 2005; Puton 2004). PNG’s OHE, and the national government under Somare in 2007 suggested that going private and adopting entrepreneurialism was the only way for universities in PNG to self-sustain provision (Ogio 2007; Puton 2004). Self-funded provision is being advanced even as the PNG universities’ public service mandate to assist in nation building and development remains. DWU’s discourse defining practices and decision-making structure and performance management processes reflect those observed western within the university context.

The shift away from the collegial university model to the management model contests “the ideal that all academic members are equal members of a scholarly community, or at least the differentiation of status should be determined primarily by academic authority” (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999, p. 12). Hall (cited in Prichard & Willmott 1997, p. 288) views almost as traitors to the cause of collegial university the colleagues who signed on to the new mission of their organization, a switch demonstrated in their preference for a discourse he describes as one characterized by a preference of the “metallic” language of entrepreneurialism and submission to a kind of management that is of a “horrendously closed nature”.

Empirical evidence confirms what observers and commentators see as the changing model of university organization. Prichard and Willmott (1997, p. 300), for instance, found that British academics perceived that their organizations were increasingly centralized:

...universities are being reconstituted knowledge factories organized by managers, whose aim is to intensify and commodify the production and distribution of knowledge as skills to whomsoever has the wherewithal to purchase them.

Research conducted in Australia between 1993 and 1998, which explored both academics' and administrators' responses to the emergence of managerialism in their institutions highlight tensions resulting from culture conflict between collegial and management culture. Winter and Sarros' (2002) survey of Australian academics found that academics' participation in decision-making within their organization was diminished at the institutional policy level, but remained dominant at the individual work performance level. Areas where participation was described as "moderately low" included new university policies, decisions that influenced department policies as well as decisions that were related to the promotion of academic staff and resources. The area they still exercised high levels of control or autonomy over related to the discharge of job responsibilities including teaching, research.

McInnis (1998) surveyed Australian academics and university administrators separately to gauge their views on the values and motives that influenced their work, their outlook about their work and university, their views on the purpose of the university and perspectives on higher education system in Australia. The survey of 1281 professional administrators was conducted in 1996 with a response rate of 51%. The survey on academics from lecturer level and up from a representative sample of 18 out of the then 34 universities was conducted between 1993 and 1994. McInnis' (1998) study also found that, within changed institutions, the relationship of two occupational groups within the university had shifted with the academics feeling more alienated than administrators. Thirty-two per cent of academics, as opposed to 57% of administrators surveyed expressed satisfaction with the intellectual and cultural life of their university and their ability to pursue their own academic interests. The sense of disconnection of academics with their organization was also reflected in only 20% of academics considering collegiality as vigorous in their institutions and 36% saying morale in their department was good as against 39% per cent answering in the negative. Similar results were found by Beiber and Lawrence (1992) with American academics. They found the preoccupation with meeting externally imposed conditions led to a competitiveness that worked against collegiality. Dill (1982, p. 301) describes the experience of diminishing collegiality as a "loss of a unifying system of belief, or of a center of personal and collective organizational identity" an experience that Nisbet (cited in Dill 1982, p. 310) terms as the "Degradation of the Academic Dogma". As institutions confront change, they struggle to reconcile their

“culture, values and aspirations” within revamped institutions (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999, p. 27). Slaughter and Leslie (1997) describe the impact of changing beliefs about the university and by extension the academic profession as unprecedented. Boyer, Altbach and Whitelaws’ (1994) cross-national survey of the state of the academic profession further shows the profession-wide feeling of estrangement from their organization.

Fako’s (2004) findings on the University of Botswana (UOB), Africa, shows greater levels of marginalization and contestation of the management model. Fako found that following the restructure of their organization, academics went into isolation in local units creating an environment of passive yet aggressive discourse and ambivalence. Fako (2004) also found that the shift encouraged the development of survival groups, boys clubs, and parallel power structures in addition to creating a context of electronic information overload. Similarly in the US, increased management created an atmosphere of constant tension between autonomy and internal life of the academic profession on the one hand and external demands for accountability on the other (Altbach 1995; Giroux 2002). As for DWU, it adopted at its foundation in 1996, a structural arrangement characteristic of the management model. It subsequently elevated the role of administrators and managers over academics. Observations and views from staff show that academic staff experience marginalization in decision-making processes.

Ironic Trend in University Restructure

However, the trend towards the management model of organizing work within universities including DWU is at the same time an ironic development. The universities’ move towards less flexible and hierarchical models of organizing work characteristic of market sector organizations and state bureaucracies is happening at a time when market-oriented organizations are adopting flexible organization forms resembling those previously associated with the collegial university to accommodate a knowledgeable workforce (Dill 1982; Morris 2005). Morris (2005, p. 389) notes this ironic trend:

There is an interesting dichotomy taking place in universities. As universities research and teach about changing nature of the organization today, they are in fact watching themselves move in the opposite direction. Despite the fact that many organizations are deserting Tayloristic principles and turning towards more worker-participative procedure, higher education is being forced to desert its collaborative and collegial model and move towards a management structure which bears an unhealthy resemblance to the ideas of Fredrick Winslow Taylor.

3.6.2 HR Practices and Processes in the Context of Change

In the context of organizational change, universities' HR processes and policies are impacted on. In the Australian context, Dunkin (2003), for instance, writes that universities are adopting corporate sector practice in redesigning their structures, in designing jobs and in how they manage and reward performance. However, these emerging practices and systems within the university are contested not only because they are based on the outdated bureaucratic model, but also because they undermine prevailing assumptions of knowledge-based organizations (Dunkin 2003). The break with established practice creates tensions that center on the taken-for-granted basic assumption of tenure, motivation and reward structures, recruitment and selection. Dunkin (2003) proposes that rather than looking to corporate best practices new practices and systems be developed that will better reflect the current and complex needs of the universities.

Recruitment and Selection

As academic work expectations have changed, job design and recruitment and selection is redefined to reflect these changes. Recruitment and selection is the organizational function which serves to align people with the work that needs to be performed (Bolman & Deal 2003). As the purpose of the university has shifted, the nature of academic work has taken on new dimensions giving cause to the need to acquire additional skills and competencies for job performance even as the traditional functions of teaching and research and service remain. Additional competencies include consultancy skill; and partnership and collaboration skills necessary for collaborative research with other professionals, industry personnel, and employers and clients. Beiber and Lawrence (1992) observe that in US university campuses,

academic careers are affected as competition to enhance their organization's image in the public arena for marketing puts pressure on academics to increase research productivity and secure grants. The need to be entrepreneurial requires academics to possess consultancy skill to engage in partnerships with other professional organizations, industry and other employers as clients for research (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). The need to secure funds has given rise to entrepreneurialism and managerialism and attendant concerns with efficiency which led to the institution of quality assurance processes (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). These expectations translate into increased administrative tasks to be attended to, with such demands impacting on workload. An additional expectation on academics that are a consequence of the rise of entrepreneurialism and managerialism and the subsequent revaluing of knowledge is to make curricula relevant to both internal and external stakeholders. These stakeholders include students, prospective employers and governments. The need to satisfy the client is symptomatic of the emerging new discourse on university campuses, including DWU. That makes it inevitable that academics acquire business sector discourse and tools of management (Dill 1982).

Reward, Motivation, Promotion and Tenure

An aspect of university change deals with changes to the performance management system within the university. Empirical studies such as those in Australia show that the effectiveness of the promise of tenure and autonomy of practice served as inducements for organizational commitment is diminished (Altbach 1995; Bowen 2001; Raelin, JA 1991). The influence of these inducements has diminished under the entrepreneurial university as empirical evidence from Australia and the United States reveal. In the context of institutional restructure, McInnis found amongst Australian academics that issues affecting job satisfaction and morale amongst academics were job security, salary, academic quality of students and the intellectual and cultural life of the university. In the US, staff on the tenure track experienced a bottleneck, a situation, which when linked up with an entrepreneurial orientation, tipped the requirements for promotion in favour of ever increasing productivity requirements in research performance and away from teaching and service (Beiber & Lawrence 1992). Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999) note that if tenure is the reward for research productivity, then the focus of academic work will be on research rather than

teaching. In a reconceptualized university, “Being seen to be responsive and innovative has become its own reward regardless of the impact on the identity and integrity of the university” (McInnis 1995, p. 39). In the Australian context, new requirements for promotion are tallied in performance indicators, annual appraisal processes and merit criteria for incremental progression (McInnis 1995).

Another Australian study on work environment perceptions and work attitudes was conducted by Winter and Sarros (2002) in September 1998. Two thousand six hundred and nine full-time equivalent academics stratified by position, discipline and from amongst four university categories were invited to participate. Of these 1014 or 40% responded. The survey explored what environmental, that is, institutional characteristics represented sources of high/low motivation for academics and whether there was a correlation between demographic variables such as age, gender, level of qualification and rank influenced their levels of motivation. They found that, overall, academics were moderately involved in their jobs but were committed to their organization and desired to see it succeed. However, they did not see their university as inspiring best performance in them. Academics also felt that their loyalty to their organization was not matched by extrinsic recognition and reward. They were more intrinsically motivated that is, they were motivated by their teaching and research commitment, but de-motivated with administrative work. These experiences are shared by academic staff at DWU where reward is not indicative of the loyalty and commitment they demonstrate to the organization.

Staff Development

In the context of university change, staff development as an organizational function has become a focus of research (Akerlind 2005). However, staff development provision is focused on the development of one aspect of academic work, that is, teaching (Akerlind 2005). Several assumptions justify this limited focus. In the case of DWU, its reward structure shows a preference for teaching over the research and service functions. But, this situation is changing. It is observed in the organization’s discourse that, since 2004, DWU is moving to incorporate both service and research into the reward structure. Even with this progress, the prospects of staff advancing in their careers remained unlikely as promotion policies and processes remained stalled.

The changes outlined are manifestations of an organization whose culture is undergoing a redefinition. This study contributes a live case study of university cultural change in the transforming context of the post-industrial globalized society driven by neoliberal values. In terms of this study, apart from commentary in the national newspapers such as Ogio (2007) and Patience (Patience 2005) as well as Meek's (1982) sociological case study of UPNG in 1982, there is little research current or otherwise on the state of the university in PNG. This study on DWU, therefore, makes a contribution to understanding the status of the organization in PNG in the context of global change and national public policies that are impacting on the institution.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the literature on the university, its culture as manifested in artifacts such as structure and HR processes, and how under changed external conditions these are taking new directions. It showed that the organization has undergone a shift in the core function which had informed how the university organized work and integrated participants to serve its purpose. The literature showed that the university has moved away from the core function of providing advanced education as a public service, a function validated in public support to advance education as serving the national economy driven by market forces another function. Political, social and economic imperatives have contributed to this shift in organizational purpose whose impact is translated at the organizational structure level in changed decision-making structure, and redefined integrative functions such as HR. As the organization is reconstituted, the academic profession is also redefined. The culmination of these shifts is a contestation of cultural norms, values and beliefs and taken for granted basic assumptions.

Chapter 4: Methodology

For individuals to function in any organized setting, they must have some continuing sense of reality in which they work. It is the expressive social fabric surrounding them that gives meaning to the individual tasks and objectives they pursue (Dill 1982, p. 307).

4.1 Overview

This study set out to explore the underlying and shared cultural values, beliefs and taken for granted basic assumptions that influence surface-level behaviour, practices and processes and discourse of DWU. Therefore, in this chapter the methodology adopted to explore the culture is presented in five sections. In section one, the methodology used to investigate the area of research that was the concern of this study is presented. In section two, the process of entry to site and the process of selecting the participants are described. The subsequent section presents the different methods used in generating data. In the section that follows, how the data was analyzed is dealt with. The presentation of data analysis is followed by the section on how the issue of subjectivity or bias was dealt with. The final section of the chapter identifies and presents the main limitations of the study.

4.1.1 The Aim of the Study

The main purpose of this research was to:

Explore DWU's culture, that is, the values, beliefs or basic assumptions that permeate the organization to shape organizational practices and processes as well as the behaviour patterns of organizational participants which in this study were the academic staff. In the DWU context academic staff are defined as staff in the academic division. They include the deans of faculty, HoDs and the rank and file members of staff in departments engaging in teaching, researching and service provision.

The objectives of this study were: to explore the values and beliefs or basic assumptions that constituted DWU's culture by exploring how these were made visible at the surface level of artifacts; to understand the values, beliefs and accepted assumptions that motivated the adoption of the current decision-making model as was experienced by the academic staff; to explore the HR practices and processes to determine the values and beliefs and basic assumptions that influenced these practices and processes through the experiences and perceptions of academic staff.

4.2 Methodology and Methods Used in the Study

Marshall (1998) defines methodology as the general empirical research approach or design associated with a particular discipline through which knowledge of the world is gained and methods as the actual techniques used in the investigative process to generate data. Methods therefore, are embedded as intrinsic components of research approaches (Marshall 1998). Differences and the range of methodologies reflect the differences and range of academic disciplines (Tesch 1990; Zaharlick 1992). The adoption of a particular research methodology reflects a researcher's epistemological and theoretical positions (Gray 2004), the nature of research questions as well as the practicality of an approach especially in the case with some qualitative research (Tesch 1990).

The methodology adopted for this study was informed by two of the more common qualitative research approaches of ethnography and case study (Mertens 1998). The ethnographic approach is associated with anthropology whilst the case study design is associated with phenomenological research (Gray 2004). In drawing from these two approaches, the researcher was influenced both by the purpose of the research as well as the nature of the subject under investigation, organizational culture. Wolcott (cited in Wilcox 1982, p. 458) defines ethnography as "the science of cultural description" which translates literally into "writing about people" (Burns, BR 1990, p. 246). This link with culture makes the ethnographic methodology relevant for this study. Besides, it is the approach specifically designed to investigate culture (Mertens 1998; Spradley 1979; Wilson, S 1977). Originally associated with anthropology this descriptive methodology has been adopted by educational as well as organizational

researchers (Eisenhart 1999; Tesch 1990; Wilcox 1982, p. 457; Wilson, S 1977). The specific components of ethnographic approach this study used were its three data-generating tools of the interview, the participant observation and documentary source analysis.

Besides drawing from the ethnographic methodology, the researcher was also informed by the case study approach. This approach helped to define the focus of the study. However, defining the case study approach is problematic. Yin (1994) on the one hand treats it as a discrete methodological approach and therefore, like other research designs, it has its own way of investigating an empirical topic by following a set of pre-specified procedures. On the other hand, Stake (1994, p. 236), Sommer and Sommer (2002) and Langenbach, Vaughn and Aagaard (1993), in contrast to Yin (1994), define case study as an in-depth [holistic] investigation of a single case which may include an individual, a community or a region. Langenbach, Vaughn and Aagaard (1993), go so far as to suggest that the case study is but one type of ethnographic research.

Nevertheless, Stake (1994) and Gray (2004) identify different types of case study designs with elements of intersection amongst them. Gray (2004) identifies four types of cases studies: the single-holistic case study, the single-embedded case study, the multiple-holistic case study and the multiple-embedded case study. Stake (1994), on the other hand, identifies three types: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. The differences between them reflect the purposes of study, and the scope of focus of the study whether the interest is on the single phenomenon or on multiple phenomena. Another point of difference is whether the investigation is at the holistic level or at the embedded componential levels. Both the single holistic and intrinsic case studies aim to examine a single case or phenomenon at a holistic instead of the elemental level (Gray 2004). The single-embedded case study is also limited to a single case, such as a single organization. However, it differs from the holistic case study in that it contains embedded and identifiable subunits of analysis.

On the other hand, both the multiple-holistic and multiple-embedded case studies focus on multiple phenomena. Multiple-case study designs are adopted when the

researcher's purpose is to improve reliability and generalizability (Gray 2004). The multiple-holistic case study design, however, is adopted when subunits are not identifiable and the multiple-embedded case study design is adopted when sub-units are identifiable (Gray 2004). Stake's collective case study serves the same purpose as Gray's multiple-holistic case study as both seek to understand a common phenomenon among multiple cases. Stake's (1994) instrumental case study seeks to gain insight or refine theory.

In the context of this study, the purposes that multiple case studies as well as instrumental case studies serve were outside the concern of this study. The purpose of this study was to understand a single organization's culture for its intrinsic worth rather than to verify theory or to generalize across cases. The single case or unit of analysis for this study was DWU's culture and the level of analysis was holistic. However, to facilitate analysis of the data, the larger unit of analysis was segmented into subunits that translated into organizational functions of decision-making and HR.

Drawing from multiple approaches to inform the methodology adopted for this study also reflects what Gray (2004) has observed is the status of organizational studies as a discreet field of study. Gray (2004) states that organizational research does not constitute a discreet area of research as such and organizational researchers draw from multiple fields, which include sociology, anthropology, philosophy, communication, economics and statistics.

4.2.1 Selecting the Case

In selecting the case for this study, the researcher was further informed by Stake's (1994) distinctions between three types of cases: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. Therefore, this study's aim was aligned more with the aim of the intrinsic case study which seeks to better understand a particular case for its intrinsic worth. DWU culture was therefore, the particular case that was the concern of this study. The aim of this case study was to explore the organizations culture for its own intrinsic worth. Additional factors of time, resources and accessibility also influenced the choice of the case of study. Restrictions on

length of fieldwork, course completion timelines, limited resources in terms of funding and challenges of organizing multiple case studies in the PNG context worked against the ability to conduct a collective case study.

4.3 Entry to Site and Participants

The site where the data of this study was collected was DWU. Prior to entry to site, and in the process of gaining ethics clearance from Victoria University, formal consent was sought and gained in writing from the president of DWU (Appendix H). Other issues to meet ethics requirements were also addressed to the satisfaction of the Victoria University's ethics committee, the specific ethics reference number of this study being HRETH.FHD.112/03, before the study could proceed.

In terms of the process of gaining access to participants, those considered pertinent to this study were the academic staff. In 2004, the year that data was collected, DWU's academic staff numbered 77. After entry to the site, in order to make acquaintance with the participants as well as solicit assistance, the researcher adopted a number of strategies. After two weeks on site, a letter was also circulated via "broadcast" on the institution's intranet to the rank and file academic staff (Appendix D). The correspondence served first to inform the staff of the purpose of the researcher's visit on campus and second to introduce the researcher to the staff. The communication prompted responses from some staff offering assistance, and others simply acknowledging having read the correspondence. The heads of departments (HoDs), the Deans and the Chair of the Academic Board gave their commitment to invite the researcher to their meetings. Following the written correspondence, the researcher met in person with individual HoDs formally. Informally, the researcher made further acquaintance with staff by mingling and conversing with them during coffee breaks and other social gatherings.

4.3.1 Participant Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of selecting subjects or participants that are representative of the population under study (Burns, N & Grove 1993). Of the various methods of sampling participants, this study's participants were sampled using purposive sampling. Purposive sampling falls within the non-probability sampling category and is a form of sampling that specifically targets individuals considered central to the research question (Sommer, B & Sommer 1997). Purposive sampling was adopted for this study because it provided flexibility required to produce a convenient sample given the nature of DWU's experiences with staffing. This will be elaborated in the paragraphs to follow. From the academic staff population of 77 in 2004, twenty-three were initially identified and invited to participate in the interviews (Table 4), of which 18 consented.

As stated, the population or category of organizational participants considered key to the research question explored in this study was the academic staff. Not only are academics the attendant professional base for the university (Perkin 1991; Slaughter & Leslie 1997) as members of the occupational group, they are also socialized in the culture of the university organization through an intense and lengthy period of education and training during which norms, values, beliefs are inculcated and become eventually embedded as basic assumptions that members of the occupation share (Schein 2004; Vasutova 1998).

The participants were further sampled according to the length of time they had been with DWU. A minimum length of three-year continuous association with DWU was set as a requirement. Two reasons informed the decision of which one was related to culture as the area of research of this study, and the other was tied to practical considerations linked to the organizational context of study. Since culture was the focus of the study, it was required that the participants were sufficiently immersed in the culture of the organization and/or the culture of the university. The concern with length of association with culture is highlighted by Schein (2004) when he cautions that focusing on new entrants to a culture will reveal only surface elements that may not necessarily be linked to the deeper level values and beliefs of an organization's

culture. Therefore, Schein (2004, p. 18) advises that to get at the deeper level requires that a researcher “must try to understand the perceptions and feelings that arise in critical situations, and one must observe and interview regular members or “old-timers” to get an accurate sense of the deeper-level assumptions that are shared”. These “old-timers” would subsequently bring a deeper level of cultural knowledge and be informed or sensitized to the idiosyncrasies of context that shape the culture (Spradley 1979, pp. 48-49;1980). In this study, staff considered as “old timers” were those with doctorate degrees who had been employed by universities and staff without doctorates who had been with DWU continuously for a minimum of three years. In 2004, there were thirteen staff members who were qualified at the PhD level. Of these, two were engaged on a part-time basis. Of those employed full-time, seven had joined DWU either in 2003 or 2004 and one had returned to the university after one year of study leave.

A minimum requirement of three years was informed also by annual turnover patterns of DWU staff (Appendix C). Three years in the context of DWU was above the average of two years. Annual attrition of staff was part of DWU’s experience with staff. This was due in part to the employment of international volunteers who were employed on two-year contract. Although, they had the option of extending, which some did, more often they chose to leave at the end of two years. In 2004, two thirds of staff had been with the organization less than three years. Turnover also affected non-volunteer staff including lay and religious staff. Given these levels of annual shifts, it was initially decided that setting a lower than three-year minimum requirement would have yielded a sample made up of staff either new to the organization or without previous employment experience with a university. On the other hand, a requirement of a higher minimum would have reduced further the number of participants.

Having decided on the three-year minimum requirement, two-thirds of the staff of 2004 were initially excluded. However, amongst the exclusions were ten staff members with PhDs. In 2005, it was decided that their perspectives would enrich the data given that their prior association with universities and their level of qualification meant that they were participants of the university culture given their professional socialization. Their cultural knowledge therefore, located them as “old timers”

(Schein 2004, p. 20) and made them more sensitive to possible discontinuities and tensions surfacing from conflicting values, beliefs and basic assumptions. The initial sample was subsequently increased to include these academics. However, by 2005 when the interviews were to take place, two volunteers, and one other on short term employment in 2004 were no longer with DWU. Of the remainder, one was employed on a part-time basis. Eventually, time, distance and scheduling constraints further resulted in only two of the remaining five being interviewed.

Table 4 presents the pertinent demographic particulars of the eventual list of staff that constituted the sample of interview participants. The names are pseudonyms adopted as one of the means to guarantee confidentiality in line with ethics requirements. In terms of qualifications, seven were qualified at the under-graduate graduate level. Except for two, all of them had been with DWU for a minimum of four years, the longest having served for 14 years. The six qualified at the Master's level had been with DWU longer than four years, the longest serving two had been with DWU for 18 years. Of the five PhDs, three had been with the university over four years and two had been with the DWU two years. In terms of nationality, the sample was made up of both Papua New Guineans and international staff with six different countries represented in all. Of the international staff, all the staff from two Asian countries were employed on contract. Of the two Europeans, they came from two different countries with one employed on contract and the other as a volunteer. The two Australians were members of religious orders and in the oldest age bracket. Except for one Papua New Guinean who was a member of a religious order, all were employed on contract. In terms of the key factor of the number of years with DWU in the context of this study, except for two who had been included on the basis of qualification and prior university experience, all had been with DWU for a minimum of three years. The average number of years of attachment turned out to be 7 1/2 years.

Table 4: Demographic Profile of Interview Participants in 2004

Participant (code name)	Highest Tertiary Qualification	Number of Years with DWU	National (N) International (I)	Volunteer (V) Religious (R) Contract (C)	Country or Region	Age bracket 30-40 (1) 40-50 (2) 50-60 (3)
Amelia	BA	8	N	C	PNG	2
Amir	BA	3	N	C	PNG	1
Anna	PhD	2	I	V	Europe 1	1
Anthony	BA	4	N	C	PNG	1
Daniel	BA	4	N	C	PNG	2
David	MA	5	N	C	PNG	2
Denise	MA	18	I	C	Asia 1	3
Elias	PhD	5	I	R	Australia	3
Florence	PhD	8	I	C	Europe 2	2
Gerald	MA	4	N	C	PNG	2
Helen	MA	5.5	I	C	Asia 2	3
Jim	PhD	2	N	C	PNG	3
Lynda	MA	8	I	C	Asia 2	1
Maurice	BA	6	I	R	Australia	3
Roman	BA	14	I	C	Asia 2	3
Ronald	Dr	4	I	C	Asia 2	2
Sylvester	MA	18	I	C	Asia 1	3
Virgo	BA	6	N	R	PNG	2

4. 4 Methods Used to Generate Data

Multiple methods were used to generate data in this study. These included the interview, participant observation and documentary sources. Employing multiple data collection tools and procedures allow for the cross-checking of results (Sanday 1979).

4.4.1 Interviews

As stated, the interview was one of the methods used in this study to generate data. The type of interview adopted was informed by Sommer and Sommer (2002) who identify four types of interviews differentiated in terms of the extent to which the questions and the order in which they are asked are predetermined. They include the unstructured interview, the structured interview, the semi-structured interview and the telephone interview. The adoption of one or the other is informed by the purpose the researcher wishes it to serve (Sommer, R & Sommer 2002).

For the purpose of this study, the semi-structured interview was used. The semi-structured interview is one where all interview participants are asked the same questions but the order in which these are asked of each participant may differ (Sommer, R & Sommer 2002). The advantage of the semi-structured interview is that it allows the researcher the flexibility to tailor sentence structure and wording to the specific respondents (Sommer, R & Sommer 2002). Another factor that informed the adoption of the semi-structure interview for this study was linked to the nature of the problem under investigation. Rooted in ethnographic tradition, the semi-structured interview is open-ended and allows the individual to define concepts the way she/he understands them (Wilcox 1982).

Consent for Interviews

Before the interviews could be conducted, consent from the interview participants was sought whilst on site and two months preceding the interviews that were planned for September. Inviting staff well in advance of the interview served several purposes. First, it allowed for scheduling to be organized. It allowed participants adequate time to respond in order for times and locations of interviews to be negotiated. Second, it allowed the researcher time to contact staff who had not responded to the initial invitation to participate. Third, keeping the interviews to the final stage of fieldwork allowed the researcher time for preliminary analysis of the data to gauge emergent themes and concepts that would inform the interview questions.

The initial sample of 23 was invited to participate through letters circulated in the middle of August 2004, the fourth month on site. The three PhDs added to the list later in 2005 were invited via email given that the researcher was outside PNG. The letters outlined the purpose of the interview, its duration and the issue of confidentiality and how it would be addressed. Attached to the invitation was a consent form which the invitees were asked to sign and return within two weeks if they agreed to participate (Appendix F). Two weeks after the invitations were circulated, nine of the 23 invited responded, eight agreeing to participate and one said whilst he appreciated being considered, was unable to participate due to time constraints. To those who had not responded, reminders were sent. Eventually, a total of 18 staff members agreed to be interviewed.

How the Interviews Were Conducted

Except for two participants who were interviewed over the telephone from Australia in 2005, all other interviews were conducted face-to-face and on site in 2004. The interviews lasted between forty-five minutes to one hour. The interviews followed a protocol. Prior to each interview, the participant was informed about the process of the interview and the conditions under which it could be terminated. Each was also informed that should s/he feel under duress, it was his/her prerogative to terminate the interview and to seek assistance of the DWU counselor if necessary. The interviewee's consent was also sought to have the interview taped. All the participants obliged. The participant was also informed of the means by which confidentiality would be maintained. Each was informed that under ethics requirements, the data collected was strictly for research purposes only and tapes of the interviews would be held in a securely locked filing cabinet. Furthermore, to contribute to minimize the influence of subjectivity, the interviewees were also asked to answer questions as fully as possible. The interviews were then transcribed verbatim, a process which began on the field and took two months to complete. These transcripts were also kept in a locked filing cabinet.

4.4.2 Documentary Sources

The second method used in this study to generate additional data was documentary sources. Goetz and LeCompte (1984, p. 153) consider documentary sources, both formal and informal, as significant as they serve as “artifacts”, or “material manifestations of the values and beliefs that constitute a culture” of an organization. They allow the researcher, for instance, to explore the relationship between the organizational setting and broader context (Wilcox 1982). Documentary data allows the researcher to collect data unobtrusively and so serves to verify findings from interview and observational data, data which may be “contaminated” by the researcher’s biases (Gray 2004, p. 9). Formal documents such as the organizational charter, manuals, and mission statements constitute “rich descriptions” of what the producers of the documents think about the institution, whilst informal documents such as newspaper articles are indicative of what people external to the organization think of the organization (Bogdan & Biklen 1998, p. 137). Documentary sources in this study were used primarily to validate themes, values and beliefs that surfaced during interviews and observations. Documents collected for this study included manuals, meeting minutes; the university charter, vision and mission statement, policy documents, circulars, course reviews, newspaper articles and inter-office memos and university brochures. These were collected over the five-month duration of the fieldwork.

One significant document, in the context of this study was a report produced by a two-person consultancy team who were European volunteers. Their task was twofold first to facilitate DWU’s strategic planning process and second to assess the current organization examining the level of effectiveness of the organization main function aspects such as organizational structure, decision-making, human resource management, finances information technologies and academic quality. They were then to make recommendations on how to improve practice as DWU moved forward.

Process of Collecting Documents

The documents were collected and processed following a protocol recommended by Goetz and LeCompte (1984) that involves locating, analyzing and evaluating the documents for relevance and finally duplicating them. In deciding the relevance of a document, the researcher was informed by values, beliefs associated with organizational culture in general and university culture in particular that were encountered in the process of reviewing pertinent literature. A document was considered relevant if it explicitly or implicitly referred to values or beliefs informing and shaping organizational experience as a university. Most of the documents deemed relevant were duplicated electronically. Those that could not be duplicated electronically were photocopied and filed. A document summary form adapted from one suggested by Miles and Huberman (1984), was attached to each (Figure 7). This form served to inform the researcher of the date of collection, the source of the document, what it was associated and how significant it was to the research. For instance, the sample document summary form below that was attached to the minutes of a meeting of a committee of faculty dean on 26 June, 2004 contains the evaluative comments made on the significance of the document in the context of the study. If however, the documents constituted sets of files of weekly meetings going back three years, for instance, files of cabinet or department meetings, given that time constraints did not allow for summaries to be produced for individual documents, a single summary form was considered sufficient.

<p>Date and where document collected. 26 June, 2004; Minute-taken and dean of Arts Faculty Jim.</p> <p>Type of document. Minutes of Deans' Committee Meeting.</p> <p>Source where the document was produced. Deans Committee minute-taker.</p> <p>When the document was produced. Following a meeting of the deans</p> <p>Intended user of document. Faculty deans, and senior Administration</p> <p>Events or contact document is associated with. This document is associated with academic structural evolution, and exploration of roles and responsibilities of the soon to be added new academic management level.</p> <p>Significance of document. This document is very significant to the study as it illustrates the further the type of organization DWU was evolving into.</p> <p>Form document is duplicated. electronically</p> <p>Brief summary of context of document. This document has been produced in the context of academic structural changes as the university evolves. With the appointment of new deans of faculty for the first time ever in the history of the institution, roles and responsibilities have yet to be defined, towards this goal was this document produced.</p>

Sample Document Summary Form. Adapted from Miles Huberman, 1984, p.55

4.4.3 Participant Observation

Participant observation was the third tool used in this study to produce data. This method, according to Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, p. 102), allows the researcher not only to directly observe the social world of the group under study but also places the researcher in “a unique position” to directly participate in the “daily lives of the participants”. It also allows the researcher to systematically work to understand the meanings of feelings and reactions and articulate them (Wilson, S 1977). Junker and Gold (cited in Hammersley & Atkinson 1995, p. 104) differentiate between several contrasting researcher positions dependent on the extent to which he/she is involved

in the culture under study: “complete participant” and “participant-as-observer”, “observer-as-participant” and “complete observer”.

In this study, the researcher as a participant being a member of the culture under investigation was a “complete participant” As a “complete participant” the researcher interacted both formally or informally with the academic staff as they went about their daily work routine. Activities the researcher was involved in included attendance and participation in formal meetings of department, committees and boards such as the academic and faculty boards. Other less formal and spontaneous occasions involved participation in supervisory duties, coffee breaks, barbeques, club activities or staff room gatherings. The informal occasions such as coffee breaks were particularly rich opportunities to sample the current issues that were of concern to the staff as the informal gatherings encouraged un-inhibitive and spontaneous conversation. These interactions were written up in descriptive field notes.

The researcher also kept interpretive and reflective comments on the motivations that compelled certain observed behaviour in staff. These comments provided a record of the researcher’s thoughts and feelings about what is observed and helps the researcher speculate on meaning of recurrent event, or concept or behaviour (Bogdan & Biklen 1998). The sample of the researcher’s comments below contains reflections following a general staff meeting. The comments not only reflect on the substantive issues dealt with at the meeting but also on the staff behaviour patterns associated with the model of decision-making.

Sample Reflective Comments

There is a pattern of non-involvement of the academic staff in decisions which have implications on their work. Key academic decisions are made at the level of the administration. Staff are then only informed of these and expected to simply implement them or comply with the directives. It must be hard to feel a sense of ownership of ideas without being asked of their view of them. For example in the meeting several decisions relating to academic practice were communicated to the staff:

That it had been decided that each faculty elect a representative to the Quality Assurance Office. Not much information was provided as to why this had become necessary. It was decided that the staffroom was no longer needed. It is perhaps true but the views of the staff were not sought. The function and scope of community service, has been defined by the President. There is no staff input in this process of defining what it is.

4.5 Analysis of Data

Data analysis refers to the process of reducing, organizing and giving meaning to the data (Burns, N & Grove 1993). How one approaches the task of data analysis depends on the type of data gathered and conceptual framework employed (Wilcox 1982). The data in this study was descriptive constituting a record of DWU's manifest behaviour as was observed by the researcher, perceived by the staff and related in interviews and contained in documentary material. Since culture, as is suggested here, was conceptualized as something that was embedded or below the surface, the analysis of data served to uncover the values, beliefs, norms or taken for granted assumptions that were embedded in the data.

In processing the data in this study, the data was coded using NVivo, the qualitative data analysis software. Coding refers to the process of reducing data and involves segmenting or chunking, tagging, sorting, discarding and organizing data (Bogdan & Biklen 1998; Miles & Huberman 1984). The process also allows the researcher to sharpen and focus data in order for links to be made across data batches or segments so that relationships, and thematic patterns that surface to be compared across the data sources (Miles & Huberman 1984; Wolcott 1994). It also allows for conclusions to be drawn and triangulated (Goetz & LeCompte 1984; Miles & Huberman 1984). In

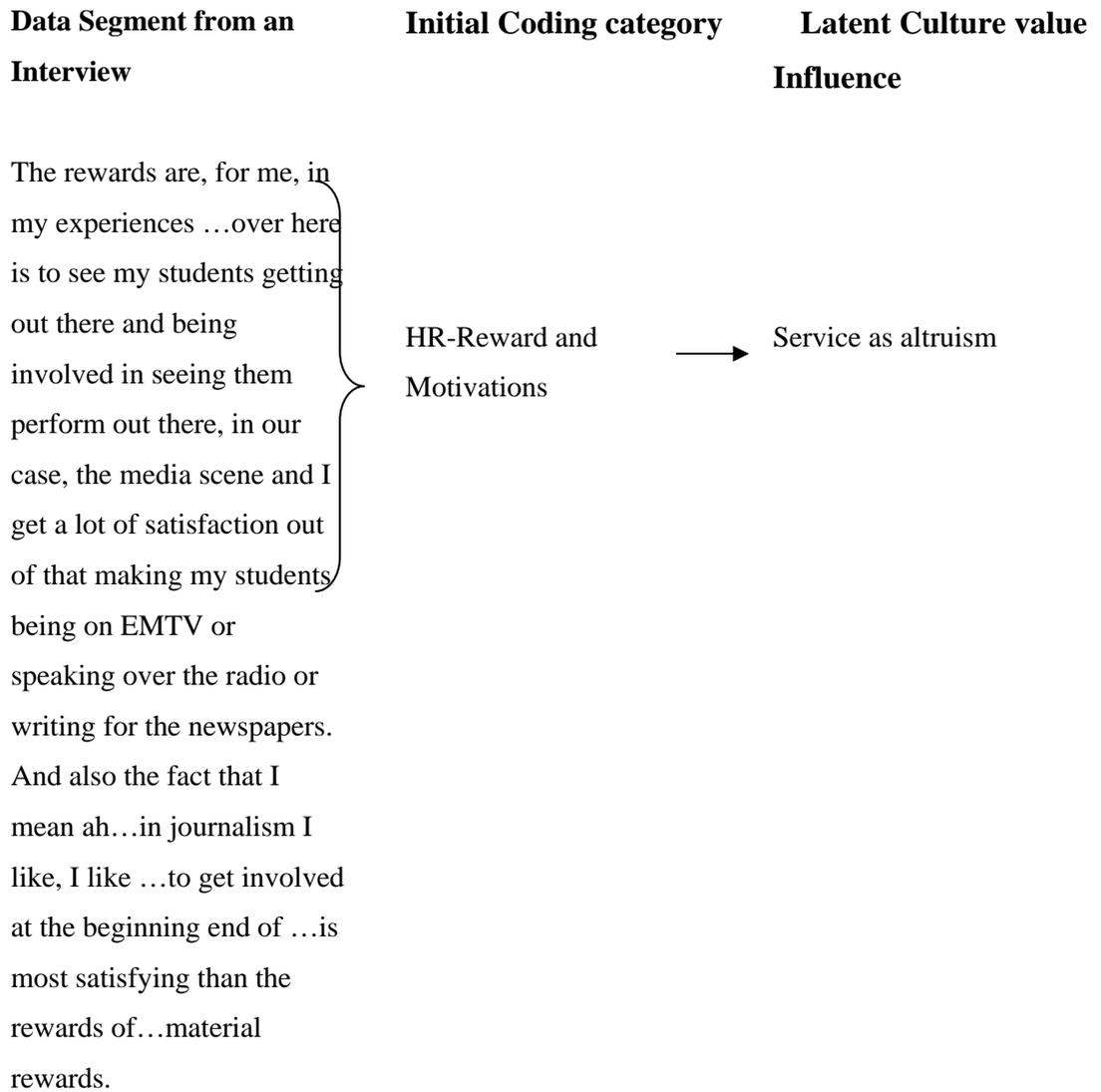
this study, coding allowed for the latent and salient cultural themes to emerge in order conclusion to be drawn.

4.5.1 Determining Coding Categories

The process of coding requires that first categories to be used as tags to label data segments be determined (Bogdan & Biklen 1998; Tesch 1990). These tags serve as categories under which to shift and sort data. They can consist of recurrent “words”, “phrases”, “patterns of behaviour”, or “subjects’ ways of thinking” (Bogdan & Biklen 1998, p. 171). How one arrives at the preliminarily coding categories depends on the individual researcher (Tesch 1990). However, coding categories may also be drawn from the researcher’s perspective (Bogdan & Biklen 1998). This is because as Wilson (1977) and Wilcox (1982) explain, the researcher does not begin research as a “tabula rasa” but with a foreshadowed problem in mind.

The initial coding category tags to use in data analysis of this study were arrived at through both the reading of the data as well as the through the review of literature on the university and organizational culture. With these categories as tags, the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo, was used to segment or chunk and label the data. But, it was not a straight forward process as there was an ongoing need to refine the codes or data categories. It is an inherent part of the process writes (Tesch 1990) for a new batch of data, for instance, one interview transcription, may question the appropriateness of the existing categories and so necessitate redefining which may entail renaming, modification in content, subdivision discarding or supplementation by new codes. The refining process only stops when the researcher is satisfied that the data converges with the organizing system (Tesch 1990).

The process of coding adopted in this study is illustrated below. The data was segmented under the data category of organizational practices that were HR related and specifically, related to reward and motivation. The type of reward and motivation was driven by intrinsic rewards which when triangulated with other data, points to the belief in service understood as altruism that is a value driving practice at DWU.



This list below presents the primary themes and sub-themes which served as coding categories that facilitated the segmentation of the data in NVivo. The data segments tagged with these themes and sub-themes constituted what could be described as categories of artifacts of DWU culture. These artifacts were the surface indicators of deeper level values and beliefs at work in shaping and informing all aspects or DWU's behaviour. The values and beliefs informed, for instance, how staff responded of organizational participants to authority; how policies are implemented; what motivates staff to commit to the organization, which goals and functions are made subordinate.

THEME	SUB-THEMES
Decision-making	centralized Participatory
HR-Practices and Process	Reward and Motivation Staff Development Ranking and Promotion Recruitment and Selection Staff turnover
Organizational Goals	Teaching Research Service Market Religious
Academic Work	Teaching Service Research Fundraising Mentoring Pastoral care
Academic Concerns	Course quality Student learning Resource support Organizational purpose Change engagement Staffing Reward and motivation Workload
Organizational Values	Service Partnership and Teamwork “Open to All” Initiative
Organizational Change	Governance Structure Academic Policies Organizational Expansion “not standing still” “playing catch-up”

Organizational Events	Calendar events Infrastructure commissioning
Organizational Visitors	National International
Resource Support	Academic work Support Physical infrastructure support
Behaviour towards authority	contestation compliance

4.6 How Subjectivity was dealt with

As this study employed a qualitative research methodology, the issue of subjectivity was a concern. This is because, for data to be considered scientific, they must be valid and reliable (Sommer, B & Sommer 1997). Validity refers to “the degree to which a procedure produces genuine and credible information” (Sommer, B & Sommer 1997, p. 3). Reliability contributes to validity and refers to whether the findings are repeatable or replicable by another person employing the same instruments and procedures to similar or same group of people in same or similar situations (Sommer, B & Sommer 1997). While reliability depends on replicability and is associated with quantitative research, the subjective nature of qualitative research means that reliability and validity of data depend on how the researcher deals with the researcher’s bias or subjectivity that might influence the findings. Marshall (1998) defines subjectivity as “the self-conscious perspective of the person or subject”. Dealing with subjectivity allows the qualitative researcher’s attempt “to standardize the interpretations that they (or anyone else) attribute to data perceived by their senses” (Wilson, S 1977, p. 249).

In order to minimize the role of subjectivity in the interpretation of qualitative research data, qualitative researchers adopt different strategies (Wilcox 1982; Wilson, S 1977). One way to increase validity and reliability of the findings in qualitative studies is to generate different kinds of data through the use of multiple data-generation tools (Wilcox 1982). This was one of the strategies adopted to minimize the researcher’s bias in this study. This informed the study in part by the

ethnographic methodology also meant that the eclectic nature of ethnographic methods of the interview, participant observation and documentary sources served to minimize bias in allowing conclusions drawn from one data source to be cross-checked or triangulated with conclusions drawn from data generated through another method (Sanday 1979; Sommer, B & Sommer 1997; Zaharlick 1992).

Another strategy used by the researcher in this study to minimize bias was in the choice of interview type and the protocol used in the conduct of the interviews. These considerations are what Burns and Grove (1993) refer to as the precautions taken to guard against influencing participant responses. In this study, the semi-structured ethnographic interview was adopted. The open-ended nature of the interview format allowed the participant to relate his/her experience of the organization in terms of his/her own terms. The interview protocol mentioned earlier also contributed to minimize bias. Before each interview, the participant was informed on the researcher's status not only as a researcher was once a colleague. This served to sensitize the interviewee to the relationship in order to invite the participant to answer questions as fully as possible.

4.7 Limitations of the Study

This study contained certain limitations in data collection, data analysis and data interpretation and responses from participants. The main limitation of this study was that it focused on one occupational group within the organization, the academic staff. Therefore, conclusions on DWU's values and beliefs drawn from their perceptions and experiences may not necessarily be typical of perceptions and experiences of other occupational groups in the organizations, groups such top tier administrators and managers from the level of vice presidents to the president.

Another limitation of this study was that one of the recently amalgamated and geographically removed colleges was not considered within the DWU organization. Therefore, the behaviour patterns observed on DWU's main organizational unit or campus may not necessarily be representative of behavior patterns of units that have recently merged with the organization through amalgamation.

In spite of these limitations, the researcher has given careful attention to analyzing the data and interpreting the results. She is confident that the techniques used are valid and useful for generating findings for the research questions that were the focus of the current study.

4.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the methodology adopted in investigating the research questions was presented. The study was informed both by ethnographic and case study methodologies. From the ethnography design, the studied adopted three methods to generate data: participant observation, the interview and documentary sources. These permitted a cross-validation of findings. The data was subsequently analyzed in a process of shifting and sorting and reduction to allow for salient culture concepts and themes to surface so conclusions could be drawn and themes cross-checked across data. The next chapter moves the thesis forward by presenting the findings of the study.

Chapter 5: DWU's Missions and Governance

The caliber of employees for a college or university has a significant impact on the institution's productivity (instruction, research, service), its ability to attract and retain students, and its public presence ((Latimer 2002, p. 10).

5.1 Overview

In this chapter, DWU's missions and the findings on the governance model as well as the values and beliefs that shape the model are presented and analyzed. In the first section of the chapter, DWU's missions both those that are stated and those that are implicit in organizational discourse and practices are presented. The missions that are stated include the mission of teaching, the mission of research and the mission of public service. The missions that are implied in discourse include the service to the market and the mission of religion. In the second part of the chapter, the findings on the aspects of organizational practice related to decision-making and the factors that shape these practices are presented and analyzed. These findings focus on the type of decision-making or authority that is exercised in the distribution of resources, in managing academic work and in the management of organizational change.

5.2 DWU's Missions or Purposes

DWU's Charter (Appendix A) establishes that the organization's ultimate aspirational goal is the output of a creative and intellectual person who is committed to free inquiry as a means of attaining truth (Society of Divine Word 1977). The university's objective is to "become a vibrant Christian intellectual community" (Divine Word University 2004). These goals inform DWU's vision to serve society through teaching and research and service, functions which translate into the creation, dissemination and extension of knowledge. In stating these goals, the writers of the charter established the public service mission of DWU.

The sponsors of the DWU Charter went further to establish three pre-conditions upon which the pursuit of its goal of service provision to society would depend. These are:

- A faculty of competent scholars and educators
- Curricula which present content, careers guidance and training
- A setting/environment that is religiously orientated and socially conscious (Society of Divine Word 1977).

However, despite the fact that the Charter stipulates the tripartite functions that constitute academic work as well as the prerequisites on which the performance in these functions depends, the experiences of staff show that there is some disconnect between stipulated purposes and the current mission orientations of DWU. The prerequisites on which performance depends inform DWU's policy on roles and responsibilities of academic staff. In general, academic work is based around the functions of teaching and research and service. In practice these translate into a diverse range of tasks. Elias as HoD says "the responsibilities are numberless". The data also indicates that, besides the three knowledge functions or missions, there are additional missions such as the service to the market.

5.2.1 Teaching Mission

DWU's current service orientation is towards teaching interpreted as the transmission of existing knowledge. The prominence of the teaching mission is reflected in how it is weighted against research and the public service functions and in policies and work patterns of the staff. For instance, DWU's academic manual deals entirely with issues related to the teaching function. Staff workloads are further indicative of the teaching orientation of DWU. Teaching related activities constitute much of daily and weekly work routines of staff. These activities include course development and reviews, assessment work, lecture preparation, student mentoring and supervision. They also include administrative responsibilities related to teaching, including staff recruitment, committee work, attending to correspondence, filling out service or resources requisition forms, attendance at meetings and writing up and filing minutes.

Elias' workday, for instance, begins when he gets into the office at 8 am and does not end when he leaves the office around five o'clock in the afternoon. He often takes work home and sometimes returns to the office in the evening to attend to correspondence. As a department head, he thinks all heads are hard-working and put in a lot of work to cope with what is required of them and he thinks *there is a fair amount of stress involved in that*. Elias outlines the scope of responsibilities he faces:

You have to attend all sorts of meetings. There are the department meetings, which are regular. Then the faculty meetings, the academic board meetings and then there are these other meetings that come up from time to time. Josiah might call a meeting, so I have to consult with others like Denis, with Jim, who is the Faculty head...and then meeting students coming.... At the moment I have another concern with running the course, The Graduate Diploma in Religious Education that's coming up in the research weeks that we have in November. And another concern at the moment is the development of the department into degree, degree level. So that means adding another two years to the diploma course that we have and the responsibility of working out the course for that. And that means working with other departments such as PNG-Studies, which [means] looking at lecturers. I've been trying to find lecturers for next year [2005]. That means quite a lot of work in consulting with referees getting in touch with them getting responses emailing people back... as well as the day to day running of the ...well things like the exams, that's another meeting area in not only getting exams in ...we have to get those in and seeing they are in on time and then have meeting with the department examination committee, and then meeting with the university examination committee. There's a certain amount of work in that. The exam papers come in, and they need to be corrected...after they are corrected they come back and you meet with the university examination committee, they go to them they come back...

Maurice expresses in exasperation that: *... we are forever having new things asked from us which are, which were not on the agenda*. He also speaks of working *at every spare moment*. *There's just too many things, there's just too many things to do*.

Maurice outlines the range of activities that constitute expectations on him such things as...

...the cleaning of louvers in classroom, removing beetle nut stains from the floors hence the academic department should look after that. As well, in [my department] we have got some visiting students from Queensland University of Technology in the next couple of weeks so that has to be organised. That's the bloc course to be delivered by the professor from QUT coming next weekend, so that has to be organized so there's all these things.... And then there is the staffing for next year, a number of our staff are going on study; a number of our staff are leaving.

I don't think you are at the moment keeping on top. There's just too many things, there's just too many things to do: [There's] review of curriculum, when course

outlines finish, we're hoping we have a presentation before the Academic Board in October; we have a meeting this afternoon. Yes, for the next three weeks, well, we won't be able to do any of that I can see it. Both Anna and I have been there in the office until nine o'clock at night, on most nights.

Well, we are just not getting it done. Our first priority has got to be our students. And our office is very busy office, that's why we are not having the interview in there. The kids are there all the time because that is part of their work. It's not on the timetable but our staff are working very hard with those students, processing their work, having photos so it's a very busy place all day. Students come to me and want references. At the moment, I've got forty references that need to be written. Mentoring work, advising students, all of that on top of the curriculum that needs to be reviewed, the teaching that needs to be done, there's little time at the end of the day to have any reading done...

Roman comments prior to the interview that he had to get up at four o'clock in the morning to prepare an assessment activity in order for him to meet the 24-hour submission requirement for photocopy requests. Maurice who was often observed to be working on weekends says that in his department:

...necessarily...there is a lot of outside class work. You do...far more work outside class with the students than you do in your teaching time. That goes for all, all our teachers. Just one example is Nisha, who teaches the radio. On the program is six hours a week and it looks like: 'Only six hours a week, oh that's nothing, anybody could do that! But what you don't see on the program is the other twenty to thirty hours a week that she spends in the studio working with the students, in keeping the studio running with the equipment. But, that's just one. The people doing... the student training newspaper. I'd recall years ago, when Peter was here, you know the volunteer, who would work at night time, and he would have to enjoy that he'd be getting on to the students and helping them and, you know, kidding them along, getting upset with them,...just working generally with them until late at night. [But the lecturer they have now] says: 'No, I'm not doing anything like that. I will not do that! It's not what I see as being an academic.' So as a result, the newspaper does not come out as regularly and it's not as good.

Ronald, also an acting faculty dean, explains that:

As head of department, you are expected to provide academic leadership for functions; one is development in nature because you have to think of some things which you can try to introduce for the development of the department in terms of teaching, research and extension. I do a lot of house keeping like; I see to it that the university academic policies are well implemented and followed by the staff. As far as the students are concerned, I see to it ...how one is affected by the implementation of policies concerning teaching of the staff. As far as the students are concerned, we also mentor and do a lot of academic consultation with the students so that they could progress with their studies, conduct meeting and attend meetings also.

When it comes to the care of facilities, such as lecture rooms, Ronald considers these expectations as “housekeeping” concerns as opposed to “academic” concerns. As such, he delegates the tasks to the students thereby limiting his involvement to the role of a supervisor. In that way, Ronald reduces his workload whilst inculcating in students a sense of responsibility. He explains his approach:

...we are also required to attend to, like huh...assign this responsibility to one of our students, but of course I still have to monitor because there is such a thing as ultimate responsibility. I will still be accountable to whatever happens. I believe this look out of the buildings, the cleanliness, or maintenance should not anymore be pressed on the functions of the dean. We can only do so much, but you know to check of the missing chair, or these louvers and cleanliness. So it is...part of the students' responsibility, also the up keep of their rooms so they're doing this and I'm happy that they have responded to this so that's also developing in them a sense of ownership of the classroom and be able to help in safeguarding the properties of the university. And also part of developing... you know, a sense of responsibility... it is a very good training for them.

Given the work expectations of HoDs, a need for clerical support was raised and noted in the consultancy report in 2003. Denis, a member of the executive group of vice presidents, however, was of the opinion that HoDs' work requirements did not amount to a heavy work load and the size of departments did not justify separate administrative support. His response indicates a disconnect between senior managers and the staff, which is an observation that resurfaces in other contexts. Denis writes:

... I do not believe there is an overload in the work requirements of Heads of Department. Clerical staff would assist Heads of Department in their duties but the present context does not permit. The size of the departments is not that big that a heavy workload exists. There is a danger of wanting to distance tasks that are simply not academic, and in the process distance themselves from students. This would have a negative effect on a specific character of DWU, [that]of positive student-staff relationships.

The teaching mission focus is reflected also in the professional role perceptions of staff. Responses of some members of staff such as Amelia indicate that staff see themselves primarily as teachers. Amelia, a Papua New Guinean and teacher by training said she joined DWU...

because of my profession. ...I'm a teacher by profession so that is the thing that keeps me motivated to be a teacher. It helps me to know more, I mean to

learn things on my own through research at the same time meeting people and passing knowledge over to young people of Papua New Guinea.

5.2.2 Research Mission

In terms of the research mission, the data show that there is minimal involvement despite the fact that there was increasing pressure from the executive level for staff to engage in research activity. For instance, only three members of staff (Maurice, Anna and Florence) out of the 18 interviewee participants were engaged in any substantial and ongoing research activity even during the six weeks specifically set aside on the university calendar for this activity.

However, a shift indicative of greater interest in research output was observed as DWU in tangible ways was attempting to raise the profile of the research function. For instance, in the revised Administration Manual of 2003, increased attention was given to the research function when this function was explicitly linked to teaching. Research was also being given greater attention by the DWU's leadership. At a meeting of academics and senior managers in June 2004, the president urged the staff to engage in research activity saying: *We cannot be a university if we don't do research*. Denis, in another context had also expressed that ongoing research was necessary for research to be "effective". He saw the six weeks dedicated to research activity at the end of the academic year as time for staff *to prepare and develop basic work before entering into research activities*. Denis, however, did not elaborate on what he meant by "basic work".

DWU was further facilitating staff to engage in research through staff development. Workshops were organized to equip them with requisite research skills. It was also provided funding for staff to enroll in the in-house postgraduate course in Educational Leadership which had a research component. In addition, a research journal was created to encourage staff to publish their findings. These developments were indicative of DWU shifting from a university primarily involved in teaching and therefore, the conservation of knowledge to research or knowledge creation. They

were also indicative of DWU moving forward in line with the research mission as stipulated in its Charter.

A range of reasons was given for their low levels of engagement in research when this study was conducted. Denis linked DWU's present orientation towards teaching, and the subordination of research, to the growing status of the university:

As a young university DWU is attempting to encourage research activities, although it does not come immediately and has to evolve, as do other functions of a university. A number of staff members are involved with research in their studies even though other staff do not realize it.

However, HoDs Helen, Ronald and Elias and faculty dean Jim cited the factor of heavy workload and its subsequent pressure on time as the main constraint to their research productivity. Elias, an Australian brother in the Marist order who was waiting for some spare time to prepare his PhD thesis for publication, for instance, explains: *I find it [being HoD] quite a time consuming occupation.... I don't get time to research...I'm just not getting the time.* Others such as Lynda saw no incentive to undertake research. Lynda was a lay and committed Catholic from an Asian country who was one of a select group who had been with DWU the longest. A lack of resource support was also cited by another staff member. The perceptions of staff relating to resource availability are supported by the consultants who in 2003 noted in their report that both resource support and heavy workloads were curtailing research productivity. The report stated:

The lack of time and resources appears to be more fundamental. The four to six weeks at the end of the year that are reserved for research are not sufficient for setting up and conducting academic research programs. Yet, giving people the opportunity to work on research throughout the year will have budget implications. Even though some research might be sponsored, budget implications might also apply to the availability of resources. For that reason it is important to include the priority of academic research programs in the strategic planning process....

However, at the management level, the perception contradicted the views of the staff and the consultants that resource availability was a factor determining research output. This is another illustration of the disconnect between administrator-managers and academics. At one meeting with the staff in responding to the concerns of resource available to support research activity, the president told the staff that: *...we don't need*

resources for all research activities. What is needed is initiative to employ ourselves in whatever capacity. For the rank and file staff members such as Amelia and Virgo, the dearth of research output on their part is linked to a lack of research skills. Both are qualified at the first degree level and both joined DWU from a profession in primary teaching.

Anna is an experienced academic. This experience is reflected in the connection she sees with research output and a research culture. She thinks a research culture has yet to develop at DWU. She outlines some of the preconditions on which the development of the research culture depend. She suggests that for DWU to create an academic environment, its programs need to become more academic and their delivery be conducted at higher academic standards; that there are adequate resources to support research; and the teaching staff have higher qualifications. Anna explains:

There is no academic freedom because there is no academic environment. ...the university became a university only very recently [ten years]. And it followed the...classic pattern in developing countries where a private institution becomes a university and it has to depend a lot on funding from outside sources or generating profit for itself. Therefore, the emphasis is on creating the infrastructure that is not there and then delivering of services. Creating, having academic activities means that, you need to have extra funds and the funds are not available for that. ... academic activities are not seen as directly contributing to profit making, or generating income, so this particular case, I think that what we do we have the classic vocational higher institution, where people teach, and that is the main focus of it.

There are individuals who would want to do research, but they are just individuals, there is no culture, or there is no willingness from the university to hire, to take the cost to hire people, that they are highly qualified, they are academics, in order to create that culture around them.

Anna also links the current low level of research activity to the effectiveness of the recruitment function as well as to the experience of those who occupy senior level academic leadership positions within the organization. She explains:

... it depends on the leaders the university chooses to hire to put in key positions, because these are the people who are going to motivate their staff or colleagues to do research, and this is also lacking, there is no...the academic leadership in the university is not very strong.

Anna further sees the focus on teaching as informed by a view that subordinates...

academic activities [that] are not seen as directly contributing to profit making, or generating income. ...we have the classic vocational higher institution, where people teach, and that is the main focus of it.

These factors contribute to a situation where the six weeks dedicated to research at the end of the academic year are taken up by non research related activities such as department administration-related activities, course preparatory work such as curriculum review and work on unit outlines for the new academic year, and house keeping activities like managing department facilities.

5.2.3 Public and Community Service Mission

DWU is also dedicated to the mission of service to the community. This community, as the president suggests, includes the organizational community of DWU and the external towns and provincial communities which play host to DWU and its campuses. At the meeting of 16 June 2004, besides urging staff to engage in research, the president also initiated discussion on the service function going so far as to define how it would be translated within the DWU context. The president saw the goal of community service as aligned with the university's strategic plan to:

maintain and enhance the university standing [within the community]. Staff as individuals are already involved in community service, but are not recognized by the community yet. I will ask the Council to set aside a budget for rewards [for those staff members who demonstrate a dedication to community service]

Service-related work at DWU includes work such as the care of department facilities, involvement in extra-curricular activities, such as acting as club or class patrons and undertaking supervisory duties in the library. There are also tacit expectations for staff to be involved in religious activities such as the community choir, and sporting and fund-raising activities.

Indicative of the significance of the service function to DWU, the president further informed the staff that he saw community service as the external expression of DWU's vision and mission. He explained:

Community Service is an integral part of work of DWU, to be encouraged, recognized and should be guided by policies.... University is in the midst of real life, so the institution is not to be isolated from life.

Also during the meeting of 16 June 2004, the president informed the staff of the decision to organize the 2005 academic year around the theme of “community service” in line with established tradition where each year is organized around a theme considered pertinent to DWU. However, the president promoted that service be first “demonstrated” internally before it was extended into the wider external community.

The president went so far as to illustrate what his perception of effective internal community service entailed. Staff, he suggested, would demonstrate DWU’s commitment to service by undertaking work that contributed to minimizing operational costs to the university, in doing so assisting the organization to directed funds to support activities related to teaching and learning. The president explained: *Much money is spent on employing labour to keep the campus clean. If students spent one hour of community service a week, there will be no need for employing much help. That money could be used for other things such as IT.*

In defining and linking service to the interest of minimizing costs to the organization, the president was defining service as linked to acts of altruism. This is the concept of service which Daniel describes as the “culture of service” or “common ethos” that is often placed before the staff. The inculcation of this service ethos is present in the response to the consultants’ observation by Denis who is a member of the consultative body to the president constituted and vice-presidents is also a brother in the Christian Brothers’ religious order of the Catholic Church. The external consultants suggested in 2003 that, given the tenuous state of DWU’s resources, the organization was perhaps attempting to over-extend itself as it moved forward in expanding the organization through amalgamations and affiliations. Denis’ response suggests that the influence of the missionary ideal of service to people in need entails self-deprivation for the one extending service: Denis writes: *A [The] reason for DWU to exist as a university is that it responds to the needs of the country. It is not about being safe and comfortable as a traditional university.* He argues that there is no other way to proceed stating that in “any business setting, there is risk taking”. Denis

argues further that for DWU, a tangible extension of the Church's Catholic missionary work in the service of education, the education apostolate, the participation in higher education reform was a risk worth taking in a context of government indifference and a precarious economy.

By contrasts, Amir, a young and articulate graduate of DWU, explains how he understands community service. His understanding of service indicates that for him service involves the extension of this professional expertise to benefit the community. Using his current studies towards professional certification as a Certified Public Accountant (CPA) as a case in point, Amir explains how the expertise he acquires could be used in the service of the community:

... the university, in one of its objectives, [aims] to provide service to the community. ... being a CPA, I can be able to offer community service to the outside community. I can be able to provide...accounting services, auditing services, taxation services to the outside communities...that sort of thing.

5.2.4 Market Mission

Yet another mission of DWU is evident in the emerging discourse particularly at the level of management but also at the levels of academic board and the University Council. This mission orientation is service to meet what the market's education demands are. The new language constructing academic work practices is evident in terms such as "responding to the market" "to train students for the industry", to "try and establish the market" in order to tailor courses to the market place. Further indicative of this mission of DWU are the courses or programs offered through DWU's Faculty of Flexible Learning, courses some of which are specifically tailored to serve special interest groups such as bank managers or police personnel. These courses were funded by aid organizations such as AusAID. They contributed to improving DWU's resource stocks by generating additional income. However, concerns with quality of provision have also surfaced leading to calls for auditing of the courses and their assessment.

The demand to serve the needs of the market in order to generate income for the organization adds pressure on the academics as is illustrated in the experience of staff

members such as Anna. Anna recounts being told that her engagement in academic activities such as participation in international conferences were *to be actually praised, [yet] at the same time it wasn't seen how they really fit in the university's environment and context*. Anna explains what she understood being advanced by this type of views:

...I was given the impression that my academic activities are very much needed and encouraged, but the message came back to me directly that in fact that we don't need to raise the level of the curriculum and activities to such high academic standards because we risk to generate graduates that are far too qualified for the market environment for Papua New Guinea.

...the way I interpret it, its either...this particular university is not ready yet to perform at such high academic level because they didn't specify, or being an academic doesn't have a space in this particular context because we are having other priorities, as I said, the priorities are to generate graduates who will be absorbed by the market and have a reputation in the market that will instantly justify the cause of the university's existence.

Anna sees this orientation as typical *in a developing country where there is the classic argument, we don't really need that, you know, it's a luxury for us, we just need to train these students to go out and get jobs. That at least sends the message that we are vocational and it's a major hindrance*. However, literature on university change shows that these concerns are common on university campuses world wide. As Anna explains that academic activities are seen as...

a luxury. We need to deal with practical issues and is one of the underlying messages going through the university, although they are giving mixed messages, I believe, we should do research. At the same time, they say that we should be training the students to go out and get a job,... we should be responding to the market needs.

5.2.5 Religious Mission

DWU also serves a religious mission to educate the Papua New Guinean so she/he is equipped to conduct herself or himself ethically and morally in life. The organization's charter, the DWU's Charter (Appendix A), commits the organization to the service of this mission when it states that:

The institute shall be a Christian community based on love for all men for each other, because each is a child of God. Let the community of the institution, therefore, be an authentic model for national unity in Papua New Guinea because the Christian philosophy that all men are equal as sons and daughters of God is, perhaps, the only philosophy which can unite the diverse cultures of Papua New Guinea.

As a Christian institution, it shall serve national objectives simultaneously with Church purposes. The Church's broad philosophy of education, based on its broad view of the nature of man, causes the Church's expectations of the institution to cater to the total human development of every individual involved with the institute. No conflict is seen between national goals and church expectations. For this purpose, therefore, let the institute be so incorporated into the State of Papua New Guinea as to become a legally recognized identity in the country.

The religious orientation set in the charter informs the organization's main objective to grow into a "vibrant Christian intellectual community" (Divine Word University 2004, p. 5). It also finds expression in the organization's vision and mission statements. DWU's vision reads that: "Divine Word is a Catholic University open to all, serving society through its teaching and research in a Christian environment" (Divine Word University 2004, p. 5). The religious elements of its mission statement include: "a Catholic presence in an academic environment; emphasis on the development of moral and ethical behaviour in public, private and professional life base on Christian values; dedication to social justice and offering equal opportunity to all and ecumenical acceptance of all students and staff without regard to race and religion..." (Divine Word University 2004, p. 5).

These religious values expressed in discourse inform practice and behaviour at different levels of the organization. They are made visible in religious ritual observances such as weekly "community mass"; observances of significant religious events such as Easter, prayers before meetings, prayers during building commissioning events and other organizational events such as the annual graduation and the Open Day. Religious symbols such as the cross were observed to be conspicuously displayed. Many of the university's buildings bear names of members of the two religious founding orders and benefactors. At the level of curriculum, the religious mission of DWU is further illustrated in the requirement that all courses reserve a quota for units that are religious in nature. In addition, the religious purpose

and values the organization promotes are often reiterated and reinforced in written spoken communication that originated from the president.

In terms of this study, the belief that influences DWU activities at the subsurface level and one that is symbolic of the religious mission of the organization is the belief in missionary service. The belief is inculcated by the religious nature of the organizational leadership. It subsequently permeates the key functions of the organization, including decision-making and how the human resource is managed.

5.3 DWU's Decision-making Model

DWU's decision-making model is explored in order to further understand the beliefs and values that drive decision-making at DWU. Observations of staff behaviour, the analysis of documentary sources as well as responses to the questions around the issues of academic freedom and resource distribution contribute to understanding DWU's governance model.

The data shows that DWU is a centralized and formalized organization. The level of centralization is depicted in the organizational chart (Appendix I). Within the main DWU organizational pyramid are three divisional pyramids representing the three main functional areas of the organization, Administration, Academic and Finance. These divisions are all of equal standing with a vice president heading each. Vice-presidents were observed to make occasional forays into other divisions. The three divisions spike in the office of the president and the DWU Council. In the academic divisional pyramid, the structure consists of faculties and departments attended by three supervisory positions, the Dean of Studies, the six faculty deans under who are department heads who coordinate the work of the rank and file academics.

As well as being centralized, DWU is a formalized organization as it also depends on prescription to coordinate and control work. Indicative of its formalized nature is that social positions and their relationship to other offices and work expectations and work processes are prescribed in extensive detail.

Communication within the organization escalates and descends the line of command and control. The perceptions of staff of this decision-making model show that it is a model that permits the top executive to wield a lot of power over all aspects of the organization. In doing so, staff suggest that the discretion to exercise professional autonomy over their work is curtailed. Their experiences of DWU's authority are described in terms such as "top-centered", "bureaucratic", "autocratic", and "authoritarian". Maurice, for instance, describes the structure of decision-making as "a hierarchy of limitations". This means that, as Anna defines in contest, everyone has to defer constantly to some higher authority. She also suggests that coercion is resorted to ensure compliance. There is...

the lack of delegation of responsibility. [Its] very bureaucratic and autocratic. It's a very authoritarian way of running the institution. Everybody has to report to the higher authority. ...you take decisions by yourself, and then you have to be ready to face the repercussions.

She explains that the lack of delegation of authority and clear demarcation of responsibility is evidenced in the management often setting and defining the agenda to be pursued by the academics:

Many initiatives with academic bearing come from the administration. There are no defined boundaries between the job of administration-management and what the roles of the academic leaders are. I would say, the head of departments, the faculty deans should be the ones who...should be leading academically the institution.

Daniel's experience resonates closely with Anna's. He sees staff involvement in decision-making as minimal where staff are merely at the directive-receiving end of the decision-making process. Daniel explains: *Staff participation in decision-making is minimal. ...to be honest I think...it is authoritative....*

The view that decision-making is "top-centered" is collaborated by observations of how meetings are initiated and conducted. For instance, it was observed that significant academic initiatives originated from the level of management who then organized meetings to announce these to the staff. At the meeting of 16 June 2004, for instance, the decision to organize the coming academic year 2005 around the theme of "community service" in line with established the tradition where each year is organized around a theme, was chosen by management who then proceeded to

communicate through an announcement to the staff. The announcement was followed by the definition of the concept again by management. At the same meeting, staff were informed of the creation of a committee on quality assurance, membership to which each faculty was tasked to nominate. At another meeting, the president informed the staff in no uncertain terms of his expectations of how they were to utilize the six weeks of research during October and November:

As the president, I make myself clear. For six weeks we are expecting staff to contribute. Some staff say we don't have resources. Well, we don't need resources for all research activities. What is needed is initiative to employ ourselves in whatever capacity. We have to demonstrate we can do research. We cannot be a university if we don't do research.

During the same meeting, the President also informed the staff of the decision to relocate them from the common staffroom in the administration building to individual department offices. Staff listened attentively as he expressed his view that: *Next year [2005] there will be no need for staff room. I don't think so there will be need for the staff room.* He presented the shift as a move that would advantage them in that, it would prevent the deans and management from interfering with the daily running of their departments, in doing so, limiting their roles to that of coordinators and coaches.

However, the move that relocated staff closer to their departments and lecture rooms, presented the staff with new limitations. Staff of all but two departments stood to lose the comforts of an air-conditioned work space. All stood to lose convenient access to amenities as well as easy access to phones, mail printing and email services.

Subsequent to the announcement and despite these new constraints, staff showed little observable resistance and began vacating the staffroom. Staff member Anthony's experience illustrates the constraints that confronted the staff in the new work arrangement. Anthony was observed at a quarter to five one afternoon busy in front of one of the shared computers in the soon to be vacated staffroom. In response to the question on what he was doing he replies:

I have shifted. I have a computer in the department office. But it is not connected to the network yet. So all day, I have been downloading data on diskettes and transferring them to the office computer.

Anna finds the command and control style of management where staff are told when “you should do research” or when “you should do that, or that’s the time you will be going to conferences” as “very patronizing” “autocratic” and “paternalistic” ...where we are seen as children and children can play but they cannot be allowed to make decisions.”

However, contrary to the staff perceptions of organizational decision-making as marginalizing or infantilizing them, documentary analysis and observations show management ostensibly attempting to involve staff in delegating decision-making responsibility. For instance, at a meeting with the heads of departments and deans, these academic line managers were encouraged to make decisions. The President invited them to...

study the situation and see what is the best.... Some times, there are eight of us or seven of us [but] at the end of the meeting we have one decision. And sometimes we make wrong decision, often, so staff members say ‘look here you are wrong’ yeah, sure we are wrong. So problem again. But at least decisions are made, yeah? The worst thing [that] can happen in an institution is nobody makes the decision. We are making decision, we are taking responsibility. That’s what we do.

If at the level of management, the view is that staff are involved in decision-making, responses of staff to the question on academic freedom go to show further that decision-making is non-participatory and top-down. This model curtails the development of a vibrant intellectual context where academic values of freethinking, intellectual risk taking, and open debate are encouraged. Jim defines such a context as one which encourages a person...

to... speak on ... and express one’s opinion on intellectual issues, issues that relate to research that impact on human society and that are generally beneficial for the social development of a nation and that would be in my opinion something of an academic nature , of understanding the foundations of the knowledge it is associated, the issues are associated with and ah...getting to objectively address the issues and at the same time identifying shortcoming or...identifying areas of knowledge, of related knowledge that need to be pursued further to try and reach an understanding of the nature of the subject that we’re discussing and at the same time looking for its application and implication for society.

Jim, Anna and Daniel perceive that the present management seems intolerant of professional independence or autonomy. Staff views contained in section 4.2 that dealt with decision-making and communication of the 2003 consultancy report agree with the views revealed in this study. The report documented that staff were fearful of being singled out for reprisal for expressing views that management saw as a “personal attack” on them. Such responses from management affected in staff a behaviour characterized by passivity and compliance. Observations of this behaviour led the consultants in 2003 to go so far as to recommend that: *Management should learn to accept discussions and questions as professional input and feedback that could support development instead of taking it as personal criticism.* They note further that:

This is a very strong and worrying signal, especially in an organization that characterizes itself by its open, religious and professional environment. You would rather expect that an academic organization would stimulate authentic thinking and expression of personal opinions, since staff represents a highly educated group of professionals (Report section 4.2 Findings and recommendations-Decision-making).

Jim, drawing from his experience in university governance, predicts that this model of management and the behaviour it promotes in staff will change over time:

I think it [academic independence] will probably need some time for that to develop, and for people to gain confidence to say that...we can express ourselves and be allowed to be challenged and not take it personally. I think there is still a certain degree of ...well people sometimes may feel threatened about their ideas...

Anna suggests that the conditions which create an environment that nurtures academic freedom are yet to exist at DWU. To begin with, she suggests, the concept of “academic” needs to be defined before there can be any discussion on academic freedom. An academic climate, Anna says, has to be developed from the bottom up and not imposed from above. First, all courses have to be delivered at a higher academic level. Second, research has to be individual interest driven and third, there needs to be adequate resources available to support scholarly activities such as conference participation when findings of research can be presented.

But staff member Helen, on the other hand, says she experiences no restrictions on what she says or teaches. Elsewhere, however, in a case involving decision-making around course structure review, Helen is observed to act on the basis of directives from organizational authority rather than on the basis of professional judgment. Helen recounts how she was directed “to reduce course units from eight to four” a semester.

Helen’s contradictory behaviour goes to illustrate the type of participatory decision-making that was not genuine or superficial participation. The consultants argued that genuine delegation of authority entails “true handing over of authority, and ostensible participation is characterized by a “delegation of tasks”.

But even as the top-down management model is criticized for its centralization of authority, both the staff and the external consultants also noted that it serves a purpose for DWU. The advantages of the models for DWU are linked to the resource position of the organization and by extension, its service mission. For instance, the consultants noted in section 6 of their report which dealt with finance that the centralized model of governance had contributed significantly to propel DWU’s development forward to its current position.

DWU’s development over the last years has not surprisingly had a lot of impact on DWU’s financial situation. Not only has the DWU budget more than doubled since 1998, as a private institution DWU, has also had to manage this budget very tightly in order to be able to realize its exceptional growth. On top of that the government has not met its payments for some time, causing DWU to struggle with its cash position.

Anna agrees that one of the advantages for DWU of centralized decision-making is that it minimizes “misfunction” and helped to focus energies as well as in controlling and channeling limited resources to what was considered important. Her view suggests that centralization facilitates and expedites organizational change as it minimizes descent or debate. Amelia is more accommodating of centralized decision-making. She sees the current leadership as visionary and credits it for development of the university. The pace at which DWU had developed in its first decade as a university would agree with this view. Amelia’s view resonates with the view expressed by Denis who links strong leadership as inherently beneficial for any

organization. Commenting in his response to the observation presented by the consultants of the potential pitfalls for DWU of over-dependence on an individual, Denis writes:

As a straight-out statement the comment that DWU is dependent upon the President is true. Any institution is dependent upon its leader and the quality of any institution is generally a reflection of the quality of its leader. DWU is held in very high regards around PNG and this is a reflection of the quality of leadership given by the President. However, the President often represents DWU community views.

He goes further to write in explanation that DWU's model of management:

...must be considered that the management model for an educational institution in a developing country might not be simply following a business management model, but might model structures for a non-profit making organization.

However, Denis does not elaborate on the specific model of organization that is common among non-profit organizations. Denis also thinks that there is participatory decision-making even if only at the level of management. On that basis he contests the statement made by consultants that:

The President himself still makes decisions and solely has the overall knowledge is not correct as in reality there is significant communication between the Office of the President and the Vice Presidents.

Daniel suggests that one of the reasons for the management exercising such a tight control of discourse and processes is due to an underlying feeling of insecurity. But Daniel as well as Anna links the authoritative nature of organizational leadership to the religious affiliation of the members of some within the ranks of management. Daniel, who has once studied for the religious life, explains:

...as far as I can understand, it keeps coming from again, as I've said, a legacy, church legacy where people who were here before and they've established a system where the authority figure speaks and people listen, and there is very little room for questioning and sharing...

5.3.1 Resource Distribution and Centralization Link

The findings show a link between centralization of the decision-making function and the limited state of resources at DWU's disposal. The experiences of staff at the level of course delivery highlight the tensions around resources, centralization and the service mission of the organization.

When resources are few, organizations such as DWU appeal to volunteer and missionary service ideal to support a state such as PNG to provide an education service. At the level of organizational governance, service as the impetus for work leads to a centralization of authority. The experience of staff suggests this link in the context of DWU. When service in the context of limited resources limits authority over the distribution of scar resources, staff feel powerless to influence a shift in decision-making that distributes resources. Subsequently, DWU staff are often left to depend on the charity from friends and family to secure resources needed to support the delivery of their units.

Anthony, who was recruited from a media profession, finds teaching at university “not so easy” made more challenging by resource constraints. He describes the lengths he often goes to to secure resources. He illustrates the constraints he faces in trying to secure a magazine he needed,

...but as usual, they are telling me there is no money..., not only me, they are telling everyone else... I guess if I have enough money, I [would] subscribe myself to those magazines, which is what I am thinking of doing.

Anthony recounts a time when his colleague, Maurice, when faced with a similar situation, had turned to a family member in Australia to buy, in his case, the cameras their department needed. Maurice confirms the dependence on charity of friends and family further saying that the department had also funded subscription to a relevant journal, with funding sourced from friends in Queensland, Australia. Furthermore, the department had also paid for membership of the Journalism Education Institute of Australia, membership which entitled the department to receive the organization's journal.

Anthony expresses the frustration associated with resource limitations that confronts him in his work:

... I don't get everything I want like I explained the situation with the photography course. ...a lot of times I find I have to...look for my own things... sometimes I feel [it's] a bit unfair because these things should be available. This is the course we said we want to teach, then the university really should be the one responsible in making sure the materials to teach are available. So, we try to help ourselves because that's the way it is the reality here. ...you'll never be able to teach, so you might as well go out and help yourself.

David in the same department as Anthony and Maurice also refers to the “scarcity” of resources such as journals that he requires to teach. He says it is a situation his department has struggled with in the four years he has been with the department and the university. Nevertheless, he is grateful that at least his department, unlike some of the others, has Internet access. He suggests that: *The problem in our department, I think, is the same in other departments as well where we have problems with material in terms of keeping abreast the latest [knowledge]....* He is yet one more staff member, who links the problems of provision as associated with resource availability. And yet he is quite accepting of the situation. David explains that his difficulty with securing resources is due to...

the funding aspect of the university. The university does not have the money for the departments to do what they want and get what they want and we cannot expect much. It's the growing nature of the university ...it's a private institution. We don't have to expect too much. We have to make do with what we have.

Despite his sympathy, he quickly adds:

No, when it comes to things like the materials that I have to use....there have been one or two courses...two or three courses that I taught during the four years that I've been here... It's just a frustrating experience where you just have no books. I just had to search here and there asking people around and then put something together...like I said earlier on, that is part of a bigger problem in the university. We just don't have the resources.

David also speaks of his department using personal networks to acquire resources needed to support course delivery. Maurice, one of the few staff members engaged in research, counts himself fortunate that he has access to the relevant and adequate texts and journals for his current research project. Jim is also fortunate to have access to the Internet at home. As a dean, Jim also has Internet access at work. At the time of

data collection, the service was available only to the academic leadership level of the deans. But by 2007, there was not only wider Internet access there as was also wireless access. The university also had subscriptions to academic and scholarly journals and archival data sources such as JSTOR or Journal Storage.

At the time of this research in 2004, Jim was one of a select group of staff members who had access to the Internet and therefore could access some current literature for research purposes. Jim explains:

I...look out on publications that are displayed by organizations at conferences and all that and just a review of their, what you call it, abstract. It helps to ...get some idea of what the developments are although the details may not be there but, generally, you get some idea and if you want to search it in.

Lynda, one of the longest serving staff members with eight years with the university, thinks there have been cut backs on journal subscriptions. She says previously there had been subscriptions to journals and magazines, but thinks there have been reductions in subscriptions. With the new library,

I thought they will be subscribing to new periodicals or magazines, but I, I don't know. I didn't have time to update myself there because every time I went there they said: 'Oh the periodicals are already there, they are still in processing....' But now when they are cutting costs, I don't know what happened, there are no more new or update journals. I think the last time I saw the journals in accountancy in the library was 2002.

Roman, however, sees the issue as not so much related to scarcity but with the use of journals. He thinks that his department has not put to maximum use the available journals. Ronald is sympathetic of the situation and accepts the limitations, much like David as noted earlier. He also suggests that staff maximize use of available resources.

There are... a lot of things which the library may not have...sometimes when you go to the periodical section, you see a lot of journals also, which if you try to go over them, you will learn a lot about developments taking place in your field like management, marketing and other fields.

Helen as HoD speaks of the state of resources in her department in 2004, a department from which she was rotated to head another in 2005. She thinks her department is

adequately provisioned due in part to the course being funded under the AusAID capacity-building program within the PNG health sector. She explains:

I am only interested in what we've got. I like to see for example, in the library you've got also the Pacific Economic Review, that is published, I think by one of these universities here in the Pacific and there are also those supplied by World Health Organization...from the economic side also we have the Central Bank of Papua New Guinea that provides the ... So, I can not just say enough or not, I just select what I have....

Staff concerns about the level of resources necessary for course provision is supported at the level of the DWU Council as well as external observers. Thomas, a member of the Council, reported at the first meeting of the body in 2004 that he had observed that the general state of collection in the new library was “very old”. He asked to know what plans the university had in place for refurbishing the collection. Denis, the chair, responded saying it would take three years to raise funds from donations to build up the collection. Denis' response again illustrates the reliance on charity from organizations or individuals to make provision available not only at the level of the departments but also at the university-wide level. As Helen's mention of AusAID support further illustrates, aid organizations such as AusAID have in a big way come to support DWU in its service to PNG. Not only has the organization supported programs, it has supported DWU in funding key pieces of infrastructure such as the library and the auditorium.

Writing against centralization of decision-making over resource distribution and use, the consultants suggested in 2003 that HoDs be given direct control over their limited budget, in so doing instilling a “sense of urgency for cost savings” as well as providing them with an “opportunity to make their own prioritization”. Denis, in responding to this suggestion, affirms that *textbooks and management of resources are key issues in daily servicing of courses*. However, he suggests that the issue is not so much with adequate resource provision but more with how existing levels of provision were managed. He writes that: *Heads of Departments do have [theoretically] an operating budget and some heads manage these better than others*. However, even as they forwarded the suggestion, the consultants saw in 2003 the inevitability of centralized control of DWU's finances recognizing that the *limited*

availability of cash does not allow expenditure to be approved by someone without direct insight into DWU's cash position.

5.3.2 Organizational Change, Resources and Centralization

The exploration of the issue of organizational development and change establishes a further connection between decision-making that impacts on institutional resources. Since gaining university status in 1996, and within current resource levels, DWU has experienced a fast pace of development. Staff members Anna, Daniel, Helen and Maurice accept that change is inevitable, but think that the scale, rapidity and relentless pace of growth place a demand on resources that exacerbates the existing scarcity and therefore, impacts on academic work. The same views are noted in the consultants' report in 2003. In the report, staff express that change had "been too many [and] too sudden ...to maintain the quality levels". The report contained a recommendation that because "... academic activities are the core activities of any university, changes to these activities should be taken with due consideration". The consultants also suggested that it appeared that DWU was *trying to do too much with limited resources* and therefore, *needed to not only prioritize but also consolidate its activities to "best serve the university's long term objectives*. The consultants acknowledging DWU's "period of exceptional growth and expansion", however, suggested that, instead of further expansion, it should consider consolidating...

changes that have been initialized in the past... by giving them time to be implemented and stabilized before further change was introduced. This consolidation is both required within the academic programs and in the organization that supports these.

Even then, the consultants recognize the need for DWU to remain open to change.

They note:

To a certain extent, DWU will have to remain flexible to the needs of PNG. However, these changes should always be part of a long-term plan. This will provide DWU with the opportunity to manage the amount of changes and to implement them without affecting the academic quality.

Daniel, however, sees change as made visible primarily in its focus on physical infrastructure development. He would like to see infrastructure expansion be matched by similar levels of support for human resource capacity building. As far as he is concerned, when one talks about ...*the change-taking place at the university, you talk about infrastructure change. It does not really impact on the work aspect.* He feels that staff are not too happy with the current situation where they see rapid change in infrastructure development but experience very slow change in terms of better training opportunities of benefit to them.

I think people appreciate, [that] okay what is happening is good, but what is happening [should] also... enhance them personally [as it] would encourage them. So infrastructure development should go hand in hand or in parallel with staff development.

Maurice is cautious not to appear “too cynical about change” but reflects Daniel’s view when he suggests that the current focus of change is on infrastructure development. The priorities, he thinks, stems from a competition of values which preference “bricks” over computers, or as Florence describes, value differences that place importance in a new gate over support for staff.

Anna wants to see a type of change that shifts some power to the academics, not so much on that which makes the biggest visible impression. Anna explains:

...a lot of things have changed, so many things have changed say from infrastructure, physical infrastructure to...administrative infrastructure. But, I would question the quality of these changes. There is a lot of emphasis put on physical infrastructure because it would satisfy the donors when you see that indeed the money given goes into something physical. There is change in the [governance] structure with the introduction of the faculties but I would question the effectiveness of the faculties because the faculties are not given substantial powers. The deans are not fully respected in their roles when the heads are still asked to communicate directly to the vice presidents on matters that reflect the faculty structure on decisions....

Anna also thinks that while there is change, there is not enough time for people to absorb the structures before more changes are introduced. In the consultants’ report of 2003, the fast pace of change is noted to impact on quality of academic provision:

Next to the strong growth in terms of size, DWU has also been growing from a high school to a university. This has called for a number of major changes in

quality and style of teaching. DWU has recognized this and has developed a large number of initiatives to raise the academic, the most important being the Academic Quality Assurance program.

Helen and Roman take change in their stride and speak of the need to be proactive and flexible in adapting and engaging with change. Their responses reflect their management background. Helen acknowledges that the last five years have seen “very, very rapid” rapid change at DWU. But she suggests that the way to manage and be positive about change is to be flexible. *...one must always adapt because if you are not flexible, you always stick to tradition. I think one cannot also go forward.* Roman welcomes change saying, there is “what you call the management of change” which explains why he adopts a very deliberate and considered approach to change.

...when I try to go for the change, I see to it that everything that I have to change has been properly studied, all the possible other alternative courses of action are available so that if this doesn't work, there are other things you could [do]... myself...like for example, last year we...started ...across-department teaching wherein lectures are held in auditorium. That is my ...first time to teach a large group but I have to adjust... for me, whenever there is a change, I ...prepare myself to be able to cope with the change.

One reason for the focus on physical infrastructure expansion may be found in the strategic plan of the organization. According to the plan, DWU's commitment for its first decade as a university is to “make the journey from high school culture into university culture” and establishing the preconditions for the delivery of quality education. Physical infrastructure development is considered as part of the foundations from which to provide quality higher education provision. But, as staff have also noted, in their view, building staff capacity equally contributes to establishing the foundations on which quality of education depends and therefore, should be supported at the same level as infrastructure development.

5.3.3 Impact of change on staff on workload

The findings show that change impacts on the workload of staff. One of the academic activities that continuously preoccupy staff time relates to the academic programs. Courses are under on-going reviews. New courses are continually being introduced often making faithful observance of policy prescription challenging. Indicating the

dominance of this activity, matters relating to either course review or introduction were recurrent issues on the Academic Board agenda for at least four years at the time of data collection in 2004. At one of the meetings in 2004, when the introduction of a new course was being considered, and when a member who was concerned with faithful observance of policies was inclined towards not accepting the course in the context of quality requirements, the chair expressed his displeasure saying: *We shouldn't just be debunking the courses. People have put a lot of work into them.* This exchange provides a perspective on how the Academic Board functioned. Therefore, whether it is possible that, as the consultants suggested in 2003, members of staff who had raised concerns about the pace of change who were in a position as members of the Academic Board, to “have a direct say in the speed of change”, could influence how fast or how slowly change should happen.

Others see benefits in change but pointed out that the subsequent increases in workload leave little time for scholarly activities. Maurice and Anna, for instance, both speak of increased demands on them resulting from change. Anna illustrates the impact on her resulting from the shift into the faculty structure:

...changes generate a lot more work for us. In the past when you didn't have the faculties, you were the head, you had a lot of administrative work to do still. But now you have extra because you have to sit on faculty meetings. You have to take time off to do that. You have to function within the faculty structure. In principle, its fantastic, I was looking forward to that to happen. But, it has generated a lot of work. Yes, there is a lot of psychological support within the faculty to at least know we are in a team that share the same issues but I have the feeling that is perhaps shared by my colleagues that at the level of the dean.

Maurice says besides on-going activities such curriculum reviews and research work, new things that are not on the agenda are constantly being asked of staff, so much so that his “every spare moment” is taken up. Maurice adds that part of being an academic at DWU is to be involved in “a shifting culture”. “It's not stabilized.”

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, first DWU's stated missions of teaching, research, community service and its implicit missions of service to the market and church were presented and analyzed. The analysis of the findings showed that DWU's involvement in these missions is driven by an altruistic and missionary desire to render a higher education service to the state of PNG whose capacity to make possible adequate levels of provision is constrained by resource limitations. As such, the current mission focus of DWU was on teaching but with increasing interests in the functions of research and public service. The increasing focus on the research and public service missions reflected the pace of organizational growth and improving resource capacity of the organization.

Besides presenting the missions of DWU, the findings that were related to how authority was exercised and the motivations for such authority were also presented and analyzed. These findings included the type of authority that determined how resources were distributed, and how academics work and organizational change were managed. These findings indicated that resource scarcity inherent of a charity-driven organization such as DWU advanced the cause for a centrally managed organization.

In the following chapter, the findings that are associated with HR practices and processes are presented and analyzed.

Chapter 6: DWU's HR Practices and Processes

...structural and cultural changes have occurred within the university impacting on the centrality of academic autonomy, professionalism and collegial relations, and cutting at the heart of traditional academic values (Winter, Richard 2004, p. 632)

6.1 Overview

In this chapter, the findings the study reveals about HR practices and processes are presented and analyzed. The specific HR functions analyzed include recruitment and selection, staff development, reward, motivation and organizational commitment, ranking and promotion and tenure, and turnover and retention. The practices and processes around these functions serve further as artifacts from which to draw conclusions on the beliefs and values that drive the DWU.

6.2. Recruitment and Selection

The influence of the missionary service belief is evident in the management of the HR function of recruitment, selection and placement of people within the organization. It is evident in how and where academic staff are recruited. The HR function of recruitment and selection is designed to meet the competencies requirements necessary for work to be performed in order for an organization to achieve its stated goals. DWU's Administration Manual (Divine Word University 2003) stipulates the competency levels required of its staff that are necessary for job performance. The department development policies 6.4.1.2 and 6.4.1.4, for instance, state that the goal of DWU...

is that every University lecturer should have at least a Masters degree. Hence, a lecturer with no Masters degree is encouraged to pursue a Masters degree. The Dean of Studies and every Head of Department should have at least a Masters degree (2003, p. 40).

The policies also prescribe the processes that would result in the recruitment of the required staff. Recruitment policies numbers 4.3.1 to 4.3.4 outline that:

The Departmental Head in need of a new employee submits a written request to the Dean of Studies at least thirty (30) days prior to the required hiring date, stating the following pertinent information:

- justification for request;
- job specifications for the position to be filled; and
- list of applicants / nominees, if available.

Upon approval by the Dean of Studies of the above request, the preliminary screening of applicants is done by the Departmental Head on the basis of CV and referrals. No appointment should be recommended unless the appointee submits a resume and two referees are contacted, either by phone or in writing.

The Departmental Head and Dean of Studies conduct an interview of each applicant and select a qualified candidate on the basis of the results of the preliminary screening, tests, and interview.

A recommendation is forwarded through the Vice President (Academic) to the President for approval. If approved, any special conditions of contract must be discussed and a contract issued to the appointee for consideration (Divine Word University 2003, p. 17).

The policies place the responsibility of this HR function on the HoDs, the Dean of Studies and Academic Vice President. The absence of the HR involvement in the recruitment and selection function is indicative of the absence of a dedicated office within the administrative structure of the DWU. Although, the policies state the qualifications sought in academic appointments and stipulate the process of recruitment, they however, do not stipulate the means through which the recruitment of staff is sought. The current practice noted by external consultants in 2003 and also by staff member Daniel, is that, it is not common for DWU to advertise job vacancies through publication in the mass media and that almost all new staff are recruited through DWU's networks or via open applications. The networks include western volunteer organizations such as the Australian Volunteers International (AVI) and Volunteer Service Overseas, (VSO), the missionary orders of the Catholic Church as well as networks of friends of staff. Potential staff are also recruited from amongst DWU's own graduates and attached to departments as Teaching Fellows to undergo training. In 2004, there were two Teaching Fellows attached to two departments.

The consultants expressed in their report in 2003 that not recruiting through the open market was likely to curtail DWU's ability to attract the best-qualified people for the work requirements of the organization. Daniel also makes this observation in the interview. Responding to this observation made by the consultants, Denis writes that "at the present time" advertising positions was not necessary as "very qualified people approach the university for positions"³. He also suggested that there were *different professional ways of staff recruitment, one is by advertising and the other is by inviting people to work with an institution.*

If the purpose of recruitment is to align the competencies with work requirements of the organization, the data shows that the influence of service on DWU's recruitment and selection policies and processes produced conflicting outcomes for the organization when they seek to recruit amongst missionary or volunteer groups who have service as their primary motivation. Despite the fact that these practices do attract some highly qualified staff, the overall qualification levels and the experiences of staff in 2004, serve to contradict Denis' position on DWU's recruitment practices. The qualifications' profile of the 2004 staff presented in Table 5 is indicative of the outcomes of the current recruitment and selection practices and processes. The figures show that the greatest levels of strength in terms of qualifications are at the leadership and the middle administration levels which include Heads of Department (HoD) and Faculty Deans. Except for two, all HoDs have either a Masters or a PhD. Of the Deans, four are qualified at the PhD level and one is a medical doctor with a bachelor's degree in medicine and surgery. For the rank and file staff, the departments where the majority of diploma and certificate holders are located are in the two recently amalgamated colleges. These institutions were previously state operated.

³ Beginning in 2005, DWU began to recruit staff through the open market by advertising on the Internet.

Table 5: Academic Staff Qualifications Profile: 2004

Academic Qualification	PhD/ Dr	MBBS ^a	MA	BA	Dip	Cert	Totals
Academic Leaders							
Academic Vice President)			1				1
Faculty Deans	3	1					4
Heads of Departments (HoDs)	5		4	2	0	0	11
Department Staff (excluding HoDs)							
Business Studies	0		3	4	0	0	7
Communication Arts	0		2	5	0	0	7
Environmental Health	0		1	3	2	0	6
Health Management	2 ^b		2	1	0	0	5
Health Extension	0		1	1	5	2	9
Information Systems	0		2	0	1	0	3
Physiotherapy	0		0	0	0	0	0
Papua New Guinea Studies	1		1	6	0	0	8
Saint Benedict's Teacher's College	stats not available						
Religious Studies	2		1	1	1	0	5
Tourism and Hospitality	0		0	4	0	0	4
Tertiary Distance Education Center	0		1	6	0	0	7
Total	13	1	19	33	9	2	77
%	16.88	1.29	24.67	42.85	11.68	2.59	100

a MBBS – Bachelor of Medicine; Bachelor of Surgery

b Guest Lecturers

c Physiotherapy in 2004 had only one staff member who was at the same time the HoD

Staff also note a disconnect between work expectations and the capacity of some staff to perform effectively the work required of them. This existing misfit between some persons and work expectations is a consequence of the recruitment and selection processes that are driven by the belief in missionary service. The tension that this disconnect creates is evident in the experiences of staff member Florence. Florence, from a Western European country who has been in PNG for over ten years and who two years ago acquired her a PhD from a European university finds the issue of staff capacity one that has frustrated her “deeply”. She sees staff capacity deficiencies as impacting on the quality of performance at the level of course delivery and at the level of workload distribution. Florence feels that if the issue is not addressed soon, it will persist as a “huge problem”. In exasperation she laments: *I'm tired of working with people who are not capable, or put in positions where they are supposed to be capable, and they are not.* She cites that in her department...

We have staff that have been consistently, consistently for years, have been the most, or (one has been) the most horrible teacher.... That person should be in the Guinness book of bad teaching. It's known! Everybody knows! Everybody knows! It's been like that for years! We managed to get the person out of our department three years ago.... All of a sudden that person is back this year!

Florence goes on to further illustrate the imperative to match work expectations with skills or competencies required for performance on the job. A misalignment between work expectations and a person's competencies results in adverse outcomes for the DWU at different levels of the organizations. It also works against the teaching mission of the organization.

I think it's very good for the Quality Assurance Committee to put in place an examination committee who will look at exams. Now, for the particular staff [member referred to above] yet again, when we saw that exam, the exam was trash. Why was the exam trash? Because...the teaching is trash. So, is it gonna help to get the exam back to the person? What is that person going to do? The person cannot get it better...because the person is not a good teacher.

You know, so we are constantly going back to the problem of staff management, constantly! We are constantly going back there! And as long as that is not addressed we can put the best committees and you know ...it will not help because you are not addressing the [problem]...you can not have good teaching without a good teacher! It is impossible! You get the best auditorium and the latest methods and even the best book in value (which we don't have), we still would not have the best teaching!

Florence also cites an example of a capable young Teaching Fellow recruited from the ranks of the graduating students who is expected to perform at higher levels than his competency level allows and without the level of mentoring required. Florence describes him as having...

excellent motivation, good brains, good English, good lots of things, but he can not perform. He is given a full teaching load is on a Teaching Fellow allowance when he is to be working under supervision. ...by no fault of his own, he just can't deliver the quality. He has no training, he is too young, he doesn't have the resources... so I'm not at all putting the blame on him at all. But I'm putting lots of blame on the administration.

Another department's experience with staffing is further illustrative of the outcomes of the current recruitment and selection practices and processes that work against DWU's goals. The HoD related to the researcher that his department was short of a staff member to deliver a unit and so decided to engage on a part-time basis someone from the relevant industry but one without formal training in the subject. Five weeks

into the semester, his engagement seemed to provide a solution to the staffing crisis in the department. However, the students contested the lecturer's teaching ability and questioned his knowledge on the subject. The situation deteriorated to the level where the lecturer walked out on the class.

Jim explains the disconnect between recruitment outcomes and work expectations on the academic performance and behaviour:

Being an academic, meaning you know [is] striving to achieve the highest possible qualification. One has a foundation degree, one should aim at a Master's level, and for me I think we should, the university should now begin to be looking at recruiting staff at PhD level so that you know these staff ... give academic leadership and lead discussions within the university amongst their colleagues and allow an atmosphere of debate amongst themselves...I think that will happen a lot more if we get staff at [the] masters and PhD level on the ground. At the moment, the university has a few, a lot of visiting professors, [but] very few are on the ground with whom...they can talk back and forth...you know, create discussions. ...we need to encourage senior academics at postgraduate PhD [and] Masters levels to come in and mix it with staff here and be able to debate with one another on the ideas either in a formal way or informal way. That needs to be encouraged.

Staff attribute the tensions resulting from recruitment and selection to various factors. Florence, Daniel and Maurice see the tensions as a consequence of the absence of an office within the administration structure that is solely dedicated to the HR function. Daniel suggests that the establishment of an HR office with the organizational structure would mean that trained professional in human resource management would ensure that people's knowledge and skills are optimally aligned with job expectations:

I believe there are should be two may be three...[functions] administration, management function, and the other may be this might fall into human resource management...a department which I think is long over due. [It] needs to be established where they have to this particular department would be responsible for the academic change, staff members of the departments...who should to get next year to teach this particular course. So there is this department like the Human Resource Management department to be tasked with over-seeing the requirements, needs of the departments in terms of staff as well as may be the needs of the curriculum the curriculum officer attached to that as, so they will, you know, come together and say 'okay this is our requirement, these are our needs these two years.or management level..., hardware, soft ware so to speak of and all that. The soft ware will be personnel, the academic literature and stuff like that. ...

This perception is affirmed by views noted in the consultants' report on DWU's development in 2003. The consultants noted that:

...a large proportion of the aspects influencing the academic quality of DWU are strongly linked to administrative issues such as human resources management, finance and decision making. By addressing these issues... DWU will improve the support organization required for raising the academic quality.

Florence sees HR also as the most significant factor impacting on the levels of staffing confronting course delivery at DWU. Her concerns relate to the sustained level of staff attrition that results in the persistent need to hire staff. She sees these outcomes as contributing to the continuous rotation of staff in her department. She attributes these outcomes to the absence of a "proper human resource management" by which she suggests a dedicated HR office to oversee the HR functions of the university. Its current absence within the administration structure had shifted the role of determining HR needs of departments to the HoDs adding not only to their workloads but also a responsibility they may themselves have none or little expertise in.

In the beginning of the 2006 academic year, the university responded to this concern by creating an HR office. In 2007 however, a religious brother with little formal HR training was put in the position following the departure of a volunteer who had expertise in the field. The misalignment between person and job suggests that the HR-related tensions experienced by departments would persist.

Daniel sees a link between DWU's recruitment and selection practices and the resource position of DWU. By extension, therefore, there is a link between HR practices such as recruitment and selection and the service that is advanced as altruistic provision of DWU's missions. Altruism and missionary service serve to make higher education provision possible as they reduce and compensate for the actual levels of resources needed.

However, Daniel suggests that this intersection between resource scarcity and the missionary ideal of service works against HR processes such as recruitment and

selection and staff reward leading to short term commitment to DWU. Daniel suggests that recruitment through competition include offers of expectant inducements that might not be forthcoming after recruitment. This contributes to frustration, demotivation and eventual turnover, outcomes that restrict DWU's ability to retain qualified staff.

As suggested earlier, the imperative to minimize costs curtails DWU's ability to recruit on the open market. Instead, it is looking to volunteer or towards religious organizations as sources of staff. Daniel also links the qualifications levels of staff to DWU's financial position which curtails its ability to attract staff qualified at the PhD level. He explains:

I want to just mention one negative as well. The university does not attract, is not in the position to attract people with certain expertise to come because...when they come they want to teach, they want to contribute, but they also want to be compensated in some ways for their service. These two factors are kind of play a role in university not really trying to go forward because if you ask certain people from the open market to come, you promise them certain things, they come, they will be dissatisfied and they will leave. So what has happened over the years, because of these reasons, the university has to rely heavily of volunteers and volunteers who come and stay one for two years... So I think it all boils down also to, you know, the whole idea of service.

Daniel further suggests that the link between missionary service and resource insecurity influences DWU to seek staff amongst volunteer and religious organizations. Staff recruited from these organizations are committed to the concept of service, as driven by the ideals missionary-service and secular volunteerism. These two concepts of service intersect in meaning, that is, service has altruistic intent and the person rendering service is in expectation of none or minimal rewards. However, recruitment driven by altruism reduces the effectiveness of other HR processes and policies such as tenure and ranking and promotion.

Another factor that staff perceive as influencing recruitment and selection is the centralization of authority. In their report, the consultants in 2003 noted that a perception was evident amongst some staff that the administrator-managers, contrary to stipulated procedures, still exercised significant influence in staff selection. This results in the employment outcome where staff competencies are not optimally aligned with the specialized needs of departments. Denis' response to this perception

is that it is an “incorrect perception”. Denis goes further to suggest that, in fact, “management should have a strong influence on the selection of staff”.

Denis’ response is symptomatic of what Florence suggests, and also noted in other contexts earlier in the chapter, is the administration’s disconnect with concerns of academic staff. She explains and illustrates that the absence of empathy is linked to...

the fact that maybe, up there [in the administration] we don't have enough academics. We had a discussion again on faculty level, no, Josiah gathered us as a faculty group..., I don't know exactly what we are supposed to do then, and one of the things that came out, certainly, it was clear that in the minds of these people,[administrator-managers] that when you prepare one contact hour,...it is only one hour.... [But] we lecturers...feel we need more [time]. And if it is a new course, it could easily be between five or six hours, easily by the time you find your material. You really have to read much more than what you need because you don't know what you are looking for...and you synthesize and you type and....that's something that people don't recognize at all. I think that's why we can't progress with quality either. As long as people believe that we equate one hour of preparation with one hour of contact. That's not gonna go. Maybe they need to hire people. I don't know. Maybe not. I think you know, they are so entrenched in what they are doing, its fine it won't bother them.

Maurice sees the same disconnect between senior level administrator-managers and the academic staff in the discrepancy in decisions that determine whether adequate resources are made available to support course delivery. This illustrates that the interests of administrator-managers not only differ but also are advanced over the interests of academics. Maurice thinks the argument that reaches them from the top that there is no money to buy books contradicts what he sees happening around him. Maurice says that while they are told there is no money to buy books,

... all the classrooms are being tiled, so is our office. You could argue that there is competition. [A competition of] values, in other words, bricks are more important [than books]... Yes, it is so dramatic. In our department, it's with the computers...seventeen computers for ninety students, not all seventeen have functioning programs... It's beyond them. There's no money to buy those... Yet, there's still bricks going down.

Since the new leadership assumed control of DWU, the organization experienced marked infrastructure expansion in staff accommodation, in lecture rooms, administration offices, student accommodation and road works.

6.3. Staff Development

The findings of this study show that DWU is attempting to develop its staff to enable them to better perform in their academic functions including teaching, research and service. The findings also show that some disconnect between policies intentions and current staff development activities exist. This disconnect is attributed to the influence that service exerts in operationalizing this function.

At the policy level, DWU's staff development activities are driven by its higher education mission intentions. These aspirations are expressed particularly through the organization's departments' development policy. The policy, policy number 6.4.1.2, stipulates that all lecturers have at least masters level qualifications (Divine Word University 2003, p. 40). The level of alignment of policy intent and actual staffing practices is suggested in the qualifications profile of the staff in 2004, as illustrated earlier in the chapter in Table 5. The table shows that 41.55 %, or 32 out of 77 members of staff, have either masters or PhD qualifications. This leaves 58.45 %, or 44 out of 77, staff requiring further training. DWU's program of staff development, as presented in Table 6, shows that in 2003, 43 members of staff were undertaking studies at levels ranging from Certificate to PhD in six fields of study primarily inside but also outside DWU. Participation in these programs was funded by international aid organizations such as, AusAID, EU and also from DWU itself as well other sources. In terms of enrollment numbers in programs, the highest number of staff, 36, was enrolled in education-related courses. Of these, two were undertaking PhD studies and 17 each in Masters and Certificate courses. Except for the two PhD candidates, whose studies were funded by EU, all others were sponsored by DWU.

Of the 18 staff members interviewed, Virgo, Amelia, Daniel and Maurice were all enrolled in the Master of Educational Leadership (MEL) program. This program was specifically designed to meet the leadership needs of secondary and primary teachers. Roman and Daniel were concurrently enrolled in the Certificate in Teaching and Learning (CTL), a course that was specifically tailored to up-skill DWU staff in the function of teaching, and MEL. Gerald was one of two other staff members sponsored by EU for PhD studies in an education-related topic within DWU. In the

middle of 2004, at the time of data collection, Anthony and another member of staff in the same department departed for masters level studies in England in a journalism-related course. In their case, training was specifically related to the current fields of practice.

Table 6: DWU's Staff Development Programs and Participation, 2003

No	Discipline	Level	In-house/External	Sponsor
2	Education	PhD	In-house	EU
17	Educational Leadership	MA	In-house	DWU
17	Education (Post graduate Certificate in Teaching and Learning)	Postgraduate Cert	In-house	DWU
1	Education	PhD	External	DWU
1	Gender Studies	PhD	External	AusAID
1	University Management	PhD	External	AusAID
1	IT	MA	External	Private
1	Health	MA	External	AusAID
2	Tourism Management	BA	External	DWU
Total:43				

The Business Studies department's documents show that, in the course of 2003, the department was actively seeking training opportunities for several of its staff members. The department's minutes of the 18 February 2003 meeting noted that four of its members Amir, Basri, Tracy and Lynda were considering participation in the staff development program. The minutes of its meeting of 20 March 2003 noted that the department had made some progress in Amir's case. The HoD was submitting an application for a DWU scholarship to the academic vice president for submission to the Cabinet for consideration. At the 29 September 2003 meeting, Basri and Amir were recommended for AusAID scholarships for which they were to submit applications by 24 October 2003.

In 2004, Amir's application for an AusAID scholarship was not successful. Undeterred, he was already exploring the option of applying instead to undertake studies towards professional certification as an accountant. The department was assisting him in seeking sponsorship from DWU which would enable him to complete the eight-module course. At the deans' meeting on Friday 30 July, 2004,

the VPAC circulated the agenda of the up-coming Academic Board meeting. One of the items noted that Amir's request for sponsorship to study for the professional accountancy exams had been approved by the Cabinet. Despite these efforts to provide Amir with further development, by 2006, he was no longer with DWU.

Amelia, who is qualified at the bachelors' degree level is aware of the qualifications requirement of DWU and is keen to pursue an advanced degree in her field of current practice. She is enrolled in the MEL program with 16 others. Despite this involvement, she considers this as a less than ideal option as it does not specifically allow her to extend her knowledge in the discipline of her current practice. She explains that the fact that she is involved in staff development is "good",

but may be I can give a negative thought...For instance, my study... I'm taking]...Masters...[in]...Educational Leadership, which is okay, [its] good for me. But since I'm involved in the Religious Studies department,...I need to study subjects, I think are valuable for my students. So I think, I disagree but anyway, I can not do very much.

...there was no choice for me. I asked my head of department to help me find some where to [broaden] my knowledge...I got frustrated a little and then this was offered. So, I guess there was no choice I don't really feel for it but, I just took it up. It's a requirement of the university that we have to have masters in order to teach in the university or else I'm not qualified... I'm very much interested in Scripture. ...if they have given me the chance to take up Scriptural studies, I would be very happy.

Amelia's experience highlights yet another area of DWU practice where tensions that stem from the organization's service commitment influence the scope and nature of provision. Amelia's experience illustrates that staff development activities that are promoted centrally and influenced by resource constraints as useful for staff may not agree with what individual staff members perceive as the sort of development they need. The fact that Amelia finds her options limited to the development of teaching also speaks to the resource situation of DWU. Resource constraints were influencing the scope of staff development provision that did not always serve the needs of staff and their departments. Furthermore, the fact that Amelia is amongst the highest number of staff enrolled in MEL is also indicative of the model of staff development that is influence more by costs and convenience than by the specific needs of staff and their departments. Convenience and cost-minimization driven staff development was focused primarily on the development of the knowledge delivery option, teaching.

That not all training activities are informed by specific needs of individual staff or departments has implications for the overall quality of education at DWU as is suggested by Daniel. He is in favour of staff development but feels that if DWU wants quality in staff performance, it needs also to provide opportunities for staff to develop in terms of content in their particular specialization. Daniel thinks that quality ...

would be forthcoming if the staff members are encouraged in certain ways to [gain] some expertise in particular field by proper training in order that they can then teach, work in certain areas, develop their teaching so they can help students much more. Currently I see there is... an ad hoc attempt at trying to encourage staff in terms of development... in particular where they have become proficient in.

Daniel also feels that central coordination rather than what he describes as the “ad hoc” efforts of individual departments to pursue staff development activities would better serve the needs of the organization in general. He thinks, a dedicated HR office might better determine and tailored staff development activities to the needs of staff and their departments. Daniel suggests a strategic HR planning when he explains that:

I believe if there is a overall plan, lets say five years, ten years plan to... as a program, set program where staff could be identified and, if they are willing,... the university ought to have something in place where you begin the process of, let's say, 'okay there is a ten-year, you have five-year plan, ten-year plan, where we could [identify] particular staff and train them to specialize... in a particular field. And over the years you have a pool of trained, qualified people. ... currently, it is ad hoc that when it comes to a department having no staff member, then we look around... run around trying to identify the volunteers, or people who might come at a particular time and its defeats the whole purpose of the staff development... [Furthermore,] ... there seems to be a department identifying potential staff amongst [and] the students as well, I mean degree students, grooming them and trying to, sending them overseas also to do some study.

Other staff members such as Lynda feel excluded from staff development. She has a masters degree and expresses disappointment at not being given an opportunity by the university to further her studies. Despite her disappointment, Lynda, who is an expatriate, appreciates that the priority is given to training Papua New Guineans. However, Lynda's name was noted to be amongst the list enrolled in the in-house

certificate course, CTL. So were names of two volunteers, one enrolled in MEL and the other CTL.

Denis, from the perspective of the academic divisional head, explains that the issue of staff qualifications confronts all universities in PNG, a view that is supported by Rooney (2004) who served as a volunteer and as member of DWU staff. Denis explains that:

...the future of staff and the policy of DWU is the same as the nation in developing a qualified PNG staff. This is exemplified by the number of national staff who are or have been sponsored for degree or postgraduate studies overseas.

Daniel and Maurice as well as Florence perceive a link between current levels of staff development provision and decision-making that determines where and how resources are distributed. The perception amongst such staff is that current levels of provision in support of staff development are inadequate in light of what they observe as comparatively disproportionate levels of resources that are directed toward physical infrastructure development. Daniel sees this as symptomatic of the administration using its authority to advance its priorities over the priorities of others. He would like to see the levels of resources provision in support of infrastructure development be matched with equal levels of support for developing the staff. He explains:

I kind of feel that change is, that infrastructure change is going very rapidly, but the change in terms of human change, in terms of people changing in terms of developing, improving their skills is not running hand in hand in...[There is] an imbalance where new curriculum, a lot of new units, and yet the people, staff [remain the same]. ...they are not happy, they see change, infrastructure change going on very quickly, but very slow change in terms of personnel ...who are trained properly. We could have all the infrastructure development getting on but if people are not there to utilize them through the benefits of human development...

Maurice describes the focus on infrastructure development as an act of preferencing bricks over teaching and learning support. Florence is damning in illustrating the differences in priorities when she says that if it is a choice between putting money towards staff or a new gate, it would be the new gate that is chosen.

However, the view from management as suggested in the DWUSP, is that the staff development activities, as well as the investment in physical infrastructure are considered amongst the necessary pre-conditions for quality academic provision.

6.4 Rewards, Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Since ranking and promotion activities have implications on other HR functions such as reward, motivation and organizational commitment, these are explored to further contribute to the understanding of the sources of motivation that either compels staff to commit to or exit from DWU. The findings show that staff are committed to DWU primarily for intrinsic reasons that are associated with altruism. However, a number of staff state that to work with service as the primary motivator is not sufficient to influence long-term commitment to the organization. These staff suggest that when service promotes a level of personal sacrifice, it undervalues them and subsequently leads to staff dissatisfaction, demotivation, stress and eventual turnover.

DWU's policies on rewards state that the benefits that staff can expect include university housing, university-paid schooling for children, leave entitlements and medical benefits (Divine Word University 2003). The policies only at a general level deal with salaries. This was noted by external consultants who in their report of 2003 stated that, other than mentioning the method of payment, the policies provide little or no information relating to different salary scales. Consequently, the policies did *not provide staff with insight in, or an incentive for possible salary increases in case of good performance or promotions*. The report also noted that in a context of *highly educated staff in a professional environment ...performance might be stimulated more effectively by incentives integrated in the appraisal system*.

The findings of this study suggest further that DWU is an organization where extrinsic incentives such as lucrative salaries and benefits or career advancement through promotions whose purpose is to inspire higher levels of performance are underplayed. In 2004, the extrinsic incentives that promotion could offer was unavailable to staff not because of the absence of policy stipulating processes but because the organization had not made them operational. In November 2007, there

was movement forward when DWU held its very first promotions meeting in which a number of staff were promoted.

The inoperative state of promotion policies in 2004, however, did not prevent staff members like Maurice, a member of a religious order, from devoting long hours at work. He was often observed often working long hours in the office including weekends over the course of data collection. He explains that what motivates staff such as him to be committed to DWU is the simple pleasure gained from the challenge of hard work. *The people who are working hard are really enjoying their work. It's tiring them out and they get a bit frustrated but it has meaning for them.* However, Maurice at the same time, suggests that not everyone embraces the ideal of missionary or volunteer service and is subsequently motivated by the pleasures and challenges of hard work as an end in itself. He notes that there are: *...those who aren't doing anything, [and for them] life has no meaning, no challenge...one person is quite depressed and it's not gonna change.* These behavioural outcomes at the individual level of the advancement of service suggest that some staff are demotivated, demoralized to the extent of being disengaged with the organization.

Elias, a member of the same religious order as Maurice and like Maurice, finds what he does as “worthwhile”. He draws his motivation from his religious convictions and validation for his work in the appreciation he gets from his students. He explains that what spurs him on is due firstly to his students who he finds are “very friendly and generally cooperative” and who show an appreciation for what they learn. But the primary reason for his commitments is grounded in the missionary belief in service to those in need. Such service does not always entail here-and-now material or extrinsic rewards, but a posthumous reward based on a biblical promise:

... it does come back to why religious people are religious. They do have a desire to...share the Christian message...where they can... That is something that is satisfying to me and satisfying, I believe, something to build up what we would call the kingdom of God. There's not always an earthly reward that we look for, its not we think intensely enough about the heavenly reward either. ...we do feel we have a call and this is a response to the call which we have. So, rewards, I don't think other heads of departments find that they are rewarded.

For Anna, an experienced academic and a volunteer from Europe who is not a member of any religious order, the motivation comes from a sense of altruism, which

also promotes service. In so doing, voluntary service intersects with religious missionary service. Both promote the act of giving to those less fortunate at the cost of personal gain in terms of extrinsic rewards such as rewards of a financial nature, as a value in itself. She explains:

...you volunteer basically to share your skills, with people in developing countries. Other than the pleasure of sharing your skills with your fellow human beings that need them, there is very little reward in terms of financial level because the salary is very small as it is stipend and unless you are in that career path of development, although very few people who work for volunteering organizations are interested, who will remain in development. Most of them will go back to their original countries. A lot of people see volunteering as a break away from you career, a period off where you, a lot of it is combined with altruism like you want to go out and do something for other people and the other half is basically taking a break. I would say that, yah.

Staff suggest that in the context of DWU, tangible incentives as means of promoting performance are absent. Anthony cannot recall ever receiving special rewards or incentives over and above the rewards that are stipulated in policy except to say that:

...we do give rewards to outside people. [The] university recognizes a lot of outside achievements. We do that in the journalism field...but for us, I'm not sure we are rewarded at all in the sense that...as an example that other people can look up to.... I think that's ... an issue...I've never really thought about. But then in a way it would help the university staff to encourage them...to do a lot more...in improving their performance.

While Anthony considers the value of extrinsic rewards as incentives for performance, Daniel is skeptical about rewards as incentives to promote excellence. In his four years with DWU, he has not witnessed any form of recognition of performance but accepts it as due to the growing nature of the organization.

...I would be a little bit skeptical... [about] how we promote or encourage... excellence. I think its [the university is] doing its best, it's a growing university.

In this context, Daniel sees his participation with DWU as driven by a mission that may stem from a sense of nationalism and humanism which promote the belief in the betterment of the individual. He explains that his participation is driven by his desire to contribute to the development of PNG by helping a student to become “a better human person”, one who is not only academically qualified but also a person who is

able “to live in society, accepting the limitation of their own and community [and] working together to make a better community”.

Like Daniel, Amelia is driven by a sense of nationalism. She finds reward in teaching as rendering service to her people:...*I like teaching because I feel that I'm here to provide or give service to my own people.*

Gerald, also a Papua New Guinean and one of the pioneer two to ever enroll in PhD studies with DWU, interprets his sponsorship as a reward although, that link has not been formally made and communicated to him. *I'm not told this is for you for doing this and for doing that.... Say, in accepting to do studies for four years, which can be costly for myself [to meet]..., may be to me it could be a way of reward by the university....* Like Daniel, Gerald who has some experience in the religious life, finds his job worthwhile when he observes students growing in their knowledge. He says he is not perturbed by lack of acknowledgement. He is also driven by a sense of altruism and is satisfied in giving as an end in itself and seeing others benefit from the service he provides:

Its because of the satisfaction we receive in doing the job and then when something like study comes, yeah, I take it on and its is something that I take on for my own challenge and for my own satisfaction, that kind of thing, and if in the end I'm successful in that and then the university benefits from it.

Sylvester, from one of the Asian countries represented on DWU who had for some years taught in an African country, does what he does out of “appreciation to the university and the students”. However, he does not explain why he feels indebted to them. He believes extrinsic rewards should not be the primary motivation for work. Instead, motivation should stem from one's professional sense of duty. *I don't need any public recognition or anything. I do my part and I can see the results on the student's part.*

Denise, who with Sylvester, are two of the longest serving members of staff with 18 years of commitment to DWU. Denise says she gets her reward from seeing exemplary behaviour in her students and in the positive evaluations she receives from them:

When you see the students' evaluation that is the reward. The way they write, you know, they recommend you...last time students recommended me to become the head of department. That is the reward.

Daniel admits that it is a challenge to work long hours for the level of monetary benefits and subsequently, "in terms of a better life that one has to forego". But like Denise, Sylvester and Gerald, Roman and Ronald, he gains satisfaction from the sense of achievement that flows from helping students gain employment. This for him often means that ...*sometimes you envy them of getting a better job than you have, a better paid job, then you say, well, that's my contribution to their well-being.*

Florence is one staff member who is scathing in her views on reward and motivation. She thinks the administrator-managers are more about providing token incentives such as letters of "thank you" or pursuing their priorities than they are about providing real incentives such as better pay or staff development options for staff . This is a connection made also by others such as Maurice and Daniel. Florence says:

...we hear a lot of ...effort to... support the teachers and we get letters of 'thank you' and all that but practically when there is a choice between a new gate and putting the money for the staff, it's the new gate who gets it. I don't have a single instance, not a single example of money going to the staff. You may wanna put staff incentive and sending staff to study, maybe...

Florence is on the verge of leaving DWU and academic life after seven and a half years. Her experience suggests that both her lower order extrinsic and higher order intrinsic needs are not adequately met by the organization. Florence feels that she is intrinsically rewarded but would also desire to advance materially as well as in her career. She explains that at one level, at the intrinsic level, reward is *something you feel, it does not have to be money, something you feel like doing good.* In this regard as others of her colleagues have stated, she gets a "huge reward from the students" from her teaching and the research and the mentoring that she provides the students. On the other hand, despite her commitment to the students, the department and her teaching, she feels "drained" and "burnt out" and ready to quit the organization. She explains how the advancement of missionary service demands personal sacrifice. However, this curtails her ability to meet her basic survival and career aspiration needs. Her loss to the organization is demonstrative of service having consequences that are adverse to the DWU. It also contributes to the turnover of professionals who seek more attractive conditions elsewhere:

You feel like you... don't recharge your battery. You know that's one of the things I said to Josiah for seven and a half years. Without my husband, I could not have afforded to work here. You know, I can't keep my car; I can't pay my kids school fees.

I'm not progressing at all financially, I don't think I'm progressing much academically, so if I can not work for myself on the research then, it's getting a bit too much of a Christian dedication,...sacrifice, you know... I think that was the reasoning. I think that's the reason why there is such a [turnover of] staff...professional people don't stay.

Maurice who is one staff member not considering leaving suggests that what motivates staff in their work is not because they are studying for a higher degree or because they aspire to "get on in the world" or "to be someone important". He also suggests that even if they held such hopes they were misplaced given that "nothing is happening" by way of promotions and career advancement.

Roman, a committed Catholic from a predominantly Catholic Asian country, also suggests that his chief motivation is rooted in altruism that is missionary-service driven. He says that his "number one satisfaction" is derived from seeing "my students being successful with their chosen career". *That is for me more than what money could buy.* He also takes as a level of validation for his work the sponsorship he had received from the university to pursue studies externally, the six weeks holiday time he gets annually, and being considered and asked to be the HoD of a department.

Ronald, Roman's countryman, shares his view that, although he is not aware of there being any recognition of exemplary performance in the four years he has been with the university, he nevertheless looks to intrinsic rewards, rewards such as those that flow from seeing others gain from the service he dispenses, for his continued commitment to the organization. His explanation is a reiteration of what Gerald, Roman, Maurice and, to an extent, Florence think. Ronald explains that:

... the reward is intrinsic [and] ... not so much extrinsic. But you know, you get that sense of accomplishment by doing the work. So it's something that you are able to experience, internally and...I believe that's already a sense of reward...because...you develop a sense of accomplishment in whatever you do...

Ronald also sees extrinsic rewards that flow to his department and the staff from the success of their students even when the validation that comes from promotion is absent:

I think...the recognition of the accomplishments of the department, the recognition of the achievement of the students...are tangible [enough] rewards [for now]...we were told that promotion will take place [to] pave the way for recognition of exemplary performance.

Helen comes from the same Asian country like Roman, Ronald and Lynda. She takes the ten percent annual salary increase and the PNGK1300, approximately AU\$ 600 in current exchange rates, one-off HoD allowance as a form of reward. Compared to her country, she explains,

...at the end of each year, because there is such a thing as evaluation, at least three or four sets of evaluation from my dean, from department head,... and if I meet certain level, for example, I got ninety-five and above, I am promoted either horizontally, or I am promoted vertically. To be promoted vertically goes with my rank higher with an accompanying salary. If it is horizontally, well, I receive a new rank but then there is no increase in salary. But, the fact that it was rewarding on my part... because I know that if I perform well, I meet the criteria, I am going to be rewarded whether it was monetary or not.

Lynda, another committed Catholic who has previously served as a lay missionary in another Pacific Island country, says that for her, *receiving a salary is of course ... a financial reward but that is not, probably, sufficient*. Nevertheless, she accepts it as “probably” her commitment to the church’s mission that motivates her to remain with DWU. Even as she suggests a tenuous link between reward, motivation and commitment, Lynda nevertheless, also considers it a reward to be associated with DWU, an institution, in her view, that is well regarded for its service to the community. Additionally, she sees that her association with DWU also benefits her professionally in terms of the opportunities it provides for her to “sharpen” her accounting knowledge. By making it possible for her to teach in several sub-fields of accounting such as Cost Accounting and Management Accounting, Lynda boasts that she feels more knowledgeable than some professors in her country.

Jim, a Papua New Guinean with a PhD and with experience in university governance, brings a different perspective to the issue of reward. His perspective highlights private-public sector differences in PNG. He joined DWU as a faculty dean from

having served as a vice chancellor in one of PNG's four public universities. He explains that he was motivated to join DWU because he had a desire to continue *contributing to the intellectual development of Papua New Guineans in a different environment....* Into his second year with DWU, he sees the differences between DWU and the public universities. He explains:

...there are differences, distinct differences in the way of doing things in universities, the public universities or government funded universities and a private university such as DWU. [The differences are that]...staff are more committed or dedicated to the work here. Maybe the remuneration level of staff may not be on par with the, say, the public universities and therefore, I think staff who choose to join a private university like DWU may need to find there is an element of, service...that may not necessarily be associated with remuneration. So the benefits are other than remuneration as such where as public universities are funded by the government and you know the staff salaries often eat up a lot of the money that goes into those institutions. Therefore, there may be less going around to other necessary areas like the facilities, study environment for students and so forth, so those are just, at least two distinct differences that one finds out...

From the point of view of the management, Denis writes explaining that:

Because of financial restraints the benefits have been the way of providing staff incentives. On the other hand all benefits are written clearly in the staff contracts and they are the same for all staff. All staff are in expectation of better salary conditions now that success is being achieved within the PNG national budget. However it must be recognized that staff have not been penalized in salaries.

Daniel and Florence imply that, since career advancement entails financial or material advancement, DWU as a service orientated organization can not afford to promote its staff. Daniel explains:

I think as a private run institution by the churches or Catholic Church, for that matter, [it] believes that it does not have the money to employ or engaged people who'd want to ask for more money in the capacity of lecturers or heads of departments.... That would be more monetary reason where [the] financial capability of paying lecturers is way beyond [DWU's means to meet].

The other reason would be...the idea of service....there is a legacy in terms of the institution [having]developed from missionary kind of service where people have come and offered their time and gone off. And [for] the missionaries there were allowances paid for their living only...they were not family people. So there is a legacy that has come with the development of the university. That's my personal view... The university looks for people who are willing to forego some of the benefits for the sake of service.

Daniel, however, goes further to suggest that promotion should not necessarily be linked to a rise in salary. He thinks that staff would continue to commit to DWU regardless of where there was a salary rises or not:

I think there is no question in advancing if opportunities do come. ...a number of staff... are quite willing to provide the service but also give them are opportunity to advance. I think there is a genuine core of staff here who would like to contribute irrespective of monetary gain.

Jim theorizes that the difference in rewards between DWU and the public universities is one factor that might influence staff commitment to DWU and what it stands for. Florence is a case in point where reward may influence against long term commitment to DWU. Jim explains:

I think so long as there are two levels of rewards say between public university and private universities, there will be that issue...that migration of people who will still opt out for the higher reward system simply because it is natural. There are economic issues, there are responsibilities, economic responsibilities of staff, and staff would ... I mean, they've got family responsibilities, children who go to school and all that. Put it this way, everybody aspires towards a better life style...and you know the income is to help them go that way. Naturally, they will look for better alternatives elsewhere unless they are fully dedicated and are happy to get rewards in other ways. But economically, that can become a factor as far as tenure is concerned.

Another explanation for the reward and motivation and commitment to DWU is linked to the ideal of service. Roman, an Asian who returned to DWU after leaving the institution in acrimony, explains that he is spurred on by what he calls the “missionary spirit” to render service to DWU even when extrinsic rewards are “meager”:

[The] missionary spirit is part of what you call [laugh], I don't know how to [describe it]...What we receive, earn...is barely for subsistence. And for you to devote your time for such meager...salary or wage...there must be something more than what you are doing. Isn't it?

The “missionary spirit” is what drives Roman to go beyond the call of duty to share his expertise with other staff and students. For instance, he initiated the setting up of the toastmasters club to train students in the art of public speaking. He also involves himself in the delivery of staff development courses. As he explains that his involvement in toastmasters is not directly related to...

teaching but it is a learning process that involves everyone. And for me to see the graduates of the endeavor...is more than enough to do all these...all the troubles all the hours spent is immaterial...

Daniel interprets service as:

... sharing [making a] contribution towards the development of PNG citizens for Papua New Guinean's future leaders of the country. I think that, I mean, we staff pull together in seeing that as a common vision.... But sometimes, you know, you have different views on what is the mission about and what is the vision about....

David, another young Papua New Guinean in his thirties, explains staff commitment to the ideal of service. He thinks staff are...

satisfied in giving. ...it is satisfying when I see my students out there performing and...through my connection...with members of staff, I think that they ...appreciate giving what they have got to give in terms of imparting knowledge....

David was the staff member who was observed by a colleague to be disengaged from the organization to the point of being "depressed".

Virgo, a member of a religious order of nuns, also cites examples of how DWU staff demonstrate the belief in service in engaging in activities that are not contained within formally prescribed job descriptions. Virgo cites an occasion when one head of department circulate to all staff guidelines on essay marking as demonstrative of service. She also saw staff engaged in course delivery across multiple departments as further driven by the service belief.

Ronald, a lay member and therefore not associated with a religious order as a member, considers service as part and partial of the academic profession. He sees staff as motivated by shared beliefs, ideals, convictions and aspirations of which "the service orientation is paramount" especially when their "profession is an instrument of service". *I think if you are in the academe or in any discipline or career...this is important [that] you are able to deliver service of better quality to you clients.* He links service as an inherent to his professional practice in so doing defining service in its professional context. Amir's experience of service is also defined in this context.

6.5 Ranking and Promotion

The questions around these activities contribute to the further exploration of the values and belief that constituted the motivations influencing these practices. DWU offers staff little prospect of advancing in their careers. Of the 18 members of staff interviewed, four were definitely unsure about their ranks, and 12 knew their ranks as stipulated in their contracts. Amongst the 12 were three senior lecturers. Six of the twelve saw ranks as arbitrary titles suggesting that rank differentiation represented little status differentiation. This is illustrated in the case of staff member, Elias. Even as a HoD and with a PhD qualification, his contract has him down as a lecturer. Others of similar experience and qualification were ranked at the senior lecture level. Elias was one of the first ever to be promoted when the first panel of promotions met in November 2007. The ambiguity associated with rank classification in 2004 was one factor contributing to the stasis in DWU's ranking and promotion policy not effectively moving forward.

Against the context of non-movement in promotions processes, DWU nevertheless, has ranking and promotion policies that not only stipulate the ranks at which the staff can be classified but the organization also prescribes in extensive detail the requirements to meet and processes to undergo by a staff member who desires to seek promotion. Its policy number 6.1.1 defines ranking as,

the process by which the qualifications and credentials of an academic staff member are evaluated for the purpose of determining his / her status and academic standing as a basis for initial classification and subsequent promotion (Divine Word University 2003, p. 31).

DWU's academic ranks classifications are: Tutor, Senior Tutor, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor and Professor. In policy number 6.2.1.1, DWU stipulates the criteria for promotion at any of the levels:

The evaluation of candidates for promotion is based on their records in the areas of teaching, research/scholarship, and service. The university recognises that individual candidates will exhibit different strengths and does not expect each candidate to demonstrate exemplary achievement in all three areas. The exact value placed upon any particular aspect of a candidate's record, therefore, will depend upon an assessment of the record as a whole (Divine Word University 2003, p. 34).

The data, however, reveals ambiguities around ranking and promotion that are indicative of a disconnection between policy and practice. There is a correlation between this disconnection and the ideal of service. At the time of data collection in 2004, no staff member had attempted to seek promotion though the prescribed process. The general perception of staff is that there is little or no prospect of advancing in their careers as academics. Lynda is certain that promotion does not exist at DWU. Roman, Gerald and Maurice acknowledge there are policies but say promotion depends on these policies and processes being made operational. Only Virgo and Lynda express any ambition to seek promotion. Roman and David see a possibility of being promoted in the future. Sylvester, Denise and Amelia are not even thinking of trying. Roman, Gerald and Daniel point out that promotion can not begin in an environment where staff are uncertain about their rank. Maurice, Elias and Daniel see little motivation to seek promotion as rank carries neither status nor reward incentives. They see ranks as arbitrary badges not to be overly concerned about. Maurice and Helen see no career path for staff to strive to advance in. Daniel for one feels that there is just one title that everybody goes by, that of lecturer. He describes the state of the non-vertical movement in career advancement as “circling the pool”.

Maurice says:

...there's probably not a career path. Everybody's got their limitations, but it would be some doing further studies, who would be looking at perhaps some advancement in their career. It's not really a question of advancement. It's very difficult to make any progress in that [promotion]. I realize they're on paper but we ...our two Teaching Fellows [have tried to have their salaries] reviewed because they are both this year and last year doing the work of full time lecturers. They have long finished being Teaching Fellows. They are fully responsible, but they are still on the same pay scale. ... there's nothing happening. I have no idea why, why nothing is happening.

Helen's conclusion is much the same as Maurice's: *I don't know if I read the Admin Manual or not, but it looks like the Admin Manual does not give a career path. I supposed a teacher will comply with all the one to ten or one of ...where he would go next.* Roman is self-deprecating when he offers that for now he is “just a lecturer” but he hopes to rise at least to the level of a senior lecturer. Only he doesn't quite know how that can come about. ...*I don't know yet. It has to be made clear for, first of all, what are the qualifications in order to reach that level.*

When he is referred to the relevant policy in the Administration Manual, he asks to know whether these policies have been implemented yet. *I don't know. Is this [promotion policy] being implemented?* Asked if he knows of anyone who has been promoted, he replies: *I am not aware.*

Gerald, who once held an administrative position concurrent to a lecturer position, is also uncertain about his rank and asks rhetorically if there is any such thing. When he is asked if there is, his answer is:

I'm not sure if they have. I think that the structure in the university... because I've never known my rank from the very beginning. I would like to know my rank. It is another thing that will motivate the teacher to aspire to the next rank.

He takes the existing policy as but a...

kind of document, [which] does not come out clearly to tell people the rank... this is where you are at and... so that people know the level they are at and they would aspire to go to the next level. As it is, it is a document...like a guide but individuals like myself, do not know our rank. And I'm saying it for myself, I'm pretty sure there'll be others as well.

Daniel also says that he knows of no one who has been promoted. *I haven't tried myself. I haven't heard of anybody try.* He recalls being asked by someone whether he was a senior lecturer or a lecturer and...

I said: 'I don't know to be honest'. I think the university at the moment is still unsure of how to rank people.... Maybe, most likely its because of the staff development issue, where since we have not really, lets say... identified people and say okay this is how we rank you. Rather, most people are, let me put it this way, are on pool you know as a pool it's circling...however long you are willing to contribute to ... educational training.

...there is something in the academic [administration] manual but unless, until when we figure a serious staff development...then the pool is going to be just like that, revolving around the pool. So the ranking has not eventuated.

Maurice thinks his rank is lecturer. *But what is the significance? There is nothing else to it. I'm not a senior lecturer or senior tutor.* Elias who recently completed his PhD also suggests the lack of concern with rank saying simply:

I think in my contract, it was simply stated I would be employed as a lecturer at Divine Word, nothing more than that. ...there is no particular status. At the moment some might look for status that perhaps in being a senior lecturer or

being professor with the aim that they might look not here at the university at the moment. When I first came here, I was told I would be head of department. And if somebody wanted to take over, I wouldn't mind, actually handing over to someone else.

In Daniel's view,

Some people like to...refer to themselves as senior lecturers or lecturers, but from the official stand point...we don't know. I think if there is no conscious and deliberate kind of effort in trying to sort people out, the pool will still be there. That I can foresee. [But] It will eventually come. There is some understanding, but everybody at the university is seen as either head of department or the staff of the department.

Lynda does not see any prospect of being promoted and laughing says: *Not in this university, I think. I don't think there is... promotion here in this university. But I am dreaming of that... I think I have to leave the university in order to [be promoted].* By 2006, Lynda had left DWU. David, a lecturer, is not looking for promotion at this stage but intends "to rise at some stage".

I don't wanna rush... I have to [grow in] my background and confidence that sort of thing...I feel young at this stage and I don't want [the]thing immediately. [Let]...maturity, maturity takes its toll and ah...if need be and if the opportunities come by, let it come when it needs to be, I don't want to push for it.

Amelia says she is a lecturer but does not desire to seek promotion. Despite this lack of motivation, she is informed of the requirements necessary for pursuing promotion. She says,

...it depends like one of the requirements is research, if we are able to do some research and can produce and then, you know, hum... put it through a forum. That's one way I can be promoted, but, I'm not seriously looking in that line at the moment.

Two senior lecturers, Denise and Sylvester, who are in their fifties, are not aspiring to rise further in the ranks as they were considering retirement. *I am not thinking of doing anything to get [to] the next one [rank] because I'm thinking of retirement already now,* Denise says laughing.

Besides Lynda, Virgo is the only other staff member interviewed expressing an ambition to pursue promotion. She was the only one interviewed who was happy with the way her career was going. Virgo was enrolled in the in-house masters program and graduated in February 2006. Her ambition to rise up the ranks is encapsulated below:

...if I get my masters, I think the senior lecturer will be the next when I complete the masters program and after sometime, I would like to also take up...doctorate courses. At the moment ump...I'm happy with what's happening....

Ronald who holds a professional doctorate in a business field, laughs saying he thinks he is at the senior lecturer rank and says: *I think with my academic qualification, I should be in the assistant professor level...* In reference to promotion, he explains:

[promotion] ...does not commence until some policies are in place for the university. It's a matter of ...putting all the policies together and having them implemented and you know, disseminate information, so that there can be ...ranking and re-ranking and then recognition of, you know, accomplishments so that its passed on whether you are deserving of any recognition...

With the ranking and promotion policies remaining inoperative, parallel but informal processes were being adopted to meet the desire for career advancement unmet through the formal promotion process. This practice was noted in the consultants report on staff appraisals and promotions in 2003 (Gokemeijer & Kneepkens 2003) which stated that, although the processes for appraisals and promotions are extensively described in the administration manual, it was hardly used and some departments even developed their own system. For instance, in 2004, promotion for Anthony, Nisha and Roman was being sought outside the process stipulated in policy. Their department made representation to the Academic Board in an attempt to have them promoted to the lecturer level from the level of a senior tutor. Anna, the head, tells the Board how she was trying to make effective the process of rewarding staff through promotion:

I deliberately put it there because we need to activate the policy on promotion. It is not up to us to resolve it here. We need to ask 'What is the policy here?' We don't know who we should be addressing here. It's a staff development issue. What is the procedure? It causes a lot of discontent when they [staff] know they are doing the job of a lecturer... What was the grading system used.

The board not only does not discuss the issue, and subsequently does not suggest a way forward for Anna. Anthony is later asked on what basis his department is pursuing a rise in the rank for him. He thinks it is linked to his workload. He was taking on work requirement of a higher rank than his current tutor rank expectations.

...from what I know...essentially it has to do with the numbers of hours I teach because as a tutor probably there is only a certain number of hours you are only allowed to teach. But I've been teaching fulltime. ...at one stage I was teaching more than eighteen hours and so...the department thought if I was carrying such a workload, then really I should not be seen only as a tutor, so that's one reason. The other is that because of the course we have been going through, ...and some of the things I've written to assess the curriculum and that sort of made them realize maybe they need to upgrade my status.

Roman is undertaking a certificate course and reports that the director of the committee on Academic Quality Assurance (AcQA) is proposing to advocate on their behalf for the administration to promote them to higher ranks.

In the context where stated policies on ranking and promotion were in limbo, Denise, Sylvester and Florence are examples of three who were promoted to the senior lecturer rank without each being involved in a deliberate process to gain promotion. Denise and Sylvester suggest it is probably the positive evaluation of their students that earned them a higher rank. Florence says she is a senior lecturer, but proceeds to say: *I don't know what it means...* Florence even suggests that her promotion to the level of senior lecturer came as a total surprise to her. *...all of a sudden I find out on my title, I was senior lecturer. I've no idea what it means. It certainly means nothing in the pay. I've been here for some years.*

These responses of staff illustrate that the promotion of service as driven by altruism, by DWU means that organizational processes such as reward and motivation are shaped in new ways and produce outcomes that may work at cross purposes to policy and process intentions. Promoting staff without their direct involvement in the process illustrates what such novel practices are under service. Florence's failure to associate any value or significance to the outcome of a redefine promotion process works against the intended goal of rewarding staff through promotions. But other staff such as Roman, unlike Florence, were seeking promotion outside of stipulated processes suggesting they were accepting of informal process of validating their performance.

6.6 Tenure and Turnover

Service promoted as volunteer or altruistic provision of work minimises, in the case of DWU, the effectiveness of tenure as an incentive for commitment to the organization. Tenure at DWU is defined as a fixed term contract appointment. DWU's policy on tenure, policy 5.9.1, defines tenure and stipulates the conditions under which an employment contract is either awarded or terminated:

An employee who has acquired regular employment carries the assurance of continuous employment until such time as he / she reaches the age of retirement, or when the employee resigns, the contract is discontinued by the employee or the employer, and / or the employee is dismissed for cause. However, the University administration may transfer an employee to another position as deemed necessary upon the recommendation of the Departmental Heads concerned, provided however that the employee so affected is given prior notice and that there shall be no diminution of wages (Divine Word University 2003).

The policy promises long-term and secure employment for an employee and serve as motivation for long-term commitment to the organization. The annual shifts resulting from staff turnover (Appendix C), however, reduce the effectiveness of tenure as an incentive for organizational commitment. The attrition rates of staff from years 2003 to 2006 are indicative of how service influences staff commitment and impacts on policies such as tenure. The turnover rates show that in general all departments, except for the two that were amalgamated in 2003, experiences some level of sustained annual attrition. For instance, during the period of data collection in 2004, two staff members left through resignations and two international staff left after completing their terms of engagement as volunteers.

Different patterns of turnover rates are noted amongst the different categories of staff with some categories of staff experiencing greater levels of turnover than others. The non-volunteer, non-religious or lay category of staff is the most stable. This group is made up of predominantly Papua New Guineans. It also includes international staff from Asia, particularly the Philippines, and increasingly numbers of staff from Europe particularly Poland. Florence defines this group of non-volunteer international staff from Europe like herself as "a bit miscellaneous" as they are *people who are here longer term, who have some affinity with the country and not just Divine Word*. The number of PNG staff experienced a marked increase in 2003 when twenty-two new

members were added as a result of the amalgamation with DWU of two health colleges. This group however also makes up the largest number of staff qualified at the lowest levels. The policies on tenure and ranking and promotions have greater relevance to this group as they are likely to remain longer with the organization than members of staff from the “volunteers group”. At the same time, they are also freer to leave to seek better conditions elsewhere.

Staff who fall into the category of the “religious” are relatively stable. Religious staff include priests, brothers, and nuns who belong to various Catholic Church religious orders. Though stable, their length of attachment to DWU, nevertheless, is subject to the discretion of the superiors of their particular religious order. The religious orders represented at DWU in 2004 included the SVD, the founding order of DWU who comprised the largest number of religious; the Marists, the Christian Brothers, the Spiritants, and the nuns’ orders of the Holy Spirit Sisters (SSpS), the co-founders of DWU, and the Sisters of Mercy. They together composed an internationally representative group and were employed at all levels of the academic structure and administration. The DWU President, for example, is a Polish SVD priest whilst the former was German. The Vice President responsible for academic matters is a Christian brother from Australia. One of the five deans and three heads of departments are religious brothers. Members of religious orders are also lecturers in five of the eleven departments.

Members of staff who belong to international volunteer organizations experience the highest rate of turnover. The VSO (2007) confirms on their website that placements on average are of a two-year duration, but they can be as short as two weeks. The significance of the duration of placements for DWU is that it translates into sustained annual staff turnover. For instance, in 2003, three volunteers left having served out their terms of attachment. In 2004, there were eight volunteers amongst the academic staff, four of them engaged that year with the remaining four, earlier. In 2005, seven from the 2004 staff left and four new volunteers were engaged. The employment of volunteers and their subsequent impact on the DWU of staff turnover is linked directly to the belief in service that encourages a dependence on such staff recruitment options.

Denis acknowledges that the volunteer staffs' limited period of placement creates instability as a consequence of turnover. However, he sees the impact that attrition experienced by this category of staff experience as being off set by stability in national and expatriate missionary staff. In his view, what is important for DWU is that it *maintains stability in the top and middle management which is vital to normal DWU development*. He states:

I do not believe there is instability in staff caused by volunteers. In fact the volunteers are there because they bring specific skills and resources that were not available otherwise. It is important to note the ratio of volunteers to staff on contracts then one can understand that this is not a problem at DWU. Currently DWU employs more than 150 staff and less than ten are volunteers.

The view from DWU's president concerning turnover resonates with Denis'. In a letter to senior academic managers, deans and HoDs, in which he outlines the strategic direction of DWU in the years 2007 to 2017, and with regards to the issue of turnover, he suggests that turnover is in a way "healthy" for DWU:

I have heard concerns expressed that DWU's high turnover rate, the result of some of our staff having contracts of two years or less, threatens the sustainability of the university, our academic quality and culture. On the contrary, as a healthy community, **DWU recognizes that a degree of staff turnover is not only a fact of life but a necessary dynamic of a strong and adjustable university**. It is a part of DWU's strategy. [his emphasis]

At the same time the president states that he appreciates what the "cooperative memory" that long-term commitment brings to the organization. This purpose is served to an extent with DWU's executive officers and many academics having contracts for three or more years.

In these statements, both Denis and the president to some extent, assume that all staff and work have equal significance for the core organizational missions of teaching, research and service. Both suggest that long-term commitment by managers as being more advantageous for organizational continuity than academic staff.

But, both their views are in contradiction with staff perceptions and documentation of turnover rates show. Their view may be seen as further indicative of the disconnect between the concerns of academic departments and the administration. Florence

illustrates the tensions resulting from the disconnect between organizational decision-makers and the departments. From her view, the instability resulting from turnover and subsequent staff rotation that are associated with service-driven practice are a cause of concern. For instance, her department witnessed between 2003 and 2006 three changes of department heads. The average length of attachment to her department was two years (Table 7), the same as the organization wide average (Appendix C).

Florence's concern with turnover in her department was due to the fact that it had a direct impact on her in terms the workload demands placed on her. She explains what her experiences have been since she joined the department:

I've been in this department...since 1999 until now [2004]. And now Vincent left. When? Was it 2000? And since then, Greta. ...[and we] have had a succession of heads of departments that didn't stay or didn't want to be there. We had staff rotation that could make one dizzy. Yeah, there is no continuity. And by now, I'm the one who've been there a long time. And I find its just becoming too stressful. Everything goes back to me because I'm the only one who knows; I'm the only one who is capable of taking the time. So certainly, you know...I find it's a huge problem. I think now it's getting critical as far as staffing is going to go.

Jim, dean of one of the faculties, explains why he considers staff retention and continuity as important:

I believe in committing myself at least I would say three years may be four years. I believe in putting something into a place and making an impact rather than, you know, go here and going there very quickly. So yeah, I can see myself working at least three years at an institution and see an impact. Again as I said four years would be good to see students come through the system and see what is working with students I'd like to start say a first year group and work through and see them grow until they graduate and see the fruit of the results.

For the reason that Jim alludes to, it serves DWU to retain quality staff, however, Jim says retaining good staff comes at a cost to the organization. He explains that:

...there are circumstances and opportunities [that] sometimes present themselves and so it would be, it would be maybe unrealistic to say that... I am going to dedicate myself do this and you know opportunities do come, and also sometimes one needs to see opportunities where one can continue to contribute and have an impact and at a higher level...

In saying this Jim, like Florence, links staff turnover to the disconnect between and reward, motivation and organizational commitment, which under the influence of service, entails personal sacrifice. The prospect of long-term deprivation may lead to dissatisfaction with levels of material compensation which may sway some staff to leave DWU. He explains that staff...

will look for better alternatives elsewhere unless they are fully dedicated and are happy to get rewards in other ways. But economically, that can become a factor as far as tenure is concerned.

6.7 Conclusion

The findings related to DWU's HR practices and processes as they were revealed in the experiences of academic staff through interviews, observation and document analysis were presented in this chapter. These constitute some of the artifacts which are considered as manifestations of subsurface values, basic assumptions and beliefs that constitute DWU's culture and that which provides the impetus and validation for organization involvement.

Chapter 7: Discussion

Just tenure, an associate professor of English celebrates by getting a tattoo of a jumping dolphin on her right ankle. It symbolizes, she says “the freedom that comes with tenure, the freedom to think things and to do things without worrying about your position within the structure of the institution”(Jacobson 2001)

7.1 Overview

In this chapter, the findings on DWU’s practices and their link to the embedded beliefs and values which constitute the culture of the organization are discussed. The chapter also discusses what the implications of these findings are on the management of DWU. The discussion is conducted around the organizational aspects of the governance structure or decision-making model and human resource practices. The chapter begins by defining the layers of meaning of DWU’s core belief or taken for granted basic assumption of service and where the meanings intersect and permeate the organization to shape its practices. This is followed by an analysis and critique of how the commitment to in service specifically influences DWU’s decision-making and HR practices.

7.2 Service as DWU’s Defining Belief

This study reveals through the experiences of staff and supported by documentary and observational data that DWU’s decision-making model and HR practices and processes are shaped by the commitment to service as a moral cause of action. The concept of service is associated with both religion and philosophy (Karra, Tracey & Phillips 2006). It has its basis in moral values which compels a person to act in the interest of others without expectation of reward or positive reinforcement (Karra, Tracey & Phillips 2006).

In the context of DWU, the concept of service has three layers of meaning that have relevance for the organization at difference levels. One level of meaning is associated with religious conviction that compels people to act for the interest of others knowing

that there is a degree of personal sacrifice or deprivation involved. Another definition of service that has significance for DWU is related to academic profession and is inherent to knowledge work. In this context service entails a sharing of expertise through teaching, research or public service. The third layer of meaning of service that has pertinence for DWU is related to volunteering. Closely linked to the religious definition of service, however, it differs in that it is not explicitly rooted in religious belief.

7.2.1 The Catholic Church's Concept of Service

The connection of DWU to the Catholic faith through its founders establishes the link between the organization and the church's ethos of service. Burke (2005) explains that in the context of the Roman Catholic Church, the concept of service is defined as the "corporeal works of mercy" which is based on Christ's teaching that acts of charity demonstrated in seven acts of mercy shown to those in need is charity rendered to Jesus Christ. The seven corporeal, that is, of the body as opposed to the spirit, acts of mercy command people to feed the hungry, to give drink to those who are thirsty, to clothe the naked, to shelter the homeless, to visit the sick, to save the prisoner and to bury the dead (New Advent 2006). The link between this concept of service and DWU is that the two of the Catholic Church's many religious orders, the SVD and the SSpS who, driven by this belief, were instrumental in establishing DWU. These two orders undertook higher education provision as an extension of their missionary work in PNG, a context where advanced education provision was a demand insufficiently met by the state. The commitment to service has also drawn members of other religious orders of the Catholic Church to be involved with DWU. The orders represented in 2004 included the Marists, the SVD, the SSpS, the Christian Brothers, the Diocesans, the Mercy Sisters and the Spiritants.

To these men and women, committed to life-long service grounded in religion, service defines the rendering of charitable acts to the less privileged in society. These nuns, priests and brothers profess a commitment to service in vows: to forego the comforts that material wealth brings (the vow of poverty), to forego marriage (the vow of chastity) and to live a life of obedience to the church's authority (Burke 2005).

The Catholic Church's service ethos is evident in the experiences and views of both religious and non-religious members of staff. The influence of the service ethos is acknowledged by non-religiously committed staff members such as Florence who says that staff who are members of religious orders are driven by a belief in serving God. This missionary drive to serve is what Elias, a long-time member of the Marist order, explains is his motivation for participating with DWU in the provision of higher education for Papua New Guineans:

...it does come back to why religious people are religious. They do have a desire to...share the Christian message...where they can....That is something that is satisfying to me and...I believe something to build up we would call the kingdom of God. There is not always an earthly reward that we look for. Its not we think intensely enough about the heavenly reward either. ...we do feel we have a call and this is a response to the call...

Roman who is not a member of a religious congregation but a committed and practicing Catholic reflects Elias' view explaining that he is motivated by what he calls the "missionary spirit" to serve DWU, which he has done on two separate occasions. Roman defines "missionary spirit" as the impetus which drives one "to devote your time for [a] meager salary or wage...." Lynda, also a lay person and committed Catholic member of staff, makes this connection too. Similarly, Daniel, another lay Catholic member of staff and one who had had training for the religious life, defines service as the missionary ideal that drives religiously-committed men and women to serve in areas of need for a minimal living allowance. He perceives that the "culture of service" is the common ethos that religious leaders of DWU attempt to inculcate in staff. This translates into what David, Gerald and Ronald see as the satisfaction one gets in the act of giving.

7.2.2 The Concept of Service as Knowledge Extension

Service is not only a concept associated with religion it is also linked to the university organization and by extension the academic profession. Service in the context of the university organization is often cited as one of the tripartite missions or goals of the organization besides teaching and research (Scott, CJ 2006; Ward 1998). In this context, service entails the extension of professional expertise or knowledge for the

benefit of the larger community or civic society external to the academe either within close proximity to a university or the society at large (Clark 1987; Kennedy 1997; Raelin, JA 1991). As a university, DWU and its staff are by virtue of their standing as professionals are committed to making knowledge available for the service of the public good. Staff members Amir and Ronald define service in this context. Ronald, a lay member of staff, considers service as part and parcel of the academic profession. Therefore, he sees staff as inherently motivated by shared professional beliefs, ideals, convictions and aspirations of which “the service orientation is paramount” especially when their “profession is an instrument of service”. He explains further: *I think if you are in the academe or in any discipline or career...this is important [that] you are able to deliver service of better quality to your clients.*

DWU’s commitment to service was given additional weight when the president pronounced in 2004 that the year 2005 was to be organized around the theme of “community service”. The president defined the concept as having both “outside and inside” and “commercial and non-commercial” dimensions. His definition of service however is ambiguous. At one level he implies service as the external extension of service that is not necessarily knowledge associated and therefore, driven by an altruistic motivation. At another level, he presents service as driven by a profit motive where the application of knowledge includes monetary benefits for the university. The internal extension of service is framed as self-reliance which is a mitigating response to resource scarcity. This concept of service entails that staff undertake non-knowledge based work. Fr Jan explains:

Internal community service for example: much money is spent on employing labour to keep the campus clean. If students spent one hour of community service a week, there will be no need for employing much help. That money could be used for other things such as IT. Quality of service should be “demonstrated’ first internally before it is offered outside.

External community service is knowledge-based work that contributes to the common good of the host wider community. Such service is in line with the DWUSP. Fr Jan explained:

[The] Goals of community service are in line with the university strategic plan to maintain and enhance the university standing.... Staff as individuals are already involved in community service, but are not recognized by the community yet. I will ask the Council to set aside a budget for rewards.

7.2.3 Service and Volunteering Link

A third context in which the service concept is significant and has relevance for DWU is “volunteering”. The definition of the concept in this context intersects with the definition of service in the religious missionary context. As in its religious translation, service as volunteering describes activities undertaken by a person who freely gives up his or her time to engage in work that is beneficial to another person, group or organization (Wilson, J 2000). For the service rendered, the person undertaking volunteer work is in no expectation of reward either monetary or in kind (Wesley Mission Sydney 2006). However, rewards do not preclude intrinsic rewards (Wilson, J 2000). Nor do they altogether preclude extrinsic rewards. For instance, the VSO (2007), the western international charity organization from which DWU draws some of its staff, states that its members are paid an allowance that reflect local conditions. The significance for volunteering for DWU is that the missionary service ideal that motivates the religious men and women and some lay people intersects with volunteering as service driven by altruism. Florence describes the volunteers as “usually young” and driven as much by a sense of adventure and a desire to serve. Elias likewise explains: *A lot of the volunteers come for two years. For many, that would be enough, even though they have made some contribution in a developing country....* The VSO (2007) on their website describes the organization as an international development charity with 1 500 skilled professional of ages ranging from 18 to 75 employed in 34 countries. The belief in service of these volunteer organizations allows DWU to tap into their pool of skilled people to secure the staff it needs to fill teaching, administration and support staff positions. The volunteer organizations that had personnel attached to DWU in 2004 were: the Australian Volunteers Internal (AVI) and Horizon 2000, and VSO, two European volunteer organizations.

7.3 The Influence of Service on DWU's Decision-Making

The findings reveal that having service as the main motivation for work encourages centralization of the decision-making. The link between service and centralization is the imperative to exercise tight control over limited resources of the organization. Centralization defines the extent to which decision-making authority is either shared or concentrated in a person or small group (Hall & Tolbert 2005). Authority, Clark (1983) explains, is about who rules or who has the prerogative to decide on issues that concern the major goals of the organization. DWU staff's experience of decision-making indicates that the organization is highly centralized. This means that the power or authority is concentrated in the office of the president, who together with his advisors, the vice presidents, exercises control over all aspects of the organization. As centralization is one of the characteristics associated with the bureaucratic model of organization or work, its adoption makes DWU a bureaucratic organization.

The view that authority is centralized is evident in the terms staff use to describe their experience of decision-making at DWU. The terms they use are "authoritarian", "bureaucratic" and "autocratic". Daniel's view is that for the average staff member, participation in decision making is "minimal" and even "authoritative" that is, staff are only at the receiving end. Maurice describes the decision-making model as a hierarchy of limitations. Helen and Anna, both heads of departments, agree with Daniel. Anna goes further saying that for her:

The biggest issue...is the lack of delegation of responsibility. [It's] very bureaucratic and autocratic. It's a very authoritarian way of running the institution. Everybody has to report to the higher authority.

Florence describes the extent of staff's participation in decision-making as: *... we may occasionally have been asked our opinion, but it never [goes] any further than a suggestion.... So, no, I don't think we are involved.* Florence recounts an instance where her department's choice of a name for a lecture block was ostensibly overlooked by the administration in favour of one that was its choice. Maurice, however, suggests that his department has autonomy to decide but not enough support. His subsequent clarification serves to highlight what he means by lack of

support. This serves to identify the limits of his department's autonomy. In referring to participation in decision-making on hiring staff, he says that the department's involvement stops at the stage of submitting recommendations to the faculty dean who escalates the suggestions up the administrative hierarchy. The consultants in their report in 2003 described such a level of participation as task delegation rather than "genuine" sharing of authority over major goals of the organization.

Observations also showed that centralization affects behaviour patterns such as a tendency to depend on administrative authority rather than professional discretion for decision-making over work. Staff are also observed to be reliant on the administrator-managers for decisions over major goals of teaching, research and service as well as operational goals. Staff members such as Helen were observed to respond to directives in affecting changes in courses. The staff were directed to engage in research rather than engaging in research as inherent to their roles as academics. While, in general the staff are compliant, others such as Anna contest the management by directives model of governance as autocratic and patronizing to the point of infantilizing staff. The vigourousness of her contestation suggests a desire to see a shift from non-participatory decision-making to a shared or defused authority model of decision-making.

Besides being a centralized organization, DWU is also a formalized organization. Formalization refers to the use of a technical framework of rules and procedures which prescribes how labour is divided and how the functional and social positions and their attendant the relationship and interaction are defined (Hall 2002). High level of formalization or dependence on rules and norms is another characteristic of the bureaucratic model of governance. The degree to which organizations are formalized range from extreme laxity at one end and "highly stringent" on the other, with most organizations falling somewhere on the continuum (Hall & Tolbert 2005, p. 45). The extensive nature of prescription contained in the administration manual defining policies and procedures to control and coordinate work and manage staff makes DWU also a highly formalized organization.

7.3.1 Service, Resource Scarcity and Centralization

A link is made between DWU's centralized decision-making and the resource tenuous situation that confronts the organization. Head of Department, Anna, and head of the academic division and member of the administration, Denis, see the link between centralization and resource scarcity. Anna, who strongly contests centralization of decision-making, nevertheless acknowledges that it serves a purpose when it minimizes misfunction and allows leadership to focus efforts on the immediate priorities of DWU. Denis goes further in suggesting that not only has centralized management of available limited resources have been crucial in moving forward DWU's development given that the organization in one with the committed to missionary- service ideal. Denis writes:

In a mission-centered education apostolate dealing with government and precarious economy, there is a risk taking.... DWU and the University Council are to be congratulated for managing the finances and bring the university to where it is now.

The credit that Denis gives the administration and management of managing resources is supported by the consultants, who in their report on DWU's development in 2003, also note that DWU's "exceptional growth" is in part due to the close and central oversight of its finances. The national social context in which DWU was established and in which it is embedded, as has been presented in Chapters 1 and 2, would advance the cause for centralized management. In 1995, continued involvement by SVD in higher education as part of their missionary work became untenable as the means they relied on to self-support their activities diminished. The diminished capacity of SVD occurred, however, in a context where the ability of the state of PNG to support its universities was also progressively diminished as evident in the funding cuts to the sector as shown in Table 2.

The contexts constraints, threats and/or opportunities that either curtail or facilitate DWU moving forward are brought together in Figure 7. Figure 7 illustrates that DWU's organizational level responses in terms of decision-making structure and HR practices and processes are shaped by pressures stemming from PNG's development needs confronting resource scarcity curtailing adequate provision of higher education.

In this context, the missionary organization, the SVD, is also located and intervenes. Their intervention is driven by its missionary-service ideal and their belief in self-sufficient provision of a service. However, the effectiveness of the SVD's intervention is made tenuous when social factors such as demands for the return of land by Papua New Guinean landowner render self-sufficient provision of education untenable as the belief in self-sufficiency is undermined (Sinclair 2005). Their reduced ability intersects with the state's diminished ability to sufficiently resource higher education.

Figure 7 also illustrates that, as the state and SVD support becomes uncertain, DWU looks to the wider global context for opportunities to ensure its survival. Besides opportunities the external environment also exerts constraints or threats. The opportunities present themselves in the form of aid and charity organization, the market and aspects of global higher education change. The opportunities are presented through international volunteer organizations such as VSO and AVI, and also through aid organizations such as AusAID and EU. The existence of these altruistic-oriented organizations allow DWU to tap into funds or expertise to support its delivery of higher education.

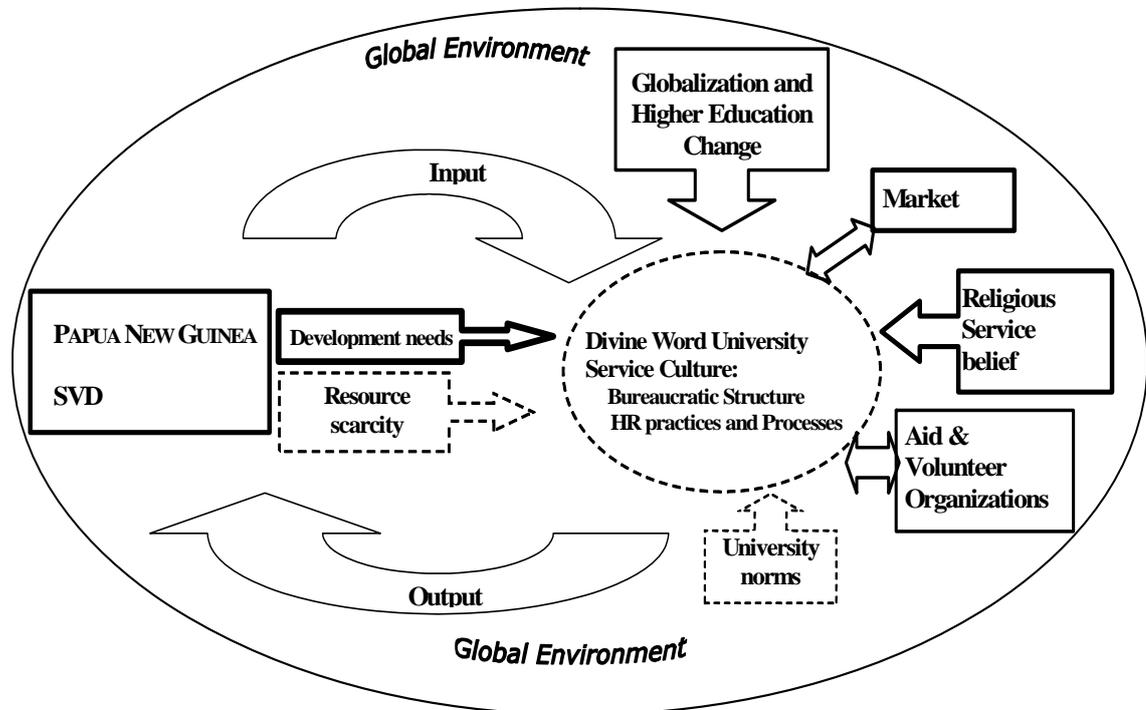


Figure 7. Salonda 2006: DWU's Environment: Influences and Purposes

DWU's response to ensure its survival is evident at the organizational level. It adopted the bureaucratic structure of decision-making to manage scarce resources whilst engaging with the market. It also adopts management tools. One such management tool is the adoption of the DWU's 30-year strategic plan.

Yet in these responses there are latent threats to the organization posed by the issue of organizational legitimacy. The adoption of the strategic plan also marked a cultural shift for DWU. It was a cultural shift in terms of the decision-making model that DWU would adopt. The centralized model was a break from the defused and participatory model common within the university field. The adoption of market sector practices and the rise of market sector discourse and behaviour make contest established university norms such as academic freedom with which it is required to act in conformity. The subsequent undermining of beliefs such as academic freedom and norms such as independent thinking has been matched by the promotion of

management defined values such as team work, initiative, and community service as altruistic outreach to the community.

The adoption of the bureaucratic model to manage scarce resource and turning to the external environment to ensure provision and organization survival organizational are not an organizational response unique to DWU. In the current context they are common responses of universities observed across social contexts, as has been presented in the literature reviewed. Perrow (cited in Hall & Tolbert 2005, p. 215) for instance, writes that bureaucracy is “the most efficient form of administration and all organizations will move toward this form if they seek efficiency”. The concern with efficiency was one of the three imperatives that Weber was responding to in 1947 when he developed the bureaucratic model or organization (DiMaggio & Powell 1983). Since the 1980s many universities in the western world, driven by concerns with securing resources, began restructuring along less organic bureaucratic models of organization (Beiber & Lawrence 1992; Rosenzweig 1999). Globally, the contemporary trend towards bureaucratization of the university reflects resource constraints that confront universities as public support for provision has declined (Altbach 1995; Deem 2001; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; Rosenzweig 1999). This shift is a move away from the model of the organization under the Keynesian welfare state model (Bowen 2001; Fisher & Rubenson 1998) which existed in a period when financial support of university was more secure. It changed when, faced with fiscal problems in the 1970s and 1980s, prompted the rise of neo-liberal politics dominant then to drive the fiscal agenda in western countries like Australia (Sharrock 2004; Winter, R. & Sarros 2002), the UK, the US (Beiber & Lawrence 1992), Canada (Fisher & Rubenson 1998) and New Zealand (Yielder & Codling 2004).

The promotion by states of the neo-liberal and conservative ideology that favors curtailing public service spending whilst advancing the free market approach to service delivery, pushed universities into the domain of private sector businesses and towards the adoption practices that are the norm in these profit pursuing organizations (Bowen 2001; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; McNay 1995). By resembling business organizations in response to the new demands, universities entered into the arena where the economic logic of supply and demand exerts influence on organizational behaviour. New practices and expectations are symptomatic of the

shift. For example, universities have to compete for resources and secure a market sector by tailoring their knowledge products. They are subsequently adopting management practices to secure resources to ensure organizational survival. Concerns with efficiency and quality have given cause to the introduction of new accountability mechanisms.

Like universities elsewhere, DWU's adoption of the centralized model of organizing work and managing people is a response to external social factors impacting on resources security of the organization. Although, this response at the organizational level is the same, the social factors differ. As has been presented in Chapters 2 and 3, the financial pressures that confront DWU emanate not so much from political ideology or the continuing modernization trend that affect the changes in the western university context. Rather, the pressure originates from context specific factors such as disputes over land ownership. These factors undermine DWU's founders' religiously-driven belief in self-sufficient provision of a service in a context of need. Faced with the prospect of organizational demise, DWU reinvents itself under a new religious yet management leadership. Its reinvention not only sees it break with the past and adopt management tools such as strategic planning and engaging with the market to ensure continued provision, it does so whilst remaining committed and promoting the service ideal of its founders.

7.3.2 Service, Centralization and Religious Affiliation

Another factor suggested by the findings as contributing to the centralized management model has some connection with the religious affiliation of the president and members of the staff. This link is made by Daniel, Anna, Elias and Lynda. Daniel sees the connection between the president being a priest and member of the hierarchy of the Catholic Church and centralization. He also links staff's deference to authority demonstrated in compliance to their experiences with church authority. Daniel explains that it...

keeps coming from...a church legacy where people who were here before...
they've established a system where the authority figure speaks and people listen
and there is very little room for questioning and sharing...

DWU's past presidents including the incumbent are career priests rather than academics. This type of religious leadership in the university has had implications for DWU. Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest the influence of such a connection when they observe that a leader's values and beliefs constitute his/her cultural socialization and the model adopted by an organization to organize work and manage people may be a reflection of these values. Tomson (cited in Ranson, Hinings & Greenwood 1980, p. 6) also suggests that organizational structures are also significantly shaped by values of organizational members. The SVD's choice of DWU's president on the basis of religious affiliation and therefore outside the academe, therefore, breaks with the university norm. This norm is contained in these assertive statements by Cohen and March's (1974, p. 1): "Presidents are academics. Their careers are almost entirely in academic institutions; their values are those of the academe." Berber and Lawrence (1992) write that a career as a university president is not a career goal of academics and those who take on the role do it for a limited period of time and out of a sense of service. Another norm that relates to the process of university establishment that DWU breaks with is one that is suggested by Ashby (1966, p. 5) in the statement that: "A new university founded as a facsimile of some prototype, imitating its statues, adopting curriculum, attracting as founder professors as some of its teachers".

7.3.3 Centralization and DWU's Academic Profession link

The findings further suggest that there is also some link between centralization and the weak state of academic profession at DWU reflected in the levels of qualification of the staff. The state of DWU's academic profession, which reflects recruitment under the service belief, contributes to centralization. The qualifications profile of DWU staff of 2004 shows that the predominance of degree or sub-degree holders, that is, 57 % of staff, makes DWU an organization staffed primarily by semi-professionals. Etzioni (1964, pp. 78, 79) distinguishes between "fully-fledged" and semi-professional organizations on the basis of the length of training undertaken by those employed. He defines "pure" professional organizations as those constituted by people who have had a minimum of five years of tertiary education or training in any specialism and semi-professional organizations as those constituted by people who have had less than five years of tertiary education or training in a specialism.

Professional privileges of autonomous practice and freedom from supervisory control are therefore entrusted to fully-fledge professions (Etzioni 1964; Miner, Crane & Vandenberg 1994). For the university professional, the academic, the privilege of autonomy of practice translates into control over the knowledge functions of teaching and research in one's field of expertise. Etzioni (1964, pp. 78-79) defines pure professional organizations as those that...

are primarily devoted to the creation and application of knowledge; their professionals are usually protected in their work by guarantee of privileged communication, and they are often concerned with matters of life and death. Semi-professional organizations are more concerned with the communication and to a lesser extent, the application of knowledge, their professionals are less likely to be guaranteed the right of privileged of communications, and they are rarely directly concerned with matters of life and death.

The norms and values that shape their practices transmitted through professional training are derived from professional codes of practice rather than managerial or administrative hierarchy (Miner, Crane & Vandenberg 1994).

The state of the academic profession at DWU, as illustrated in Table 5, shows that 41.55 % of DWU staff are qualified at PhD or Masters levels. They included three deans of faculty out of six, five out of 11 department heads. Views of staff interviewed from these categories were most critical of centralization of decision-making. Their responses are in line with what studies have found, that academics value control over their work, and if that is breached, the loss of autonomy leads to a source of dissatisfaction with their work (Drucker 1989; Miner, Crane & Vandenberg 1994). In this study, Jim, a dean who is qualified at the level of PhD, sees centralization as curtailing energetic debate within DWU. The command and control model, he thinks as intimidating staff into silence or submission. According to Florence, another staff member qualified at the level of PhD, the level of involvement of staff in decision-making is limited to suggestions or opinions. Anna is more robust than others in contesting the model where decision-making escalates to the office of the president and his cabinet. The robustness of her criticism suggests a desire to regain the privilege of professional discretion over knowledge work that centralization breaches. The "lack of delegation of responsibility", she observes as *very bureaucratic and autocratic. It's a very authoritarian way of running the institution. Everybody has to report to the higher authority. ...you take decisions by yourself, and*

then you have to be ready to face the repercussions. Jim foresees that the command and control model becoming increasingly contested and changing as the numbers of staff qualified at the PhD level increase. In 2003, two international consultants also predicted that such a shift in the governance model was likely when they noted that the current curtailment of robust professional debate on campus is a worrying development. They state that this indicates a move away from the expectation that: "...an academic organization would stimulate authentic thinking and expression of personal opinions, since staff represents a highly educated group of professionals".

7.3.4 Implications of Centralization for DWU Managers

One of the implications of centralizing the decision-making function for DWU and university managers in general is that, such a shift breaks with the organic decision-making model previously associated with the university. This model is often referred to as the "collegial model" and is characterized by minimal prescription and defused decision-making (Coaldrake, P. & Stedman 1999; McNay 1995). Such a model is associated with professional organizations and one which allows for the exercise of professional autonomy which is curtailed under the bureaucratic model (Hall & Tolbert 2005; McNay 1995). Centralization also undermines academic values. Scase (1992) writes that professional organizations generally nurture and value personal creativity and that university education inculcates values which however are underplayed within bureaucratic organizations. This study shows the values tensions that result as a consequence of centralization. Etzioni (1964, p. 76) underscores the professionals' desire for autonomy in stating that the professionals' "highly individualized principle [of creativity] is diametrically opposed to the very essence of the organizational principle of control and coordination by superiors....". Hall and Tolbert (2005) highlight that attempts to make academics submit to administrative control may lead to alienation. Furthermore, the feeling of alienation increases as the level of qualification rises. Therefore, a PhD scientist is more likely to experience higher levels of alienation than a scientist with a masters' level qualification in an organization that adopts the command and control mechanism as a governance tool (Etzioni 1964). Cohen and March (1974) advance the need for a new model of management for the university as the top-down model of control and coordination of

work and people is tailored to serve the needs of organizations that have clearly defined goals and technologies and therefore, is ill-suited for organizations such as the university whose goals and technologies are ambiguous.

7.3.5 A Shift from Professional to Bureaucratic Authority

Another implication for DWU and for university leadership in general is that centralizing authority breaks with the decentralized model of decision-making previously associated with knowledge based organizations such as the university. This model of decision-making over the major goals of the university was fragmented and rested with committees and boards rather than with centralized administrative authority (Clark 1983). In addition, authority over the knowledge functions of research and teaching rested with individual professors (Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994; Mintzberg & Rose 2003, p. 270; Yelder & Codling 2004).

However, in centralization authority, power is not only relocated away from academics, a shift that redefines authority as professionally defined to being functionally defined (Kleinig 1982). Kleinig (1982) draws a distinction between the two forms of authority stating that functional authority is authority based on position, and professional authority is based on specialized knowledge. Occupiers of functionally defined positions of authority are said to be *in* authority and such have power that allows force to be used to gain compliance (Kleinig 1982). On the other hand, authority that is knowledge-based defines a person of such positions of as being *an* authority (Kleinig 1982). Etzioni (1964, pp. 83,84) uses the terms “lay administrator” and “specialized administrator” to further differentiate between the forms of authority. Whilst the “lay administrator” lacks specialized training in serving the major goal activities of the organization which she/he leads, the specialized administrator does. Administrative authority, according to Etzioni (1964), assumes that subordinates consider technically defined authority as ostensibly more rational and legitimate and that subordinates in the command and control hierarchy accept rules and orders as coming from superiors whom they considered more rational. Therefore, the higher the rank, the more qualified one is in terms of formal education, and merit and experience.

7.4 Service defined HR Practices

The findings related to human resource policies and practices show that they are also influenced by the belief in service defined as altruism or moral cause of action. The commitment to service so defined has implications on the HR functions such as recruitment and selection, staff development, ranking and promotions in terms of the purpose they are designed to serve.

7.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

The recruitment and selection function serves the purpose of bringing into an organization suitably qualified individuals to perform work necessary for the organization to achieve its goals (Etzioni 1961; Miner, Crane & Vandenberg 1994). The process of recruitment and selection is the most direct route to matching a specific job with a person (Kearney 1978). Hughes (2006), however, writes that to ensure the best-fit between person and corporate goals requires that recruitment be preceded by job descriptions. In the context of the university, Latimer (2002, p. 10) establishes that critical to the success of a university is the quality of its staff:

The caliber of employee for a college or university has significant impact on the institution's productivity (instruction, research, service), its ability to attract and retain students, and its public presence.

The quality of staff is especially significant for a university as: "Higher education, almost by definition, requires knowledge workers" (Latimer 2002, p. 10). The caliber of staff determines a university's success in teaching, research and service, its prestige in the eyes of the public which translates into its success in attracting and retaining students (Latimer 2002). The academic profession is one held in high esteem not only because the profession trains and credentials other professions, it is also a profession amongst which one finds the highest number of advanced degree holders (Slaughter & Leslie 1997). These advanced degrees are acquired through long periods of training during which they acquire both "a profound knowledge of their scientific field and the

methodology required for research in these fields” and with norms and values associated with of their profession (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon 1999; Vasutova 1998).

7.4.2 DWU’s Recruitment Practices

DWU’s recruitment and selection processes would therefore aim to secure the professional workforce on which it would depend for the achievement of its objective to become an intellectually vibrant community excelling in the three functions of teaching, research and service (Divine Word University 2003), functions which DWU has in common with other universities. The dispensation of these knowledge functions is required of staff occupying six levels in the academic rank hierarchy which DWU classifies under the ranks of tutor, senior tutor, lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor and professor. The tutor levels are teaching positions, the lecturer levels require engagement in both teaching and research, and the professorial ranks entail engagement in all three functions of teaching, research and service (Divine Word University 2003). As discussed earlier in the Findings chapter, DWU has additional functions which are implicit in organizational discourse functions that are associated with responding to the market and being a Christian university.

The findings of this study however, reveal ambiguity and misalignment between policy intentions of recruitment and the outcomes of the current recruitment and selection practices. This disconnection ultimately has implications on DWU’s ability to attain its goals. In 2003, the consultants pointed out that the current means of recruitment that depended primarily on non-market means to secure staff curtailed DWU’s ability to attract the best qualified staff. The qualifications profile supports this observation. The qualifications profile of staff in 2004 showed that 16.88 % were qualified at PhD level, 24.67 % at Masters level, 42.85% at Bachelor degree level, and 11.68 % and 2.59 % at diplomas and certificates levels respectively (Table 5). The numbers of staff qualified at degree or sub-degree levels, 57 % of staff, were indicative of the recruitment outcomes. These figures are indicative of the level of disconnect between work expectations and qualifications policy intentions of DWU.

7.4.3 Recruitment, Resource and Service Link

There is a link between resource scarcity, recruitment outcomes as illustrated in the current qualifications profile of DWU staff, and service when it is driven by a belief in charity or altruism. The connection is that service which encourages altruism and therefore, self-sacrifice, curtails open-market recruitment and influences DWU to focus efforts instead on organizations and individuals who share the belief in service who may not always have the required qualifications. For DWU, adopting such practices means that the costs of recruitment are minimized. Daniel, mature and articulate, agrees that it serves DWU in terms of minimizing costs to search “for people who are willing to forego some of the benefits for the sake of service”. The sources from which DWU recruits some of its staff are also indicative of the influence of service on this HR function. DWU recruits staff from western international volunteer and missionary organizations. Missionary organizations include religious orders as well as Catholic universities such the Australia Catholic University (ACU). ACU professors are engaged on a visiting lecturer basis to deliver DWU’s advanced degree course such as MEL. Potential staff are also recruited from within the ranks of DWU’s own graduates. With their first degrees, they are engaged as teaching fellows and attached to departments to undergo further training. The motivation for such practices is not unique to DWU. Hall (2002) suggests that organizations have a tendency to seek out the least expansive labour that they can find, especially for the lower levels of the organization.

However, the inference from Etzioni (1961) suggests that DWU’s recruitment practices are not common with those of professional organizations such as the universities. Etzioni (1961, p. 152) writes that universities “are the only kind of normative organization which recruit lower participants in part through market competition”.

7.4.4 Implications of DWU's Recruitment Practices

One of the implications for DWU managers of the promulgation of service as altruistic provision of higher education by DWU is that the influence that both context and content factors play in enticing academics to join DWU is made ambiguous. Academics are more likely to join an organization which offers an environment in which they have control over the content elements of their work (Becher 1989; Lacy & Sheehan 1997; Moses, Ingrid 1986; Pearson & Seiler 1983). What a university can't offer in terms of high salaries, universities, unlike utilitarian business organizations, make up for with the offer of non-economic rewards such as organizational prestige, research or training facilities and conditions, the quality of work-life factors associated with the academe (Latimer 2002). The privilege of having control of their work may boost or even outweigh remuneration and related rewards that influence an academic to join an organization (Etzioni 1961). But, as Latimer (2002) notes, the influence of quality of work life factors such as these in recruitment is diminishing as the salary gap widens.

7.4.5 Service and Staff Turnover and Retention Link

Still another implication of recruitment and selection under the service model for DWU is that the outcomes it produces works against encouraging long-term commitment to the organization thereby resulting in high rates of turnover. The annual shifts in staff that DWU experienced in the years from 2003 to 2006 are shown in Appendix C. These movements show that, except for the stability in two amalgamated departments, all other departments experienced considerable levels of turnover during the four years. In 2006, only 19 of the 77 staff that year had been with their respective departments continuously in the four years.

One department, Papua New Guinea Studies (PG) as is shown in the table below, (Table 7) witnessed between 2003 and 2006 three department heads come and go. Florence, a member of this department was herself on the verge of leaving at the end of 2004 after eight years. At the end of 2004, the department witnessed six, (75 %) of

a total of eight staff members leave the department and DWU. Of these, one was a volunteer, two were religious and the remainder lay people, one of whom was Florence. In 2005, the department gained three new members, three short of the number that had left. Of these, one was a volunteer and two non-volunteer lay persons, one of whom was the new HoD. The average length of attachment to the department in 2006 was two years.

Table 7: PG Department's Staff turnover between 2003-2006

Staff	Status	2003	2004	2005	2006	No of Years
PG1 (Head 2003-2004)	L		x	x	x	1
PG2 (head 2004-2005)	L					4
PG3	L			x	x	2
PG4	V			x	x	2
PG5	L				x	3
PG6	L			x	x	2
PG7	L			x	x	2
PG8	R			x	x	2
PG9	R			x	x	2
PG10 (head 2005-2006)	L	x	x			2
PG11	L		rotated			2
PG12	L	Study leave	Study leave			2
PG13	L	x	x			2
PG14	V	x	x			2
PG15	L	x	x	x		1

Key: *L*-non-religious; *R*-Religious; *V*-Volunteer; *X* not on staff; currently on staff

Daniel is one staff member who links turnover with reward satisfaction. He suggests that the turnover of good staff, and the restricted recruitment thwarts DWU's efforts to move forward as costs are incurred that are both monetary and in terms of human capital depletion. Daniel explains:

The university does not attract, is not in the position to attract people with certain expertise to come because...when they come they want to teach, they want to contribute, but they also want to be compensated in some ways for their service. These two factors are kind of play a role in university not really vigorously trying to go forward because if you ask certain people from the open market to come, you promise them certain things, they come, they will be dissatisfied and they will leave. So what has happened over the years, because of these reasons, the university has to rely heavily of volunteers and volunteers who come and stay

one for two years, some of which are...So I think it all boils down also to, you know, the whole idea of service.

Daniel's view is shared by Anna, who as a volunteer explains why she decided to join DWU. She suggests that for the lay person like her, volunteering driven by altruism is only a short term undertaking even a "break" from their careers:

...you volunteer basically to share your skills, with people in developing countries. Other than the pleasure of sharing your skills with your fellow human beings that need them, there is very little reward in terms of financial level because the salary is very small as it is stipend and unless you are in that career path of development, although very few people who work for volunteering organizations are interested, who will remain in development. Most of them will go back to their original countries. A lot of people see volunteering as a break away from your career, a period off where you...combine with altruism....

That DWU experiences turnover of staff is not unique to the organization. It is a point that Etzioni (1961) underscores when he writes that turnover is not uncommon in organizations given that an organization's life outlasts a participant's time of involvement with them. DWU's president also expresses that turnover "is not only a fact of life [of organizations] but a necessary dynamic of a strong and adjustable university". However, the view of DWU staff is that the turnover is consistently high and their experiences of its impacts reveal that both direct and hidden costs are incurred in the process of turnover. Flamholtz (1972) writes that all organizations incur economic costs as a result of turnover, the higher the cost the higher the value of the employee that is lost.

The resulting costs of turnover, especially of qualified staff, on remaining staff are implied in the experiences of Florence:

We had staff rotation that could make one dizzy. ...there is no continuity. And by now, I'm the [only] one who've been [with the department] a long time. And I find its just becoming too stressful. Everything goes back to me because I'm the only one who knows; I'm the only one who is capable of taking the time. So certainly, you know...I find it's a huge problem. I think now it's getting critical as far as staffing is going to go.

Jim, a member of the middle management as an academic dean, shares Florence's concerns about the cost of high turnover but sees it as impacting on student learning:

I think we need to look at longer issue of contract for good staff members, qualified staff members who can dedicate themselves to leading a program and

influence and be able to make their impact on a program. Sometimes good staff comes in and you know, as soon as the students are beginning to relate [to them] and staff to relate to students, good staff are on the move again. It is an area that we will need to look at [and] try and build a foundation where good, solid academics are encouraged to [remain]...longer at the university so that they can build a rapport and develop the intellectual climate of a university.

At the level of management, the perception is different. Denis, one of the four vice presidents, does not see the instability resulting from turnover as a concern given that the number of volunteers, the group that experiences the highest turnover rates reflecting their status as short-term attachment, as a proportion to the overall staff employed by the organization. In his response to the concern expressed by staff, he writes:

I do not believe there is instability in staff caused by volunteers. In fact the volunteers are there because they bring specific skills and resources that were not available otherwise. It is important to note the ratio of volunteers to staff on contracts then one can understand that this is not a problem at DWU. Currently DWU employs more than 150 staff and less than 10 are volunteers.

Denis also suggests that maintaining stability in the top and middle management is more important to the “normal” development of DWU. In numeric terms Denis is correct. However correct this view is, it nevertheless does not differentiate between knowledge workers who are necessary for the performance of the higher education functions of the organization and staff who perform support functions that are not directly linked to the core functions or goals of the organization. Both his and the president’s view noted earlier seem to gloss over and therefore, do not take into account the full costs of staff turnover for DWU particularly when valuable people leave. Flamholtz (1972, p. 42) writes that as high quality staff leave an organization, the organization experiences a depletion of its human assets, that is, the “value of the individual’s potential contribution to the organization is lost.” Latimer (2002) underscores that the greater the value of human and intellectual capital institutions loose, the higher the costs associated with the turnover. Given that a university’s success depends on staff quality, it serves the university to prevent turnover and retain its quality staff (Kearney 1978). The implication for the university in contemporary higher education’s context of financial constraints as Latimer (2002, p. 2) cautions, institutions that are driven by overall costs and productivity concerns, may adopt recruitment and retention practices that are “penny wise and pound foolish”.

Latimer (2002) explains that the loss of quality staff incurs both direct and indirect costs to an organization. Costs are incurred in all of the three phases of staff turnover, the position-vacating phase, the separation phase and acquisition, and knowledge transfer and training phase (Latimer 2002). While direct costs appear on expense reports, indirect costs, the biggest of which is the cost of loss of productivity, do not. Productivity loss or reduction is experienced by the incumbent of the position to be vacated, by those responsible for conducting the search to fill the position, by the new hire who initially adapts to the expectations of the position, by peers who assume responsibility for the displaced work during the period of search and adaptation and loss of productivity during the period of on-the-job-training of the new hire (Latimer 2002).

Yet another outcome of the recruitment practices under the service model is that it incurs costs that are linked to the retention of underqualified staff. These costs are felt at the level of workload for the remaining staff and at the level of student learning. Such an adverse cost outcome to DWU of the retention of under-qualified staff can also be detected from Florence's experiences with staffing in her department. She speaks of feeling "infuriated" upon learning that a staff member who was "known" to be incompetent and who had been relieved from teaching in the department was re-engaged due to a staff shortage in the department. Her increasing frustration with instability and its impact on the department contribute to her deciding to depart DWU at the end of 2004.

These outcomes go against the assumption, as suggested in Denis' perception of staff retention, that staff retention and stability are always advantageous for an organization. Flamholtz (1972) writes that the indicators of human asset depletion may be subtle and that stability or low rate of turnover may lull organizational managers into a false sense of security. Turnover costs also includes "opportunity costs" that is, the "potential contribution" that is lost with the loss of a valuable employee (Flamholtz 1972, p. 42). Therefore, Flamholtz advises that managers be attuned to subtle changes in employee satisfaction as a decrease in satisfaction reflects the depletion of human capital. The turnover costs rise as levels of satisfaction with the way things are may decrease (Flamholtz 1972).

Florence's experience suggests the costs that DWU will incur not just in terms of replacement costs but also in terms of opportunity costs as a consequence of turnover. Florence was also frustrated at seeing a trainee staff member under the university's teaching fellow program being assigned workloads beyond what his current competencies allow him to perform and a reward not commensurate with the workload. Florence considered the teaching fellow as a promising staff member whom she saw as having "excellent motivation, good brains, good English, good lots of things, but he can not perform." However, the young man was,

given a full teaching load is on a Teaching Fellow allowance when he is to be working under supervision. ...by no fault of his own, he just can't deliver the quality. He has no training, he is too young, he doesn't have the resources... so I'm not at all putting the blame on him at all. But I'm putting lots of blame on the administration.

This young teaching fellow leaves DWU and with his departure, the potential contribution he would have made to the organization is lost.

The staffing challenges such as these are not unique to DWU as is pointed out by both Denis and Rooney. Rooney (2004), a "volunteer" who had previously been attached to DWU, also observed that it is a common concern confronting PNG's higher education institutions. In his view under-qualification of university staff in PNG is one of the challenges facing PNG universities in their attempts to raise the quality of education.

Yet another impact of turnover resulting from recruitment and selection influenced by service is that the resulting instability in staff thwarts DWU's efforts to effectively manage people and plan its future manpower requirements. Flamholtz (1972) writes that manpower planning constitutes part of the overall corporate strategy as corporate goals determine the tasks which must be performed. Keel (2006a) defines workforce planning as a systematic process which serves to identify the human capital required to meet an organizations goals and well as developing the strategies to meet the identified requirements. It is a tool in the hands of organizational managers to determine appropriate workload and staffing levels which can justifiably be supported through budget allocations as meeting organizational objectives (Keel 2006a). In

other words, workforce planning also serves to align resources with core mission activities of an organization (Cornell University Division of Planning and Budgeting 2001). Applied to the university, workforce or manpower planning seeks to determine workloads and human capital needed for the delivery of its knowledge functions of teaching, research and service functions, and other functions of serving the market and being religiously orientated which can be justifiably supported in terms of resources. In this study, Daniel is one staff member who sees the strategic importance of manpower planning when he suggests that such planning should inform staff development provision.

7.4.6 Staff Development under the Service Model

Staff development practices are further illustrative of the influence that the belief in service exerts on DWU. Staff development is linked to selection and recruitment and serves the same purpose of ensuring that there is a “job-person match” only that recruitment and selection is the more direct approach to align employees with jobs on which effective performance rests (Kearney 1978, p. 16; Keel 2006b). Developing staff has benefits for the organization as well as the employee as both the achievement of organizational goals and career development of employees are enhanced (Keel 2006b). Career development is beneficial to an organization as it leads to an increase in productivity, a rise in job satisfaction levels, a decrease in absenteeism and a reduction in the high costs of turnover (Flamholtz 1972; Keel 2006b).

One of the assumptions that drive staff development is dependent on the intellectual capacity of the employee (Kearney 1978). This expectation is more significant for knowledge-dependent organizations such as the university. As noted above, the demand of intellectual capacity for staff is inherently linked to the organization of the university where by its nature is a knowledge-centered organization (Kearney 1978).

The importance of knowledge to the organization’s goal outcomes is recognized by DWU as it makes the link between staff qualification and job performance at the policy level. Policies 6.4.1.2 and 6.4.1.4 stipulate that DWU aims to have all its lecturers and heads of departments qualified at the minimum level of Masters (Divine

Word University 2003). Therefore, for staff with lower level qualifications, DWU's stated intention is to encourage them to pursue studies towards higher qualifications. At the time of data collection in 2004, the percentage of staff with Masters and PhDs was 41.55%. This left 58.45 % of staff requiring advanced levels studies leading to higher degree qualifications. These statistics are indicative of where DWU is in terms of meeting its staff development goals as suggested in the policy. They are also indicative of the outcomes of recruitment and selection processes, which at this stage, introduces into the organization a high percentage of staff with degree or sub-degree qualifications. These levels of qualifications translate into a less than optimal fit between work expectations at the higher education level and staff competencies.

Providing training opportunities is DWU's response to complement the role that recruitment and selection plays to align persons with the expectations of the job that recruitments. Training entails activities that result in staff acquiring skills that would deliver performance outcomes at the individual as well as at the level of the organization (Kearney 1978). The training that DWU provides its staff does not only aim to credential staff at higher academic qualifications levels but also training that provides them with specific or additional skills for performance such as teaching skills. Training that DWU offers in-house range from one-off workshops, and credited courses and formal programs that include the Certificate in Teaching and Masters Program in Educational Leadership (MEL). Of the staff interviewed, Daniel, Amelia, Maurice and Virgo were enrolled in the MEL program with Daniel, Maurice and Virgo successfully completing the program. Anthony, Daniel and Roman were also enrolled in the Certificate in Teaching. Funding for staff enrolled in these programs came from DWU. Some training was made possible through funding from international aid organizations such as AusAID and the European Union (EU). Gerald is one of two other staff members undertaking education related PhD studies internally through EU sponsorship. The EU was also funding two staff members to pursue Master's degrees in Britain. AusAID, the Australian aid organization, is contributing to DWU's staff training by sponsoring studies of two others in an Australian university.

The sponsorship of training within the organization and the dependence on aid organizations to fund studies externally minimizes the costs to DWU. Whilst these

efforts aim to have staff acquire advanced degrees, they, nevertheless, are not all tailored to match an individual's training needs as Amelia's experience reveals. Amelia feels that the MEL program, in which she was encouraged to enroll, will not significantly contribute to increasing her capacity to teach in the specific field she wishes to specialize.

Amelia's perception and the fact that many staff are enrolled in the MEL program points to the need for training programs to be informed by an assessment of needs designed to meet individual staff job-specification needs. Kearney (1978) lists assessment of need as the first step to meeting training needs of staff. According to Amelia, DWU was not able to meet her training needs, both in terms of funding and in terms of the courses it had on offer. She herself also did not have the financial capacity to self-fund her studies externally. Funding constraints both at the organizational and individual levels explain why staff undertaking advanced degree studies in international universities were being sponsored through aid organizations, and those undertaking studies internally were all enrolled in the education related courses as they were the only advanced level courses on offer.

The implications for DWU of pursuing a staff development program that focuses primarily on the development of teaching is that it works within a very limited concept of staff development. This limited view of staff development is common within universities worldwide including Australia (Akerlind 2005). Akerlind (2005, p. 2) writes: "Issues of ongoing development as a researcher throughout an academic career are rarely addressed and the focus on teaching development still predominates." Such a model of staff development defines academics primarily as teachers instead of both teachers and researchers. The findings of this study reveal that DWU staff see themselves primarily as teachers, a view encouraged and reinforced by staff development that is devoted to the development of teaching. DWU's policy on staff workload distribution focused entirely on teaching. Yet at the same time it was encouraging staff to engage in research. Of the staff interviewed for this study, only Anna and Maurice were actively engaged in research in a context where staff were increasingly expected to be engaged in research activity. The focus on teaching is against what Becher's findings (1989, p. 3) reveal that "...the large majority [of academics] preferred to focus on their activities as seekers after

knowledge rather than as communicators of it” that is, they have a preference for research over teaching. However, Becher (1988) and Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999) suggest that the preference for one function over another may be influenced by considerations of what activities bring significant rewards. Becher (1989, p. 3) concludes that the reason for research emphasis might be that:

... membership of the academic profession—at least in elite departments—is defined in terms of excellence in scholarship and originality in research, and not to any significant degree in terms of teaching capability. Discipline leaders set the norms and those norms do not for the most part appear to include pedagogic considerations.

Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999) note that if tenure is the reward for research productivity, than the focus of academic work will be on research rather than teaching.

7.4.7 Ranking and Promotion of Academic Staff

The exploration of issues around ranking and promotion further reveals how the service ideal permeates and shapes practice at DWU. DWU defines ranking as “the process by which the qualifications and credentials of an academic staff member are evaluated for the purpose of determining his / her status and academic standing as a basis for initial classification and subsequent promotion” (Divine Word University 2003, p. 31). This definition suggests that promotion is the process through which career aspirations are met and performance is managed and validated. The policy also suggests that employees are informed of the ranks at which they are classified upon employment. Promotion, therefore, serves as an appraisal process that has organizational goals in mind and is designed to improve performance and motivate staff to remain with the organization (Kearney 1978).

The findings of this study show that there is a disconnect between policy and actual practice outcomes. At the policy level, in its administration manual, DWU stipulates staff classifications in academic ranks and appends to each, the job expectations. In practice, however, the experiences of staff show that the process of determining rank is ambiguous. The uncertainty comes across in the experience of Daniel who says that, in terms of rank, staff simply go by the generic title of “lecturer”. Maurice and

Florence are two staff members who suggest that rank symbolizes no particular status and represents no value at DWU. In terms of promotions, despite the detailed policies, the process remained stalled until November 2007 when the very first panel met under altered and simplified policy guidelines. Whilst they remained un-operational, other or informal and simplified processes were adopted to reward staff. Staff such as Roman saw value in the outcomes of these processes whilst those like Florence did not and were dismissive of their outcomes.

These organizational outcomes suggest that DWU's commitment to service diminishes the effectiveness of such processes as the proper analysis and classification of jobs, two necessary first steps to employee selection, and on the basis of which promotion decisions are made (Hughes 2006), and processes that reward staff. This has implications for DWU. Moses (1986), for one writes that staff perceptions of what happens with promotion influences their perceptions of the values advanced by their university. The fact that promotion in inactive and rank is seen to be standing for little value suggest how the promotion service as a dominant value makes to an extent devalues staff.

Other factors contributing to the stasis in promotion were linked to the terms of tenure of staff and their motivations for joining DWU. These did not encourage staff to engage in the demanding appraisal process. In the case of volunteers, their short term two-year contracts with DWU, and their altruistic motivation, that Anna suggests, that drives them to participate with DWU render irrelevant any aspirations they might have to seek promotion and career advancement within the DWU context. The service motive also minimizes the desire for promotion in staff members who are members of religious orders. This is reflected in the responses of Maurice and Elias, both members of a religious order. They suggest that the reward for promotion may be intrinsic without tangible material advancement such as salaries increases. One further reasons suggested by the data is that the process is too cumbersome and demanding as Daniel is succinct in stating that: "...no one has tried". Other than intrinsic rewards, there was no tangible enticement for one to subject oneself to such a demanding process.

7.4.8 Reward and Motivation Implications of Stalled Promotion

As alluded to above, the disconnection between staff experiences of ranking and promotion and the policy intentions of the organization are linked to the ideal of service and what it translates into in terms of reward and motivation has implications for DWU. One of the implications is alluded to by Moses (1986, p. 144) when she says that a university can use promotion as a reward and incentive to advance the activities and attitudes it considers of value and ignoring others that it sees as of lesser value to the organization. The appropriateness of reward, a key factor in influencing motivation, is highlighted by Kearney (1978, p. 15) who writes that: “Nothing happens in an organization unless employees are motivated.” However, Kearney also notes that determining what motivates people is difficult as the varying responses from DWU staff affirm. Kearney (1978, p. 16) suggests that a starting point is to understand that “people are motivated on the basis of what they believe the relationships are between effort, performance, reward and needs”. Research on what motivates academic staff, as referred to in Moses (1986) have drawn on the two classical motivational theories, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and the two-factor theory advanced by Herzberg which draws from Maslow's theory. Maslow's theory posits that for higher order needs to surface and determine motivation, lower order needs of have first to be satisfied. Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959) treats motivation as a multi-dimensional concept with one category constituting intrinsic “content” elements that contribute to satisfaction and another category constituting factors which are extrinsic “context” or “hygiene” factors which contribute to dissatisfaction or satisfaction.

This study finds that DWU staff derive their primary motivation from factors that are not only intrinsic to their work which include teaching and student mentoring, but beyond these professional expectations to include student appreciation for their work, religious conviction, a sense of nationalism or patriotism, altruism and organizational affiliation. These findings at one level affirm what studies have found that knowledge workers such as academics are motivated less by financial rewards than by intrinsic values-related rewards (Becher 1989; Dunkin 2003; Lacy & Sheehan 1997; Moses, Ingrid 1986; Pearson & Seiler 1983). These intrinsic rewards, however, are aspects of

their work that are central to their professional practice and are associated with their intellectual lives with values such as access to resources and time; autonomy of practice; an environment of debate; peer-review validated status and absence or minimal interference by administration (Boyer, Altbach & Whitelaw 1994; Dunkin 2003; Pearson & Seiler 1983; Ssesanga & Garrett 2005). Although some of DWU's staff speak of being motivated by intrinsic factors inherent to their profession, particular factors associated with teaching, in general staff motivations for work are derived primarily from intrinsic values external to professions and grounded in service as a moral course of action. These motivators are, however, personal validations for work and seem to surface and determine motivation in a context where the concept of service entails that extrinsic motivation factors such as salaries and incentives are not integrated into formal reward process. The data also indicate that not all staff are intrinsically motivated in ways that reflect their commitment to the ideal of service. The experiences of some staff show that the promulgation of altruism as an intrinsic reward leads to demotivation and disengagement from the organization. A staff member that Maurice describes as being "depressed" is one such staff member. Such staff members are likely to either remain with the organization but disengaged from the organizational community or terminate their engagement with their organization and depart (Huston, Norman & Ambrose 2007). Florence's experience is representative of staff members who are intrinsically motivated, that is, they are satisfied with the content aspects of their work but are dissatisfied with the context aspect of their work. Florence finds herself unable to continue and resolves to exit DWU at the end of her eighth year. Both these responses are illustrative of participant commitment to organizations evident in other studies. Pearson and Seiler (1983) concluded that factors not inherent to professional work such as salary are aspects of academic work that staff were most dissatisfied with. Moses (1986) mentions a good salary and tenure as contributing to satisfying the lower needs of academics. The findings in this study support this conclusion. Florence is more forthright than her colleagues in expressing dissatisfaction with her salary as one of the factors influencing her decision to leave DWU. Others such as Anna, Daniel, and Jim are more measured in making the link between extrinsic factors such as salary and organizational commitment.

The implication for DWU of promoting service as a moral course of action which entails the expectation of minimal material or extrinsic reward for work undertaken is that it works counter to the expected motivational purpose that functions such as promotion and tenure serve. DWU staff's various experiences are indicative of the tensions between the expectations of increased material gain and the focus on service as the primary intrinsic reward. Some members of staff are not in expectation of increased material rewards. To these staff members, the desire for promotion and what it entails in terms of increased reward are not aspirations they seek to have satisfied by DWU. Their involvement with DWU stems primarily from altruistic intent. Included in this group are Maurice and Elias who are members of a religious order, Anna, a volunteer, and Jim, a lay member of staff. Elias is more forthcoming in saying that anyone who thought joining DWU would earn him or her a lucrative salary package was in the wrong place.

Other staff are motivated intrinsically but also have extrinsic needs they desire the organization to meet. This position comes through in the experiences of Florence, Daniel, Roman, Lynda and Jim. Although they are committed to DWU for intrinsic reasons such as commitment to professional duty, gratitude and pride in organization and students, service to nation out of a sense of patriotism, a desire to help fellow human beings, missionary call to service and a sense of job satisfaction, they nevertheless have extrinsic needs that are financial in nature. Expectations of higher salaries would however have costs implications for the organization. Jim explains this tension between DWU's need to curtail costs and individual desire for increased financial gain:

There are economic issues, there are responsibilities, economic responsibilities of staff, and staff would want to all, I mean, they've got family responsibilities, children who go to school and all that, their own, put it this way everybody aspires towards a better life style, you know and you know the income is to help them go that way naturally, they will look for better alternatives elsewhere unless they are fully dedicated and are happy to get rewards in other ways. But economically, that can become a factor as far as tenure is concerned.

The role that reward plays in motivating organizational participants points to another explanation for the inoperative state of ranking and promotion policies. The explanation as provided by Kearney (1978) who suggests that the effectiveness of evaluative processes such as promotion depend on the existence of three conditions:

first, the employees are motivated to achieve organizational goals; second, employees have the physical and mental capacity to perform what is expected of them; and third, they understand the demands of their jobs. These prerequisites establish the link between performance and motivation in terms of reward, and performance and staff qualifications (Hughes 2006). DWU's staff qualification levels and responses to motivation in the context of ranking and promotion go some way to indicate that these preconditions are yet to exist for policies to become effective.

The rate of turnover of staff also contributes to the stasis in policies and processes that lead to stalled promotion process outcome. The average length of commitment to DWU of two years, as is depicted in the table on staff movements between 2003 and 2006, renders irrelevant the need to submit oneself to an extensive process of promotion. The link between rates of turnover and organizational commitment has been made by a number of studies. One study in a university in Uganda, Africa, established a link between staff retention and job satisfaction. It concluded that institutions which have low job satisfaction levels amongst its staff will experience high rates of turnover as staff seek better job prospects elsewhere (Ssesanga & Garrett 2005).

These findings on the influence of service of evaluative processes and reward and motivation show that determining what motivates staff is problematic. Therefore, Kearney(1978) suggests that the onus is on managers to create conditions that not only are conducive to increased or effective performance, but ensure that performance leads to "meaningful and important personal rewards" which the employee values and not rewards which the employer thinks the employee will value. In their report of 2003, the consultants also suggest that DWU managers might stimulate higher levels of performance in staff if incentives were integrated into the staff appraisal system.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings on DWU's culture establishing first that the primary basic assumption of service defined as associated with religious missionary conviction to extend help to those in need shapes the visible practices, discourse and behavioural responses of staff. These visible expressions of DWU's underlying belief were considered under the organizational aspects of the decision-making model and HR practices and processes. The chapter also discussed the implications of the influence of service on practices associated with the university were also explored. The next chapter presents the key findings of the study, the contribution the study makes to organizational and university theorizing as well as suggesting directions for future research.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

The university, like the parliament, is a creation of the Middle Ages (Wieruszowski 1966, p. 5)

8.1 Overview

In this chapter, the conclusions drawn from the findings and their implications for DWU management and university management in general are presented. The conclusions and their implications are considered under two organizational aspects, decision-making structure and human resource processes. This chapter also presents the contribution this study makes first, in terms of existing theory and practice within organizational culture in general, and second, and in particular, the contribution it makes to extending knowledge on university culture. In addition, where future research could make a further contribution to understanding university culture change in the context of contemporary organizational change is also suggested.

8.2 Overview of the Study

This study was a case study of the culture of DWU, a university established under charter by two religious orders of the Catholic Church to contribute to the social and economic development of PNG. The study therefore, explored the values, beliefs and basic assumptions that shape DWU's practices and processes and how these are manifested in behavioural outcomes at the level of academic staff. This open-ended exploration of DWU culture was given focus when the findings were considered under two organizational aspects, the decision making structure and selected HR functions. Three ethnographic methods were employed to generate data, the interview, observations and documentary sources. The population of particular relevance to this study and from which the interview participants were selected was the academic staff. The data generated through these methods was sorted to give them order initially in NVivo. This process entailed dividing descriptive data into chunks which were then tagged with themes the data surfaced. These data chunks were eventually brought together and considered under the organizational aspects of

decision-making structure and human resource practices and processes. These visible organizational practices and participant behaviour associated with two organizational functions later served as artifacts which facilitated the determination of the underpinning values and beliefs. In terms of theory, the study drew on institutionalism and resource contingent theory of organizations.

8.3 The Principal Finding of the Study

Based on the findings, one key conclusion about DWU's culture can be drawn. DWU's practices are shaped by the deeply embedded belief in service. Service, as established in the discussion chapter, in the context of DWU, is meaningful at three different levels. The concept of service that is most meaningful at the deepest cultural level is the concept of service that translates into altruism expressed through religious or secular works undertaken to assist others in need. Karra, Tracey and Phillips (2006) define altruism as a moral course of action undertaken by someone in the interest of others for which there is no expectation of reward, extrinsic or intrinsic, as motivation. Service conceptualized as altruism equates with the Catholic Church's concept of service, the commitment to which provides the compulsion for missionary intervention in social contexts of need such as PNG. This concept of service is biblically based and defined as corporeal acts of mercy (Burke 2005). This means that charity or missionary work are undertaken by men and women, religious or lay, who purposefully forego personal gain and material comforts in the interests of aiding people who are less fortunate (Burke 2005). Service, in this sense therefore, entails some level of personal sacrifice, self-deprivation of something such as material wealth. Hence, service in this sense is specifically tied to material reward as a motivation for action. As such, it is set apart from service as it is meaningful in the professional context where service entails the application of expertise knowledge. The connection of service to reward and motivation means that it has implications for organizations HR functions.

However, service in the altruistic sense in the university context such as DWU is juxtaposed and comes into tension with another concept of service that is intrinsic to professional or academic practice and associated with the knowledge missions of the

university. Service as intrinsic to the academic profession entails that professional expertise or knowledge, taught and produced through research, is made available to the state for its functions, the community which hosts the university or to the individual for effective participation in public life as a citizen (Scott, CJ 2006). In this connection, the concept of service is not inherently linked to reward deprivation or minimization as a source of motivation for organizational commitment.

8.3.1 Conclusions on Decision-Making Under Service

In terms of decision-making at DWU, one of the conclusions drawn from the findings is that, when service is conceptualized as altruism or a moral cause of action and promoted by missionary or volunteer organizations as the impetus for intervention to provide higher education under conditions of resource scarcity, it leads to a centrally managed organization. The link between the centralization of decision-making and resource scarcity was established in the discussion chapter. Some staff, external consultants and management personal agreed that given that resource security was tenuous, central control of available resources has contributed significantly to ensure DWU's survival and growth. As noted in the discussion chapter, staff member Anna and documentary sources such as the 2003 report by the consultants and Denis' response to it make the link between resources and the top-down decision making model. The consultants credit centralized control of resource distribution as contributing to DWU's success. Anna agrees that central oversight of resource distribution helps to minimize "misfunction" and focus energies on immediate priorities.

These findings confirm what organizational analysts have theorized to be the link between centralized decision-making and resource scarcity. Perrow (1986) for instance, refers to bureaucracy, the centralized model of organizing work and managing people, as the most efficient form of organizational administration known, and a model towards which organizations have a tendency to orientate when they seek efficiency. Hall and Tolbert (2005) also theorized that the demand for consistency of performance, and the imperative to exercise close control over limited resources promotes centralization and formalization. The adoption of the centralized decision-

making model is not unique to DWU when considered in the context of observed global trend towards bureaucratization of the university as the organization responds to resource constraints that are a consequence of external societal change (Dunkin 2003). However, the resource and centralization nexus previously defined market-orientated organizations. That the state of resources in the environment resulting from external social, economic and political changes is now defining the university's practices is indicative of the shift towards the market model of organizing work and managing people.

Another conclusion drawn from the findings is that service and how it redefines practices associated with reward and motivation as well as recruitment and selection contributes to the persistent tenuous state of academic profession at DWU. This facilitates compliance as characteristic of decision-making. Such a connection is hinted at by Perrow (1969), Prichard and Willmott (1997) and Shelly (1998). Shelly (1998) observes that within universities where professional norms and values are well established even the most powerful leadership in a non-collegial centralized university may have limited impact in changing a university organization steeped in a different values system. At DWU, this is evident as the contest in opposition to centralized authority is robust from staff with PhDs as contrasted with compliant behaviour that characterizes staff qualified at lower levels. Amelia's and Helen's response to authority is mostly defined by compliance. Their compliance is contrasted with Anna's and Florence's vehement contestation of a model of authority which they see as curtailing of their professional activities. Anna rejects having to defer to a superior authority in matters of her professional practice. There is ...

the lack of delegation of responsibility. [Its] very bureaucratic and autocratic. It's a very authoritarian way of running the institution. Everybody has to report to the higher authority. ...you take decisions by yourself, and then you have to be ready to face the repercussions.

Beiber and Lawrence (1992) illustrate that similar tensions between management by directives and collegial models in citing what a Michigan university professor thought of his university before resigning. The professor suggested that his organization did not deserve to be called a university when in fact it was a corporate entity. The

experience underscores that within the university the concept of direction, or management directives is alien and un-welcome (Prichard & Willmott 1997).

A further conclusion related to centralization inferred from the findings is that the religious affiliation of some staff members affects compliant responses to authority and so contributes further to centralization. Daniel suggests this link explaining that, as part of their staff religious conditioning, when the clergy speaks, people are more likely to obey. This deference to church authority may explain the compliant behaviour of some members of staff who are Catholic. They include staff who are members of religious orders whose compliance to the authority of superiors may be derived from their professed commitment to the vow of obedience.

8.3.2 Implications of Centralized Management

Despite the fact that centralized management has allowed DWU to provide higher education in a resource tenuous environment such as PNG, there are implications for the organization at different levels. One of the key implications for DWU of adopting the centralized management model is at the level of institutional theory and by extension at the level of university culture. The adoption of the centralized model of decision making frees DWU from the cultural constraints that pressure universities to conform to the institutionalized decision-making model of collegiality and constraints entailed under academic freedom and institutional autonomy. Collegiality defines a decision-making model that is segmented and defused, a model of decision-making that is reflective of an organization that is constituted by “loosely coupled” clusters of professionals. Unlike the command and control of bureaucracy, the collegial decision-making model is tailored to serve the needs of autonomous professionals whose commitment is to values rather than efficiency goals (Clark 1983; Meyer & Rowan 1977; Satow 1975; Weick 1976).

The impact of DWU’s departure from the defused model of decision-making has outcomes for DWU, the tensions of which, as illustrated in the findings of this study, are felt at the level of the HR functions. In adopting the centralized model of decision-making that is characteristic of the bureaucratic model of organizing work

and managing people as well as distribution of resources, DWU adopted a model that is considered inefficient and rigid. The rigidity of bureaucracy is characterized by the prescription of social and functional roles where everyone knows her/his place within the hierarchy. Within this command and control model, supervisory position-holders are implementers and enforcers of rules and regulations and communicators as well as distributors of tasks to be performed. Furthermore, this model assumes that output is quantifiable and the promise of increased reward is incentive for increased output. These do not, however, constitute the primary motivations for knowledge workers such as academics (Dunkin 2003).

The shift to a centralized model of organization is nevertheless not unique to DWU. As presented in the Literature Review chapter, the move is observed as part of an ironic and divergent trend differentiating business organizations and universities today. As business organizations adopt more flexible forms of organizing work and people, models formerly characteristic of the collegial university model, the university is moving towards less participatory models, models that business organizations have abandoned as inefficient in their rigidity (Deem 2001; Drucker 2002).

The move towards flexible forms of decision-making by business sector organizations reflects the changing nature of the post-industrial workplace which has become more professionalized. As the workplace has become more professionalized it has come to resemble the university, an organization of the highest trained professional. However, as the private sector organizations shift their patterns of organization to serve a professionalized workforce, the university is moving towards organization patterns that resemble those that serve the interests of semi or non-professional workforce of the factory floor (Drucker 2002; Dunkin 2003). This is curtailing the flexibility in decision-making that allows professionals the autonomy necessary to exercise authority over discreet areas of competence. As presented in the Literature Review chapter, for the university, as with other professional organizations, the needs of professionals have shaped a decision-making pattern that is participatory and decentralized in committees and boards rather than centralized.

Another implication for DWU that is linked to its promotion of service as its main driver is that, it leads to decision-making practices that curtail professional freedom

whilst allowing managers and administrators to adopt coercive means, if necessary, to gain compliance, a behaviour characteristic of bureaucracy (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959). The findings of this study suggest that centralized management encourages and even demands passivity and compliance. Staff have described the DWU authority as promoting infantilization and one that leads to disempowerment, patronization and intimidation. The views expressed by Jim, Anna, and Daniel suggest that these behavioural expectations stem from a conflict of values. Anna rejects the model of decision-making that directs staff to conduct research or stipulate when to attend conferences. She finds the model “very patronizing”, autocratic” and “paternalistic” where staff “are seen as children and children can play but they cannot be allowed to make decisions.” Maurice describes the decision-making model as “a structure of limitations”.

The perceptions and experiences of these staff are also indicative of the marginalization and disconnection they feel with the organization. The implication for management of professional marginalization is that this may lead to passive compliance, frustration and demotivation which may and do translate into diminished organizational commitment and eventual turnover (Schapper & Mayson 2004). The experience of Florence serves to illustrate this scenario being played out.

The rigidity that characterizes centralization has a further implication for DWU as it also works against the ability of the organization to respond expeditiously to fast changing market conditions. Pfeffer (1998) writes that in today’s fast-changing globalized environment the need for flexibility advances the case for less hierarchical arrangements to respond to unpredictability.

A further implication for DWU of centralized decision-making is that it has a tendency to legitimize and promote the interests and values of managers over academic interests. At DWU the values that are promoted by management include compliance, initiative, teamwork, and community service as altruism. Compliance to authority is a behavioural response that does not allow for academic values such as academic freedom to flourish. This shift in the interests served is not unexpected. Hall and Tolbert (2005) link the focus of energies on resource-related activities away from the core educational organizational goals that are resource-dependent. In such

organizations, managers are preoccupied with concerns of efficiency, concerns that manifest themselves in concerns over budgets, productivity and structures that allow for easy quantification of work and output (Beiber & Lawrence 1992; Clark 1983; Dill 1982; Kogan, Moses & El-Khawas 1994). Academics on the other hand, direct their concerns around knowledge work which entails the creation, testing, and transmission of knowledge under conditions of academic freedom (Yielder & Codling 2004). The levels of disconnect between DWU manager-administrators and academics illustrate that centralization serves the interest of managers over academics. Staff concerns over costs of turnover, resource distribution and use and workload were illustrative of the differences of interests that were advanced.

Yet another implication for DWU of centralized authority in management is that the shift is illustrative of a redefinition of the relationship between the academics and the organization that was specifically tailored to serve their interests. Drucker (2002), for instance, describes the new relationship as one defined by a reversal of roles from one where the system or organization is tailored to serve the worker to one where the worker is made to serve the system. Schapper and Mayson (2004) see such a reversal of roles as an act of recasting academics from autonomous professionals into “process labourers”. Kleinig (1982) also notes that a relationship of mutual respect and interests is superseded by a relationship characterized by domination and subservience. The findings of this study show that the outcomes of this shift are also played out in tensions and behavioural expectations between compliance and professional autonomy.

The relocation of authority under centralized decision-making away from academics to managers moves away from the defining basis of university authority. This break with the tradition has further implications for DWU. The shift moves away from authority rooted in knowledge expertise to administrative authority, a type of authority that is defined by technical knowledge and training and associated with position occupied within the hierarchy (Etzioni 1964; Yielder & Codling 2004). It is authority that constitutes a system of subordination (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959), and rests on the assumptions that those who are superior in rank are more rational than those lower down the hierarchy and that the higher one is placed in rank the better “equipped in terms of formal education (that is, in terms of academic

degrees) or in terms of merit or experience” (Etzioni 1964, p. 76). The adoption by DWU and other universities of a model of governance underpinned by such assumptions locates them in sharp contrast to the nature of the university as an organization constituted by professionals of highest-order academic degrees and experience (Scase 1992, p. 80).

Etzioni (1964) explains that a professional takes knowledge to be an individual property the application, transfer or enforcement of which is not done by decree from technically defined authority but is left to the discretion of the individual professional who has ultimate responsibility for his/her professional decisions. On this basis: “The professor decides what research he [she] is going to undertake and to a large degree what he [she] is going to teach...” (Etzioni 1964, p. 81). Therefore, professionals contest having to defer to administrative supervisors for a course of action to be not taken, to account for action taken, nor will they stand corrected by the supervisor (Etzioni 1964). To submit to such authority implies an acceptance of administrative superiors as more rational than authority justified by knowledge (Etzioni 1964).

Some of the consequences for DWU and university managers of the shift that vests administrators and managers with authority over core educational goals of the organization are played out in tensions at the HR level are demonstrated in this study. One such outcome of the divestment of power over knowledge work is that professional autonomy is curtailed and initiative and ingenuity are stifled (Etzioni 1964; Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959). The stifling of creativity and discouragement of the development of autonomy subsequently leads to indoctrination and the de-skilling academic professional which affects in academics a sense of disconnection and alienation from the organization (Etzioni 1964; Kleinig 1982). Anna’s contest of such authority in this study is demonstrative of the frustration that can result from the disempowerment experienced under the new model of organizing work and management of people. The disempowerment is also illustrated in the compliant behaviour of some staff towards administrative authority. The compliant behaviour that centralization demands has implications for DWU at the level of the HR function. The implication for DWU is that it works against reward and organizational commitment and therefore, contributes to staff turnover. Such an

organizational context curtails behaviour that is necessary for higher order self actualization needs of its staff to be met (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959).

Despite some of its adverse outcomes for DWU, some attributes of bureaucracy have served DWU in its first decade of organizational establishment. Its centralized decision-making has allowed for the person who has oversight of the state of finances of the organization to control work, people and determine how resources are distributed in support of management-envisioned development strategy for the organization. Furthermore, it has made it possible for management to inculcate cultural traits such as compliance, which it sees as best contributing to moving the organization forward. These behavioral expectations may differ from the expectations associated with the university organization.

8.3.3 Conclusions on HR Processes and their Implications

A number of conclusions are drawn from the findings that show that, when DWU promotes service embedded in altruism or volunteerism as its dominant value, it leads to operational outcomes at the level of HR processes that work against the long-term educational mission of the organization to provide a cost effective and quality higher education.

One of the conclusions is that, whilst the concept of service as defined by DWU serves the organization in terms of minimizing costs and by allowing it to focus its recruitment efforts on organizations and individuals who share in the values of service, altruism, sacrifice or volunteering, it nevertheless restricts the organization's ability to recruit competitively. One of the outcomes of such restrictive recruitment is illustrated in the qualifications profile (Table 5). The qualification levels of staff show that over 50 per cent of DWU's staff in 2004 had degree or sub-degree qualifications. This level of under-qualification is incongruous with the recruitment policy intentions of DWU for staff members to have a minimum of master's qualification. Rooney (2004) would argue that quality of staff is a common concern amongst PNG universities.

Service-influenced recruitment has subsequent implications for DWU, the impacts of which surface at multiple policy levels and ultimately impacts on organizational outcomes. One of the implications of restrictive recruitment is that it works against the organization's attempts to secure sufficient numbers of staff with the requisite levels of knowledge and skill levels necessary for effective performance in teaching, research and community service at university level. Recruiting practices that begin by limiting the potential pool from which to select staff goes against what Pfeffer (1998) suggests that an organization should preferably begin with a large pool of applicants in order to secure the best qualified person for a position. Recruitment driven by the imperative to minimize costs may not serve the interest of the organization in the long term, suggests Latimer (2002). Latimer (2002, pp. 2,8) writes that higher education institutions have a tendency to view staff recruitment and retention as "cost neutral" processes when in fact the practices are "penny wise and pound foolish".

Another outcome of restrictive recruitment driven by service is that it encourages short-term commitment and as a consequence, it encourages continuous turnover of staff. The shifts in staff numbers between 2003 and 2006 (Appendix C) are indicative of the patterns of staff commitment to DWU. The rate of turnover is such that in 2006, the average number of years of attachment to DWU was two years. Of the different categories of staff at DWU, members of staff from the international volunteer organizations experienced the highest rates of turnover.

One of the implications for DWU's management of the constant turnover of staff is that it contributes to the persistent weak state of the academic profession. This subsequently renders ineffective and irrelevant the processes of promotion and tenure and staff development whose effective implementation is subject to long-term commitment. Another implication for DWU management is that turnover incurs costs to the organization and therefore, it goes against the cost-minimization motivation of service provision. This is because turnover incurs significant costs that are associated with discontinuance, acquisition and development of new staff (Kearney 1978; Latimer 2002; Pfeffer 1998). Latimer (2002) suggests the irony that often it is cost effective for an organization to retain an experienced staff member at higher costs than to recruit a more less experienced person at a lower cost. A further implication for DWU's management of relentless and high level of turnover that short term

recruitment and fixed-term contract employment encouraged under service is that it curtails DWU's efforts to effectively plan its workforce requirement levels.

A further conclusion drawn from the findings is that, at the same time as the commitment to service encourages staff turnover, it encourages the retention of under-qualified staff. The retention of under-qualified staff further contributes to ineffective HR processes. This study shows that the processes affected include the process that determine the ranks at which to classify staff, which the findings show is ambiguous; and the process of promotion which is in a state of stasis. Daniel describes the state of non-forward movement in career progression through promotion as "circling the pool" where staff who remain with the organization for as long as they choose to remain do so with little prospect of advancing in their careers. But, November 2007 marked progress when a panel met for the first time to consider applications for promotion of six staff members. Five of the six were promoted to higher ranks ranging from senior tutor to senior lecturer.

But even with the process of promotion moving forward, restrictive recruitment and low retention rates of overall staff and the retention of the under-qualified have implications for DWU at the performance level. This is illustrated through the experiences of Florence whose department was forced to retain an under-qualified non-performing staff member in response to turnover despite the concerns about her performance. The implication for DWU for having such staff "circling of the pool" is that it further curtails DWU's attempt to achieve its goal of becoming a high quality institution.

In terms of staff development, this study concludes that the promulgation of service as altruistic provision of higher education further curtails the DWU's attempts to promote holistic staff development that encompasses the range of academic work including teaching, research and service. As presented in the discussion chapter, staff development augments recruitment and selection as it serves to align job expectations with peoples' competencies (Kearney 1978). As such, staff development through training, "constitutes an essential component of high performance work system" (Pfeffer 1998, p. 85). As the figures on levels of staff qualifications show, over half

of DWU staff are in need of advanced degree training at either Masters or PhD levels. Some of them also require training at the first degree level.

The current level of staff development provision at DWU, however, limits staff development options to the narrow range of advanced level studies, and short courses that are offered in-house. These courses are predominately devoted to the development of teaching. The outcome of this is that it limits DWU's ability to specifically tailor training programs to the needs of individual staff members working within, subsequently, a narrow view of staff development (Nixon et al. 1998). Staff member Amelia is one staff member who is perceptive of the disconnection between individual job expectations in terms of specialization in a field and the in-house training opportunities. A holistic staff development program would move DWU forward into the organization that it strives to become. In the context of current global changes to higher education, for staff development to be effective, it ought to gauge the needs at the level of individual staff and departments and respond holistically to these staff needs (Akerlind 2005). These needs encompass teaching, research and professional service. They may also extend to include development that provides the know-how to engage with the market environment skills such how to apply for grants or secure consultancy work. For DWU, given its religious mission, staff development may also take into account activities that inform staff to appreciate the religious ethos and orientation of the university.

Another HR related conclusion drawn from the findings is linked to reward and motivation. This study concludes that DWU's loyalty to the ideal of service makes tenuous the link not only between higher-order motivators such as career aspirations, and autonomy over work and organizational commitment, but also the connection between lower order context or extrinsic needs such as salary, and the promise of promotion and career advancement as incentives. Subsequently, the promotion of service removes or minimizes the part such incentives play in enticing staff to join and commit long term to the organization. The high levels of turnover suggested by the two-year average term of attachment of staff, the recruitment outcomes that show the organization enticing more than 50 per cent of staff who are under-qualified, and perceptions of staff, suggest that the promotion of service works against enticing higher qualified people to join and remain with the organization long-term. These

tensions related to staffing practices that are motivated by service suggest that, as far as reward and motivation are concerned, the prospect of long-term self-deprivation as implied by service will continue to encourage constant turnover of staff making ineffective the policies and processes such as those on ranking and promotion and tenure.

The implication for DWU's management is that service undermines the link between reward and motivation and minimizes the effectiveness of HR processes such as recruitment and organizational commitment, factors that determine organizational success. Miner, Crane and Vandenberg (1994, p. 87) stress the importance of organizations to recognize that "appropriate motivational inputs are an energy source to produce output" for the organization. Both Pfeffer (1998) and Latimer (2002) hint at the significant influence that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards play in enticing people to join an organization.

Yet another implication for DWU management is that service as altruistic provision of work undermines a number of the core human resource assumptions that underpin the relationship between an individual and her/his organization. These assumptions as listed by Bolman and Deal (2003, p. 115) are that:

- Organizations exist to serve human needs rather than the reverse
- People and organizations need each other. Organizations need ideas, energy, and talent; people need careers, salaries, and opportunities.
- When the fit between individual and system is poor, one or both suffer. Individuals are exploited or exploit the organization—or both become victims
- A good fit benefits both. Individuals find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed.

These assumptions suggest that the relationship between an organization and its employees is one defined by mutual support as the second assumption suggests. These assumptions suggest also that people have both extrinsic or lower order and intrinsic or higher order needs that the organization has to meet for people to feel that the efforts, talents and energies they expended for the benefit of the organization are

adequately rewarded (Bolman & Deal 2003, p. 132). When there is a happy fit between the two, an organization's goals are achieved and people feel their needs are met.

Motivational theories advance that people have lower and higher order needs that have to be met and a disconnect results between the organization and the employee when the balance shifts in favour of one party's interests over another. Such a misalignment between organizational needs and individual needs shifts the employee or the organization away from a relationship of mutual dependence and results in both either the organization and the people suffering (Bolman & Deal 2003).

In the context of this study, the link between reward, motivation and organizational commitment as suggested by Boldman and Deal, is contested and downplayed when service is translated as charity or altruism. In making the link between organizational commitment and motivation tenuous, the advancement of service as its defining value has implications for DWU. The findings show that, while some DWU staff express satisfaction with the organization for meeting some of their needs, others feel exploited and disenchanted. This is because job motivation serves the organization in that it leads to improved productivity, a reduction in turnover and absenteeism and in creating a less adversarial working environment (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959). The variety and often conflicting responses are predictable in that human needs are variable and not easy to define (Bolman & Deal 2003).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs helps advance understanding of the link between human needs and organizational commitment. Maslow advances, as referred to by Green (2002) and Lacy and Sheehan (1997), that for higher order needs to surface and determine motivation, the lower order needs have first to be met and made redundant. The higher order needs in Malsow's hierarchy are esteem and self-actualizing needs (Green 2002). They constitute the "profoundest motivation to work" and flow from people's feelings of achievement and personal growth (Herzberg, Mausner & Synderman 1959, p. 125).

The promotion of service has implications for DWU as the organizational processes such as appraisal and promotion that meet higher order needs of staff are stalled given

that its cost implications work against the service intentions. This subsequently leads to higher order needs of staff in terms of their desire to achieve their full potential as academics through promotion being thwarted. The findings further suggest that staff are not satisfied with their salaries. This has implications for DWU managers given that salaries are extrinsic rewards that reflect the value an organization places on its employees (Pfeffer 1998). The further implication for DWU's management is that when staff perceive that their energies, talents and efforts are inadequately rewarded, some staff may feel undervalued. This may lead to disenchantment, demotivation, underperformance and a diminished feeling of organizational commitment leading to eventual turnover. Florence's experience illustrates such a scenario being played out and serves as a case in point. Her intention to leave DWU at the end of 2004 was linked to her feeling that she had not advanced financially and academically in her eight years with the organization. To remain with DWU, she saw as "a bit too much of a Christian dedication or sacrifice". Florence goes so far as to suggest that one of the reasons why professional people don't commit long-term to DWU is that the organization is not in a position to meet their higher order needs. This leads to disengagement with the organization and eventual turnover. For other staff, despite little prospect of career advancement, some staff have continued to remain committed to DWU.

The ultimate implication for DWU's management of the outcomes of service-shaped HR practices is that they work against DWU's efforts to move forward towards achieving its long-term goal of becoming a university of excellence known within the South Pacific region.

8.4 Contribution to Existing Knowledge and Theory

This study of DWU contributes a living case study to the discussion and theorizing of the culture of universities today. Universities today both in the west and in the developing world, such as the universities in PNG, exist in a much more contested environment which exert multiple pressures on the organizations. In responding to the changed environmental conditions, the universities have to manage these pressures on the one hand to ensure economic viability and on the other, reconcile

tensions resulting from contested cultural values and beliefs and basic assumptions associated with the organization.

In advancing theory, the study relied upon two theories from organizational studies resource contingent theory and institutional theory. Both explain why organizations adopt specific forms of organizing work and managing people out of many possible other forms of organization (Hall & Tolbert 2005). The resource contingent theory specifically contributes to advancing knowledge of the contemporary university's culture change thereby providing the organizational context in which to locate DWU. This theory promotes that, since organizations depend on the environment to garner resources, the primary drivers that shape organizational forms as manifested in their decision-making structures and HR processes originate from the external market environment (Levine & White 1961). This relationship with the market is generally characteristic of organizations that pursue profits. A model defined by this relationship places importance in strategic decision-making to allow the organization to actively and deliberately engage with its environment to ensure a reliable flow of resources and to manage relationships, problems and uncertainty flowing from the exchange transactions (Hall & Tolbert 2005; Tolbert 1985). The impact of these external imperatives on organizational authority is that management assumes greater levels of influence within the organization (Hall & Tolbert 2005). The organizational form or model that serves the competitive interests of organizations is referred to as the resource-contingent model, a model that translates into the management or corporate model (Dearlove 1998; Marginson, S & Considine 1998; Schapper & Mayson 2004).

Along with the resource-contingent theory, this study is also informed by institutional theory. Institutional theory of organizations advances that organizational behaviour patterns are justified by deeply embedded principles or ideologies making these drivers of organizational behaviour internally derived rather than externally derived. These translate into what Schein (1985) defined as the deeply embedded, taken for granted basic assumptions that constitute the key underpinning values or beliefs of an organization's culture (Figure 4). Drawing on institutional theory of organizations allowed for the institutionalized university model rooted in collegial values and basic assumptions, as outlined in Figure 5 in chapter 3, to be contrasted with the newer

corporate or entrepreneurial models of university. This juxtaposition, therefore, allowed for the exploration of the value tensions that have surfaced within the university field. It also provided the context in which to examine practices of emerging developing-world organizations such as DWU.

Institutional theory also specifically links the model of organizing work and managing people that is a characteristic of the university to culture. Linking an organizational model to culture highlights that some organizational forms reflect beliefs, values, ideology or taken-for-granted assumptions established and made legitimate in the process termed institutionalization (Berger, Berger & Kellner 1973; Meyer & Rowan 1977; Scott, WR 1975; Tolbert 1985; Zucker 1987). Satow (1975) refers to the culture-justified organizations as “value-rational” organizations contrasting them with profit-driven and political organizations. Of such organizations, the university is represented as a “special kind of institution clearly distinguishable from both political-bureaucratic and market organizations” and one with a long history (Scott, P 2003, p. 304). Once an institutional model is established within a field, such as the university field, a new entrant into the field confronts pressure to act in conformity with the established order (Hall & Tolbert 2005; Meyer & Rowan 1977; Scott, WR 1992). Straying from the established order means that the new organization risks de-legitimization from organizations within the field. A defining characteristic of the institutional university form is that its behaviour and identity are defined by internal drivers rather than external drivers (Marginson, S & Considine 1998; Scott, P 2003). These internal drivers encapsulated in the concept of “autonomy” define the university’s external relationships, for instance its relationship with the state, and “collegiality” which defines its inner operations (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000; Scott, P 2003, p. 304).

However, as this case study of DWU shows, and as the review of literature has presented, the institutionalized model of organizing work and people within the university field is subject to a fundamental cultural change, change that is reshaping the organization at the level of basic assumptions. Change within the university reflects changing political ideology. The rise of neo-liberalism in western democracies such as Britain, America and Australia has advanced principles of rationalization and free market-favoring policies in so doing undermining public

service values associated with social democracy. The new ideology breached university autonomy in the process casting a new definition of the university whose identity and internal operations are externally defined (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000). Under the welfare-state “the university as the moral soul of society and source of national culture and survival” (Perkin 1991, p. 185). As such, the organization served a key public service purpose of advancing knowledge for cultural survival. The commitment to this belief justified practice allowing “absolute freedom for teaching, research necessary for highest form of knowledge to be pursued” (Perkin, pp. 185-186).

In contributing to theory, this case study of DWU addresses the gap in institutional theory that Hall and Tolbert (2005) have suggested exists. Hall and Tolbert (2005) state that, whilst institutional theory explains institutional formation and establishment of a pattern of organizing work, it stops short of suggesting what leads to the counter process of organizational de-institutionalization and re-structure. Marginson and Considine (2000) also allude to this gap in noting that the impact of current global shifts on the university needs to be empirically studied as practice moves ahead of research.

This study extends institutional theory by providing a case demonstrative of the process of university deinstitutionalization. The process of university deinstitutionalization presents two possible outcomes as alluded to by Deem (2001) and by Marginson and Considine (2000). Deem, (2001) on the one hand, suggest that university change is leading to a convergence with the resource-dependent and market oriented organizations. On the other hand, Marginson and Considine (2000), writing within the Australian context, suggest that university change is affecting a trend towards organizational relativism within the university field, reflecting strong levels of commitment to collegial values on the one hand and tenuous academic cultures on the other end of the university continuum (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000). In the shifting cultural trend towards corporate and entrepreneurial models, in the older established universities, such as the sandstone universities in Australia, the influences of collegial values remain strong while in some newer universities, the influence of these values is tenuous (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000).

Deem (2001) suggests that the trend towards relativism is at one level a converging trend where some universities have taken on forms of organization that mimic or resemble business models. The trend towards adoption of business models are also observed world-wide in New Zealand, America, Canada, and in countries of Africa, Europe and the Middle East (Charafeddine 2004; Deem 2001; Fako 2004; Marginson, S. 2001; McNay 1995; Middlehurst 1995; Scott, P 2003). This case study on DWU, further serves to underline the global shift away from the institutionalized model of university. The organizational model shift is evident in the university decision-making structure move way from their segmented participatory structure towards a model that is centralized (Dearlove 1998; Deem 2001; Schapper & Mayson 2004). The break is also evident in a new market discourse emerging in university analysis. Indicative of the new discourse are concepts such as “academic capitalism”, “entrepreneurial university”, quality assurance concerns, stakeholders, and clients which are entering university culture lexicon (Marginson, S. & Considine 2000).

The findings of this study locate DWU amongst resource contingent universities, universities whose practices resemble those previously associated with business organizations. This model has served DWU in allowing for practices that minimize costs to the organization. Subsequently, the model has served DWU’s short-term goals of organizational establishment, development and survival in the organization’s formative phase of organization and in a resource tenuous environment. That DWU mimics business organizations is evident in the management discourse of strategic plans and responding to the market and its command and control decision-making structure.

However, the embracing of a business model or organization at the management level is matched by a conflict of values that are played out in tensions at the level of academic staff. This study shows that the impact of the shift on HR is evident in a redefinition of concepts of tenure, reward and motivation, academic profession. The shift is further evident in increased workloads, how work is fragmented into tasks and in diminished academic autonomy over their work (Schapper & Mayson 2004).

8.5 Directions for Further Research

The conclusions drawn from this study on DWU were based primarily on the experiences and perceptions of members of the academic staff as revealed in interview and supported by documentary and observational data. The data show that the influence that leadership exerts over the organization permeates the data. However, apart from the views on leadership taken from official documents and observation notes from staff interviews, neither the president nor the senior level managers at the level of vice-president actively participated in the study. Therefore, future research could explore the role that top tier managers have played in shaping the DWU's behaviour patterns or culture. Such a study could also explore the extent to which DWU's governance, and HR processes are a consequence of the exercise of power.

The study has implications beyond the DWU and university culture in other PNG universities. A comparative study of universities established with missionary service ideal as the primary impetus for HE provision in the Asia Pacific region would contribute to advancing further the understanding of how service as altruism-driven influences practices in these organizations. It would add also to the understanding of where the different model of universities converges or diverge at the level of values or even at the level of basic assumptions.

The commitment to this belief has influenced how DWU organized work and managed people and moved the organization forward as envisioned in the organization's strategic plan. Future research on DWU could also explore the link between service and organizational practice when DWU shifts from the position of resource uncertainty to the position of resource security.

Another conclusion drawn from the findings is that the weak state of the academic profession is linked to the tenuous state of resources of the organization. This has contributed to DWU being a centrally managed organization. Perrow (1986) suggests that as an organization becomes more professionalized it might trigger a shift from managerial authority to defused professional authority. The external consultants who

reported on DWU's development in 2003 also predicted such a shift in the management model for DWU. Future research could explore further the factors that lead to increased professionalization of DWU and whether this will trigger a shift in the current model of management.

This case study of DWU, a Christian university in a developing South Pacific nation contributes significantly to our understanding of cultural change in universities in the region and internationally. The thesis highlights the ramifications of adopting western neo-liberal policies and practices in a higher education setting. The study questions the appropriateness of adopting a corporate managerial decision-making model in a public sector institution with a history of collegiality, power sharing and service.

8.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and their implications for DWU and universities' practice in general were presented. More specifically, DWU's defining belief of service that shapes organizational decision-making and human resource processes in ways that contribute to the contestation of shared university culture's values and beliefs were discussed. Where the findings of this study make a contribution to existing theory on organizational culture was also presented in the chapter. Furthermore, in the chapter, the researcher also pointed to possible areas related to this study and university culture research where future research could make added contribution.

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Appendices

Appendix A: DWU Charter

Assembled in Chapter, the members of the Papua New Guinea province of the Society of the Divine Word in partnership with the missionary Sisters, Servants of the Holy Spirit declare the following:

Let there be established an institute of higher learning. This institute will have as its objective the conservation, extension and diffusion of knowledge by means of its schools, faculties and other resources, thereby promoting primarily the development of students as creative, intellectual persons in a religious environment.

Let the institute cultivate attitudes to achieve: freedom of inquiry as indispensable for attaining truth; acquisition of values and discovery of truth leading to full development of personality and active membership in the community of man; respect for truth as the primary concern of the academic community.

In order to achieve these goals let the institute provide: a faculty of competent scholars and educators to direct the process of student development; a curriculum that presents the content and methods for career guidance and training; a religiously orientated and socially conscious environment as the setting for the learning experience.

As a matter of principle, let the institute welcome to its community all persons regardless of race, creed, colour or sex who share its vision and respect its purpose.

Furthermore, let those who govern this institute and those who live and work in the institute abide by the following mandate.

The institute shall be a Christian community based on love for all men for each other, because each is a child of God. Let the community of the institution, therefore, be an authentic model for national unity in Papua New Guinea because the Christian philosophy that all men are equal as sons and daughters of God is, perhaps, the only philosophy which can unite the diverse cultures of Papua New Guinea.

As a Christian institution, it shall serve national objectives simultaneously with Church purposes. The Church's broad philosophy of education, based on its broad view of the nature of man, causes the Church's expectations of the institution to cater to the total human development of every individual involved with the institute. No conflict is seen between national goals and church expectations. For this purpose, therefore, let the institute be so incorporated into the State of Papua New Guinea as to become a legally recognized identity in the country.

The courses of study should be constructed as to allow graduates a maximum opportunity for career advancement as well as providing every opportunity for

maximum intellectual and spiritual growth and development according to each individual's needs and ability.

Wherever possible, the planning of the institute should harmonize with national planning and avoid reduplication, except where matters of religious principles and the freedom of choice is involved.

The institute is characterized by authentic freedom. Real freedom must be distinguished from a licence to do whatever one pleases. Real freedom involves the weighing of the moral values of a situation and freely opting for the behaviour which the inner value of conscience indicates to be correct. The atmosphere of authentic freedom in the institute brings the students to the realization that their true dignity consists in freedom which makes them, and only them, responsible before God for their behaviour. It follows that there can be no place for indoctrination in the institution.

Freedom of belief is sacred in the institute. There will be authority in the institution, but there will not be authoritarianism. Authority is the wise guidance provided by the mature person to assist the immature person to grow towards his true fulfillment as a human being. In the institution, therefore, let the young citizens of Papua New Guinea learn what real freedom is, and the responsibilities that follow along with real freedom. Let them learn to respect the beliefs and values of their fellow students who also enjoy real freedom.

Let the institution be an open institute. It is open to all who have an interest in what it is doing. It is open to government officials as well as church officials, to parents of the students, to local community leaders. It is open to cultural values and to national values. It is open to Papua New Guinea cultures. The institute will be open to and include in its curriculum all those aspects of Papua New Guinea culture which Christ Himself would value, support and enrich. Because the institution is open, it will be very adaptable to the needs of the people. It will serve the country through its relevance.

Because Christianity respects women, let the institute have a special interest in providing educational opportunities for women. Parents must favour the institution as a place where their daughters can grow and mature in peace, safety and respect. Let the institute encourage women to take an active part in national life and in improving the status of women in society.

The Christian way of life puts emphasis on the value of work, on self-reliance and on service. These values will, therefore, find expression in the institute and will flow out from the institution into Papua New Guinea society as students graduate.

Papua New Guinea is a pluralistic society. It has many sub-cultures, a variety of races and a variety of religions. A pluralistic society requires a pluralism in its educational institutions, if it is to survive. Let this institute serve the nation by providing such pluralism. Furthermore, a healthy professional competition results in improved standards, and provides avenues for innovation and experimentation which also produce greater quality in education.

Preserving simplicity and beauty in form and design, let the buildings of the institute reflect both the functional and frugal characteristics of the founders and the legitimate aspirations and resources of Papua New Guinea people.

Let this institute be dedicated to the Second Person of the Blessed Trinity - the Divine Word.

Appendix B: Sample Interview Questions

1. Could you describe a typical day of work for you? Describe what you did yesterday from the moment you arrived at work? Could you list some of the activities you are engaged while at work?
2. On what sort of occasions do you meet with other members of the staff? Can you give me examples of issues discussed during these meetings? I understand coffee breaks are popular with the staff? Could you explain why this is so?
3. You have worked in other institutions before coming to DWU. Describe the similarities and differences in your experiences. Can you explain why there are the differences/similarities?
4. Research is stated as one of the three primary functions of DWU and indeed six weeks are set aside for research at the end of the school year. Describe for me what research means at DWU. In what research activities did you spend your research time at the end of last year?
5. What would career advancement mean to you? What do you need to do in order to advance further? Do you find your job fulfilling? Describe why.
6. What is the range of your responsibilities? How many hours a week do you teach? How many subjects are you required to teach? Describe how you think your teaching would be improved. Besides your teaching duties, what else is expected of you?
7. Could you describe for me the kinds of rewards that are given in recognition of performance? Could you give me some examples? Have you been a recipient?
8. Could you describe how your work is facilitated? What sorts of facilities are provided for your use in the course of your work?
9. Describe how you keep informed about the developments in your area of specialization. Could you give examples for instance, the journals you read or conferences you attend etc? How many conferences have you attended in the last two years?
10. Could you give me examples of things that you do that are influenced by the vision and mission of DWU?
11. Describe how the academic structure of DWU works. How does it facilitate/or hinder your work? Describe times when you feel your participation has been meaningful.
12. What motivated you to come to DWU? Is DWU where you want to remain until you retire and why?
13. Do you feel your training is suitable for the level of work that you do? What kind of further training would you like and how do you think you can get this training?

Appendix C: DWU Staff Movements 2003 - 2006

Staff and Departments	Status	2003	2004	2005	2006	Year
ARTS (PNG-STUDIES)						
PG1 (Head 2003-2004)	L		x	x	x	1
PG2 (head 2005-2005)	L					4
PG3	L			x	x	2
PG4	V			x	x	2
PG5	L				x	3
PG6	L			x	x	2
PG7	L			x	x	2
PG8	R			x	x	2
PG9	R			x	x	2
PG10 (head 2005-2006)	L	x	x			2
PG11	L			rotated		2
PG12	L	Study leave	Study leave			2
PG13	L	x	x			2
PG14	V	x	x			2
PG15	L	x	x	x		1
BUSINESS STUDIES						
BS1 (Head until 2005)	L					4
BS2	L			x	x	2
BS3	V		x	x	x	1
BS4	L				x	3
BS5	L					4
BS6	L					4
BS7	L				x	3
BS8	L				x	3
BS9	V	x			x	2
BS10 (head 2005)	L				x	3
BS11 (head 2006...)	L	x	x	x		1
BS12	L	x	x	x		1
BS13	V	x	x	x		1
COMMUNICATION ARTS						
CA1(Head to 2004)	R					4
CA2	L					4
CA3	L	sessional	x	x	x	1
CA4	V			x	x	2
CA5	R		x	x	x	1
CA6	L			Study leave		3
CA7	L					4
CA8	L			Study leave		3
CA9	L	x				3

CA10	V	x	x			2
CA11	?	x	x	Visiting scholar	x	1
CA12 (head 2004-2006)	V	x			x	2
CA13	L	x	x	x		1
CA14	L	x	x	x		1
ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH						
EH1 (Head)	L					4
EH2	L					4
EH3	L				x	3
EH4	L					4
EH5	L					4
EH6	L					4
EH7	L				x	3
HEALTH EXTENSION						
HE1 (Head)	L				x	3
HE2	L					4
HE3	L					4
HE4	L					4
HE5	L					4
HE6	L					4
HE7	L					4
HE8	L					4
HE9	L					4
HE10	L					4
HE11	L					4
HE12	L					4
HE13	L					4
HE14	L					4
HE15	L					4
HEALTH ADMINISTRATION						
HA1 (Head)	L			rotated	x	3
HA2	L			x	x	2
HA3	L			x	x	2
HA4	L		x	x	x	1
HA5	R					4
HA6	L					4
HA7	L			x	x	2
HA8	L	x	x			2
HA9	L	x	x			2
HA10	L	x	x	x		1
PHYSIOTHERAPY						
PY1 (Head)	V		x	x	x	1
PY2	V			x	x	1
PY3	V	x	x			2
PY4	V	x	x			2
INFORMATION SYSTEMS						
IS (Head)	R					4
IS2	L					4
IS3	L					4
IS4	L	x	x			2
IS5	R	Study leave	Study leave			2

IS6	L	x	x	x		1
RELIGIOUS STUDIES						
RS1(Head)	R					4
RS2	R		x	x	x	1
RS3	R		x	x	x	1
RS4	R		x	x	x	1
RS5	L					4
RS6	R	x		x	x	1
RS7	L	x				3
RS8	R	x				3
RS9	R	x		x	x	1
RS10	V			x	x	2
RA11	R	x	x			2
RS12	R	x	x		x	1
TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT						
TH1 (Head)	V		x	x	x	1
TH2	L			x	x	2
TH3	L			x	x	2
TH4	V	x			x	2
TH5	V	x			x	2
TH6	L					4
TH7	L	Study leave	Study leave			2
TH8	L	Study leave	Study leave			2
TH9	L	x	x	x		1
TDEC						
TD1(Head)	L			x	x	2
TD2	L				x	3
TD3	L				x	3
TD4	L				x	3
TD5	L					4
TD6	L				x	3
TD7	L	x				3
TD8	R	x	x			2
TD9	L	x	x			2
TD10	R	x	x			2
TD11	L	x	x	x		1
TD12	L	x	x	x		1

Appendix D: Letter of Introduction

24 May 2004

Dear Colleagues,

Now that I have been around for two weeks, I thought I should brief you all about what I am doing back at DWU, in case some of you may have been asking or wondering about who I am and what I am doing.

To quite a few of you, I seem a new face around the campus. But to many, I have a long association with DWU and still have. Only, I have been absent for 1 1/3yr of a 4-year study leave.

During the absence, I have been attending Victoria University, (VU) in Melbourne, Australia. For, those who come from Melbourne, it is a great place to be. But if you visit there for any length of time, you quickly get socialized into the AFL culture. Melbournians are insanely passionate about their brand of football, almost the same kind of passion Papua New Guineans bring to State of Origin rugby league.

Anyway, despite spending some time watching AFL, my main reason for being in Melbourne is study. I am in my second year of PhD work, which is what brings me back here.

What I am researching is the academic/university culture of DWU. It is an exploration of what the culture is and the factors that are shaping it. Whatever culture the data reveals, the study may contribute a model of a university shaped by the realities here, which whilst it may be specifically relevant to DWU (hopefully), it may or may not be relevant elsewhere.

For the next four months, I will be collecting data. These include relevant documents, observation notes and interviews. Some of you will be invited to participate in the interviews. I have met with some Heads of Departments and senior academic managers and briefed them of what I am doing. I am sure, you will find me attending and participating in meetings (as a member of the academic staff) or just being actively involved in life here. So, if you see me scribbling on a note pad, I am trying to scribble what I observe happening.

And so, I am looking forward to being with you all for the next four months. The assistance I have received so far is encouraging and much appreciated. I have no doubt I can count on your continued assistance and cooperation. In due course I will be inviting some of you to participate in the interviews. I am sure you will accept without any hesitation.

For the time being, I am working out of Room 9 in the Admin Building. If I can be of assistance to anyone, please feel free to drop by for a chat.

Sincerely,

Ludmilla Luddy Salonda

Appendix E: Letter of Invitation

Victoria University

PO Box 14428

MELBOURNE CITY MC VIC 8001
Australia

Telephone:

(03) 9688 5021

Facsimile:

(03) 9689 4069

Email:

Ludmilla.salonda@research.vu.edu.au

Education

Ludmilla Salonda

Research Student

Footscray Park Campus

Ballarat Road
Footscray

Attachment A: Letter of Invitation to Participate in a Research Project.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I would like to invite you to take part in a research project: *Exploration of a University Culture: A Papua New Guinea Case Study*.

The attached *Information to Participants* outlines the project for your consideration. This document also outlines the focus for the interview questions. Interviews will be carried out in a location where you are comfortable and at a negotiated time. Interviews will take between three quarters of an hour to an hour and a half.

Your assistance in being able to carry out this project is much appreciated. The interviews will be a way of reflecting on your work as an academic which will have benefits for DWU and Papua New Guinea as they explore ways to make higher education relevant.

If you have further questions, I can be contacted through:

Email: Ludmilla.salonda@research.vu.edu.au

Phone: 61 3 9 6885021

Fax: 61 3 96884646

We would then work out an interview time. Thank you for your time and interest.

Yours Sincerely,

Ms Ludmilla Salonda
School of Education,
Victoria University

Appendix G: Interview Schedule

Name	Date	Time	Place
Anthony	Friday, 3 September	8- 10 am confirmed	Rm 9 Admin bldg
Helen	Tuesday, 7 September	2-4 pm confirmed	Dept Office
Maurice	Thursday, 9 September	8-10 confirmed	Dept Office
Virgo	Thursday, 9 September	10.45	Room 9 Admin bldg
Roman	Friday, 10 September	4-5 pm <i>confirmed</i>	Home
Daniel	Friday, 10 September	3:00 -2.30 pm <i>Confirmed</i>	huswin
Sylvester	Monday, 13 September	4-5 <i>confirmed</i>	home
Denise	Monday, 13 September	4-5 yet to <i>confirmed</i>	home
David	Wednesday, 15 September	1 .30 pm <i>confirmed</i>	Room 9
Amir	Thursday, 16 September	9-11 am (<i>needs reminder on 14 or 15</i>)	Room 9 Admin bldg
Gerald	Friday, 17 September	1 1.30am to confirm perhaps pm?	Rm9 Admin bldg
Ronald	Monday, 20 September	2-4pm to confirm	Dept office
	Tuesday, 21 September		
Florence	Thursday 23 September	1 .30 pm confirmed	Rm9 Admin bldg
Amelia	Thursday 23 September	3pm -3.30pm Confirmed	Rm9 Admin bldg
Lynda	Friday, 24 September	1 .00pm confirmed	Rm9 Admin bldg
Elias	Monday, 27 September	Yet to confirm	Dept Office

Appendix H: President's Letter

Faculty of Human Research Ethics Committee
School of Education
Victoria University
PO Box 1442B
Melbourne City MC Vic 8001
AUSTRALIA

Fax: 61 3 96884646

January 5, 2004

To Whom It May Concern:

Ms. Ludimilla Salonda, an employee of Divine Word University in Madang, Papua New Guinea (PNG), is currently on study leave at Victoria University pursuing her doctorate.

Ms. Salonda will be returning to PNG to conduct research. Divine Word University approves the use of the University's premises and community members, which includes students and staff of the University, by Ms. Salonda for the purpose of research. DWU understands that Ms. Salonda will be undertaking interviews, observing the staff, and analysing documents that deal with academic staff concerns, structures, policies and practices. These will include the manuals (administrative and academic); minutes of meetings (departments, Academic Board, Committee, and relevant Cabinet minutes), the DWU Charter, vision mission etc.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if additional information is required.

Yours sincerely,

Fr. Jan Czuba
President

Cc: File

Appendix I: DWU's Organizational Chart

